

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
CONGRUENCE OF FAMILY MEMBERS'
PERCEPTIONS OF EACH OTHER AND
MARITAL AND CHILD ADJUSTMENT

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONGRUENCE OF FAMILY MEMBERS' PERCEPTIONS OF EACH OTHER AND MARITAL AND CHILD ADJUSTMENT

By

Deborah Rudisill Allen

This study investigated the interrelationships between: congruence of marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions by mate; marital adjustment and satisfaction; congruence of parents' perceptions of their child; and child adjustment. On the basis of previous theory and research, it was hypothesized that all of these variables would be found to be positively intercorrelated.

The Locke-Wallace Scale, the Interpersonal Checklist, and the Children's Behavior Checklist were used to assess marital adjustment and satisfaction, self- and mate-perceptions, and parents' perceptions of their child, respectively. The Children's Behavior Checklist was also used to derive a measure of child adjustment. Both fathers and mothers of 97 children age five to seven completed all three checklists. Statistical analyses indicated that all of the variables were positively

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correlated, with most of the correlations reaching significance at the .05 level. No significant differences were found according to the sex of the child or the sex of the parent. A theoretical rationale for the development of the relationships found in this study was suggested. The development of congruence of marital partners' perceptions about basic aspects of family life was postulated to be necessary for family adjustment. The possible influence of perceptual biases was also discussed. Recommendations for further research to investigate the application of the present findings to early identification of potentially maladjusted children were proposed.

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Deborah Rudisill Allen

A THESIS

**Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of**

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology

1974

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Gratitude is also expressed to all of the parents who took part in this research, and to Robert Dave, Mary Mueller, and Chris Johnson for their patient help with statistical analysis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Chapter

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It has been assumed that if "high risk" children can be identified early in their lives they can most easily be helped and their problems most effectively removed. Very few studies have focused on early identification of parents and prospective parents, whose child-rearing values and attitudes, and actual behavior with children, might be highly predictive of their children's development of psychological problems. [The overall purpose of this study is to discover the relationships between: differences in marital partners' perceptions of each other; marital dissatisfaction; differences in marital partners' perceptions of their children; and child maladjustment. If these factors are found to be highly correlated, there will be implications for treatment of maladjusted children. These may involve focusing interventions more on the family as a whole or just the marital partners rather than focusing mainly on the child.

Family-oriented therapy might include specific procedures to reduce discrepancies in marital partners' perceptions of each other as well as work on specific conflict areas. If high correlations among these factors

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are found in the expected directions there will also be implications for using the marital perception or dissatisfaction measures as a screening device to identify prospective parents whose children may have a high likelihood of becoming psychologically disturbed.

The Importance of Looking at Perception

In an attempt to isolate factors which lead to marital satisfaction or dissatisfaction, much research has concentrated on the importance of specific attitudes, behaviors, or personality traits of the partners. In doing so, the intervening variable of perception has been neglected. There have been few studies which have examined behavioral consequences of perceptual differences. The few studies that have explored this issue have provided evidence which suggests that perceptual differences do have consequences for overt behavior. E. G. Kelley (1950) found that students interacted less in a class when they perceived their instructor to be cold than when they perceived him to be warm.

According to Corsini (1956), psychologists are progressing toward a formulation of a general theory of human behavior which embraces perception, behavior, and consequences. This formulation hypothesizes that consequences, such as happiness, are a function of behavior, which is in turn a function of perception. The stimuli

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which each partner perceives are more important than the actual attitudes, behaviors, etc. For example, if one partner does not perceive a certain trait in his spouse, then that trait will not affect his behavior and the consequences will likewise remain unchanged.

Heider (1958) points out that perceiving is experienced as a direct contact with the environment. It is the way in which objective facts enter the subjective environment of the person. But it is actually not the objective facts which enter the person's subjective environment; it is rather the person's experience of the objective facts--his perceptions. According to Rogers (1951), the person reacts to the field as it is perceived; for the individual, the perceptual field is reality.

A number of variables influence perception. Partyka (1971) points out that the stimulus is interpreted by a perceiver in light of his past experiences; he reacts to the stimulus according to the meaning it holds for him. Laing, Phillipson and Lee (1966) have elaborated this point. They state that the experience of another person involves not only the perception of his behavior but the interpretation of it as well. A husband perceives and reacts to his wife according to how he interprets her behavior. Similarly, the wife's perceptions and reactions depend on the meaning her husband's behavior has for her. Even if two individuals perceive an act as the same, their interpretations of it may be very different. For example,

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Similarly, a husband may see himself as masculine while his wife sees him as overbearing and dominating. The behaviors are the same, but their interpretations, and therefore the experiences of them, are distinct. Laing et al (1966) point out that when two people disagree as to the meaning assigned to a particular act, unless there is optimum communication, there is often misunderstanding and a failure of realization of misunderstanding.

As Kelly (1941) points out, each of the two individuals entering into a marriage relationship has certain opinions concerning himself and his mate which may or may not coincide with objective fact. The important factor in determining their compatibility does not seem to be their actual relative positions on a continuum of personality traits but rather each partner's perceptions and interpretations of their relative positions. It would seem logical, then, to study the importance of perceptions for marital satisfaction rather than attempting to determine the objective factors which influence the relationship. As a number of investigators have pointed out, the objective state of affairs and a person's perception of that state of affairs may or may not be highly correlated. In support of this notion, an unpublished study reported by Kelly (1941) found that engaged persons perceive that they are much more

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For these reasons, the present study will focus on family members' perceptions, rather than on independent observers' assessments of behavior. It is the interaction of family members' behavior and how the other family members perceive that behavior that determines what goes on in the family, not an outside observer's perception of what goes on in the family.

In this study, perception will be measured with questionnaires in order to assess a wide variety of behaviors and traits in a relatively short amount of time.

Marital Partners' Self- and Spouse-Perceptions and Marital Satisfaction

A number of theorists have tried to ascertain the ingredients necessary for marital compatibility, and two diametric theories have been widely discussed. One theory suggests that individuals adjust to one another best when their personalities are complementary. Winch (1952) suggests that rather than opposites attracting, this situation is more like the intermeshing of cogwheels. The opposing theory is that of homogamy, the idea that individuals adjust to one another best when their personalities are very similar. LaPiere and Farnsworth (1949) offer experimental support for the homogamy hypothesis. They note that almost all studies of assortative mating

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Similarity also seems to be related to marital satisfaction. Dymond (1953, 1954), using 115 MMPI items, and Corsini (1956), using a 50-item adjective Q-sort, found that self-ratings of husbands and wives were significantly more similar in groups of happily married couples than in groups of less happily married couples. Kotlar (1965) found that while self-ratings of happily married couples did not differ significantly on the DOM dimension of the ICL, self-ratings of unhappy couples did differ significantly.

A study by Broxton (1963) suggests that the actual similarity may not be the most significant factor in attraction and subsequent happiness. Broxton found that interpersonal attraction of college roommates was significantly more related to perceived similarity than to objective similarity of self-other descriptions. Broxton's data indicated that the greater the perceived attitudinal similarity in regard to the self, the greater the interpersonal attraction among roommates; the results were significant at the .0005 level. Broxton's findings support Heider's (1958) balance theory that perceived similarity of the other to the self is related to the degree of social attraction to the other. Stated differently, if a person perceives another person as being similar to himself, he is more likely to be attracted to that person than if he

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perceives him as being very different from himself. Painter (1968) investigated the converse of this hypothesis, that a person who is perceived as very dissimilar to one-self is likely to be socially rejected. Using a number of target groups which included blacks and Jews, Painter investigated the degree to which the person perceived the group and an individual in that group as being different from himself and his ideal self. When he correlated the results with a measure of social rejection, he found that perceived dissimilarity of the other to the self and to the ideal self were significantly correlated with desired social distance.

A study by Fiedler, Warrington, and Blaisdell (1952) provides further support for Heider's theory. Fiedler et al found that subjects perceived fellow group members whom they liked best as more similar to themselves and to their ideal selves than those they liked least. However, results indicated that subjects' self-descriptions were not actually more similar to the self-descriptions of those they liked best than to those they liked least. They were only more similar to what they thought the self-descriptions of those they liked best would be. These results are similar to Broxton's (1963) findings. Similarly, Levinger and Breedlove (1966) found that assumed agreement of marital partners was higher than actual agreement, with assumed agreement being positively correlated with marital adjustment and satisfaction. Palonen (1966) found that

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self-report discrepancy scores were not significantly correlated with marital adjustment; however, her results indicated that mate-image discrepancy scores (wife's image of her husband compared to husband's image of his wife) were significantly related to marital adjustment; the correlation was negative. Hurley and Silvert (1966) found similarly that there was a significant negative correlation between spouses' mate-image discrepancy scores and marital adjustment. Again, this indicates the importance of how the marital partners perceive each other as opposed to their actual similarity.

Byrne and Blaylock (1963) have suggested that the magnitude and direction of the correlations between self-ratings and assumed spouse-ratings on attitude scales provides an index of marital satisfaction. Using Newcomb's (1961) model as a basis for their suggestion, they report that distortion in the perceived attitudes of marital partners helps bring about symmetrical relationships. Distortion of modest actual similarities in the direction of much greater agreement than is objectively present should only occur, according to the model, when two partners feel positively toward one another. There is the added impetus to identify with the partner provided by the love relationship, which leads to greater perceived similarity between them. Partners who are experiencing a great deal of conflict or who are contemplating divorce should not respond in this way.

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Preston et al (1952) point out that in marital relationships which are divided by conflict, discrimination between the self and the personality of the person on the other side is increased. What excites hope in one may excite despair in the other, and their differences may become more pronounced. People on opposite sides are apt to be more realistic in their evaluations of differences between their own personalities and the personalities of those who are opposed to them. Thus, happily married partners should perceive their spouses as being quite similar to themselves, very unhappy partners should perceive their spouses as being quite different from themselves, and moderately unhappy couples should lie somewhere in between.

The findings of Fiedler et al (1952) mentioned previously provide experimental evidence for these predictions. A study by Levinger and Breedlove (1966) found that marital satisfaction was significantly correlated with the degree to which a partner over- or underestimated in stating his assumed agreement with his spouse. These investigators found that a number of spouses who reported low marital satisfaction perceived even less agreement with their partners than was actually present. Perceived agreement was found to be positively correlated with marital satisfaction, as previously discussed; perceived agreement was also found to be significantly more important than actual agreement in predicting marital satisfaction. Preston

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et al (1952) and Tharp (1963) found similar high correlations between marital adjustment and congruence of self-report and mate-image ratings. Dymond (1954), however, found opposing results. In her study, a group of unhappily married couples made significantly more errors of assuming that the spouse was similar when he was different than errors where an actual similarity existed but a difference was predicted. These contradictory results indicate the need for further investigation.

Mangus (1957) has said that the integrative quality of a marriage is reflected in the degree of congruence between the way a partner perceives himself and the way he is perceived by his partner. A related aspect of Heider's (1958) balance theory states that interpersonal attraction is directly related to agreement in self-other evaluations of oneself. It would be expected that when there is a large discrepancy between the way a person perceives himself and the way his spouse perceives him, a state of imbalance would be created and conflict would result. In terms of roles, adaptive behavior in any continuing social situation such as a marriage depends on a reasonable harmony of role expectations between the participants. Problems arise when there are persistent disparities and unresolved conflicts in role expectations of the participants in the situation.

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Marriage, according to Mangus (1957a), is viewed as a process of reciprocal role perception, understanding, and performance on the part of the marital partners. The degree to which relevant role expectations are shared between the two partners is reflected in the integrative quality of their marriage. Mangus suggests that "the most pressing interpersonal problems in marriage arise out of disparities among the role concepts and self-concepts that are pertinent to the marriage situation." When husbands and wives differ widely with respect to their reciprocal role perceptions and role expectations, their role performances fail to integrate. Each becomes a threat to the other, and their marital behaviors may become defensive and maladaptive.

To summarize, Mangus (1957b) hypothesizes that the integrative quality of a marriage is reflected in the degree of congruence between the way each partner perceives his own role and the way that role is perceived by his spouse; in the degree of congruence between what a spouse expects in a partner and the degree to which his expectations find fulfillment in the partner he married; and in the degree to which the role expectations that one partner has of the other are congruent with the other's own role expectations.

Aspects of Mangus' theory have been tested experimentally by a number of investigators; however, the

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results have not been consistent. Hobart and Klausner (1959) found that marital role empathy, insight into the marital roles which the mate expects himself and his spouse to play, was less closely related to marital adjustment than psychological empathy, insight into how the mate rates himself as a person. An earlier study by Ort (1950), however, found congruence of role expectations to be a very important factor for marital satisfaction. Using a combined criterion of conflicts resulting from an individual's unrealized expectations of his role and the unrealized expectations of the role played by his mate, Ort found that the greater the number of conflicts perceived by the subject, the lower the happiness rating. High and low marital happiness groups were found to be significantly different in the average number of conflicts perceived. Husbands were found on the average to report twice as many unrealized role expectations for themselves as the wives. A study by Kirkpatrick and Hobart (1954) found similar results. Lack of strain in the performance of the husbands' roles was associated with both the husbands' and wives' happiness with their marriages. A departure by the husband from the modal rank ordering of role performances was a much greater source of strain for the wives than a wife's departure from the modal rank ordering was for the husbands. It appears from this finding that it is much more important for a husband to conform to stereotyped

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Jacobsen (1952) found similar significant sex differences in attitudes toward the roles of spouses in marriage. In addition, he reported that the disparity in attitudes toward the roles of husband and wife in marriage was on the average four times greater for divorced couples than for married couples. It appears, then, that congruence of role perceptions and expectations between marital partners is important for marital satisfaction. But Hobart and Klausner's (1959) findings that psychological empathy is more closely related to marital adjustment than marital role empathy must also be considered. A number of studies have investigated the relationship between psychological empathy and marital adjustment.

Dymond (1953, 1954) investigated the relationship between the understanding which each marital partner has of the other's self-concept and marital satisfaction. Using 115 MMPI items, Dymond found that happier couples showed significantly more accuracy in predicting the self-concepts of their partners than unhappy couples. Similarly, Luckey (1960a), using the ICL, found that in the group of satisfied couples there was significantly greater agreement of perception in regard to self and perception of self by spouse than in the group of dissatisfied couples. This is not surprising in light of previously discussed theory and experimental evidence. It seems logical that in marriages

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where congruence of perception is high, there would be more appropriate responses to the partner, expectations of the partner would be more appropriately met, each partner would be better able to anticipate and respond to the other's feelings, communication would be freer, and that, in general, a more satisfactory marital relationship would be reflected.

High communication has been found to be significantly related to marital adjustment (Hobart and Klausner, 1959), and Taylor (1967) has pointed out that inaccurate perception may be considered an index of lack of communication. Since shared perspectives, values, beliefs, definitions of situations, etc. are developed through communication acts, freedom of communication is seen as a prerequisite for friendly interpersonal relationships. Conversely, difficulties in interpersonal relations often occur through faulty or inadequate communication.

A number of investigators have found sex differences in the importance of congruence of self-perceptions and perceptions by spouse for marital satisfaction. Hobart and Klausner (1959), using three different scales, found that wives' ability to predict their husbands' responses was significantly related to marital adjustment; i.e., the greater the congruence between husbands' self-concepts and their wives' predictions of their self-concepts, the greater the marital satisfaction. No significant relationships were found between congruence of wives' self-concepts

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with husbands' predictions of them and marital satisfaction. Similarly, Corsini (1956) found that the only results which related significantly to marital happiness involved congruence between the husbands' self-ratings and their wives' ratings of them. Corsini concluded that happy husbands tend to rate themselves in a stereotyped manner and that their wives are able to predict the stereotype accurately. As with Kirkpatrick and Hobart's (1954) finding, it appears that women may differ from others of their sex without affecting marital happiness.

Several other studies have confirmed these findings. A study by Stuckert (1963) of recently married couples found that different factors were of prime importance in the satisfaction of husbands and wives. For the wives in the sample, the extent to which the wife's perception of her husband's expectations corresponded with his actual expectations was the dominant factor associated with marital happiness. For the husbands, the actual similarity between their own role concepts and expectations and those of their wives was the most important factor. The data from this study indicate that the husband's role definitions and expectations are more important to the early success of the marriage than the wife's. A study by Luckey (1960b), along with the studies previously mentioned, indicates that this relationship may be not limited to early success of the marriage. Using the ICL, Luckey found that for the wives, congruence of the husbands' perceptions of their

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wives with the wives' perceptions of themselves was significantly associated with marital adjustment on only one of the four scales. However, the mean discrepancies were greater on every scale for the less satisfactorily married group. Congruence of the wives' perceptions of their husbands and the husbands' self-perceptions was significantly related to satisfactory marriages on three of the four scales. Kotlar (1965), also using the ICL, found similar results; congruence of perception was significantly related to husbands' marital adjustment scores but not to wives' adjustment scores.

However, Taylor (1967), using the ICL, found that there were significant differences between the adjusted and unadjusted married groups when comparing self-perceptions of husbands vs. wives' perceptions of husbands; self-perceptions of wives vs. husbands' perceptions of wives; and total self-perceptions vs. mates' perceptions of that self. The present study will attempt to investigate the relationship between marital satisfaction and discrepancies in marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions of mates.

Marital Dissatisfaction and Child Maladjustment

Not all unsuccessful marriages involve children, but in those that do, the child is assuredly affected in a number of ways. Many contemporary behavioral scientists find the notion that the family is largely responsible for

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the mental health of the child a compelling one. Hoffman and Lipitt (1960) point out that marital tension has been linked to child adjustment indirectly in theories that state that marital tension leads to parental rejection 1) because the child symbolizes the parents' inability to dissolve the unhappy marriage, 2) because the child resembles the disliked spouse, 3) because the child becomes the scapegoat for uncommunicated areas of marital tension, and 4) because the parents have a generally low morale. For the most part, however, research has concentrated on the mother-child relationship and child rearing practices, with the mother's personality and developmental history being treated as the independent variables (Vogel and Bell, 1968). Only recently has the father-child relationship come into consideration as an independent variables and still more recently, the interaction of the parents.

LaPiere and Farnsworth (1949) have discussed the theoretical effects of an unhappy marriage on the child. They suggest that conflict between the parents places the child in a conflict position. Under relatively conflict-free circumstances in a family, the child will identify positively with both parents and will vicariously share their experiences. When severe conflict occurs between the parents, the child is put in the position of being positively identified with two people who are negatively identified with each other. Under these circumstances, the child's positive identification with one parent

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necessarily involves negative identification with the other. Frequently the result of these circumstances is that the child's loyalty vacillates from one parent to the other. This instability will be intensified by the parents if what the father suggests is countermanded by the mother, and vice versa. The present study will attempt to investigate the relationship between marital dissatisfaction and child maladjustment.

Vogel and Bell (1968) have described data from an intensive study of a small group of "disturbed" families, each with an emotionally disturbed child, and a matched group of "normal" families, each without clinically manifest disturbance in any child. In general, they found that both parents of the emotionally disturbed children had many of the same underlying conflicts but felt themselves to be at opposite poles. The spouses felt that they could not predict accurately how their partners would respond to their own behaviors. From previously discussed studies (e.g., Preston, et al, 1952), great discrepancies between self- and mate-images and between self-perceptions and mate perceptions of those selves would be expected. Vogel and Bell found that the many tensions which the parents were experiencing in the marriage relationship were quickly displaced on the first available and appropriate object, a child. They found that often one parent would encourage the opposite type of behavior. This permitted one partner to express annoyance to the other without causing overt

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conflicts in the marital relationship. The parents also sometimes explicitly criticized a behavior of the child but implicitly supported it. The effect of these parental behaviors was to require the child to deal with inconsistent pressures due to differences between explicit and implicit expectations, and with different sets of expectations. Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that the child would internalize the conflicts and begin to act in a disturbed manner. Spiegel (1957) has suggested similarly that when areas of tension between parents are not communicated the child becomes a scapegoat.

The disabling effects of parents' contradictory demands on their children have been widely discussed. Clark and van Sommers (1961) report that unsatisfactory relations between spouses were found to be associated with contradictory demands placed on the child. Contradictory demands placed by parents were found to be related to maladjusted behavior at school which involved attitude, achievement, conduct, peer relations, sports ability, and attendance. In the home, contradictory demands were found to be related to unsatisfactory amenability and to a variety of symptoms of maladjusted behavior. Clark and van Sommers noted that although contradictory demands were one way that unsatisfactory relations between parents were mediated to the child, the child's perception of the stability of his ground might also have an effect.

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A number of studies have reported similar findings. Gassner and Murray (1969) investigated the hypothesis that neurotic behavior patterns in children result from their being drawn into conflicts between the parents. Using the Revealed Differences Test, they found significantly more instances of disagreements and aggressions between the parents of neurotic children than between the parents of normal children. In addition, parents of the neurotic children failed to reach solutions which were acceptable to both parents in significantly more situations than parents of the normal children. They concluded that the actual problem behavior of the child appears to be determined by the nature of the conflicts between the parents. Parental conflict has been reported rather consistently in studies of schizophrenic children (Fontana, 1966), and Becker et al (1959) found some relationships between parental characteristics and the problems presented by emotionally disturbed children.

Porter (1955) investigated the influence of parental acceptance of the child on child behavior. He found a significant positive correlation between marital adjustment and parental acceptance of children. As Medinnus and Curtis (1963) have pointed out, the extent to which a child develops a positive self-concept depends on the extent to which he is accepted by significant others, typically his parents in early years. The child needs to feel that he is secure in his family group and has an important place in it.

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A study by McCord, McCord, and Howard (1961) involved observations of families with boys labeled as either aggressive, assertive, or non-assertive. They found that the parents of the aggressive boys exhibited a great deal of marital dissatisfaction and disagreement concerning methods of child rearing. They suggested in conclusion that parents who disagree on issues may produce a confused and relatively uninhibited child. Leton (1958) found that there was a wider disagreement in attitudes between mothers and fathers of a poorly adjusted group of children than between mothers and fathers of a well adjusted group of children. A later study by Vogel and Lauterbach (1965) found that behavior problem adolescents repeatedly perceived disparity between their parents while normal adolescents more often saw their parents as alike in attitudes and behavior. Once again this draws attention to the division and lack of harmony in the homes of the disturbed children. In clinical contacts with the families of the behavior problem adolescents, Vogel and Lauterbach noted that the problems of the boys seemed intertwined with the marital problems of their parents. Thus there does seem to be a connection between parental differences and child maladjustment. The nature of this relationship, however, has not yet been clarified.

Heider (1958) points out that the introduction of a third person into an existing pair almost always either strengthens or weakens the relationship between pair

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members; the degree of association or dissociation between pair members rarely remains unchanged. Dyer (1963) found that the birth of the first child to the urban, middle class married couple constituted a crisis to a considerable degree. She reported that the degree of crisis was significantly related to the marital adjustment scores both before and after the birth of the child. Those couples whose marriage was stronger experienced less crisis when their first child was born. Those couples who experienced a great deal of crisis at the birth of their first child had significantly poorer marital adjustment following the birth than those who experienced only a minor degree of crisis. An earlier study by Landis and Landis (1948) revealed related results. In looking at 409 marriages of parents of college students, they found that the care and disciplining of the children had ranked next to sex among the problems on which they had failed to reach satisfactory adjustments. In a study of marriages of younger couples, disagreements over child training were one of the top three focal points of friction, with economic difficulties and trouble with in-laws being the other two.

According to Heider's theory, the relationship between the original pair should change least if the affinities of the father to the child, the mother to the child, and the father to the mother are about the same. If, for example, the mother becomes so absorbed in the new child that she neglects her husband, a state of imbalance is created. The

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husband may criticize the wife and all her methods of training the child simply because he resents taking second place in her affections. The father will probably feel less close to the child than the mother, and correspondingly less close to the mother. This theoretical situation might result in family situations such as those which have just been discussed, where the father and the mother are in conflict and see the child in different ways. However, this is by no means the only way these situations might occur.

Perception and Child Maladjustment

A number of ways in which parental conflict or dissatisfaction with their marriage may affect the child have been discussed. A more general type of situation may provide a more parsimonious explanation for how and why parental conflicts affect children. Ferreira (1964) examined family triads consisting of a father, a mother, and a child at least ten years of age, and categorized the families as normal or pathological. Ferreira found that children in both normal and pathological families were significantly more perceptive of rejecting behavior than adults. In addition, some preliminary work by Stollak has suggested that perceptual biases toward child behavior exist and influence adult responses to an indirect projective measure. Stollak differentiated between negative and positive perceptual biases as follows: when an approximately equal number of positive and negative behaviors are emitted by

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the individual being perceived, a person with a negative perceptual bias would perceive the individual as emitting more negative behaviors and a person with a positive perceptual bias would perceive the person as emitting more positive behaviors. A negative perceptual bias in one or both parents, then, combined with the child's greater ability to perceive rejecting behavior, could have enormous effects on the child's perception of himself. Ausubel et al (1954) suggested that the essential relationship is not that between expressed parental attitudes and child adjustment but rather the relationship between the child's perception of his familial environment and his adjustment. A study by Serot and Teevan (1961) supports Ausubel et al's hypothesis. These investigators found that well adjusted children perceived the parent-child relationship as relatively happy whereas maladjusted children did not. What implications does this have for the present investigation?

If the child does not perceive the parents' rejecting behavior, it cannot influence him. But the fact that the child is more perceptive of rejecting behavior than the parents suggests that he may be more sensitive to conflict in the family than the parents. Hoffman and Lipitt (1960) have pointed out that marital tension has been linked to child maladjustment somewhat directly in the theory that the child perceives the tension between his parents and

consequently feels insecure about his own place in the family.

A discrepancy between the parents' perceptions of their child due to a marital conflict may therefore be quickly and easily perceived by the child, and consequently may create ambiguity in the child's perception of himself. Wyer (1965) has suggested that a discrepancy between parents' perceptions of their child along a given dimension may prevent the child from acquiring a perception of himself as either high or low along this dimension. In addition, anywhere he places himself along this dimension will be incongruent with the way he is perceived by at least one significant other (parent). Wyer suggests that this conflict may lead to unstable self-perceptions and lack of self-acceptance along that particular dimension. The more dimensions on which the parents disagree, the less stable the child's self-perceptions will be. Another possible effect of differences between parents' perceptions of the child is that the child may be prevented from learning behavior patterns that will lead to consistent positive evaluation by others and therefore to positive self-evaluation. In this study, the relationship between marital dissatisfaction and discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child will be investigated.

A study by Medinnus (1961) found that there was a wide range of agreement between individual parents about real and ideal behavior of their children. Although he did not

relate this to child adjustment, Medinnus suggested that it is these differences which most crucially affect the child's behavior and adjustment. A certain amount of discrepancy in role demands by parents may be useful in that it provides the child with practice in role playing. Medinnus has suggested that with too little practice in role-playing in the home, the child might be ill equipped for meeting the demands of other significant adults outside the home. But with too large a discrepancy in parental role prescriptions, conflict is produced in the child; he is unable to meet the role prescriptions of both parents, especially when they require opposing types of behavior, and he must determine exactly when each of the roles is required of him. Thus Medinnus is postulating a relationship between the amount of discrepancy between parents in their role prescriptions for the child and the child's consequent conflict and maladjustment which is similar to the findings of studies by Dymond (1953, 1954), Corsini (1956), Hobart and Klausner (1959), Luckey (1960a, 1960b), Stuckert (1963), Kotlar (1965), and Taylor (1967) for married couples. These latter studies indicated that although a certain amount of discrepancy in perceptions of self vs. mate perceptions of self was associated with marital satisfaction, large discrepancies in perception were associated with marital dissatisfaction.

Ferreira (1964), in his study of children's and parents' perceptions of rejection, found that mutuality of

perceptions was found in normal homes significantly more often than chance, but that it was almost completely absent in abnormal (pathological) families. He concluded that accurate interpersonal perception depends not only on the individual but may also have a relationship component which depends on some sort of mutuality and reciprocity among family members being considered. This study will attempt to investigate the relationship between discrepancies in marital partners self and spouse perceptions and discrepancies in their perceptions of their child.

Mangus (1957a), in an expansion of his theory about marital partners to include children, has suggested similarly that the family is unified by the bonds of the reciprocal familial statuses occupied by its members and by the reciprocal roles enacted by its members in their performance of family functions. The family, like the marriage relationship, operates in terms of reciprocal role expectations, role perceptions, and role enactments.

Van der Veen, Huebner, Jorgens, and Neja (1964) studied the relation of family adjustment to parents' agreement in perception by asking mothers and fathers independently to describe their family with the Family Concept Q-sort. Parents of low adjustment children showed significantly less agreement in their perceptions than the parents of the high adjustment children. Van der Veen et al concluded that "this result strongly supports the hypothesis that one aspect of family adjustment is the amount of agreement

between the father and mother in the way they perceive the family, and that less adequate family functioning is associated with less agreement between the family concepts of the parents." The present study will attempt to investigate the relationship between discrepancies in marital partners' perceptions of each other and themselves and child maladjustment.

Wyer (1963) found that self-acceptance scores of families whose parents showed low discrepancy in evaluating their daughters were significantly higher than those of females whose parents showed relatively high discrepancies in their perceptions. A corresponding relationship was not found for males. However, sons of parents whose attitudes toward college were similar had higher academic effectiveness than sons of parents whose attitudes towards college were more dissimilar; a corresponding relationship was not found among females. This seems to suggest a differential importance placed on certain characteristics by parents for their daughters as compared to their sons, or differential effects of parental agreement for the two sexes. Parents may not differ on all aspects of their children's behavior; the areas on which they do differ may be sex-dependent. Similarly, the effects of their disagreement may be different for each sex.

Although Medinnus (1961) was not concerned with adjustment, he did report a trend toward higher interparent correlations for parents of boys than for parents of girls.

Medinnus suggested that this might be because boys, being more active and having more obvious and overt behaviors, do not leave much room for doubt about their behaviors. In addition, the nature of their behaviors and personalities may require greater interparent discussion concerning them than is necessary for girls.

Partyka (1971) found similar results related to child adjustment. Her study demonstrated that the ratings of parents of five to seven year old non-clinic males on the Children's Behavior Checklist showed significantly greater agreement than the ratings of parents of five to seven year old clinic males. However, parents of clinic females of that age range showed greater agreement in their ratings than parents of non-clinic females. Because behavior appropriate for females is less stringently defined than that which is appropriate for males, it is likely that, in general, parents' expectations of their sons would be more similar than the expectations of their daughters. This is not to say that they would be alike for parents of males--only that there would probably be a tendency for them to be more alike than those of parents of females. This would explain Medinnus' (1961) findings. It would seem to follow from this that inappropriate or maladjusted behavior would be noticed more quickly and easily in males than in females, and that male children with problems would be brought to a clinic at an earlier stage of maladjustment than female children. By the time a female child

appears in a clinic, her behavior may be so bizarre that it would be difficult for parents not to agree on it. Boys' disturbed behavior would not have to be as salient as females' for the child to be brought to a clinic, and therefore the parents would be more likely to have retained their differing perceptions of their child. The present study will attempt to investigate the relationship between discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child and child maladjustment. Becker et al (1959) have suggested that the differences in the way parents perceive and treat the child are another example of parental conflict and disharmony.

We have considered the evidence for the relationship between marital conflict and dissatisfaction, and discrepancy between self-perception and perception of self by mate; the relationship between parental conflict and child maladjustment; the relationship between marital dissatisfaction and scapegoating of and placing of contradictory demands on the child; the superiority of children's perceptivity and the tentative relationships found between discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child and child maladjustment. It seems likely that within families, marital dissatisfaction, discrepancies between self-perceptions and perception of self by mate, discrepancies in parents' perceptions of the child, and child adjustment are all interrelated. In the light of these assumed

relationships and the experimental evidence presented, the following hypotheses have been proposed:

- H1) There is a significant positive correlation between discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child and child maladjustment.
- H2) There is a significant positive correlation between marital dissatisfaction and child maladjustment.
- H3) There is a significant positive correlation between discrepancies in marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions of self by mate, and child maladjustment.
- H4) There is a significant positive correlation between discrepancies in marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions of self by mate, and their discrepancies in perception of their child.
- H5) There is a significant positive correlation between self-image and mate-image discrepancies and discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child.
- H6) There is a significant positive correlation between self-image and mate-image discrepancies and marital dissatisfaction.
- H7) There is a significant positive correlation between marital dissatisfaction and discrepancies

in marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions of self by mate.

- H8) There is a significant positive correlation between marital dissatisfaction and discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

The total sample consisted of 97 families, each of which included a father, a mother, and a child in the five to seven year age range. Subjects were selected in the following manner: letters to the parents requesting their cooperation in a research study were distributed to all of the kindergarten, first, and second grade children in the Holt, Michigan, Public School System. A copy of the letter is found in Appendix A. The letters were distributed in the children's school classes. The children were requested to take the letters home to their parents. Parents who were willing to participate were asked to fill out an attached, stamped, addressed post card and return it to the experimenter.

Two hundred and four families returned the post cards, indicating their willingness to participate in the study. These families were then mailed a packet containing the following: a letter thanking them for agreeing to participate and containing instructions for completing the instruments; a background information sheet; two copies of the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (L-W); two

copies of the Interpersonal Checklist (ICL); two copies of the Children's Behavior Checklist (CBCL); and a preaddressed stamped envelope in which to return the completed instruments. Copies of the letter, information sheet, and each of the instruments are found in Appendices B, C, D, E, and F, respectively. Completed questionnaires were scrutinized carefully to check for the possibility of collaboration by parents. No obvious examples of collaboration were found.

Since sensitive and concerned parents are more likely to volunteer to participate in child development research, results using only the described sample would presumably be biased in the well-adjusted direction. In order to compensate for this, an attempt was made to include in the sample parents of children, ages five to seven, who had been brought to the Michigan State University Psychological Clinic within the past five months for assessment and/or treatment. This was done in an attempt to insure participation of parents of some children at the lower end of the adjustment scale. Nine two-parent families were found which met these criteria. Since parents of children brought to the clinic are routinely asked to fill out Children's Behavior Checklists, packets containing all but this instrument were mailed to these nine families.

Of the 204 families who agreed to participate in this study, 110 returned the packets. Of these 110, sixteen had to be discarded because they were incomplete. Of the nine clinic families who were asked to participate, three

returned completed packets. A total of 97 families were used as ss. This included parents of 45 female children and 52 male children, with ages ranging from five to seven years.

Instruments and Procedure

The Locke-Wallace Scale (L-W) was used as a measure of marital adjustment and satisfaction. This scale consists of fifteen items relating to different aspects of marital life. Locke and Wallace (1959), using 236 subjects, found that this scale had a split-half reliability of .90 (corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula). In addition, using two groups of 48 subjects each, matched for age and sex, Locke and Wallace found that this scale clearly differentiated between persons who were well-adjusted and persons who were maladjusted in marriage. A copy of the Locke-Wallace Scale is included in Appendix D. A copy of the scoring key for the Locke-Wallace is included in Appendix G.

A Locke-Wallace Scale was completed by each husband and each wife. Separate scores were determined for the husband and wife. In addition, an average marital adjustment score was determined for each couple by calculating the mean of the husband's and wife's scores. A fourth marital adjustment score, a discrepancy score, was determined by subtracting the husband's L-W score from that of the wife.

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The Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) was chosen as the instrument to measure self- and other-concepts. This scale consists of a list of 128 descriptive items selected to represent interpersonal variables. Instructions to subjects marking the ICL solicit direct, conscious, verbal responses which tap the S's perception and his willingness to express this perception. Operationally, the self- and other-concepts were defined for the purpose of this study in terms of all the statements an individual makes about himself or his world as they are represented by the checklist items.

Each S filled out the checklist for himself and for his spouse. Thus, for each family unit, there were four sets of ICL scores: the husband's perceptions of himself (H); the husband's perceptions of his wife (H-W); the wife's perceptions of herself (W); and the wife's perceptions of her husband (W-H). For each of these four concepts, an item-by-item score was determined as follows: if an item was checked, it was given a score of one; if an item was left blank, it was given a score of zero. So, for each concept, there was a score of one or zero for each of the 128 items. In order to determine the agreement between concepts, as specified in the hypotheses, inter-item phi coefficients were calculated for each of the necessary comparisons. E.g., to determine the amount of agreement between H and W-H, the phi coefficient between the 128 H scores and the 128 W-H scores was calculated.

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scores and the 128 W-H scores was calculated. A copy of the ICL is included in Appendix E.

The instrument used to assess parental perceptions of their children is a checklist of 154 interpersonal and symptomatic items referring to the behavior of children. This Children's Behavior Checklist (CBCL) was compiled by Ferguson, MacKenzie, and Does at Michigan State University. The items for the CBCL were taken from parents' descriptions of children and from observations of children in play therapy and in classes for the emotionally disturbed. An attempt was made to include readily observable rather than inferential behavior items. The checklist consists of two columns: one asks about the child, "Is he ever this way?" and the other asks, "Is he this way most of the time?". The parent is asked to go through the checklist twice, the first time checking those items which sometimes apply to the child, and the second time marking those items which are characteristic of the child's behavior (which describe the child most of the time).

The CBCL was also used as a measure of child adjustment. Sixty-six items have been found to discriminate significantly between clinic and non-clinic children, 32 being more characteristic of clinic children and 34 being more characteristic of non-clinic children (Partyka, 1971). A copy of the checklist is included in Appendix F. Those items significantly more characteristic of clinic (disturbed) children are marked C, and those items

significantly more characteristic of non-clinic children are marked NC.

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, a measure of agreement between father's and mother's ratings of their child on the CBCL was determined for each family as follows: each parent's responses to each of the 154 items was coded zero, one, or two. If neither column was checked, the item was coded zero; the item was also coded zero if the parent marked the item zero. If only the first column was checked, the item was coded one. If both columns were checked, or if only the second column was checked, the item was coded two. Thus, for each parent's ratings of his child, there were 154 items, each coded 0, 1, or 2. A measure of agreement was determined by calculating the interitem correlations (product moment correlation coefficients) between the mother's coded ratings of her child on the CBCL and those of the father.

Child adjustment ratings were determined in the following manner: each parent's responses to the 34 non-clinic (adjustment) items on the CBCL, as previously coded, were summed to derive a total score. Next, the sum of each parent's coded ratings for the 32 clinic items was determined. Each parent's adjustment score for his child was obtained by subtracting his score on the clinic items from his score on the non-clinic (adjustment) items. An additional adjustment score was obtained by calculating the mean of the mother's and father's adjustment scores for the

child. A measure of discrepancy was also obtained by subtracting the husband's adjustment rating for the child from that of his wife. So, for each child, four adjustment scores were obtained: a score based on the mother's ratings of the child; a score based on the father's ratings of the child; the mean of these two scores, which served as an overall measure of the child's adjustment; and a discrepancy score which provided an index of the amount of disagreement between parents' ratings.

Hypotheses

Based on the operational definitions given for each of the variables, the previously mentioned hypotheses are restated as follows:

Primary Hypotheses

- H1) There is a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL.
- H2) There is a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and parents' scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale.
- H3) There is a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and H and W-H correlations on the ICL.

- H3a) There is a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and W and H-W correlations on the ICL.

Secondary Hypotheses

- H4) There is a significant positive correlation between H and W-H correlations on the ICL and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL.
- H4a) There is a significant positive correlation between W and H-W correlations on the ICL and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL.
- H5) There is a significant positive correlation between H and W correlations on the ICL and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL.
- H6) There is a significant positive correlation between H and W correlations on the ICL and parents' scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale.
- H7) There is a significant positive correlation between H and W-H correlations on the ICL and parents' scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale.
- H7a) There is a significant positive correlation between W and H-W correlations on the ICL and parents' scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale.
- H8) There is a significant positive correlation between parents' scores on the Locke-Wallace

Scale and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL.

The level of probability required for rejection of the null hypothesis in this study was equal to or less than .05.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

For the distribution of female children (girls), the distribution of male children (boys), and the overall distribution including both male and female children, means, maximum and minimum values, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis for each variable are given in Appendix H. All of the distributions of husbands' Locke-Wallace scores, wives' Locke-Wallace scores, average Locke-Wallace scores, Locke-Wallace discrepancy scores, husbands' ratings of child adjustment, wives' ratings of child adjustment, average ratings of child adjustment, CBCL correlations, and H and W correlations on the ICL were found to be negatively skewed. All three of the distributions of H and W-H correlations on the ICL were found to be positively skewed. For W and H-W correlations on the ICL and for child adjustment discrepancy scores, the female distribution and the overall distribution were found to be positively skewed, while the male distribution was found to be negatively skewed.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3

The correlations found for Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 3a are given in Table 1, with their corresponding probabilities. Significant correlations are marked with an asterisk (*). Separate results are given for the distribution consisting of families of boys, for the distribution consisting of families of girls, and for the overall (combined) distribution.

Hypothesis 1 concerned the relationship between child adjustment and the congruence of parents' perceptions of their child. Specifically, it was predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. Results for this hypothesis are found in row one of Table 1. As can be seen in Table 1, this hypothesis is strongly supported for all three measures of child adjustment and for all three distributions.

Hypothesis 2 concerned the relationship between child adjustment and marital adjustment. Specifically, it was predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and parents' scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale. Results for this hypothesis are found in rows two, three, and four of Table 1. Looking at the overall picture for Hypothesis 2, it is noteworthy that for the overall (combined) distribution, husbands' Locke-Wallace scores, wives' Locke-Wallace scores,

Table 1. Correlations and corresponding probabilities for Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 3a, for the distribution of girls (N=45), the distribution of boys (N=52), and the overall distribution (N=97).

		CHILD ADJUSTMENT BY HUSBAND	CHILD ADJUSTMENT BY WIFE	AVERAGE CHILD ADJUSTMENT
Inter-parent CBCL Correlations	Boys:	.527***	.483***	.562***
	Girls:	.658***	.452**	.676***
	Overall:	.568***	.448***	.581***
Husbands' L-W scores	Boys:	.197	.092	.161
	Girls:	.376*	.045	.269
	Overall:	.278**	.082	.208*
Wives' L-W scores	Boys:	.137	.080	.121
	Girls:	.217	.390**	.356*
	Overall:	.172	.194	.209*
Average L-W scores	Boys:	.168	.090	.145
	Girls:	.336*	.248	.354*
	Overall:	.241*	.156	.227*
H and W-H Correlations on ICL	Boys:	.443***	.340**	.437***
	Girls:	-.012	.215	.110
	Overall:	.260**	.294**	.315**
W and H-W Correlations on ICL	Boys:	.285*	.206	.437*
	Girls:	.012	.253	.147
	Overall:	.159	.212*	.211*

* = $p < .05$

** = $p < .01$

*** = $p < .001$

and average Locke-Wallace scores were all significantly correlated with average ratings of child adjustment.

With one exception, correlations of parents' Locke-Wallace scores with adjustment scores of girls were higher than those for boys. However, comparisons of the correlations for the distribution of boys with the correlations for the distribution of girls revealed no differences significant at the .05 level. Similarly, for each of the three distributions, differences among correlations for husbands' ratings of child adjustment, wives' ratings of child adjustment, and average ratings of child adjustment failed to reach significance at the .05 level.

Hypotheses 3 and 3a concerned the relationship between child adjustment and the correlation of marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions by mate. Specifically, it was predicted in Hypothesis 3 that there would be a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and H and W-H correlations on the ICL. Results for Hypothesis 3 are found in row five of Table 1. For the overall (combined) distribution for this hypothesis, Table 1 shows that all of the correlations were significant.

For this hypothesis, correlations for girls were generally much lower than those for boys. For the correlation of H and W-H correlations on the ICL with husbands' ratings of child adjustment (row five, column one of Table 1), the difference between the correlations for the distributions of boys and girls reached

significance at the .05 level. For wives' and average ratings of child adjustment, differences in the correlations between the distributions of boys and girls failed to reach significance at the .05 level. Overall, this hypothesis is moderately supported.

Hypothesis 3a specifically predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between child adjustment scores and W and H-W correlations on the ICL. Results for Hypothesis 3a are found in row six of Table 1. Looking at the overall (combined) distribution for this hypothesis, Table 1 shows that two of the three correlations reached significance at the .05 level. Tests comparing correlations for the distribution of boys and the distribution of girls revealed no differences significant at the .05 level. Similarly, for each of the three distributions, differences among correlations for husbands' ratings of child adjustment, wives' ratings of child adjustment, and average ratings of child adjustment did not reach significance at the .05 level.

Hypotheses 4 and 5

The correlations testing Hypotheses 4, 4a, and 5 are found in Table 2, with their corresponding probabilities. Significant correlations are marked with an asterisk (*). Separate results are given for the distribution consisting of families of boys, for the distribution consisting of

Table 2. Correlations and corresponding probabilities for Hypotheses 4, 4a, and 5, for the distribution of boys (N=52), the distribution of girls (N=45), and the overall distribution (N=97).

CORRELATIONS OF PARENTS' RATINGS OF THEIR CHILD ON CBCL			
	<u>BOYS</u>	<u>GIRLS</u>	<u>OVERALL</u>
H and W-H CORRELATIONS ON ICL	.473***	.270	.386***
W and H-W CORRELATIONS ON ICL	.470***	.426**	.447***
H and W CORRELATIONS ON ICL	.597***	.304*	.481***

* = $p < .05$

** = $p < .01$

*** = $p < .001$

families of girls, and for the overall (combined) distribution.

Hypotheses 4 and 4a concerned the relationship between congruence of parents' perceptions of their child and the correlation of marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions by mate. Specifically, it was predicted in Hypothesis 4 that there would be a significant positive correlation between partners' H and W-H correlations on the ICL and the correlations of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. Results for this hypothesis are found in row one of Table 2. The correlations for the distribution of boys and for the overall distribution were both highly significant. Although the correlation for the distribution of boys was higher than the correlation for the distribution of girls, this difference did not reach significance at the .05 level. This hypothesis is confirmed, especially for male children.

It was predicted in Hypothesis 4a that there would be a significant positive correlation between partners' W and H-W correlations on the ICL and the correlations of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. Results for this hypothesis are found in row two of Table 2. As shown in Table 2, results for this hypothesis were significant for all three distributions; the hypothesis is confirmed.

Hypothesis 5 concerned the relationship between congruence of husbands' and wives' self-images and congruence of parents' perceptions of their child. Specifically,

it was predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between self-image and spouse-image correlations on the ICL (H and W correlations) and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. Results for this hypothesis are found in row three of Table 2. As shown in Table 2, results for this hypothesis were significant for all three distributions; the hypothesis is clearly confirmed.

Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8

The correlations found for Hypotheses 6, 7, 7a, and 8 are found in Table 3, with their corresponding probabilities. Significant correlations are marked with an asterisk (*). Separate results are given for the distribution consisting of families of boys, for the distribution consisting of families of girls, and for the overall (combined) distribution.

Hypothesis 6 concerned the relationship between marital adjustment and congruence of husbands' and wives' self-images. Specifically, it was predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between H and W correlations on the ICL and scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale. Results for this hypothesis are given in row one of Table 3, for each of the three different sets of Locke-Wallace scores, and for each of the three distributions: families of boys, families of girls, and the overall distribution. Although correlations for boys were

Table 3. Correlations and corresponding probabilities for Hypotheses 6, 7, 7a, and 8, for the distribution of boys (N=52), the distribution of girls (N=45), and the overall distribution (N=97).

		HUSBANDS' L-W SCORES	WIVES' L-W SCORES	AVERAGE L-W SCORES
H and W CORRELATIONS ON ICL	Boys:	.302*	.304*	.330*
	Girls:	.245	.247	.279
	Overall:	.271**	.278**	.303**
H and W-H CORRELATIONS ON ICL	Boys:	.248	.188	.243
	Girls:	.207	.503***	.403**
	Overall:	.230*	.321***	.314**
W and H-W CORRELATIONS ON ICL	Boys:	.462***	.255	.386**
	Girls:	.390**	.552***	.535***
	Overall:	.424***	.388***	.453***
INTER-PARENT CBCL CORRELATIONS	Boys:	.259	.296*	.304*
	Girls:	.451**	.451**	.512***
	Overall:	.338***	.356***	.386***

* = $p < .05$

** = $p < .01$

*** = $p < .001$

generally higher than those for girls, these differences did not reach significance at the .05 level. For the overall distribution and the distribution of boys, all of the correlations were significant. The hypothesis is generally supported.

Hypotheses 7 and 7a concerned the relationship between marital adjustment and congruence of marital partners' self-perceptions and perceptions by mate. Specifically, it was predicted in Hypothesis 7 that there would be a significant positive correlation between H and W-H correlations on the ICL and scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale. Results for this hypothesis are given in row two of Table 3, for each of the three different sets of Locke-Wallace scores, and for each of the three distributions. For the overall distribution, as shown in Table 3, all of the results were significant. The hypothesis is clearly confirmed. Although the results for the distributions of boys and girls were somewhat erratic, tests comparing the correlations for the two distributions indicated that the differences did not reach significance at the .05 level.

It was predicted in Hypothesis 7a that there would be a significant positive correlation between partners' W and H-W correlations on the ICL and scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale. Results for this hypothesis are given in row three of Table 3, for each of the three different sets of Locke-Wallace scores, and for each of the three distributions. All but one of the correlations were significant, as shown

in Table 3, and the one that was not approached significance. None of the differences between correlations for the distribution of boys and correlations for the distribution of girls reached significance at the .05 level. This hypothesis is strongly supported.

A post hoc finding is of interest here. As shown in Table 3, for the overall distribution, the correlations of average Locke-Wallace scores with partners' H and W correlations on the ICL, with partners' H and W-H correlations on the ICL, and with partners' W and H-W correlations on the ICL were .303, .314, and .452, respectively. By combining these three variables, the multiple correlation with partners' average Locke-Wallace scores was found to be .5505. Thus, the combination of these three predictors produced a higher correlation with partners' average Locke-Wallace scores than any one of the predictors taken separately.

Hypothesis 8 concerned the relationship between marital adjustment and congruence of parents' perceptions of their child. Specifically, it was predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between scores on the Locke-Wallace Scale and the correlation of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. Results for this hypothesis are found in row 4 of Table 3, for each of the three different sets of Locke-Wallace scores, and for each of the three distributions. As shown in Table 3, all of the correlations for this hypothesis were significant with

the exception of one, and that one approached significance. In addition, none of the differences between correlations for the distribution of boys and correlations for the distribution of girls reached significance at the .05 level. This hypothesis is strongly supported.

A second post hoc finding was also of interest. For the overall distribution and for the distribution of families of girls, a significant positive correlation was found between husbands' and wives' discrepancies on the Locke-Wallace and their discrepancies in adjustment ratings of their child. No significant correlation between these two variables was found for the distribution of boys. Correlations and their corresponding probabilities were as follows:

Overall: .281, $p < .055^*$

Females: .483, $p < .001^*$

Males: .093, $p < .511$

The difference between the correlations for boys and girls was significant, $p < .05$.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Results Relating to Child Adjustment

The results relevant to the first main hypothesis of this study show overwhelmingly that parents' agreement in the perception of their child's behavior is significantly positively correlated with the child's adjustment. No sex differences were found for this hypothesis.

In the introduction to this paper, a rationale for the above results was provided. Since children have been found to be more perceptive of rejecting behavior than adults (Ferreira, 1964), it would not be surprising if they were very perceptive of other behaviors as well, especially the behavior toward them of significant others such as parents. When parents differ in the way they perceive their child, ambiguity may be created in the child's perception of himself. As Wyer (1965) pointed out, the more dimensions on which the parents disagree, the more unstable the child's self-perceptions are likely to be. Going along with this, parents who disagree in their perceptions of their child may place contradictory demands on him. The disabling effects of parents' contradictory demands on their children have been widely discussed

(e.g. Clark and van Sommers, 1961). Under these conditions, the child is given the added burden of determining which of the opposing sets of behavior is required when; this cannot help but confuse the child, who may come to feel that he can never do anything right.

Relatedly, McCord et al (1961) found that parents who disagree on issues may produce a confused and aggressive child, and Vogel and Lauterbach (1965) found that problem adolescents perceived more disparity between their parents' attitudes and behaviors than did normals. It does not seem surprising, then, that the present study found that disagreement in parents' perceptions of their child was related to maladjustment in the child.

Partyka's (1971) study found similar results for 5-7 year old males but not for females of a corresponding age. She concluded that the relationship between agreement in parents' perceptions of their child's behavior and child adjustment might not hold true for females who were so disturbed as to have been brought to a psychological clinic.

The results of the present study are not necessarily inconsistent with Partyka's findings. Whereas Partyka looked at extremes of child adjustment (clinic vs. non-clinic children), the present study was based on a continuum of child adjustment ranging from very low adjustment to very high adjustment. In addition, children brought to a psychological clinic are probably not representative of the same of disturbed children as a

whole but are a select group whose parents are concerned enough about them to take them to get help. Partyka's clinic sample did not take those children whose parents did not evidence that much concern. This, combined with the small number of subjects in Partyka's sample of clinic females in the 5-7 age range, suggests that her sample may have been select.

Some of the same criticisms can be directed at the present study. Parents who return questionnaires about their families are probably biased in the direction of being more concerned; distributions of such parents' scores are usually considerably skewed in the negative direction. However, it can be argued that it takes less concern and effort and is less threatening for parents to complete questionnaires than to admit that their child needs help and take steps to ensure that he gets it. As shown in Appendix H, the present study contained a sample of children whose adjustment scores were only slightly negatively skewed. This may have been due in part to the nature of the community from which the sample was drawn. Holt, Michigan is a conservative, rural community comprised mainly of lower-middle class and working class families. Perhaps members of such families find it easier to take the questions at face value than members of a university community, who may search for the motivation behind the questions and answer them accordingly. Thus, the present study probably not only contains a greater range of

children in terms of adjustment, but also contains data from a somewhat more representative set of parents. In addition, the results were not confounded by assigning all non-clinic children to the well-adjusted group, as in Partyka's study.

It should be noted that the adjustment measures used in the present study were derived from the Children's Behavior Checklist, the same instrument used to derive parent perceptions of their child. It would be expected that correlations would be somewhat higher than if some independent measure of adjustment was used. Future research might attempt to determine if these correlations hold up using an independent measure of child adjustment.

Partyka's finding that parents of clinic females age 5-7 showed greater agreement in their perceptions of their daughters than parents of non-clinic females, combined with the results of the present study, suggest that the relationship between congruence of parents' perceptions of their child and child adjustment may be a curvilinear one, within the individual child. From the beginning of the child's life, it seems likely that a reasonably high degree on congruence in parents' perceptions of him is necessary for his adjustment. If this congruence is not present, or if it deteriorates, the child may gradually begin to show signs of maladjustment. Eventually, the child may reach a point where he is so disturbed and his behavior is so out of the ordinary that his parents

gradually come to agree in their perceptions of him. In general, one would expect that maladjusted children would elicit more attention from parents than "normal" children, since their behavior is, by definition, out of the ordinary. If maladjusted children do elicit more attention from parents, it is even more likely that parents would tend to agree more in their perceptions of a very disturbed child.

As Partyka suggested, the fact that parents of 5-7 year old clinic males did not show great agreements in their perceptions of their sons may be due to the more rigidly defined stereotypes for male behavior in our society. Because masculine behavior is so well defined, departures from it may be noticed earlier and male children may be brought to a psychological clinic when they are less disturbed than clinic females. Since stereotypes for girls are less well defined, a girl's maladjusted behavior may have to be very salient before she is brought to a clinic.

In any event, the results of the present study combined with Partyka's (1971) findings seem to leave little doubt that congruence of parents' perceptions of their child's behavior early in life is important for the child's adjustment. Although correlational data do not give information about cause and effect, the preceding discussion seems to suggest that the primary direction of this relationship is from the differing parental perceptions of the

child to child maladjustment, rather than the other way around.

Results for Hypothesis 2, while somewhat mixed depending on the sex of the parent and sex of the child, were consistent when the overall distribution and the average ratings of child adjustment were examined. Since differences between correlations for the distributions of boys and girls and differences among correlations for husbands', wives', and average ratings of child adjustment were not found to be significant for this hypothesis, looking at the overall distribution and average ratings of child adjustment would seem to clarify the results. When this is done, it is evident that there is a significant positive relationship between marital adjustment and child adjustment. This was found to be true for wives' marital adjustment scores, husbands' marital adjustment scores, and average marital adjustment scores.

In the introduction to this paper, a theoretical rationale for these findings was discussed. LaPiere and Farnsworth (1949) have noted that conflict between the parents places the child in a conflict position as well. The child finds himself positively identified with two people who are negatively identified with each other. This cannot help but confuse the child. In addition, as Hoffman and Lipitt (1960) have pointed out, the child may become a scapegoat for uncommunicated areas of marital tension. He may also be rejected by one or both parents because he

resembles the disliked spouse or because he symbolizes the parents' inability to dissolve the unhappy marriage. Since, as Ferreira (1964) found, children are more perceptive of rejecting behavior than adults, it is not surprising that marital disharmony would have a negative effect on the child's adjustment.

Clark and van Sommers (1961) have reported that marital dissatisfaction is related to contradictory demands placed on the child. From this, it would be expected that marital dissatisfaction would be related to differences in parents' perceptions of their child. As the results of Hypothesis 8 show, this was indeed true for the present sample. A significant positive correlation was found between congruence of parents' perceptions of their child on the CBCL and husbands', wives', and average marital adjustment scores.

Thus, we begin to see some interesting interrelationships among variables. Marital adjustment and satisfaction are related to congruence of parents' perceptions of their child, congruence of parents' perceptions of their child is related to child adjustment, and marital adjustment and satisfaction are related to child adjustment.

Results Relating to Marital Partners' Perceptions of Themselves and Each Other

The results relevant to Hypotheses 3 and 3a provide some further information about interrelationships among variables. Once again disregarding the sex differences

which are not significant and looking at the overall distribution, results show that congruence of marital partners' self-perceptions with their spouses' perceptions of them is significantly positively correlated with child adjustment for all but one of the six relationships examined. Rather than attempting to explain this relationship directly, let us look at some of the variables which may intervene between these two.

The results relevant to Hypotheses 7 and 7a indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between congruence of marital partners' self-perceptions with their spouses' perceptions of them and marital adjustment. This significant relationship was found for the overall distribution for husbands', wives', and average Locke-Wallace scores, and had been predicted from previous theory and research.

The introduction to this paper discussed Mangus' (1957) theory that the integrative quality of a marriage is reflected in the degree of congruence between the way a partner perceives himself and the way he is perceived by his spouse. When there is a good deal of this psychological empathy, as Hobart and Klausner (1959) have labeled it, partners' role performances are more likely to integrate. Since each partner knows where the other stands, communication is likely to be freer. In all probability, there would be more appropriate responses to the partner, expectations of the partner would be more appropriately

met, partners would be better able to anticipate and respond to each others' feelings, and in general, there would be less strain and conflict in the marital relationship. Understanding of one's partner's perspectives, values, beliefs, definitions of situations, etc., and the freedom of communication these represent are seen by many as a prerequisite for friendly interpersonal relationships.

The relationships found for Hypotheses 7 and 7a are similar to those found by Dymond (1953, 1954) and Luckey (1960a). However, contrary to the findings of the present study, a number of earlier investigators (Hobart and Klausner, 1959; Corsini, 1956; Stuckert, 1963) found sex differences in the importance of psychological empathy for marital satisfaction. Their results indicated that congruence of wives' self-perceptions with their husbands' perceptions of them was not important for marital satisfaction. Similarly, studies by Luckey (1960b) and Kotlar (1965) found that psychological empathy was significantly related to husbands' marital adjustment scores but not to those of wives'. However, a later study by Taylor (1967) found significant relationships for both sexes.

Perhaps the present study and Taylor's earlier study reflect a change in the role of wives in today's marriages as opposed to those of ten to twenty years ago. As the women's rights movement began to take hold, women began and are continuing to take a more active role in the world at large. In the marriage relationship, women began to

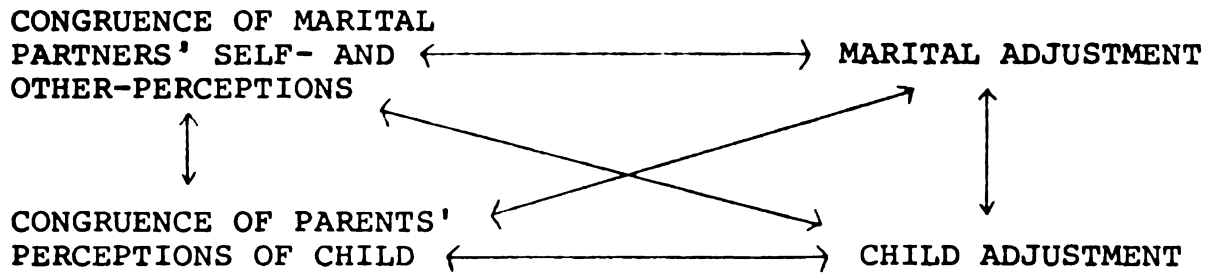
realize that their needs, goals, desires, opinions, etc. were important, too. Rather than the traditional focus of putting themselves aside to ensure their husbands' happiness, women began to demand that their happiness be a goal of the marriage, too. Consequently, it became more important for the success of the marriage that husbands' perceptions of their wives be congruent with the wives' self-perceptions, rather than happiness for both depending on congruence of husbands' self-perceptions with their wives' perceptions of them. When the husband's happiness was the major focus of both partners in the marriage, the importance of the wife's psychological empathy for her husband seemed logical for the marital satisfaction of both. But as wives' individuality began to emerge, it seemed to become more important for husbands also to have psychological empathy for their wives. Thus, it is not surprising that the present study found a significant positive correlation between amount of psychological empathy and marital adjustment and satisfaction for both partners.

The interrelationships among variables become still more involved when we look at the results of Hypotheses 4 and 4a. As shown in Table 2, there is a significant positive association between amount of psychological empathy and correlations of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. Relatedly, the results of Hypothesis 5, also shown in Table 2, indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between congruence of husbands' and

wives' self-perceptions and correlations of parents' ratings of their child on the CBCL. As discussed in the introduction to this paper, Ferreira (1964) has suggested that effective interpersonal perception may depend on a relationship factor which requires some sort of mutuality and reciprocity among family members being considered. The results of Hypotheses 4, 4a, and 5 suggest that Ferreira's hypothesis is correct. As Van der Veen et al (1964) have pointed out, one aspect of family adjustment is the amount of agreement in the way individual members perceive the family. The results of Hypotheses 4 and 4a suggest that congruence of perception about one aspect of family life (one's marital partner) is positively associated with congruence of perception of another aspect of family life (one's child). Since, as Table 3 shows, congruence of perception of all of these factors is positively associated with marital adjustment, and as Table 1 shows, with child adjustment, it seems clear that congruence of marital partners' perceptions about basic aspects of the family is important for family adjustment.

Summary of Interrelationships

Thus, we have the following interrelationships among the variables of this study:



Since the data used in this study were correlational, significant results mean only that there is a relationship between the variables being considered that is greater than chance; they say nothing about cause and effect. But since preventing child maladjustment is our primary concern, it is important to know cause and effect relationships if they exist. Earlier studies mentioned in the introduction to this paper may provide some clues as to the sequence with which the above relationships develop.

A number of studies (e.g. Dymond, 1953, 1954; Luckey, 1960a) have reported that happily married couples show greater psychological empathy than unhappily married couples. It seems likely that as partners in a dating relationship get to know one another, insight into the partner's self-perceptions develops. If this develops to a great extent in both partners, each is able to understand some important things about the other. However, this would not seem to be sufficient for a successful marriage. A person may understand that his partner is cold-hearted and ruthless, for example, but if he finds these qualities completely alien to his own value system, theirs is not likely to be

a happy union. However, as found in this study, if each person has a good understanding of how the other sees himself, and each sees himself as having many of the same qualities, their union is more likely to be a happy one.

In the present study, both understanding of the partners' self-concept and similarity of partners' self-concepts were found to be significantly positively associated with marital satisfaction. It seems likely, then, that as congruence of both of these types of perception grows, the dating or marital relationship becomes a more satisfactory one. Some preliminary evidence for this hypothesis was found in the present study in one of the post hoc results. As previously mentioned, the combination of psychological empathy with congruence of partners' self-concepts was more highly associated with partners' marital satisfaction than either of the variables taken separately. Further research is needed to clarify this relationship.

When congruence of these factors does not develop, or when it deteriorates, conflict is likely to result. Persistent disparities and unresolved conflicts place strain on the relationship. A partner may be unsure of his spouse's expectations of him; he may be unable to anticipate, respond to or understand his spouse's feelings; differences in values may lead to persistent arguments, and effective communication is likely to be difficult if not impossible. As the lack of congruence in their

perceptions becomes evident to the partners, their satisfaction with the relationship is likely to decrease.

Congruence of perception may not be as important in the early stages of the relationship as in the later stages. As noted by Byrne and Blaylock (1963), there is an impetus to identify with one's partner provided by the love relationship which leads to greater perceived similarity among partners. Once the early romantic aspects of the relationship wear off, actual similarity of partners' self-perceptions may become more important. Similarly, lack of insight into one's partner's self-perceptions may become more evident as the day to day routine of married life becomes established. The old cliché "love is blind" may contain a great deal of truth when applied to the romantic love found early in a relationship.

From this discussion, it appears, at least in theory, that as congruence of marital partners' psychological empathy and self-perceptions increase, satisfaction with the relationship also increases. Correspondingly, it appears that as the realization of lack of congruence of these two types of perception increases, satisfaction with the relationship decreases. Thus, it appears that the degree of congruence of perception of these factors and partners' realization of the degree of congruence are an independent variable effecting marital satisfaction.

Congruence of parents' perceptions of their child was also found to be positively associated with marital

satisfaction. If the marriage was satisfactory before the birth of the child, the child's birth and the parents' adjustment to it will probably be taken in stride along with other experiences of married life. Their shared values and psychological empathy for each other will enable them to respond to this disruption of their dyad with a minimum of difficulty. A study by Dyer (1963), reported in the introduction to this paper, supports this theory. Dyer found that couples who experienced a great deal of crisis at the birth of their first child had significantly poorer marital adjustment scores both before and after the birth than those who experienced only a minor degree of crisis. Relatedly, Landis and Landis (1948) found that training and disciplining of children were focal points of friction among both younger and older married couples.

Perhaps less well adjusted parents begin to differ in their perceptions of their child right at the time of his (or her) birth. Since their self-perceptions differ and their insight into each other's personalities is small, minor disagreements about the child could easily become magnified. A wife who devotes all of her attention to the new child and a husband who feels neglected may quickly come to see the child in different ways. For the mother, he is a delightful addition to the family to be freely pampered and constantly attended to. For the father, he is a resented object who is always getting in the way or doing something wrong. In other families, the mother may resent

the loss of freedom the baby represents while the father views him with pride. The parents' misperceptions of each other may quickly magnify these reactions into a persistent conflict. Or the tensions may stay below the surface, with the result being scapegoating, contradictory demands, or the like.

It is easy to see, in an unhappy marriage where congruence of perception is low and communication is correspondingly poor, that discrepancies in parents' perceptions of their child may quickly and easily arise. Once established, these discrepancies may lead to additional marital conflict, then to additional discrepancies in their perceptions of their child, with a vicious circle being formed. Then the differing parental perceptions may, in combination with other factors, lead to child maladjustment. The ways in which this might take place have already been discussed.

Thus, the overall results of this study suggest that differences in perception occur initially and eventually lead to maladjustment in the marriage, the child or both. The post hoc finding that there was a significant positive association for the overall distribution between discrepancies in parents' marital adjustment scores and discrepancies in parents' ratings of their child's adjustment again illustrates the close relationship between marital adjustment and child adjustment. It also suggests that each parent may be responding with a unique perceptual style that is

fairly stable across perceptions of himself and his family. Since the distributions of both marital adjustment discrepancy scores and child adjustment discrepancy scores are fairly normal and not concentrated at the extremes, this post hoc finding would not seem to be simply an example of parents trying to show consistency or to "fake good or bad." It seems to show that each parent tends to perceive in the same way, whether it is his marital relationship or his child that he is perceiving.

Perceptual Styles and Biases

Although an individual's behavior can certainly give rise to another person's perceptions of him, many other variables influence perception, e.g. past experience, interpretation of the behavior, perceptual styles or biases. Preliminary work by Stollak mentioned in the introduction to this paper indicated that perceptual biases toward children do exist and have consequences for adult perceptions. It seems possible that perceptual biases exist toward family members in general, rather than only toward the child. A person with a negative perceptual bias might focus primarily on his spouse's negative behavior as well as that of his child, and perhaps that of others as well. The effects of a negative perceptual bias on a person's spouse would probably not be as great as the effects of such a bias on a child, since adults' self-concepts are, for the most part, formed and since adults are

less perceptive of rejecting behavior than children. However, the effects on the individual being perceived would probably still be considerable if the perceiver was an important person in his life, such as his spouse, or if the perceiver's perceptual bias was quite different from his own. Perhaps it is a basic difference in the perceptual styles or biases of marital partners that creates the lack of congruence of perception found in less well adjusted families.

Since, as suggested by some, adult perceptual biases may have been formed early in their lives, differences in marital partners' perceptual biases could have been affecting their relationship since its beginning, and their children from the time of their births. If a "negative behavior perceiver" is married to a "positive behavior perceiver", or if partners' perceptual styles differ in some other important way, instances of misunderstanding between the partners are likely to be frequent. Perhaps the correlations found in this study among congruence of perception of different aspects of family and married life and the correlations found between differences in perception and maladjustment can be explained in part by the perceptual styles and biases of each of the marital partners. Further research is needed to determine if fairly stable perceptual styles exist for individuals and if so, to determine if these perceptual styles are related to marital and child adjustment.

Implications of Findings for Further Research

One way such research might proceed would be to investigate the perceptual styles or biases of parents of clinic children and compare them to those parents of non-clinic children. Are perceptual biases of parents related to child maladjustment? If so, another question to be answered is that of how differences between husbands' and wives' perceptual biases affect their children. Are negative perceptual biases in both parents more highly correlated with child maladjustment than large differences in parents' perceptual biases? Only further research can answer these questions.

Another area of investigation suggested by this study is the relationship between differences in parents' perceptions of the child and the child's perception of himself. Wyer (1964), as mentioned in the introduction to this paper, has suggested that a discrepancy between parents' perceptions of their child along a given dimension may prevent the child from acquiring a stable perception of himself on this dimension. Investigating this relationship might provide valuable information about areas of conflict between the parents and areas of confusion in the child. Such information could be put to use in the therapy situation, whether family, marital, or child therapy was chosen. In addition, this information might provide a clue as to how differences in parental perceptions of their child eventually lead to child maladjustment, if, as

postulated, this is the direction in which that relationship proceeds.

Another interesting area for investigation suggested by this study is marital therapy; how do successful and unsuccessful marital therapies affect marital partners' scores on marital adjustment scales? Do partners' scores increase? Does the discrepancy between their scores decrease? Similarly, it would be interesting to investigate the effects of successful vs. unsuccessful marital therapy on marital partners' perceptions of themselves and each other (degree of psychological empathy and congruence of self-images as defined in the present study), and ultimately on relations with children and child adjustment.

Another related area of research is the relationship between lack of congruence of marital partner's perceptions of themselves and each other and the individual adjustment of each of the marital partners. Important information might also be gained from an investigation of the relationship between partners' discrepancies on marital adjustment scales and some independent measure of marital adjustment. Perhaps, as shown with other variables in the present study, it is the discrepancy in partners' perceptions of their marriage that is important for marital adjustment.

Several other potential areas of research would involve longitudinal studies. One such study would involve looking at changes in marital partners' congruence of perception from a time just before their marriage to

several years after their marriage, and relating these changes to their marital satisfaction at the later date. If, for example, partners' psychological empathy increases and their congruence of self-images decreases, how do their marital adjustment scores compare with those of partners where both types of congruence of perception increase?

A related area of research would involve determining if, over time, married couples with large discrepancies in the types of perception of self and spouse described in this study are more likely to have children who develop psychological problems than married couples with small discrepancies in perception. Studies such as these might begin to shed some light on whether cause and effect relationships exist between the variables found to be highly correlated in this study. The hope is that eventually a screening device can be developed to identify prospective parents whose children may have a high likelihood of becoming psychologically disturbed.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY . East Lansing

Department of Psychology . Olds Hall

Dear Parents:

We need your help! The field of child psychology has taught us much about the development of children's behavior, although unfortunately much of this work has centered on children with problems. We, as members of the Psychology Department of Michigan State University, are interested in studying the behavior of average school-age children. Since we believe that parents know more about their children than anyone else, we are asking you to help us gather data for our study. We are interested in what you, as parents of normal, well-adjusted children, can tell us about your families. This information is very important to us in understanding what normal children are like, from their parents' point of view, and something about their family backgrounds.

What do we want from you? Our research requires that you and your spouse each fill out three questionnaires. These questionnaires are simple and involve no long essay-type answers. All that it is necessary for you to do is to put a check next to your response to each of the items. The total amount of time required to fill out the questionnaires will, in most cases, be less than an hour. We know that parents' free time is limited, and we have tried to make this as simple as possible to ensure your cooperation.

This study is part of the continuing relationship between the Holt schools and the MSU Department of Psychology. All responses will be kept strictly confidential. If you so desire, a brief report of the findings will be sent to you when the study is completed.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please fill out the attached post card with your name, address, and telephone number and drop it in a mail box. We will then mail you the questionnaires and a pre-addressed stamped envelope in which to return them. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact Deborah Allen at 332-8024 (after 5:00 P.M.).

Again, let us emphasize that your cooperation is vital for the success of this project. Thank you for your help.

Lucy R. Ferguson, Ph.D.

Lucy R. Ferguson

Deborah R. Allen

Deborah R. Allen

Enc.

APPENDIX B

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY . East Lansing

Department of Psychology . Olds Hall

Dear Parents:

Thank you for agreeing to cooperate in our study. Enclosed you will find one Background Information Sheet, two copies of the Locke-Wallace Scale, two packets of the Interpersonal Checklist, and two Children's Behavior Checklists. The Background Information Sheet may be filled out by one or both of you. Instructions for the Locke-Wallace, the Interpersonal Checklist, and the Children's Behavior Checklist are included with the instruments themselves. The Children's Behavior Checklist should be filled out with respect to your child in kindergarten, grades one, or two. This would be the child who brought home the original letter. If you have more than one child in these grades, please pick one of them, and make sure that both you and your spouse fill out the Children's Behavior Checklist with respect to this child.

We realize that mothers and fathers have had different opportunities to observe their children and each other, so we would prefer that you fill out the checklists independently and without consultation. If possible, we would prefer that each of you fill out all of the questionnaires at one sitting. This should take, in most cases, less than an hour. However, if this proves to be a problem because of time, try to make sure that each questionnaire is filled out at one sitting; i.e. try not to work on the same questionnaire at two different times.

After each of you has filled out one Locke-Wallace Scale, the Interpersonal Checklist packet, and the Children's Behavior Checklist, and after one or both of you have completed the Background Information Sheet, place all of the questionnaires and the information sheet in the enclosed pre-addressed stamped envelope and mail it at your earliest convenience. Again, let us emphasize that all information will be held in the strictest confidence.

Again, let us thank you for your cooperation. Without your help, this study would not have been possible. If you so desire, we will mail you a brief summary of our findings when the study is completed. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call Deborah Allen at 332-8024 (after 5:00 P.M.).

Lucy R. Ferguson, Ph.D.

Lucy R. Ferguson

Deborah R. Allen

Deborah R. Allen

Enc.

APPENDIX C

BACKGROUND INFORMATION SHEET

First name of child to be described: _____

Sex of child: _____

Age of child: _____

Other children in family-ages: _____

Sexes: _____

Mother's educational background: _____

Father's educational background: _____

Mother's occupation: _____

Father's occupation: _____

Family code number : _____

APPENDIX D **LOCKE-WALLACE SCALE**

Encircle the dot on the scale below which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered, of your present marriage. The middle point, "Happy," represents the degree of happiness which most people get from marriage, and the scale gradually ranges on one side to those few who are very unhappy in marriage, and on the other, to those few who experience extreme joy or felicity in marriage.

. Very unhappy	. Happy	. Perfectly happy
----------------------	------------	-------------------------

State the approximate extent of agreement between you and your mate on the following items. Please encircle the appropriate dots.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occa- sionally Disagree	Pre- quently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
Handling family finances:
Matters of recreation:
Demonstrations of affection:
Friends:
Sex Relations:
Conventionality (right, good or proper conduct)
Philosophy of life:
Ways of dealing with in-laws:

When disagreements arise, they usually result in: husband's giving in____, wife giving in____, agreement by mutual give and take____.

Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together? All of them____, some of them____, very few of them____, none of them____?

In leisure time do you generally prefer to be "on the go"____, to stay at home____?

Does your mate generally prefer: to be "on the go"____, to stay at home____?

Do you ever wish you had not married? Frequently____, occasionally____, rarely____, never____.

If you had your life to live over, do you think you would: marry the same person____, marry a different person____, not marry at all____.

Do you confide in your mate: almost never____, rarely____, in most things____, in everything____?

APPENDIX E

THE INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST

Name _____ Age _____ Sex _____

Date _____ Family Code # _____

DIRECTIONS: This booklet contains two lists of descriptive words and phrases which you will use in describing yourself and your spouse. The first checklist is for yourself, and the second is for your spouse. Circle self at the top of the first checklist.

In front of each item is an answer space. Read the items quickly and check the space in front of each item you consider to be generally descriptive of you at the present time. Leave the answer space blank when an item does not describe you. In the example below, the subject has indicated that Item A is true and Item B is false as applied to him.

	<u>Item</u>
A <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	well-behaved
B <input type="checkbox"/>	suspicious

After you have gone through the list marking those items which apply to you, turn to the second list and consider your spouse. Be sure to circle the word "spouse" on the top of the first page of the second list. Proceed in the same way to describe him or her. Be sure to complete your description of yourself before starting your description of your spouse.

Your first impression is generally the best so work quickly and don't be concerned about duplications, contradictions or being exact. If you feel much doubt about whether an item applies, leave it blank.

THE INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST

Please circle one: ratings made for self or spouse

- | | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| ___ well thought of | ___ very anxious to be | ___ touchy and easily |
| 2 | approved of | hurt |
| ___ makes a good | 25 | 49 |
| impression | ___ cooperative | ___ easily embarrasses |
| 3 | 26 | 50 |
| ___ able to give orders | ___ eager to get along | ___ lacks self- |
| 4 | with others | confidence |
| ___ forceful | 27 | 51 |
| 5 | ___ friendly | ___ easily led |
| ___ self-respecting | 28 | 52 |
| 6 | ___ affectionate and | ___ modest |
| ___ independent | understanding | 53 |
| 7 | 29 | ___ often helped by |
| ___ able to take care | ___ considerate | others |
| of self | 30 | 54 |
| 8 | ___ encourages others | ___ very respectful |
| ___ can be indifferent | 31 | to authority |
| to others | ___ helpful | 55 |
| 9 | 32 | ___ accepts advice |
| ___ can be strict if | big-hearted and | readily |
| necessary | unselfish | 56 |
| 10 | 33 | ___ trusting and |
| ___ firm but just | ___ often admired | eager to please |
| 11 | 34 | 57 |
| ___ can be frank and | ___ respected by others | ___ always pleasant |
| honest | 35 | and agreeable |
| 12 | ___ good leader | 58 |
| ___ critical of others | 36 | ___ wants everyone |
| 13 | ___ likes responsibility | to like him |
| ___ can complain if | 37 | 59 |
| necessary | ___ self-confident | ___ sociable and |
| 14 | 38 | neighborly |
| ___ often gloomy | ___ self-reliant and | 60 |
| 15 | assertive | ___ warm |
| ___ able to doubt | 39 | 61 |
| others | ___ businesslike | ___ kind and |
| 16 | 40 | reassuring |
| ___ frequently | ___ likes to compete | 62 |
| disappointed | with others | ___ tender and soft- |
| 17 | 41 | hearted |
| ___ able to criticize | ___ hard-boiled when | 63 |
| self | necessary | ___ enjoys taking care |
| 18 | 42 | of others |
| ___ apologetic | ___ stern but fair | 64 |
| 19 | 43 | ___ gives freely of |
| ___ can be obedient | ___ irritable | self |
| 20 | 44 | 65 |
| ___ usually gives in | ___ straightforward and | ___ always giving |
| 21 | direct | advice |
| ___ grateful | 45 | 66 |
| 22 | ___ resents being bossed | ___ acts important |
| ___ admires and | 46 | 67 |
| imitates others | ___ skeptical | ___ bossy |
| 23 | 47 | 68 |
| ___ appreciative | ___ hard to impress | ___ dominating |

69
 ___ boastful
 70
 ___ proud and self-satisfied
 71
 ___ thinks only of himself
 72
 ___ shrewd and calculating
 73
 ___ impatient with others' mistakes
 74
 ___ self-seeking
 75
 ___ outspoken
 76
 ___ often unfriendly
 77
 ___ bitter
 78
 ___ complaining
 79
 ___ jealous
 80
 ___ slow to forgive a wrong
 81
 ___ self-punishing
 82
 ___ shy
 83
 ___ passive and un-aggressive
 84
 ___ meek
 85
 ___ dependent
 86
 ___ wants to be led
 87
 ___ lets others make decisions
 88
 ___ easily fooled
 89
 ___ too easily influenced by friends
 90
 ___ will confide in anyone
 91
 ___ fond of everyone
 92
 ___ likes everybody
 93
 ___ forgives anything

94
 ___ oversympathetic
 95
 ___ generous to a fault
 96
 ___ overprotective of others
 97
 ___ tries to be too successful
 98
 ___ expects everyone to admire him
 99
 ___ manages others
 100
 ___ dictatorial
 101
 ___ somewhat snobbish
 102
 ___ egotistical and conceited
 103
 ___ selfish
 104
 ___ cold and unfeeling
 105
 ___ sarcastic
 106
 ___ cruel and unkind
 107
 ___ frequently angry
 108
 ___ hard-hearted
 109
 ___ resentful
 110
 ___ rebels against everything
 111
 ___ stubborn
 112
 ___ distrusts everybody
 113
 ___ timid
 114
 ___ always ashamed of self
 115
 ___ obeys too willingly
 116
 ___ spineless
 117
 ___ hardly ever talks back
 118
 ___ clinging vine

119
 ___ likes to be taken care of
 120
 ___ will believe anyone
 121
 ___ wants everyone's love
 122
 ___ agrees with everyone
 123
 ___ friendly all the time
 124
 ___ loves everyone
 125
 ___ too lenient with others
 126
 ___ tries to comfort everyone
 127
 ___ too willing to give to others
 128
 ___ spoils people with kindness

THE INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST

Please circle one: ratings made for self or spouse

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| ___ well thought of 1 | ___ very anxious to be 24 | ___ touchy and easily 48 |
| ___ makes a good 2 | ___ approved of 25 | ___ hurt 49 |
| ___ impression 3 | ___ cooperative 26 | ___ easily embarrasses 50 |
| ___ able to give orders 4 | ___ eager to get along 27 | ___ lacks self- 51 |
| ___ forceful 5 | ___ with others 28 | ___ confidence 52 |
| ___ self-respecting 6 | ___ friendly 29 | ___ easily led 53 |
| ___ independent 7 | ___ affectionate and 30 | ___ modest 54 |
| ___ able to take care 8 | ___ understanding 31 | ___ often helped by 55 |
| ___ of self 9 | ___ considerate 32 | ___ others 56 |
| ___ can be indifferent 10 | ___ encourages others 33 | ___ very respectful 57 |
| ___ to others 11 | ___ helpful 34 | ___ to authority 58 |
| ___ can be strict if 12 | ___ big-hearted and 35 | ___ accepts advice 59 |
| ___ necessary 13 | ___ unselfish 36 | ___ readily 60 |
| ___ firm but just 14 | ___ often admired 37 | ___ trusting and 61 |
| ___ can be frank and 15 | ___ respected by others 38 | ___ eager to please 62 |
| ___ honest 16 | ___ good leader 39 | ___ always pleasant 63 |
| ___ critical of others 17 | ___ likes responsibility 40 | ___ and agreeable 64 |
| ___ can complain if 18 | ___ self-confident 41 | ___ wants everyone 65 |
| ___ necessary 19 | ___ self-reliant and 42 | ___ to like him 66 |
| ___ often gloomy 20 | ___ assertive 43 | ___ sociable and 67 |
| ___ able to doubt 21 | ___ businesslike 44 | ___ neighborly 68 |
| ___ others 22 | ___ likes to compete 45 | ___ warm 69 |
| ___ frequently 23 | ___ with others 46 | ___ kind and 70 |
| ___ disappointed 24 | ___ hard-boiled when 47 | ___ reassuring 71 |
| ___ able to criticize 25 | ___ necessary 48 | ___ tender and soft- 72 |
| ___ self 26 | ___ stern but fair 49 | ___ hearted 73 |
| ___ apologetic 27 | ___ irritable 50 | ___ enjoys taking care 74 |
| ___ can be obedient 28 | ___ straightforward and 51 | ___ of others 75 |
| ___ usually gives in 29 | ___ direct 52 | ___ gives freely of 76 |
| ___ grateful 30 | ___ resents being bossed 53 | ___ self 77 |
| ___ admires and 31 | ___ skeptical 54 | ___ always giving 78 |
| ___ imitates others 32 | ___ hard to impress 55 | ___ advice 79 |
| ___ appreciative 33 | | ___ acts important 80 |
| | | ___ bossy 81 |
| | | ___ dominating 82 |

69
 ___ boastful
 70
 ___ proud and self-satisfied
 71
 ___ thinks only of himself
 72
 ___ shrewd and calculating
 73
 ___ impatient with others' mistakes
 74
 ___ self-seeking
 75
 ___ outspoken
 76
 ___ often unfriendly
 77
 ___ bitter
 78
 ___ complaining
 79
 ___ jealous
 80
 ___ slow to forgive a wrong
 81
 ___ self-punishing
 82
 ___ shy
 83
 ___ passive and un-aggressive
 84
 ___ meek
 85
 ___ dependent
 86
 ___ wants to be led
 87
 ___ lets others make decisions
 88
 ___ easily fooled
 89
 ___ too easily influenced by friends
 90
 ___ will confide in anyone
 91
 ___ fond of everyone
 92
 ___ likes everybody
 93
 ___ forgives anything

94
 ___ oversympathetic
 95
 ___ generous to a fault
 96
 ___ overprotective of others
 97
 ___ tries to be too successful
 98
 ___ expects everyone to admire him
 99
 ___ manages others
 100
 ___ dictatorial
 101
 ___ somewhat snobbish
 102
 ___ egotistical and conceited
 103
 ___ selfish
 104
 ___ cold and unfeeling
 105
 ___ sarcastic
 106
 ___ cruel and unkind
 107
 ___ frequently angry
 108
 ___ hard-hearted
 109
 ___ resentful
 110
 ___ rebels against everything
 111
 ___ stubborn
 112
 ___ distrusts everybody
 113
 ___ timid
 114
 ___ always ashamed of self
 115
 ___ obeys too willingly
 116
 ___ spineless
 117
 ___ hardly ever talks back
 118
 ___ clinging vine

119
 ___ likes to be taken care of
 120
 ___ will believe anyone
 121
 ___ wants everyone's love
 122
 ___ agrees with everyone
 123
 ___ friendly all the time
 124
 ___ loves everyone
 125
 ___ too lenient with others
 126
 ___ tries to comfort everyone
 127
 ___ too willing to give to others
 128
 ___ spoils people with kindness

APPENDIX F **CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST**

Name of child: _____ Age: _____ Date: _____

Name of person filling out checklist: _____

Relationship to child (mother, father, etc.): _____

This is a list of items describing many aspects of children's behavior -- things that children do or ways they have been described by others. Not all of the items will apply to the particular child you are describing, but quite a few of them will. First, go through the list and put a checkmark (✓) in the first column by each item which applies to this child. If there are some items which you do not check because you do not know whether they apply or not, or have never had the opportunity to observe them, put an (0) in the first column.

After you have gone through the list, please go back through those items you have checked and put another checkmark (✓) in the second column opposite those that are now most characteristic of this child, that describe how he (she) is most of the time.

		Is child ever this way?	Most of the time?
	1. Is happy when he (she) has done a "good job."	_____	_____
NC	2. Is tidy and neat, perhaps even a bit fussy about it.	_____	_____
NC	3. Is concerned about feelings of others.	_____	_____
C	4. Can't wait - must have things immediately.	_____	_____
C	5. Gets irritated or angry easily.	_____	_____
	6. Is a finicky eater.	_____	_____
	7. Makes strange or distorted faces.	_____	_____
C	8. Plays with toys in a rough way.	_____	_____
	9. Sometimes makes meaningless or strange noises.	_____	_____
	10. Doesn't go out of his (her) way to make friends.	_____	_____
	11. Hurts self when angry.	_____	_____
	12. Often wakes up crying in the middle of the night - complains of nightmares.	_____	_____

		Is child ever this way?	Most of the time?
	13. Wants very much to be approved of.	_____	_____
C	14. Doesn't pay attention to what grown-up says to him (her).	_____	_____
	15. Pouts and becomes sullen when refused help.	_____	_____
C	16. Looks awkward when he (she) moves around.	_____	_____
	17. Sometimes says odd things.	_____	_____
C	18. Acts in ways that makes others not like him (her).	_____	_____
	19. Doesn't pay much attention to others, seems more involved with himself (herself).	_____	_____
NC	20. Feelings are apparent in facial expression.	_____	_____
	21. Has trouble falling asleep at night.	_____	_____
	22. Acts helpless to get attention.	_____	_____
	23. Rebels when routine is upset.	_____	_____
	24. Becomes embarrassed when praised for doing something well.	_____	_____
NC	25. Handles small objects skillfully.	_____	_____
	26. Memory seems poor, forgets what he (she) is trying to say or forgets things that have just happened.	_____	_____
	27. Never goes out of the way to help others, even when asked.	_____	_____
	28. Seldom laughs or smiles.	_____	_____
C	29. Is left out of things and ignored by others.	_____	_____
	30. Seldom satisfied with what others do for him (her) - unappreciative.	_____	_____
NC	31. Can be depended on to do what he (she) is supposed to do without reminders.	_____	_____
	32. Never gets excited about anything, even when you would expect him (her) to be pleased with something.	_____	_____
	33. Often giggles or smiles for no apparent reason.	_____	_____

	Is child ever this way?	Most of the time?
34. Activity is focused on a particular purpose, seems to accomplish what he (she) sets out to do.	_____	_____
35. Asks many silly questions.	_____	_____
36. Likes to play with girls instead of boys.	_____	_____
37. Hates to lose.	_____	_____
38. Doesn't fight back when other people attack him (her).	_____	_____
39. Can accept new ideas without getting upset.	_____	_____
40. Asks for help on tasks that he (she) can very well do on his (her) own.	_____	_____
41. Seems unable to change ways of doing things	_____	_____
42. Moods often change for no apparent reason.	_____	_____
43. Appears stiff in walking or moving about.	_____	_____
44. Doesn't start a conversation, others must begin first.	_____	_____
45. Acts angry when adult shows attention to other children.	_____	_____
46. Shows pride in accomplishment.	_____	_____
47. Breaks down and cries for no apparent reason.	_____	_____
48. Seems comfortable in new situations.	_____	_____
49. Comes to others for protection, even when it is not necessary.	_____	_____
50. Does what others ask him (her) to.	_____	_____
51. Blames himself (herself) when he (she) has done nothing wrong.	_____	_____
52. Has trouble finding the right words to say what he (she) means.	_____	_____
53. Moves gracefully - is well coordinated.	_____	_____

Children's Behavior Checklist

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		Is child ever this way?	Most of th time?
C	54. Seems to do things just to get others angry at him (her).	_____	_____
NC	55. Plays to win.	_____	_____
	56. Is a "copycat" -- always imitating others.	_____	_____
NC	57. Starts things off when with others.	_____	_____
	58. Spends most of time sitting and watching - doesn't play and do things with others.	_____	_____
	59. Very critical of others - always telling others what is wrong with them.	_____	_____
	60. Gets carried away by his (her) feelings, acts on them right away.	_____	_____
NC	61. Others seem to want to be with him (her).	_____	_____
	62. Seems distrustful of others; doesn't think he (she) can rely on others or believe their promises.	_____	_____
	63. Feelings are easily hurt.	_____	_____
	64. Talks in a funny way (e.g. stutter, lisp).	_____	_____
	65. Asks the same question over and over again.	_____	_____
	66. Seems quiet when around other children.	_____	_____
	67. Has a characteristic mannerism or nervous habit. Specify: _____	_____	_____
NC	68. Makes friends quickly and easily.	_____	_____
	69. Lacks pep and complains of being tired.	_____	_____
	70. Quickly loses interest in an activity.	_____	_____
	71. Sucks thumb.	_____	_____
	72. Very moody- sad one minute and happy the next.	_____	_____
	73. Will interrupt someone else in order to state his (her) opinions.	_____	_____
	74. Talks or mutters to self as if conversing with self.	_____	_____
C	75. Self confident.	_____	_____
	76. Bullies younger children.	_____	_____

	Is child ever this way?	Most of th. time?
77. Plays mostly with younger or smaller children - even when children of own age are around.	_____	_____
78. Seems sad and unhappy.	_____	_____
79. Uses "baby talk."	_____	_____
80. Tends to go too far unless frequently reminded of rules.	_____	_____
81. Often becomes so stuck on one idea that he (she) can't stop thinking or talking about it.	_____	_____
82. Does not wait for others to approach but seeks others out.	_____	_____
83. Talks all the time.	_____	_____
84. Will fight in a rough way where others could really get hurt.	_____	_____
85. Refuses to share things with others.	_____	_____
86. Brags about what he (she) can do.	_____	_____
87. Holds a grudge.	_____	_____
88. Often tries to do more than he (she) can handle on his (her) own.	_____	_____
89. Prefers standing by adults when other children are present.	_____	_____
90. Often has to be reminded of what he (she) can and cannot do.	_____	_____
91. Is frightened of being alone.	_____	_____
92. Uses mostly gestures or movements to express or communicate feelings.	_____	_____
93. Avoids talking about himself (herself).	_____	_____
94. Threatens to hit or hurt others.	_____	_____
95. Seems out of touch with what is going on around him (her) - off in his (her) own world.	_____	_____
96. Often seems angry for no particular reason, expresses it in many different ways.	_____	_____
97. Has uncontrollable outbursts of temper.	_____	_____

Children's Behavior Checklist

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		Is child ever this way?	Most of the time?
NC	98. Able to stand up for himself (herself).	_____	_____
	99. Likes to perform for company.	_____	_____
NC	100. Polite and cooperative with others.	_____	_____
NC	101. Easily embarrassed.	_____	_____
	102. Body often looks tense, as if expecting a fight.	_____	_____
NC	103. Careful in explanations - precise.	_____	_____
C	104. Often breaks the rules in games with others.	_____	_____
	105. Avoids physical contact with others.	_____	_____
	106. Easily scared.	_____	_____
	107. Doesn't like to let others know how he (she) feels.	_____	_____
	108. Frequently disappointed.	_____	_____
	109. A new situation seems to bring out the show-off in him (her).	_____	_____
	110. When told to do something he (she) doesn't want to do, he (she) becomes very angry.	_____	_____
	111. Often acts silly.	_____	_____
	112. Play is aimless, doesn't seem to make or accomplish anything.	_____	_____
NC	113. Is curious about things.	_____	_____
NC	114. Prefers competitive games.	_____	_____
	115. Likes to play with boys instead of girls.	_____	_____
C	116. Shows appreciation when others help or do things for him (her).	_____	_____
	117. Seems afraid to try new things.	_____	_____
	118. Doesn't like to ask others for help.	_____	_____
	119. Will lie to get out of a tight spot.	_____	_____
	120. Nothing seems to interest him (her).	_____	_____
C	121. Energetic.	_____	_____
C	122. Asks sensible questions in new situation.	_____	_____

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		Is child ever this way?	Most of th time?
123.	Aggressive and overpowering with other children.	_____	_____
124.	Likes to do things well so others will notice him (her).	_____	_____
NC 125.	Shows pleasure and involvement in most things he (she) does - enthusiastic.	_____	_____
126.	Seems selfish, always wants own way.	_____	_____
127.	Doesn't seem to care about how he (she) looks - often looks sloppy.	_____	_____
128.	Bossy with others.	_____	_____
129.	Makes faces and acts "silly."	_____	_____
130.	Tires easily in activities.	_____	_____
131.	Speech often seems unrelated to what is going on.	_____	_____
132.	Blows up very easily when bothered by someone.	_____	_____
133.	Stays to self during games.	_____	_____
134.	Prefers following others to taking the initiative.	_____	_____
135.	Says he (she) is not as good as others - feels bad about himself (herself).	_____	_____
136.	Competes with other children.	_____	_____
137.	Does what is expected to do, but grumbles about it.	_____	_____
138.	When he (she) likes someone, he (she) tells them so	_____	_____
139.	Pitches in when things are to be done.	_____	_____
140.	Fidgety and restless.	_____	_____
141.	Speaks only in response to direct questioning.	_____	_____
142.	Gets other children stirred up to mischief.	_____	_____
143.	Acts as if everyone were against him.	_____	_____
144.	Makes rules for others.	_____	_____

Children's Behavior Checklist

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	Is child ever this way?	Most of tl time?
NC 145. Quick and clever	_____	_____
NC 146. Learns quickly from others.	_____	_____
147. Once he (she) makes up his (her) mind about something, it's hard for him (her) to change.	_____	_____
148. Shows delight when hurting others.	_____	_____
149. Affectionate - enjoys being physically close to others.	_____	_____
NC 150. Retains composure even when those around him (her) are acting in a boisterous way.	_____	_____
NC 151. Prefers playing with older or bigger children even when child of own age is around.	_____	_____
152. Often tattles on others.	_____	_____
153. Speaks so rapidly he (she) is difficult to understand.	_____	_____
154. Quickly moves from one activity to the next.	_____	_____

After completing this checklist, you may think of some other descriptions which you feel characterize this child but are not included in the checklist. Please write any such items in the space below.

APPENDIX G

LOCKE-WALLACE SCALE

Encircle the dot on the scale below which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered, of your present marriage. The middle point, "Happy," represents the degree of happiness which most people get from marriage, and the scale gradually ranges on one side to those few who are very unhappy in marriage, and on the other, to those few who experience extreme joy or felicity in marriage.

0	2	7	15	20	25	35
Very unhappy			Happy			Perfectly happy

State the approximate extent of agreement between you and your mate on the following items. Please encircle the appropriate dots.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occa- sionally Disagree	Fre- quently Disagree	Almost Always Dis- agree	Always Disagree
Handling family finances:	5	4	3	2	1	0
Matters of recreation:	5	4	3	2	1	0
Demonstrations of affection:	8	6	4	2	1	0
Friends:	5	4	3	2	1	0
Sex Relations:	15	12	9	4	1	0
Conventionality (right, good or proper conduct)	5	4	3	2	1	0
Philosophy of life:	5	4	3	2	1	0
Ways of dealing with in-laws:	5	4	3	2	1	0

When disagreements arise, they usually result in: husband's giving in 0, wife giving in 2, agreement by mutual give and take 10.

Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together? All of them 10, some of them 8, very few of them 3, none of them 0?

In leisure time do you generally prefer to be "on the go" , to stay at home ? Both "stay at home" = 10

Does your mate generally prefer: to be "on the go" , to stay at home ? Both "on the go" = 3 Differ = 2

Do you ever wish you had not married? Frequently 0, occasionally 3, rarely 8, never 15.

If you had your life to live over, do you think you would: marry the same person 15, marry a different person 0, not marry at all 1.

Do you confide in your mate: almost never 0, rarely 2, in most things 10, in everything 10?

APPENDIX H
DISTRIBUTION INFORMATION FOR EACH VARIABLE

		HUSBAND L-W	WIFE L-W	AVERAGE L-W
MINIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	32.0	44.0	51.0
	BOYS:	56.0	32.0	44.0
	OVERALL:	32.0	32.0	44.0
MAXIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	151.0	155.0	149.5
	BOYS:	147.0	157.0	149.0
	OVERALL:	151.0	157.0	149.5
MEAN	GIRLS:	112.82	114.91	113.87
	BOYS:	110.50	113.34	111.73
	OVERALL:	111.58	114.07	112.72
STANDARD DEVIATION	GIRLS:	22.68	22.99	20.14
	BOYS:	21.47	25.95	21.57
	OVERALL:	21.95	24.51	20.84
SKEWNESS	GIRLS:	-1.08	-1.02	-.77
	BOYS:	-.52	-1.32	-1.07
	OVERALL:	-.79	-1.22	-.96
KURTOSIS	GIRLS:	4.89	4.10	3.84
	BOYS:	2.93	4.92	4.64
	OVERALL:	3.88	4.75	4.39

APPENDIX H
CONTINUED

		DISCREPANCY L-W	ICL (H+W)	ICL (H+W-H)
MINIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	-66.0	-.25	.14
	BOYS:	-61.0	-.07	.19
	OVERALL:	-66.0	-.25	.14
MAXIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	48.0	.66	.97
	BOYS:	42.0	.86	.90
	OVERALL:	48.0	.86	.97
MEAN	GIRLS:	2.31	.36	.50
	BOYS:	2.77	.38	.48
	OVERALL:	2.56	.37	.49
STANDARD DEVIATION	GIRLS:	21.95	.18	.17
	BOYS:	19.64	.20	.18
	OVERALL:	20.64	.19	.18
SKEWNESS	GIRLS:	-.49	-.80	.15
	BOYS:	-.50	-.17	.36
	OVERALL:	-.50	-.38	.26
KURTOSIS	GIRLS:	4.54	4.19	3.05
	BOYS:	4.05	2.79	2.15
	OVERALL:	4.38	3.39	2.50

APPENDIX H

CONTINUED

		ICL (W+H-W)	CHILD ADJ. HUSBAND	CHILD ADJ. WIFE
MINIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	.12	-3.0	6.0
	BOYS:	.17	-6.0	-18.0
	OVERALL:	.12	-6.0	-18.0
MAXIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	.92	55.0	58.0
	BOYS:	.87	53.0	52.0
	OVERALL:	.92	55.0	58.0
MEAN	GIRLS:	.47	31.78	35.69
	BOYS:	.47	28.19	29.17
	OVERALL:	.47	29.86	32.20
STANDARD DEVIATION	GIRLS:	.19	13.62	11.56
	BOYS:	.17	15.90	15.50
	OVERALL:	.18	14.92	14.13
SKEWNESS	GIRLS:	.18	-.59	-.42
	BOYS:	-.17	-.25	-.89
	OVERALL:	.01	-.42	-.91
KURTOSIS	GIRLS:	2.48	2.82	2.84
	BOYS:	2.30	2.06	3.67
	OVERALL:	2.41	2.34	4.11

APPENDIX H

CONTINUED

		CHILD ADJ. AVERAGE	CHILD ADJ. DISCREP.	CBCL DISCREP.
MINIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	12.5	-29.0	.16
	BOYS:	-11.5	-30.0	.07
	OVERALL:	-11.5	-30.0	.07
MAXIMUM VALUE	GIRLS:	55.5	45.0	.89
	BOYS:	51.5	25.0	.98
	OVERALL:	55.5	45.0	.98
MEAN	GIRLS:	33.73	3.91	.59
	BOYS:	28.68	.17	.61
	OVERALL:	31.03	1.91	.60
STANDARD DEVIATION	GIRLS:	10.49	14.08	.15
	BOYS:	14.10	13.86	.18
	OVERALL:	12.74	14.01	.17
SKEWNESS	GIRLS:	-.22	.49	-.18
	BOYS:	-.64	-.16	-.76
	OVERALL:	-.68	.15	-.54
KURTOSIS	GIRLS:	2.41	3.63	3.12
	BOYS:	2.96	2.21	4.11
	OVERALL:	3.34	3.07	3.82

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