# CHILDREN'S AND PARENTS' INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTUAL STYLE AND CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT

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ABSTRACT

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Research has suggested that stable person perception "frameworks" or styles (hereafter called interpersonal perceptual style--or IPS--and defined as differential tendencies to perceive and/or characterize behavior as positive or negative) exist in both adults and children. However, studies have related IPS differences among adults only to behavior. Based on existing research and theory, it was predicted that children with balanced IPS, i.e., virtually no tendency to perceive and/or characterize behavior as positive and negative, will exhibit greater psychosocial competence (Hypothesis 1). Although previous investigators have speculated that parent and child IPSs are similar, this hypothesis has not been examined empirically. Thus, such speculations were also explored (Hypothesis 2). This hypothesis states that when both parents exhibit balanced IPS, their child will evidence a similar IPS, and when both parents evidence the same biased IPS, their child will evidence biased IPS. In addition, this study assessed parent-child IPS relationships suggested by other theories, and it assessed the relationship of children's IPS to (a) projective responses to aspects of another's positive

and negative behavior (i.e., reactive style) and (b) perceptual or observational accuracy. Finally, relationships between children's IPS measures, reactive style measures, perceptual accuracy, sex, IQ, and socioeconomic status were examined.

Ranging in age from six to ten years old, 56 male and female children were selected primarily on the basis of teacher ratings of psychosocial competence. These children were tested on (a) two previously used but modified IPS measures--the Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC) and the Perceptions of the Adult Playmate Inventory (PAPI); (b) the Person Picture Story Test (PPST), which was developed for this study; and, (c) the Sensitivity to Children Questionnaire, modified for children (STC-MC). The modified CBC and PAPI items describe a positive or negative behavior or characteristic on which subjects rate a video-taped child and adult (actors) who are interacting together in a playroom. Using ambiguous, neutral pictures of interpersonal situations, the PPST has subjects report how they perceive other people responding to a child similar to themselves in age and sex. The STC-MC has the subject respond to a hypothetical child exhibiting a negative behavior motivated in part by a positive intention. Scoring of these measures enabled classification of subjects as predominantly positive, negative, or balanced perceivers or, in the case of the STC-MC, responders. In addition, children's levels of perceptual, or observational, accuracy of the video-taped child and adult were measured. Modified versions of the CBC and PAPI were administered to both parents of 52 child subjects and the mother of an additional child.

Simple and multivariate analyses of variance and correlation analyses were used to examine the hypotheses. Where appropriate, child age, IQ, and socioeconomic status were covaried or partialed out of the analyses. Results indicate that balanced IPS in children did not relate to psychosocial competence (Hypothesis 1); however, children evidencing more positive perceptions of the adult (but not child) stimulus tended ($p < .10$) to be rated higher in psychosocial competence. Hypothesis 2 also was not supported. However, the relatively more salient relationships among the many found between parent and child IPSs indicate that (a) in perceptions of the child stimulus and with the exception of fathers and sons, balanced parent IPS related to positive offspring IPS and (b) with the exception of the relationship between fathers and daughters regarding the adult stimulus, parent and daughter signed IPSs were positively related.

Statistically significant but relatively weak ($r$s range from .23 to .30; $p$s < .05) correlations between the three child IPS measures suggest weak stability of IPS across different person perception stimuli. The presence of only one significant relationship in six correlations between perceptual and reactive style measures provides little support for the speculation that positive and negative IPS simply translates into positive and negative responsiveness to others' behavior. Significant relationships were also found between (a) perceptual accuracy and balanced IPS regarding the child stimulus, (b) children's perceptual accuracy and psychosocial competence, and (c) female child sex and both positive perceptions of the child stimulus and positive responses to the child in the role play situations (i.e., reactive style). Finally, mixed support complicated by

numerous sex differences was found for relationships between child age, IQ, and socioeconomic status on the one hand and perceptual accuracy and perceptual and reactive style on the other.

To my wife, Martha, for her enthusiastic support, patience, and confidence in me throughout my latter graduate years.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

# INTRODUCTION

It is a truism that individuals do not perceive the world as it is; rather, "the perceiver has a large role in organizing his perceptual world," selecting and synthesizing stimuli often in idiosyncratic ways (Hastorf, 1970).

Beginning in the nineteenth century, Wundt (1911) presented research suggesting that perception represents a process of interpretation of sensory data based on one's previous experiences. More recently, Bruner and his colleagues (Bruner, 1951, 1957; Bruner & Jones, 1954; Bruner & Minturn, 1955; Bruner & Postman, 1949; Bruner, Postman, & Rodrigues, 1951; Postman, Bruner, & Walk, 1951; Postman & Bruner, 1952) have provided abundant evidence suggesting that conceptions and expectations learned from past experience act as predispositions--or hypotheses, as Bruner calls them--which operate to select, organize, "gate out," and transform perceptual stimuli. Similarly, the transactionalists (Ames, 1951; Ittelson, 1952; Ittelson & Kilpatrick, 1951; Kilpatrick, 1962) have provided evidence suggesting that unconscious assumptions derived from previous transactions with the environment determine one's unique perceptual world. Emphasizing the individual's role in creating his or her experience, the transactionalists Ittelson and Cantril (1954) have summarized the perceptual literature as follows:

> In short, the overall trend of contemporary perceptual studies has been away from the earlier stimulus orientation, based on the assumption that external stimuli determine perceptions, and toward the treatment of perceiving as essentially a creative process actively carried on by the organism. (p. 672)

The idea of selective perception based on previous experience is pervasive in the person perception literature as well (Campbell, Miller, Lubetsky, & O'Connell, 1964; Kenny, 1964; Larson, 1975; Newcomb, Turner, & Converse, 1965; Shelley & Toch, 1968; Smith, 1973; Toch & Shulte, 1961; Warr & Knapper, 1968). Like the perceptual researchers cited above, Gage and Cronbach (1955), from their review of the person perception literature, concluded that the processing of stimuli in person perception is "dominated far more by what the [perceiver] brings into [the situation] than by what he takes in during it" (p. 420). Moreover, it is commonly assumed that one's perceptions or judgments of another affect one's behavior toward that person. Lewin (1936, 1951), for example, discussed behavior as a function of the "life space," which represents the cumulative perceptions of one's world. Murphy (1947) wrote of the "unity of perception and action," while Sherif and Sherif (1956) spoke of the "unity of experience and action." Livesley and Bromley (1973) argued that "the impression one has of another person [represents] a subjective map (schema, program, or plan) which guides one's behavior in relation to the stimulus person" (p. 185). More specifically, Asch (1952) stated that:

> If a person mistakenly perceives that he is surrounded by hostile persons, he should behave accordingly, perhaps behaving with an anxious or retaliatory hostility and thereby gaining a reputation of being hostile. (p. 4)

Numerous psychological theorists have also argued that the nature of one's perceptions affects one's level of psychosocial functioning. For example, Ittelson and Kutash (1961) argued that perception is "a crucial process intimately involved in the effective functioning of the individual," and that a person manifesting psychopathology behaves in unsatisfactory ways because his or her actions are based on misperceptions. Similarly, Kelly (1955), Ellis (1962), Rorschach (1942), and Sullivan (1953) through his concept of parataxic distortion; Freud (1933) through his concept of transference; and the ego psychologists such as Hartmann (1939) and Kris (1952), through their concept of adaptive ego functioning, all essentially argued that maladjustment or psychopathology involves perceptions which are not based on reality and which are inappropriate to the situation.

Despite the prevalent acceptance of the notion of selective behavior perception and its importance in interpersonal behavior, behavior perception itself is a "remarkably neglected" topic in developmental psychology (Livesley & Bromley, 1973), and the effects of differences in general person perception on behavior have only been sparsely researched (Larson, 1975; Warr & Knapper, 1968). Although a few studies have demonstrated that perceptions affect behavior, they have only investigated the effects resulting from manipulation of an attribute of the perceived person, such as when the perceived person has been depicted as being warm or cold (Feldman & Kleck, 1970) or handicapped or normal (Farina, Sherman, & Allen, 1965; Kleck, Ono, & Hartoff, 1966). Only recently has any work begun to investigate the effects of stable perceiver differences on interpersonal behavior (Messé, Stollak,

Larson, & Michaels, 1979). Moreover, while numerous studies have documented that various diagnostic classes of mentally ill perceive their world differently than normals, most, if not all, of these studies were concerned with perceptions of aspects of the non-human object world, while few, if any, involved person perception per se (Warr & Knapper, 1968).

The present study is designed primarily to (a) investigate the relationship between what Messé et al. called "interpersonal perceptual style" (IPS) in children and child psychosocial competence, and (b) understand the origins of IPS through the study of the relationship between parent and child IPS. IPS may be defined as an individual's general tendency to perceive and evaluate others' behavior positively or negatively (Messé et al., 1979). To put this concept into perspective, it might be helpful to review some prominent models of the person perception process.

## Models of Person Perception

Generally, researchers (Bieri, 1962; Livesley & Bromley, 1973; Shrauger & Altrocchi, 1964) described the person perception process as involving (a) selection of stimulus characteristics from the perceptual field, (b) "encoding" (Bieri, 1962) of these stimuli through one's cognitive system into a trait impression or personality construct, and (c) making further inferences to form an integrated picture (impression) of another. Steps a and b above involve an inferential process; however, research has suggested that the inferences, especially in the second step, are made immediately, based on minimal

information, and are virtually impossible to separate from the perceptual process (Bieri, 1962; Gage & Cronbach, 1955; Smith, 1973). In fact, many researchers (Bruner & Postman, 1949; Postman, Bruner, & Walk, 1951) argued that through expectancies and acts of categorization, perception is inevitably influenced by inferences. On another level, this inferential process is based on an implicit personality theory consisting of "built-in" (Gage & Cronbach, 1955; Warr & Knapper, 1968) or "illusionary" (Smith, 1973) correlations built up through past experiences which the perceiver consciously or unconsciously imposes on and perceives as the characteristics of the human stimulus.

In a similar but more comprehensive model of person perception, Warr and Knapper (1968) described the process as involving three major subsystems: (a) the input selection system which involves the selection of only certain aspects of the stimulus person and situation and is influenced by both present and stored stimulus person information, "present context information," and both "stable and state characteristics of the perceiver"; (b) the processing center which consists of the perceiver's particular conscious and unconscious inferences and, like the input selection system, is influenced by the perceiver's current state and stable characteristics; and, (c) an output system which consists of expectancy, attributive, and affective responses and which, in the ongoing process of perceiving another, feeds back into and influences all components of the input selective system and aspects of the processing center, thus influencing the nature of the stimulus person information selected and the way it is

processed. Warr and Knapper's model is impressive in its detail and comprehensiveness, representing probably the best synthesis of previously advanced models. In this model, IPS would represent a "stable characteristic of the perceiver" and thus would influence both the input selector and the processing center in person perception.

Contrary to the perspective exemplified by Warr and Knapper's model, some researchers have argued that differences in person perception are due to response biases and have little or nothing to do with perception. For example, researchers have shown that individuals differ in their tendencies to react favorably or unfavorably (i.e., positively or negatively) toward others both before and after another is observed (Kaplan, 1970, 1971a, 1971b, 1972, 1973; Larson, 1975; Levy, 1961), and that this tendency remains constant across all others, from recent acquaintances to long-time intimates (Gage & Cronbach, 1955). Specifically, Kaplan (1973) has argued that these differing tendencies represent differences in general evaluative or affective response dispositions independent of the perceptual process which are a function of the "pooled evaluative components of all the beliefs which one holds about people in general" (p. 58). However, it would seem that if these response disposition differences derive from previous evaluation as Kaplan has said, these differences would be a product of the perceptual process and, thus, be in part a product of perceptual style. At any rate, the empirical validation of individual differences in response dispositions emphasizes that descriptions of others are, at least in part, products of response dispositions, and

that it is probably most accurate to conceptualize IPS as representing an interaction of perceptual, inferential, and response processes.

Based on existing evidence, it seems clear that IPS is at least in part a perceptual phenomenon. Through a number of studies evidencing the effect of expectancies on perception, Bruner and his coworkers have dramatically demonstrated that expectancies based on past experience operate to influence the perceptual process and do not represent a response bias (Bruner & Postman, 1949; Bruner, Postman, & Walk, 1951). For example, in one such experiment performed by Bruner and Postman (1949) and later replicated by Lasko and Lindauer (1968), subjects were tachistoscopically presented with playing cards, some of which were incongruent in that the black color of the spades or clubs was changed to red or the red color of the hearts or diamonds to black. Not only did it take subjects on the average 13 times longer exposure to correctly identify the incongruent card, but many subjects reported what Bruner called a "compromise reaction." That is, they often reported a red six of hearts as a "purple" six of hearts or a "purple" six of spades, a black four of hearts as a "grayish" four of spades or hearts, or a red six of clubs as a six of clubs "illuminated by a red light." These responses are inconsistent with a response bias interpretation and seem to represent a genuine perceptual effect. Secondly, an important assumption in projective techniques and the concepts of transference (Freud, 1933) and parataxic distortions (Sullivan, 1953) is that past experiences influence our perception of, and not just our inferences concerning, others. Moreover, most people who have compared their perceptions of TAT cards

with those of others can attest to the fact that their perceptual experience may be entirely contrary to that reported by others.

Using Neisser's (1967) recommendation that resolution of the response bias versus perceptual set debate must rest on subjects' phenomenological reports, self-reports of both Bruner's subjects and those reporting different perceptions of the same projective stimulus suggested that differences in perceptions of the same projective stimulus represents, in part, a perceptual process.

Finally, consistent with the theory that expectancies act to select the perceptual stimuli processed, Spinelli and Pribram (1967) have provided evidence of a physiological mechanism which selectively tunes our awareness. They found that stimulation of different areas of the cortex alters the configuration of the receptive field and that the brain can rapidly alter the way stimuli are received on the retina. This study supported other research which has shown that efferent (output) traits can suppress or alter information sent toward the brain, and the central nervous system can select and turn on or off incoming sensory information in virtually all sensory modalities (Butter, 1969; Isaacson, Hult, Blair, & Molton, 1965; Thompson, 1967). Thus, this evidence suggests that conceptualization, or what is more commonly called perceptual sets, might operate with the central nervous system to alter the actual aspects of behavior selected and experienced or perceived.

## Some Unanswered Questions Relevant to This Study

At this point, a number of questions pertinent to this study remain unanswered. First, because the models summarized above were based primarily on research with adults, their applicability to children may be limited. For example, it would seem that due to developmental differences, children would process person perception information differently than adults, relying more on the actual behavioral stimuli and less on inferences in forming their person perceptions (Piaget, 1950, 1952; Werner, 1948). Second, although suggestive of stable adult perceiver differences in person perception, the literature discussed above leaves unclear the relationship between these stable IPS's and interpersonal functioning in either adults or children.

## Differences in Children's Person Perceptions and Their Relationship to Interpersonal Behavior and Adjustment

Although until recently there seems to have been virtually no research correlating stable and general perceiver differences in person perception with interpersonal functioning, some researchers have suggested the importance of children's perceptions of parent behavior particularly by arguing that children's perceptions of parents' behavior may be more influential in children's behavior and adjustment than the parental behavior itself (Ausubel, Balthazer, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpoont, & Welkowitz, 1954; Dubin & Dubin, 1965; Goldin, 1969; Hawkes, 1957; Heilbrun, 1973; Rabkin, 1965; Serot & Teevan, 1961; Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971, 1974). In this view, it is

important to measure a child's perceptions as a mediating variable between overt parental behavior and the effects of this behavior on a child's social actions and psychosocial adjustment. For example, in discussing previous research concerning the effects of parent-child interaction on child adjustment, most of which assumed parent behavior itself to be the crucial variable affecting child behavior, Serot and Teevan (1961) have written:

> An important developmental step has been underemphasized in theory and is almost absent from research. Previous experiments have not discovered definite one-to-one relationships [between parent behavior and child adjustment], for they have failed to take into account that the child reacts to his perception of the situation and not directly to the situation. (p. 377)

Similarly, Ausubel et al. (1964) argued:

> Although parental behavior is an objective event in the real world, it affects the child's ego development only to the extent and in the form in which he perceives it. Hence, perceived parent behavior is in reality a more direct, relevant, and proximate determinant of personality development than the actual stimulus content to which it refers. . . . In attempting to identify causal factors influencing personality development, it is less relevant to establish the nature of the actual environment to which the individual is exposed than to ascertain the distinguishing features of his perceived world. (p. 173)

And finally, in a critique of the research concerning families with a "disturbed" member, Rabkin (1965) concluded that "there is reason to believe that the influence of parental attitudes and behavior depends more on the child's perception of them than on what they 'really are'" (p. 123).

Much research has supported these conclusions. First, studies have found correlations between negative social and psychological

adjustment on the one hand and both (a) adolescents' perceptions of their parents as rejecting and (b) adolescents' perceptions of their parents' view of them as negative (see Dubin & Dubin, 1965). In addition, Goldin (1969) cited studies demonstrating relations between child delinquency and child perceptions of parents as rejecting, less loving, incompetent, and lax in discipline; between low school achievement and child perceptions of parents as restrictive, punitive, and severe; and, between child maladjustment and child perceptions of parents as rejecting, critical and authoritarian, fear-inducing, maltreating, extremely restrictive, and dominant. Further, in studies which recognized the heterogeneous nature of symptoms in clinic referred children, correlations were found between acting-out symptomatology and child perceptions of parents as under-controlling and indulgent and withdrawn symptomatology and child perceptions of parents as insufficiently loving and highly controlling.

Because the above research only represents correlations between children's perceptions of parents and child adjustment, it could be argued that adjusted and deviant children's different perceptions only represent accurate reflection of parental behavior and an uninfluential epiphenomenon in the parent-child relationship. However, a second body of evidence illustrates the heterogeneity in perception of behavior across individuals in response to the same stimulus and supports the idea that a child's perceptions are an influential antecedent of his or her behavior.

Goldin (1969) summarized studies which support the idea that some portion of the variance of child behavior "is related both to

the objective stimulus conditions and to the stimulus as experienced" (p. 222). He argued that factors such as the subject's cognitive development level and cognitive and defensive styles "will produce a discrepancy between objective and phenomenological stimulus" (p. 222). Numerous studies have, in fact, supported this position. Hastorf and Cantril (1954) showed a film of a controversial Princeton-Dartmouth football game to Princeton and Dartmouth undergraduates, instructing them to note and rate as "flagrant" or "mild" any infractions they saw. As expected, compared to Dartmouth students, Princeton undergraduates saw a significantly higher ratio of Dartmouth to Princeton infractions and rated a higher proportion of Dartmouth and lower proportion of Princeton infractions as "flagrant." This study demonstrated the importance of individual perceptions in perceiving and interpreting behavior. In commenting on the phenomenon evidenced in this study, Rabkin (1965) argued that it is parallel to what is found in family situations "where divergence (between behavior and perception of it) is even more dramatic due to the heightened emotional arousal valence in the family" (p. 106). More specific to children's perceptions, Yarrow and Campbell (1963) found that children's reported perceptions of other children's behaviors resulted in very different "realities" from those portrayed by adult observer ratings. In addition, Yarrow and Campbell found that while some children evidenced both positive and negative judgments in their descriptions of others, the majority consistently described others either in positive or negative terms. The fact that each child remained highly consistent ($r = .76$; $p < .001$) in their particular perceptual evaluative tendency

from the first week of camp to the second testing two weeks later indicated, according to Yarrow and Campbell, that these "perceptual frameworks which appear to operate in children's person perceptions are stable and have general applicability" (p. 72).

Similarly, Gollin found evidence for three kinds of perceptual or response styles in both undergraduates and children. In his 1954 study, Gollin asked undergraduates to describe a woman shown in a short, four-part film, two parts of which showed her engaging in positive behaviors and two part of which showed her engaging in negative behaviors. Gollin found that while one-half of the undergraduates included both positive and negative characteristics in their descriptions of the woman, the other one-half (called "simplified responders") used only the positive or negative behavior in their descriptions, thus ignoring one-half of the presented information. Gollin also found that while one-half of the first group (called "aggregate responders") merely acknowledged negative and positive aspects of the woman in an additive, unrelated fashion, the other one-half of this group (called "related responders") made inferences and related the positive and negative aspects into a unified picture.

In a second study, Gollin (1958) found developmental differences in the ability to use both positive and negative information. In describing a boy who evidenced positive behavior in two vignettes and negative behavior in two vignettes, only 50% of the subjects who were eight or nine years old evidenced recognition of both positive and negative behaviors, while 90% of the adolescents aged 16 and 17 did so. Also, consistent with the cognitive development theories of

Piaget (1952, 1965) and Werner (1948), while only 43% of the pre-adolescent children made inferential attempts to account for both positive and negative aspects of behavior, 65% of the adolescents aged 16 and 17 years did so. As Emmerich (1959) and Dubin and Dubin (1965) have argued, this finding emphasizes the greater importance of actual behavior (as opposed to inferred traits) in children's, as opposed to adults', person perceptions. In addition, Yarrow and Campbell (1963) and Gollin (1954) found that the way a subject organizes his or her perceptual world (a) strongly influences his or her attitudes and affective reactions to others, and (b) this effect, in turn, appears to influence "significantly and systematically" the child's perceptual selection and interpretation of behavioral information from peers. For example, Gollin found that while over one-half of the adult "simplified responders" wrote descriptions containing strongly derogatory, condemnatory, or disparaging statements, only 15% of the "aggregate" and "related" responders did so. More generally, these studies, together with that of Hastorf and Cantril, support the existence of individual differences in selection from and interpretation of the same behavioral stimuli (and thus the lack of one-to-one relationship between perception and stimulus) and demonstrate the importance of apparently stable perceptual-cognitive processes in producing these differences.

Although not investigating children exclusively, other research has suggested the existence of different perceptual "realities" in response to the same stimulus and the importance of these person perception differences in psychosocial development. For example, Kurtz

and Grummon (1972) found that while therapist, client, and independent judge's ratings (i.e., perceptions) of therapist understanding of client were uncorrelated, the client's rating alone correlated significantly ($r = .55$) with positive psychotherapy outcome. In their investigations of adolescents' perceptions of their families, VanDerVeen and Novak (1971, 1974) have twice produced evidence suggesting that while "disturbed" adolescents do not differ from their "normal" siblings in their perceptual sensitivity to task-oriented family competencies (although together their perceptions differ from those of adolescents in normal families), the "disturbed" adolescents seem to evidence a greater perceptual sensitivity to the negative emotional aspects of family interactions. To VanDerVeen and Novak, these results strongly suggested the importance of differences in perceptual sensitivity to different kinds of behavior in adolescent functioning.

In another study, Baumrind (1967) found that while "authoritarian" parenting correlated with relatively incompetent child functioning in white families, it correlated with the most competent level of female child functioning in black families. In explaining this difference, Baumrind argued that because the black middle-class social context views strict child obedience to authority as justified and necessary, the child perceives authoritarian parenting behavior as supportive and reassuring, and it is associated with competent child functioning.

Finally, and on a more generalized level, individuals who score as repressors and sensitizers on the Repression-Sensitization Scale--i.e., individuals who exhibit more extreme differences in perceptual

sensitivities or insensitivities to positive and negative aspects of self and others, thus producing different perceptual realities (Kaplan, 1967)--are less able than are more average scorers to benefit from additional information in making accurate predictions regarding another. This result, coupled with the additional finding that extreme scorers exhibit greater psychological maladjustment, suggests that (a) perceptual bias in repressors and sensitizers interferes with their ability to utilize aspects of information in person perception, and (b) there is a possible link between this perceptual handicap and poor psychosocial functioning.

## IPS: Research and Theory

Similar to Gollin (1954, 1958) and Yarrow and Campbell (1963), a group of researchers at Michigan State University (Green, 1975; Messé et al., 1979; Stollak, Messé, Michaels, Buldain, Catlin, & Paritee, 1979) have found differences across individuals in perceptual sensitivity to and evaluation of positive and negative adult and child behaviors. Unlike earlier work, however, these studies explored these differences in adults and, in a far more systematic fashion, examined the relationship between these person perception differences (which they call IPS) and behavior. Specifically, this research studied the relationship between adults' IPS and (a) their interpersonal behavior with other adults and children, (b) their and their parents' child-rearing concerns and practices, and (c) their children's level of psychosocial competence. To do this, Messé et al. (1979) created a 20-minute videotape of a female psychology graduate student interacting in a playroom with a child trained to emit an equal number of positive

and negative behaviors. They had subjects watch the videotape and check on a 64-item checklist those behaviors, behavioral modes, or feelings that the subjects "saw" emitted on the tape. From responses to the checklist, a score indicating each subject's IPS could be derived. Depending on whether or not the subject had checked a relatively higher proportion of positive or negative behaviors and characteristics as "seen," each subject's IPS was classified as positive or negative; on the other hand, if a subject checked an approximately equal number of positive and negative behaviors and characteristics, the subject's IPS was classified as balanced.

### The Relationship Between IPS in Adults and Adult Behavior with Peers

One of the first studies examining the relationship between IPS and behavior--summarized as Study 2 in Messé et al. (1979)--Larson (1975) placed undergraduates with either negative, positive, or balanced IPS in a confrontational, "revealed differences" task situation with a carefully trained confederate undergraduate. Significant differences in behavior characterized the three perceptual style groups. For example, both the confederate and an unobtrusive observer rated positive perceivers, especially when male, most negatively; conversely, of the three perceptual style groups, the positive perceivers rated the confederate most negatively. Although the female positive perceivers, unlike their male counterparts, engaged in virtually no overt hostile communications, they manifested an "hysterical style" marked by helpless, dependent behavior with male confederates and "catty, passive-aggressive," negatively-toned behavior with female

confederates. In addition, they tended to remain uninvolved in the interaction. On the other hand, confederates rated negative perceivers as significantly more positive and less hostile than positive perceivers, and balanced perceivers were rated the most positive of all. Negative perceivers were rated more frequently sarcastic, and negative perceivers spent significantly more time in disagreement than balanced perceivers. Larson noted that the negative perceivers seemed to feel comfortable in an argumentative role, and they were more dogmatic and interrupted more often than balanced perceivers. At times, they engaged in heated arguments, but they never attacked the confederate as a person. Although balanced perceivers were rated the most anxious while disagreeing with the confederate, they (especially the male balanced perceivers) were rated most positively and self-disclosing by both confederate and observers. Furthermore, in dividing their time more evenly across the three discussion items, the balanced perceivers seemed the most realistic and task-oriented; they more than negative or positive perceivers seemed able to realize after some discussion that the confederate (per his or her training) was not going to change positions, and thus the balanced perceivers were better able to move on appropriately to another item. In conflict situations, then, balanced perceivers were judged to be the most positive and appropriate in their interactions. The fact that they manifested more anxiety and were rated most appropriate and positive also suggests that their anxiety levels were moderate and not dysfunctional. Perhaps balanced perceivers are less frightened by anxiety and conflict and, therefore, have less need to distort or

avoid either. From her results, Larson also speculated that negative perceivers are accustomed to and feel comfortable with conflict, since it is compatible with their IPS; therefore, they do not avoid it, and for this reason they fared relatively well in this experiment's conflict situation. However, Larson speculated, it could be that when another person is neutral or positive in behavior, the negative perceiver might become more anxious, dysfunctional, and more negatively perceived. The fact that negative perceivers were more frequently sarcastic (i.e., emitted more negatively-toned positive statements) supports this idea that they have conflicts with positive behaviors. In addition, Larson noted that a subgroup among the negative behavior perceivers appeared very withdrawn and "disturbed" during the experimental task and maintained a silence of "intense quality" for long segments of time.

From her results, Larson concluded that because the positive perceivers had the most difficulty in this experimental situation in which persons had to confront one another, they are probably most dysfunctional in conflict situations, while negative perceivers are probably most dysfunctional in positive or neutral interpersonal situations.

### Research Concerning the Relationships of IPS in Adults, Adult Behavior with Children, and Child Functioning

Messé et al. (1979) had undergraduates with positive, negative, or balanced IPS's each interact with a child in a playroom for 30 minutes and obtained results which supported Larson's conclusions. In post-session interviews, the children rated female balanced

perceivers as significantly less friendly and more task-oriented than both male balanced perceivers and the other females; male balanced perceivers as significantly more helpful than male negative perceivers or female balanced perceivers; and male children reported significantly more enjoyment while playing with positive perceivers. Moreover, on all six scales of child functioning while in the playroom, observers judged the children playing with a positive perceiver as most effective and those children playing with a negative perceiver as least effective. Further, negative perceivers were rated significantly more dominating and less submitting, and compared to other dyads, dyads with a negative perceiver and a male child evidenced significantly more acts of helplessness; dyads with a female negative perceiver evidenced significantly more passive questioning; and, dyads with a male negative perceiver and a female child evidenced significantly more competitive behaviors than did the dyads with a male balanced or positive perceiver and a female child. Similarly, male positive perceivers emitted more helping and more cooperative behaviors than the other two male IPS groups; balanced behavior perceivers emitted the fewest acts of structuring; and, female balanced perceivers emitted significantly fewer acts of dependence than the other two female perceptual style groups. From these results, Messé et al. concluded that negative perceivers are the most authoritarian in interactions with children and, at least in a short-term encounter, children behave the most effectively with positive perceivers and the least effectively with negative perceivers.

In light of other evidence, however, it seems that positive perceivers are probably not as competent in their interactions with children as these results suggest. For instance, Green (1975) found that positive perceivers, as compared to negative perceivers, more often report that they would "do nothing" when a child failed to comply with a parental request. This type of behavior might please the child in a short-term encounter, but resembles behavior exhibited by parental types who, while usually "doing nothing" in response to children's non-compliant behavior, often lash out in rage, helplessness, and frustration at their children and tend to have poorly functioning, dependent, acting-out children (Baumrind, 1967, 1971). This finding, coupled with Larson's results indicating poor positive perceiver functioning in conflict situations, suggests that while a child might enjoy playing with such a person in a highly cooperative and very transient encounter, over the long term and especially in conflict situations, the positive perceiver would behave in ways that were both less effective and less enjoyable for a child.

Finally, Stollak et al. (1979) found that fathers of "problem" children had more negatively biased IPS scores than did fathers of non-problem children, a result which further suggests a relationship between negative IPS and behavior problems. Due to the unintended absence of positive perceivers in this sample, hypotheses concerning the relationship between positive IPS in parents and child functioning could not be tested.

From the above research, it is possible to speculate that (a) IPS remains relatively constant across social situations and perceived

persons, (b) IPS is significantly related to interpersonal behavior, and (c) balanced perceivers probably function the most effectively across situations. In addition, theoretical speculations concerning the interpersonal consequences of each IPS would seem to support these conclusions.

Predicted Effects of IPS Differences on Interpersonal Behavior

In what may be the earliest psychological theory concerning the interpersonal effects of something akin to differing IPS, Lewin (1936, 1951) hypothesized that all interpersonal perceptions are either positively or negatively "valenced," and that persons who perceive others negatively (i.e., those who might be called negative perceivers) would have greater "avoidant" interpersonal tendencies, while persons who perceive others positively would have greater approach tendencies. Although logical, Lewin's conceptualizations seem inadequate and overly simplistic. It seems reasonable to assume that a person who perceives others as negative might also adopt an aggressive orientation in response to the perceived negative, aggressive orientation of others or, what may be most typical of the negative perceiver, an alternation between a withdrawn and attacking orientation. In addition, Green (1975) argued that due to the negative perceiver's behavior, others would respond more negatively and less positively toward him or her, which would serve to further reinforce his or her negative perceptual bias. Also, it would seem that if negative IPS is primarily due to an insensitivity to others' positive behaviors or characteristics, it would lead to infrequent responsiveness to others'

positive behaviors. As a result, others' positive advances toward the negative perceiver would more readily be extinguished, a consequence which would further reinforce the negative perceptual bias.

Approaching the subject from a social learning perspective (Bandura, 1977), because a negative perceiver more readily "sees" negative behaviors and characteristics and/or less readily "sees" positive behaviors, he or she would less readily learn from others' positive behaviors and would more readily imitate others' negative behaviors. Lastly, using Cooley's (1909) theory of the "looking glass" self (which hypothesizes that one's self-concept is based on the "reflected appraisals of others"), it could be argued that because a negative perceiver more readily perceives negative responses toward self, he or she would also have a negative self-concept with its attendant psychosocial handicaps.

Contrary to Lewin's suggestion, a positive IPS would not seem to foster positive psychosocial functioning. Although a positive perceiver may tend to engage in a higher proportion of approach behaviors, it would seem that his or her psychosocial functioning would also be inferior to that of a balanced perceiver. Because a positive perceiver "sees" a lower level of negative behaviors and characteristics, it would seem that he or she might often approach or respond to others inappropriately and, thus, might be experienced as intrusive, egocentric, narcissistic, insensitive, as one who never sees "the handwriting on the wall," or, as Green (1975) has suggested, a "milquetoast." Due to such inappropriate behavior, a positive perceiver might encounter frequent rejection and little interpersonal satisfaction. Moreover,

due to inordinate insensitivity to negative "feedback" cues, the positive perceiver would be less able to modify his or her dysfunctional interpersonal behavior, meet his or her needs (because of a less balanced and, hence, less accurate "reading" of the situation), and advance his or her level of psychosocial functioning. At the same time, being relatively insensitive to negative cues, it would seem that the positive perceiver would have a more positive self-concept than the negative perceiver. Also, from a social learning perspective, it seems that due to his or her perceptual biases, a positive perceiver might less readily see (and thus imitate less) negative behaviors and more readily see (and thus imitate more) positive behaviors. For this reason, the positive perceiver would evidence greater psychosocial competence than a negative perceiver. However, given the nature of positive IPS, as is discussed below, this speculation is probably less true than one might imagine.

In large part, a positive IPS probably represents either a perceptual insensitivity to negative behaviors and characteristics of others or a "mislabeling" of negative behaviors as positive. Although insensitivity to others' negative behaviors or characteristics might give a positive perceiver an advantage over the negative perceiver, a mislabeling of negative behaviors and characteristics as positive in the social learning process would surely be detrimental to the positive perceiver's psychosocial competence as judged by the prevailing societal norms. Thus, depending on the type of positive IPS a child might have, in the social learning process, he or she may be somewhat advantaged or severely disadvantaged over the negative perceiver; thus,

from a social learning perspective, it is difficult to predict generally the effects of positive IPS on psychosocial competence. On the average, however, it would seem that although a positive perceiver may be slightly more psychosocially competent than would a negative perceiver, both types of biases would be associated with relatively low levels of psychosocial competence and higher levels of dysfunction.

Because the balanced perceiver is able to see both positive and negative behaviors and characteristics, he or she would have a wider range of information and feedback available, a more realistic orientation, and would be better able to behave in appropriate and need-fulfilling ways. Therefore, a balanced perceiver would be more satisfied, interpersonally competent, secure (in part because he or she would feel more masterful and his or her world would be more predictable), and could avoid much of the frustration, with all its attendant negative correlates, experienced by negative and positive perceivers.

Given the logical assumption that the balanced perceiver is open to a wider range of stimuli, the theories of Rogers (1951)[1], Freud (1961)[2], and other clinical theorists mentioned earlier (e.g., Sullivan, Kelly) support the hypothesis that balanced perceivers are more psychosocially competent than negative or positive perceivers. Specifically, Green (1975) endorsed this idea when he wrote: "The first

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[1]Rogers (1951) defined the healthy person as one who is open to a wide range of experience.

[2]Freud (1961) emphasized the reality principle as functioning synonymously with psychological health.

step in effective response to [another's] behavior [or in meeting one's needs] is awareness of what behavior and feelings exist . . . at the time" (p. 10). And again:

> Biased perception of behavior can include implicit but powerful forms of denial, mystification, and neglect . . . and they [positive and negative perceptual style] suggest an inability to cope with the reality of socially "desirable" and "undesirable" behaviors. (p. 9)

Also, it could be argued that perceptual bias is indicative of internal conflicts over negative or positive impulses. Consistent with this speculation, research with projective pictures has suggested that absence of behavioral or affective themes in response to pictures suggesting them (i.e., distortions of stimuli which results in a deficit of reported negative or positive behaviors or affects) or high reported frequency of a particular action or affect to an ambiguous stimulus (i.e., distortion of stimuli which results in a surplus of reported negative or positive behaviors or traits) signifies anxiety or conflict concerning those behaviors or affects (Kagan, 1960; Kenny, 1964). From this view, perceptual bias would be indicative of internal conflicts and a poorer level of psychological (i.e., intrapsychic) functioning.

Finally, based on the kind of parenting a child would seem to require to become a negative, positive, or balanced perceiver, it would seem that balanced perceivers would evidence more effective psychosocial functioning.

Parental Behavior and IPS Associated with Different Child Perceptual Styles

It has been argued that the perceptual style of parent and child will tend to be similar and that the child-rearing practices associated with biased IPS will result in poorer psychosocial functioning in that person's offspring (Green, 1975; Larson, 1975). In other words, because children tend to mirror parental IPS and because a biased IPS is associated with poorer child-rearing practices, there is greater probability that children with biased IPS have received less competent parenting and, as a result, would exhibit poorer psychosocial functioning.

It should be noted that the hypothesis that parent and child IPS are similar has not been tested and, thus, needs validation. On the other hand, some support for such a hypothesis exists. For example, Green (1975) found that undergraduates with negative IPSs endorsed "criticizing" and "shaming" techniques of parental discipline significantly more often than those with positive IPSs, and, as mentioned earlier, undergraduates with positive IPSs were significantly more likely to "do nothing" as compared to those with negative IPS in response to a child's failure to comply with a strong parental request. In further support of their speculations, Green and Larson described the child-rearing behaviors that would seem to follow from each IPS and how these behaviors would facilitate development of an IPS that is similar to that of the parent. These arguments, along with additional ones (some of which have research support) are presented in Appendix A.

From the evidence presented above, as well as the arguments given in Appendix A, it would seem that although it is not possible to predict which type of biased parental IPS would lead to which type of biased child perceptual bias, it is most reasonable to argue that (a) biased (i.e., either positive or negative) IPS in parents would be associated with biased IPS in children, (b) balanced IPS in parents would be associated with balanced child IPS, and (c) the kinds of parenting associated with positive or negative IPS in parents would facilitate relatively poor psychosocial functioning in a child.

Based on theories about processes such as identification (Freud, 1933; Kohlberg, 1966; Mowrer, 1950) or imitation (Bandura, 1969, 1977), it would seem that the child and his or her parents would perceive others in a similar fashion. Thus, the child would exhibit the same IPS as his or her parents. However, based on this same identification and observational learning research, it would also seem that a child would imitate more the parent whom he or she most admires, or the same-sexed parent; thus, the IPS of the parent with whom the child most identifies or the same-sexed parent would correlate with the child's IPS. However, from another perspective, one may criticize this method of predicting child IPS by arguing that because the mother usually interacts with her child much more than the father, her IPS (i.e., her way of labeling and evaluating behaviors) would be much more influential in both the child's psychosocial and perceptual style development (Stollak, Note 1). Thus, it could be argued that maternal IPS would best predict the child's IPS. And lastly, one might argue that because each biased perceptual style represents a unique set of

internal conflicts, the different IPS cannot be conceptualized as merely differences on the same continuum. Viewing biased IPS (either positive or negative) as perceptual distortions resulting from internal conflicts, it does not seem reasonable to predict, as the additive models would do, that a child who identifies equally with parents of differently biased IPS's would evidence a balanced IPS.

Conclusions

From both the theory and research which has been reviewed above, it can be concluded that stable differences in IPS exist in children as well as adults and, more tentatively, that balanced IPS is associated with the most effective psychosocial functioning. Based on the above line of reasoning, it would also seem that parent and child IPS would be related. However, because no research has examined the relationship between parent and child IPS, such a speculation needs empirical validation. Moreover, although the existing research is consistent with the hypothesis that balanced IPS is associated with the most effective psychosocial functioning in adults, a direct link between IPS and level of psychosocial functioning has yet to be demonstrated definitively. Due to the lack of replication, the small number of experiments, the restriction of investigations of behavioral consequences of IPS to the laboratory, and, until recently (Messé et al., 1979; Stollak et al., 1979), the narrow samples studied (i.e., primarily college undergraduates), conclusions from the existing IPS research must remain tentative and important questions remain unanswered.

By investigating the relationship between children's IPS and teacher-rated psychosocial competence/dysfunction and between parent and child IPS's, this study attempted to expand the populations (i.e., psychosocially competent and mildly dysfunctional children) and behavioral settings (i.e., the classroom) studied. In this way, the present work attempted to (a) validate the suggested relationship between IPS and psychosocial competence of children as they behave in naturalistic settings, and (b) clarify the origins of IPS in children. Also, expanding on Messé's and Stollak's research, this study attempted to document and clarify the importance of IPS in the identification, etiology, and treatment of "high-risk" children and families.

## Implications of this Study for the Identification and Treatment of High-Risk Children

A major aim of Messé's and Stollak's research has been to identify IPS as a "high-risk" caregiver variable so that preventative intervention programs for expectant parents who were more likely to have children with significant psychosocial dysfunction could be instituted before they became parents. As mentioned earlier, Stollak et al. (1979) found that mild child dysfunctions correlated with negative paternal IPS, thereby supporting the use of the IPS measurement technique as a possibly useful "high-risk" indicator.

This study's examination of the relationship between parent and child IPS attempted to clarify the degree to which today's parental IPS may represent a risk to future generations (e.g., grandchildren, great grandchildren). For example, if a relationship between biased parent IPS and both child dysfunction and biased IPS is found, this

would suggest that the toxic influence of biased parental IPS endures through future generations and would demonstrate even more the need for interventions to prevent this toxic multi-generational effect. Second, in an attempt to increase the power of IPS to identify "high-risk" families, this study examined the combinations of parent IPS's in relation to child IPS and functioning. Perhaps the interaction of particular pairs of parent IPS's is a more potent "high-risk" indicator than any single type of parent IPS. And finally, by attempting to clarify the relationship between IPS and psychosocial functioning in children and between parental and child IPS, this research hopefully can aid in the identification of variables facilitating child competence and dysfunction and, thus, can aid in the development of procedures which will effectively deal with these pathogenic variables.

## Hypotheses

1. Children with a balanced IPS will exhibit greater teacher-rated psychosocial competence than children with biased (i.e., positive or negative) IPS's.

2. When both parents exhibit a balanced IPS, their child will exhibit a balanced IPS; when both parents show the same biased (either positive or negative) IPS, their child will evidence a biased (either positive or negative) IPS.

Due to the conflicting theories concerning the relationship between parent and child IPS's, and especially so when parental IPS's differ, it seems premature to make more specific hypotheses concerning this relationship. However, to clarify the relationship, this study

examined it in ways that the different theories and speculations discussed above suggest.

# METHOD

This research was conducted in coordination with Messé's and Stollak's research at Michigan State University, supported by National Institute of Mental Health Grant No. 24250 and a National Institute of Mental Health Biomedical Institutional Support Grant. While both investigators shared the same selection criteria (e.g., level of child psychosocial competence/dysfunction), they differed in the variables to be predicted. While parental IPS was the major predicted variable in Messe's and Stollak's studies, child IPS is the major such variable in this study, and parent IPS is examined primarily as it relates to child IPS. While using the same instruments as Messe and Stollak to assess child competency and dysfunction, this study examined IPS, what is called reactive style, and (for some subjects) perceptual accuracy through newly constructed or revised measures.

## Measurement of IPS, Reactive Style, and Perceptual Accuracy

### Children's Instruments

The Standard Perceptual Stimulus (SPS). The SPS has been the standard stimuli used in previous research assessing IPS (Green, 1975; Larson, 1975; Messé et al., 1979; Stollak et al., 1979). It consists of a 20-minute videotaped interaction between a female graduate psychology student and either a female child or, on the alternate SPS videotape, a male child. In creating the SPS, it was intended that

these children, who were professional actors and followed the same script, would emit an equal number of "positive" and "negative" behaviors. Negative behaviors were those which, on a children's behavioral checklist, Ferguson, Partyka, and Lester (1974) found parents of clinic referred children to attribute significantly more often to their child; positive behaviors were those which parents of non-clinic referred children significantly more often attributed to their child. In further validation, Messé and Stollak had 91 volunteers read a list of these behaviors and check each on a seven-point scale ranging from extremely positive to extremely negative. All 25 of the empirically derived negative behaviors were judged significantly negative, and 25 of the 28 positive behaviors were judged significantly positive. Thus, Messé and Stollak found a high degree of consensual validation for Ferguson et al.'s list of empirically derived positive and negative behaviors.

To assess child subjects' perceptions of the child and child behaviors portrayed in the SPS, each was orally administered the Children's Behavior Checklist Modified for Children (CBC-MC), presented in Appendix B. Similarly, to assess child subjects' perceptions of the adult and adult behaviors portrayed in the SPS, each subject was orally administered the Perception of Playmate Inventory Modified for Children (PAPI-MC), presented in Appendix C.

The Children's Behavior Checklist Modified for Children (CBC-MC).

The CBC-MC is a shortened, slightly modified form of the Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC) which Messé et al. (1979) adapted from Ferguson et al. (1974). The CBC-MC consists of 31 items which

refer to positive and negative behaviors that the videotaped child emitted. By asking a subject which items are "like" or "not like" the child in the SPS, a measure of IPS can be obtained.

In creating the CBC-MC from the longer CBC, the 12 filler items, repetitive items, and items referring to motor skills (e.g., handles small objects skillfully) in the CBC were dropped, but a balance of positive and negative items was retained. When items were repetitive, the more behaviorally-oriented of those items were retained (e.g., "tends to go too far unless reminded of rules" was dropped, but "often breaks rules" was retained). Despite these changes, the fact that scores on the long and short forms of the CBC correlated .93 ($p < .001$) for the adults used in this study's sample (N = 103) suggests that the long and short forms are virtually identical measures of IPS.

The Perceptions of the Adult Playmate Inventory Modified for Children (PAPI-MC). The PAPI-MC is a shorter and modified form of the Perception of Adult Playmate Inventory (PAPI) which Michaels (1975) designed to assess children's perceptions of adult behaviors. The PAPI-MC consists of 22 bipolar items which form end-points for a four- or (for those items for which a mid-point response was possible but not provided) five-point scale along which subjects rate aspects of the adult perceived in the SPS. For all items, higher scores indicate a more positive perception. In an attempt to control order effects, two forms of the PAPI-MC consisting of opposite orders of item presentation were constructed and each form was alternately administered to successive subjects.

It should be mentioned that the creators of the SPS were interested in assessing individuals' perceptions of child behavior only; thus, only the child's behavior in the SPS was varied in an attempt to ensure a valid balance of positive and negative behaviors. In contrast, the adult, who was a clinical psychology graduate student, behaved in a non-directive, reflecting, play therapy style. Because her behavior was so uniformly benign or "positive," it was expected that PAPI-M and PAPI-MC scores would be positively skewed.

The Person Perception Story Test (PPST). The PPST was designed for this research and consists of seven highly ambiguous or neutral pictures of figures drawn in outline form (see Appendix D). Each picture depicts a child (hereafter referred to as the "focus child") of the same sex as the subject in an ambiguous relationship with another figure or other figures (e.g., parents, peers, teacher, adult stranger). As each picture is presented, a vignette concerning the situation is read and a number of questions follow. Essentially, these questions ask what the focus child and the other key figure(s) are doing, saying, thinking, and feeling and how the story ends. In this way, the child's tendency to "see" others as positively or negatively oriented (i.e., behaving, thinking, and feeling positively or negatively toward a child such as himself or herself) is determined. To ensure that the sex of the subject and the focus child match, two sets of PPST pictures were created which were identical except for the sex of the focus child.

Comparisons between the CBC-MC, PAPI-MC, and PPST and their relationships to the person perception process. Although the CBC-MC, PAPI-MC, and PPST are designed to measure IPS, the PPST differs in an important way. While the former two attempt to measure IPS by having subjects observe another emitting a range of positive and negative behaviors, the PPST attempts to measure subjects' tendencies to "see" others' ambiguous or neutral interactions toward a child as positive or negative. Remembering the previous discussion of the person perception process, it would seem that the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC instruments would tend more to tap subjects' selectivity in perception of positive or negative behaviors, which represents the first step in the person perception process; the PPST, on the other hand, would tend more to tap subjects' tendencies to distort, interpret, and perceive behavior positively or negatively, which represents the second and third steps in the person perception process. At the same time, because the adult who is rated in the PAPI-MC, in contrast to the child who is rated in the CBC-MC, emits benign or positive behaviors almost exclusively and thus exhibits a very restricted range of behaviors, the PAPI-MC more than the other two measures would seem to assess both perceptual selectivity and tendencies to interpret behaviors as positive or negative. Because the three measures (and the CBC-MC and the PPST particularly) seem to tap different aspects of IPS, comparisons of each instrument's assessment of subjects' IPS may clarify the relative importance of the different steps in the person perception process.

The Sensitivity to Children Questionnaire Modified for Children (STC-MC). The STC-MC was derived from Stollak's Sensitivity to

Children Questionnaire (STC) (Stollak, Scholom, Kallman, & Saturansky, 1973) and modified for this research to measure children's responses to positive and negative aspects of a hypothetical child's functioning. This questionnaire consists of four parent-child situations and is presented in Appendix E. In each of these situations, the subject is asked to imagine that he or she is the parent of the child depicted in the STC-MC and to respond to the child on that basis. The child in each STC-MC item engages or attempts to engage in a positive behavior which culminates in what might be considered a negative social action. Measures based on this questionnaire attempt to measure what is called "reactive style," or how a child in a position of authority reacts to a child displaying negative social behavior motivated by a positive intention. When used in conjunction with the IPS measures, it was hoped that the STC-MC results would clarify the relationship between subjects' perceptions of and responses to others' positive and negative behavior. Although Messé and Stollak have hypothesized that biased IPS results in an unbalanced behavioral responsiveness to others' positive or, depending on the nature of the IPS, negative behaviors, this prediction has not been empirically demonstrated. By having children respond to the STC-MC items, correlations between IPS's and projective responses to positive and negative behaviors can be determined, and this hypothesized link between IPS and behavior can be examined. Moreover, by assessing the relationship between projective responses to positive and negative behaviors and IPS as they relate to psychosocial competence and dysfunction, the role of IPS in psychosocial functioning may be clarified.

The Perceptual Accuracy Test (PAT). Although questions concerning IPS are the main focus of this study, approximately two-thirds through the testing of subjects, it was thought that an assessment of the relationship of children's perceptual or observational accuracy to IPS and psychosocial competence would be informative. Thus, perceptual or observational accuracy measures of the SPS child and adult were created in the following manner (see Appendix F).

Based on the dialogue and behavioral transcript of the SPS, a 42-item test was created. Of the items, 18 consist of descriptions of specific behaviors or quotations from the dialogue which occurred in the SPS (i.e., true items), while 24 of the items consist of behaviors or quotations which did not occur in the SPS (i.e., false items). A concerted effort was made to describe, rather than characterize, specific behaviors (e.g., "the child threw the toy against the wall," rather than "the child got angry"). In creating false items, an attempt was made to sample conceptually different kinds of fictitious but credible behaviors involving interactions between the SPS child and adult so that the items could not be answered correctly simply because of the outlandish discrepancy from the SPS or similarity to other test items which a subject might know to be true or false and therefore answer correctly based on knowledge or lack of knowledge of that other item. In creating true items, a primary concern was to select SPS behaviors which could be simply, succinctly, and accurately described and which ranged in difficulty so as to ensure a wide variation in children's scores. Because past perceptual accuracy research has suffered from such serious methodological flaws as a lack of

control of assumed similarity and response biases (Cronbach, 1955; Gage & Cronbach, 1955), an attempt was also made to control for these by sampling an equal number of clearly positive and negative verbal and non-verbal behaviors. Unfortunately, however, the adult's behavior in the SPS evidences little variation, a seeming absence of clearly negative behaviors, and few specific behaviors which most would consider extremely positive. Thus, as can be seen from Table 1, which presents the number of each of the different kinds of PAT items, there are fewer items covering adult behaviors and no items relating to negative adult behaviors that occur in the SPS. To compensate for the paucity of items referring to positive and negative adult behaviors, three items refer to neutral adult behaviors. Because there are fewer "true" negative than positive adult behavior items, the subtests measuring accuracy of perceptions of the SPS adult (but not the child) and the SPS child and adult combined are susceptible to possible contamination due to positive or negative perceptual and response biases or to a tendency of those subjects with positive or negative self-perceptions to assume similarity in their ratings. This will be explained in greater detail in the Discussion section.

In administering the PAT, each item was read to the subject, and he or she was requested to answer "true" or "false" according to whether the item was true or false based on the behavior which occurred in the SPS.

Table 1

The Number of Perceptual Accuracy Test Items Which (a) Occur in the SPS (True Items), (b) Do Not Occur in the SPS (False Items), (c) Concern Positive (+), Neutral (N), and Negative (-) Behaviors of the Child and of the Adult, and (d) Involve Dialogue and Non-Dialogue Behavior

| Test Items | Items involving the child's behavior | | | | Items involving the adult's behavior | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | True Items | | False Items | | True Items | | | False Items | | |
| | (+) | (-) | (+) | (-) | (+) | (N) | (-) | (+) | (N) | (-) |
| Items involving dialogue behavior | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| Items involving non-dialogue behavior | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 |

Parents' Instruments

The Standard Perceptual Stimulus (SPS). Both the parents viewed the same SPS videotape as their child. Since the SPS has already been discussed in the Children's Instruments section above, the reader is referred there for complete discussion.

The Modified Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC-M). To assess their perceptions of the child in the SPS, the parents completed the same CBC which has been used in previous IPS research and which is presented in Appendix G. The CBC consists of 64 behavioral items, 52 of which were designed to refer to positive and negative child behaviors emitted in the SPS; the other 12 items were "filler" items and were not scored. However, because parents' scores are to be related to children's CBC-MC scores, each parent's score is based on the same 31 items which constitute the child's CBC-MC measure. Thus, the parents' scores are actually based on a shortened version of the CBC, called the CBC-M (see Appendix G). By asking subjects to check the Checklist items that were applicable to the child in the SPS, subjects' IPS's could be determined.

The Modified Perceptions of the Adult Playmate Inventory (PAPI-M). To assess the parents' perceptions of the adult in the SPS, they were administered virtually the same modified form of the PAPI-MC as described in Children's Instruments above. The adult form is called the PAPI-M and is presented in Appendix H. Like the PAPI-MC, it is a shorter and modified form of the PAPI which Michaels (1975) designed to assess children's perceptions of adult behaviors and consists of 21 dichotomous variables which form end-points on a four- or (as

described earlier) five-point scale along which subjects rate aspects of the adult perceived in the SPS. The PAPI-MC and PAPI-M differ only in format in which questions are asked (to ease children's comprehension of the questions) and in occasional simplifications of vocabulary or additions of a synonym to clarify a word's meaning on the PAPI-MC. For a fuller discussion of the instrument, see the above discussion of the PAPI-MC in the Children's Instruments section.

Other Measures

The Vocabulary Subtest of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC). Because it was thought that it might be interesting to assess the relationship between child IPS and intelligence and important to control for intelligence in some measures, the Vocabulary subscale of the WISC (Wechsler, 1974) was used to assess intelligence. Because research (Sattler, 1974) has shown the Vocabulary subscale to correlate robustly with the Full Scale WISC score, it was felt that the Vocabulary subscale could serve as a reliable indicator of children's intelligence.

The Identification Index. Hoffman (1971) designed the Identification Index, which consists of three questions asking the child whom he or she most admires, desires to emulate, and is most similar to in order to assess the relative strength of a child's identification with each parent. The Identification Index is presented in Appendix I.

The Demographic Questionnaire. Because it was felt that it would be interesting to assess the relationship between child IPS and socioeconomic status and possibly important to control for socioeconomic

status, each parent was administered the Demographic Questionnaire presented in Appendix J. Among other things, this questionnaire asked each parent's current occupation and level of education attained.

## Subjects

Working with Messé and Stollak, 56 child subjects were gathered. These subjects ranged in age from five to ten years and were drawn from kindergarten through third grade classes.

### Selection and Recruitment of Subjects

The first group of subjects (N = 36) were selected through the cooperation of the administration and teachers of the Lansing, Michigan Public School System. Teachers of kindergarten through third grade classes were contacted and asked to participate in this study. Participating teachers were each paid ten dollars ($10) and were asked to complete a revision of Bower's (1969) Pupil Behavior Rating Scales (see Appendix K). The Bower Scales require the teacher to classify every child in his or her classroom into one of five categories on a number of dimensions of classroom functioning. Each dimension is presented as a statement about a student, and the teachers had to classify their students according to how well (or poorly) each matched the description. Teachers could rank order up to three students at either end point ("most like" or "least like"); similarly, they placed five students at each of the next most extreme categories; the remainder of the class was placed in the middle category. To ensure confidentiality, only children's first names and the first letter of their last names were used on all ratings, and parents were never informed of the selection criteria.

During the period when volunteering teachers were completing the ratings, letters were sent (via an envelope taken home by the children) to the parents asking them to volunteer to participate in the research for pay. The letter described briefly the nature of the project and asked parents who might be interested to complete and return the postal card which had been enclosed in the envelope. Only the parents of children who fell within the lowest or highest one-third of their class on the general competence item of the Bower Scales were invited to participate. (Parents who had indicated interest but who were not asked to participate were sent a letter thanking them for their interest and explaining that limited resources prevented the researchers from contacting everyone who had volunteered.) As Stollak et al. (1979) has noted, there appeared to be no systematic difference in volunteering as a function of the child's level of psychosocial adjustment.

After the family had participated in the research and had granted permission to contact further their child's teacher, the teacher was asked to complete (a) Cowen, Frost, Lorion, Dorr, Izzo, and Isaacson's (1975) Aggressiveness, Moodiness, and Learning Problems (AML) and Teacher Referral Form (TRF), which are teacher rating scales; and, (b) a general adjustment rating which was presented at the conclusion of the AML-TRF questionnaire (see Appendix L). Teachers were also asked to complete (c) the Bessell-Palomares (B-P) (1967) rating scales which are designed to assess an individual's level of psychosocial competence and dysfunction (see Appendix M). Because Cowen's AML-TRF were designed to be used together to tap the same dimensions of child functioning, these instruments' scores were combined into one score.

To be classified as high or low in psychosocial competence, a subject's adjustment ratings had to be reasonably consistent. To determine this, each subject's scores on each measure of psychosocial competence were categorized as evidencing high or low psychosocial functioning, depending on whether or not they fell above or below the sample's median score for that instrument. If a child's ratings on all four measures were consistent, or if three of the four measures were consistent and the deviant score was within two subjects of the sample's median score, the child was classified according to the dominant direction of his or her scores. Based on this procedure, all the tested subjects except two males and one female could be categorized as high or low in psychosocial competence and, thus, could be used in this study.

A second group of subjects (N = 20) were selected through the cooperation of the administration and third grade teachers of the East Lansing, Michigan Public School System. Although these subjects were gathered in much the same way as those in the first group, because the two groups were selected from different school systems and, as noted earlier, within the context of a different combination of research projects, there were some necessary differences. First, whereas the parents of the first group of child subjects were offered 50 dollars ($50) for about four hours of their time, the parents of the second group of child subjects were offered 25 dollars ($25) for approximately two hours of their time. Second, the nature of the child's requested participation was explained both to the children in the second group of subjects as well as to their parents, and each

child was offered seven dollars ($7) for his or her participation, which took about one and one-quarter hours. It was made clear to both the parents and child that the parents' participation was not contingent upon the child's, and that the child had to voluntarily consent before being used in this study. Almost all of the children seemed excited with the prospect of earning money and helping the researchers and readily accepted. Third, Bower's (1969) Class Play, a peer-rating instrument (see Appendix N) was substituted for the Bessell-Palomares rating scales in the assessment of children's psychosocial competence. The Class Play requires that all students in a class select classmates to play one or more roles in an imaginary play. The roles embody either positive or negative characteristics. By subtracting the number of times a child is nominated for a negative role from the number of times he or she is nominated for a positive role, a score of psychosocial competence can be obtained. Fourth, in contrast to the first group of subjects, the second group was assessed on all four instruments in the same manner as the first group before they were invited to participate in the research. As a result, none of this second group had to be excluded after testing because they did not fit the operational definition of high or low psychosocial competence.

The procedure described above yielded 11 competent males, 15 competent females, 16 low competent males, and 11 low competent females across both sets of subjects. However, due to lack of attention or non-compliance, scores of some subjects on some IPS or reactive style measures either could not be obtained or had to be considered invalid. Scores were judged to be invalid when the experimenter's report (which

the researchers completed on each subject) concerning the subject's approach to the research tasks indicated that the child's attention or cooperation was poor, and examination of the raw data indicated a high frequency of unscorable, irrelevant, or repetitively stereotypical and identical responses. In addition, two CBC-MC protocols were considered invalid due to an apparent response set in which virtually all the items were answered identically; due to an unintentional failure of an experimenter to administer the PAPI-MC to a subject, one subject had no PAPI-MC score. Thus, a total of 53, 54, 51, 50, and 51 subjects, respectively, were considered to have valid data on the CBC-MC, PAPI-MC, PPST, and the two measures based on the STC-MC (i.e., the STC-EVAL and STC-BEH). Apparently due to the fact that all 20 of the second group of subjects were nine or ten years old, difficulties with attention and compliance did not interfere with their test taking; thus, all of their measures were considered valid.

Although both parents of 52 child subjects, plus a single parent of one subject, were tested on the CBC-M and PAPI-M, improper completion of the CBC-M by two fathers rendered their CBC-M scores invalid. Thus, CBC-M and PAPI-M data on 50 and 52 fathers and 53 and 53 mothers, respectively, were used in this study.

## Experimental Procedure

The first 36 and last 20 subjects were tested at different time periods. Due to unavoidable circumstances, these two groups were tested under similar but not identical conditions.

Upon arrival at the experimental setting, each of the first 36 families was met by a trained greeter who then introduced the child

to an experimenter and the parents to another experimenter. The greeters and other experimenters who had direct contact with subjects were trained undergraduates or graduate student volunteers who received independent study credits for their help in this study. At this point, the appropriate experimenter escorted the child to a small but comfortable room with two chairs, a table, window, clock, and one-way mirror; the other experimenter escorted the parents to a similar room. If the child showed distress at going with the experimenter, the parents were asked to accompany their child to his or her testing room.

After approximately 45 minutes of testing, the parents and child were reunited in a "playroom" and engaged in approximately 50 minutes of videotaped "family interaction" tasks (Stollak et al., 1979). Then, the child and the experimenter who had been working earlier with the child returned to their room for approximately 30 minutes of experimental tasks, followed by a snack and approximately 90 minutes of further testing. Similarly, after the family interaction tasks, the parents had a short snack, followed by about two hours of further testing.

In the first 45-minute testing period, the Identification Index and the WISC Vocabulary Subtest were administered to the child. In the Identification Index, the experimenter merely asked the subject the three Index questions presented in Appendix I and wrote the child's responses. For the WISC Vocabulary Subtest, the experimenter introduced the instrument and proceeded in the standard manner (Wechsler, 1974).

In the testing period following the child's snack, the experimenter prepared the subject for viewing the SPS through reading directions and answering questions as described in Appendix O. The experimenter then showed the subject the SPS, which portrayed the child who was the same sex as the child subject, and then orally administered the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC and later the PPST and STC-MC. The introduction and directions which the experimenter read to the subject for each instrument can be found in Appendices B, C, D, and E, respectively. The experimenter recorded the subject's responses to the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC on a standard IBM computer scoring blank; the subject's responses to each PPST and STC-MC item were audiotape recorded.

With regard to parental testing, the first 45-minute testing period was occupied with both parents watching the same SPS which their child viewed. They were then administered the CBC-M and PAPI-M which required them to mark their response choices on an accompanying IBM scoring sheet. The complete introduction and instructions accompanying these instruments can be found in Appendices G and H, respectively. The Demographic Questionnaire was administered later in the testing. Throughout the administration of these questionnaires, an experimenter was present to answer questions.

The experimental procedure for the second subject group differed primarily in that the parents and children were tested on different occasions, 17 of the subjects were administered the PAT after administration of the PAPI-MC, and the testing sessions were shorter because the family interaction tasks and some questionnaires (all of which were irrelevant to this study) were not administered. Also, due to the

graduation of the four experimenter teams who administered the measures to the first subject group, two new teams were used with this second subject group, and an experimenter rather than the parents transported about two-thirds of the second group of child subjects to the experimental site. Since some of these children lived more than one-half hour's drive from the University, the offer to transport the child was made to facilitate participation. Aside from these differences, testing of both parents and children and the order in which measures were administered remained essentially the same.

## Preparation and Coding of the Data

### Parents' and Children's IPS Measures Regarding the SPS Child and Adult (CBC-M, PAPI-M, CBC-MC, PAPI-MC)

As originally planned, each subject's IPS based on the child SPS was determined by subtracting the number of negative from the number of positive behaviors and characteristics each subject reported on the CBC-M or CBC-MC to be like the child on the SPS and dividing that by the total of these two numbers. Each subject's IPS regarding the SPS adult was determined by adding their scores on each PAPI-M or PAPI-MC. On all these measures, higher scores indicate a more positive IPS.

For the CBC-M, CBC-MC, PAPI-M, and PAPI-MC, these calculations yielded mean scores of -.38, -.23, 87.17, and 90.82 and respective standard deviations of .26, .36, 8.05, and 10.86. Given the possible score ranges of -1.00 to +1.00 and 22 to 102 for the respective CBC-M or CBC-MC and PAPI-M or PAPI-MC measures, the CBC-M and CBC-MC scores are more negatively skewed than anticipated and, as expected, the

PAPI-M and PAPI-MC scores are positively skewed. In addition, it is interesting to note that parents' IPS is more negative than the children's on both measures ($t$s = 3.14 and 2.06; $p$s $< .01$ and $< .05$ on the respectively modified CBC and PAPI measures).

The negative skewness in CBC-M and CBC-MC scores suggests that either both parents and child samples (and probably the larger populations as well) are negatively biased in their perceptions of children, the SPS child actually evidences a preponderance of negative behaviors, or both. To the extent that this skewness results from a relative preponderance of negative behaviors in the SPS, raw score zero is an inaccurate representation of the score which a person with no perceptual bias would most likely attain (i.e., hereafter called "the mean balance point"). Thus, it would seem that an alternative method of calculation is needed to determine a valid balance point. Perhaps, one might say, the sample mean score for the CBC-M, CBC-MC, PAPI-M, and PAPI-MC would constitute a more valid balance point for each measure. Although this would control for any preponderance of positive or negative behaviors in the SPS, it assumes that overall both the child and adult samples are perceptually balanced and does not control for any possible perceptual bias in each sample as a whole.

In an effort to avoid both these corrupting influences in the determination of a valid balance point for the CBC-M and CBC-MC, three psychology graduate students, including this researcher, specializing in child clinical psychology were given a transcript of the SPS and were asked to view the SPS in a very specific fashion. In their

viewing, the raters were encouraged to stop the videotape playback of the SPS every few seconds and at least every 15 seconds and to rewind the videotape or a section of it for repeated viewings of each segment of new behavior which appeared on the SPS. Then, after repeated viewings of each new behavior segment, the raters were to peruse the CBC-M/MC for possible matches with items. Every time a SPS behavior matched an item, a succinct, objective description of the behavior was to be made under that item number. Thus, at the end of this process, each rater's determination of which CBC-M/MC items were supported by the SPS behavior could be made. In obtaining a final score, rater disagreements were resolved by discussions and reviews of the videotape until mutual agreement was reached.

It was hoped that this somewhat tedious process would result in accurate matchings, undistorted by perceptual bias, such that the resulting score (called the "empirically derived balance point") would represent a valid balance point. To assess this, each rater's IPS, as measured by the CBC-M, was assessed prior to their training as raters; then after having rated the items as present or absent in the SPS as described above, each rater's ratings were scored as their IPS was earlier. Subsequent analysis revealed that the standard deviations between the two sets of scores dropped from .37 to .06, and that the inter-rater reliabilities between pairs of raters (phi) equaled .73, .58, and .71. Although the inter-rater reliabilities are only moderate, that the standard deviations between the two sets of scores dropped markedly and that mutual agreement through discussion and

review of the videotape was used to resolve scoring discrepancies suggests that the resulting empirically derived balance point suffers from a minimum of distortion due to raters' IPS biases.

Similarly, to arrive at a more accurate estimate of the "true" balance point on the PAPI-M and PAPI-MC, the rater of the above three raters whose empirically derived estimate was closest to the final empirically derived balance point followed the same procedure as described above in an attempt to match accurately SPS behaviors with PSPI-M/MC items.

The above rating processes resulted in empirically derived CBC-M/MC and PAPI-M/MC balance points of -.20 and 94, respectively. It is interesting to note that both empirically derived balance points are more positive than the corresponding mean scores of parents or child subjects, thus suggesting that parent, and to a lesser degree, child subjects (and perhaps our culture) are negatively biased in perceptions of adults and children.

The Person Picture Story Test (PPST)

Subjects' audiotaped responses to each PPST were transcribed. Through simultaneously listening to the audiotape and reading the transcripts, three coders were trained to rate independently subjects' responses according to the PPST Scoring Manual presented in Appendix P. Subjects' responses to each of the seven items were scored for "other's orientation" (i.e., how the major adult(s) or peers in the picture story is thinking, feeling, or behaving toward the child who is similar in age and sex to the child subjects). "Other's orientation" could be rated positive, negative, neutral, or "no score," if

no scorable response was given. All discrepancies in scores were resolved by mutual agreement of the three raters and an expert scorer.

To arrive at a final raw score for each child subject, the number of negative scores was subtracted from the number of positive scores, and this was divided by the total number of positive, neutral, and negative scores. The fact that within a possible score range of -1.00 to +1.00, subjects' mean PPST score was -.07 (SD = .54) suggests that, as planned, the PPST items were ambiguously neutral.

Since the PPST items are not based on emitted behavior or other objectively measurable phenomena, it is not possible to attempt to assess an objective empirically derived balance point as was done with the CBC-M/MC and PAPI-M/MC. If one were to attempt to determine a more valid balance point, the sample's mean score would seem to be the only alternative choice. Although this latter method would seem to control for possible positive or negative bias in the PPST items, as mentioned earlier, it introduces or at least leaves uncontrolled the corrupting influence of an overall perceptual bias in the sample.

### The Sensitivity to Children Questionnaire Modified for Children (STC-MC)

As with the PPST, subjects' audiotaped responses to each of the four STC-MC items were transcribed. Then, as described in the STC-MC scoring manual presented in Appendix Q, through simultaneously listening to the audiotape and reading the transcript, two different sets of two independent raters scored each subject response on each of the four STC-MC items in one of two ways: First, each item was scored once for explicit or implicit acknowledgement of or response to their

hypothetical child's (a) positive intention or behaviors (scored +) and (b) negative behavioral consequences (scored -). If a response was unscorable, it was rated "no score."

Originally, it was intended that subtraction of the total number of (-) scores from the total number of (+) scores would constitute each subject's total score (hereafter referred to as the "STC-BEH score"). However, since subjects' acknowledgement or response to the negative behavior or behavioral consequence was evident in all but two (of over 200 possible) responses, it was decided that only the number of items where a subject acknowledged or responded to their hypothetical child's positive intentions or behaviors would constitute the STC-BEH score.

Within a possible score range of 0 to 4 (with higher scores evidencing a higher number of items in which the child's positive intentions or behavior were acknowledged), the mean sample score was 1.837 ($\underline{SD}$ = 1.106). Since no subject's number of (+) scores surpassed his or her number of (-) scores, higher STC-BEH scores merely indicate less negative imbalance in the ratio of negative-to-positive aspects of the child's behavior acknowledged. Thus, this sample mean indicates a strong negative skewness in subjects' scores.

Second, responses to each item were scored for evaluation of the hypothetical child as conveyed through the subject's words, tone of voice, and actions. Subjects' evaluations could be scored positive, negative, neutral, or if it was not scorable, "no score."

To facilitate raters' ability to discriminate different types of responses, they were initially trained to score responses according to Stollak's "Scoring Guide to Responses to Children" as presented in

Appendix R. This scoring guide has been used in past research (Stollak et al., 1973) and consists of 37 possible categories, many of which generally can be considered positive, negative, or neutral. After this training, raters were instructed to consider the voice tone or the manner in which the subject said the response, as well as the content, in determining whether a positive, negative, or neutral evaluation was being conveyed to the hypothetical child. For example, the content of the subject's response might be, "That's terrific," which would imply a positive evaluation; however, when the subject's tone is considered, it may become apparent that the response is said in sarcasm, thus necessitating a negative evaluation score.

Each response was scored for the frequency of occurrence of each type of evaluation. That is, each time a subject's voice tone changed such that a different evaluation was conveyed or a distinct content category as defined by Stollak's Scoring Guide was evidenced, that part of the response was scored. Thus, multiple scorings of any or all evaluation categories could be given to a response to an STC-MC item. Each subject's raw score (hereafter referred to as the "STC-EVAL score") was determined by the number of "positive" scores minus the number of "negative" scores, divided by the total number of positive, neutral, and negative scores. Thus, higher scores evidence a more positive evaluation of and less critical or punitive response to the hypothetical child.

To be used, a child subject's protocol must have had scorable responses to three of the four STC-MC items. Any discrepancies in scorings were resolved through discussion and mutual agreement

between the two coders and an expert scorer.

Within a possible score range of -1.00 to +1.00, the mean STC-EVAL score was -.246 (SD = .355). Thus, both the STC-BEH and STC-EVAL scores indicate that when confronted by both positive and negative aspects of their hypothetical child's behavior, child subjects more frequently responded to the negative aspects and more frequently conveyed a negative evaluation of the child in their responses. However, as with the IPS measures, it could be argued that due to an unintended greater salience of the negative aspects of behavior in STC-MC items, raw score zero constitutes a poor balance point. Further, it could be argued that use of the sample's mean as the balance point would yield a more accurate description of each subject's tendency either to respond more to positive or negative aspects of behavior or to convey a positive or negative evaluation when confronted with equally positive and negative aspects of behavior. As with the PPST, the nature of the STC-MC does not permit a determination of an objective, empirically derived balance point as was done with the CBC-M/MC and PAPI-M/MC.

### Inter-Rater Reliabilities on the PPST, STC-BEH, and STC-EVAL

Inter-rater reliabilities between all possible pairs of coders for each of these three measures consist of correlations of each subject's final score based on each coder's ratings. Reliabilities were .92, .90, and .82 for the PPST and .81 and .80 for the STC-BEH and STC-EVAL, respectively.

Calculations of Absolute Scores

Absolute scores are meant to represent the degree of bias in a subject's response to a particular stimulus and are calculated by subtracting each subject's score on a measure from that measure's balance point, while disregarding the sign of the resulting score.

It was originally intended that the non-signed raw score of each perceptual or reactive style measure would constitute the balance point upon which absolute scores would be computed. As has been shown, however, this would seem to yield absolute scores based on invalid balance points and, therefore, invalid absolute scores for most measures. Thus, different absolute scores based on balance points consisting of the sample's raw score zero, the mean sample score, and for the modified CBC and PAPI measures, the empirically derived balance points are used where absolute scores are needed.

The Perceptual Accuracy Test

The Perceptual Accuracy Test was scored for accuracy in perceptions of the child SPS, the adult SPS, and for overall perceptual accuracy. Accuracy in perceptions of the child was computed by dividing the number of "true" child behaviors a subject correctly identified by the Test's total number of "true" child behavior items and adding to this the number of "false" child behavior items the subject correctly identified, divided by the Test's total number of "false" child behavior items. Accuracy in perceptions of the adult SPS and overall perceptual accuracy were calculated in the same way, except that respective adult and adult-plus-child behavior items were used in place of child behavior items in the formula.

The highest and lowest possible Perceptual Accuracy Test scores are 2 and 0. Given that the Test is based on "True/False" responses, a score of 1 would be expected just by chance on all three subtests. Means and standard deviations for the three perceptual accuracy scores are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for the Three Perceptual Accuracy Test Scores

(N = 17)

| Scoring Categories | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| Accuracy in perceptions of the SPS child | 1.646 | .133 |
| Accuracy in perceptions of the SPS adult | 1.712 | .140 |
| Combined perceptual accuracy score | 1.674 | .110 |

The Identification Index

Hoffman's (1971) scoring system was used to assess the relative strength of each child subject's identification with each parent. In this system, the number of times each parent is mentioned across a subject's responses is totaled, and the parent the subject more frequently mentions is considered to be the parent with whom the subject most identifies. Because of the scoring simplicity, this researcher scored the Identification Indexes, and no reliability estimates were done.

### The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) Vocabulary Subtest

WISC responses were scored, summed, and scaled for each subject according to the standard scoring method (Wechsler, 1974). Each subject's scale score constituted the measure of his or her intelligence.

## Subsidiary Research Issues to be Examined

In addition to the primary hypotheses, a number of other questions were examined. First, the relationship between child subjects' IPS's and both reactive style and perceptual accuracy measures was assessed. Second, the relationship of IPS, perceptual accuracy, and reactive style to child psychosocial competence, age, IQ, and socioeconomic status was examined.

# RESULTS

The results to be presented are analyzed in terms of analysis of variance and correlations. Because it was suspected that child age, socioeconomic status, and IQ might relate to many of the variables to be examined, these variables were correlated with parent IPS scores, child IPS and reactive style scores, perceptual accuracy scores, and child sex and psychosocial competence. Where any of the three demographic variables relates at least marginally significantly ($p < .10$) to both correlated variables, it is partialed out of that correlation. Because (a) socioeconomic status and IQ related marginally to child sex ($r$s = .24 and .18; $p$s $< .05$ and .10 for males and females, respectively) and to psychosocial competence ($r$s = .37 and .24; $p$s $< .01$ and .05 high and low, respectively); and, (b) child age, socioeconomic status and IQ respectively related marginally to eight, five, and six of the children's 15 IPS and reactive style scores, the three demographic variables are covaried out of the multivariate analyses of variance presented in Hypothesis 1 which examined child sex and psychosocial competence differences on the IPS and reactive style measures. The fact that the covariates as a group relate significantly to the dependent measures in all these multivariate analyses ($p < .01$) supports this decision. Lastly, one-tailed tests of significance are used for analyses where previous research and theory suggest a particular relationship. Two-tailed tests of significance are used for all other analyses.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicts that children rated high in psychosocial competence will be more perceptually balanced than children rated low in psychosocial competence. To test this, as well as other possible sex and competence group differences, children's different signed and absolute scores on the three IPS and two reactive style measures were subjected to a series of 2 (sex) x 2 (psychosocial competence) multivariate analyses of variance with children's age, socioeconomic status, and IQ covaried out. Table 3 summarizes the main effects, interaction effects, and, where indicated by higher order effects ($p < .10$), univariate results for those multivariate analyses approaching significance. The adjusted means for sex and adjustment groups where univariate results at least approach significance are presented in Table 4. A summary of all six analyses appears in Appendix S.

Whether raw score zero, the mean group score--which is noted by an (M) after the measure's abbreviated name--or for the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC, the empirically derived balance point--which is noted by an (E) after the measures' abbreviated names--is used as the median or balanced IPS point from which the scores are derived, results show no significant sex, adjustment, or sex x adjustment interaction effects in relation to the IPS or reactive style measures' absolute scores. Thus, no support is provided for Hypothesis 1. Further, these results provide no indication that male and female children differ in their degree of perceptual or reactive style bias (or balance) or that adjustment groups differ in reactive style.

Table 3

Summary of Main and Interaction Effects and, Where Indicated by Higher Order Effects ($p < .10$), Univariate Results for Multivariate Analyses Approaching Significance

| Source | $F^a$ | $p<$ |
|---|---|---|
| **Raw scores** | | |
| Sex | 2.15 | .079 |
| CBC-MC | 9.49 | .004 |
| PAPI-MC | .01 | .921 |
| PPST | .67 | .416 |
| STC-EVAL | 1.85 | .181 |
| STC-BEH | .07 | .794 |
| Adjustment | 1.72 | .153 |
| Sex x adjustment | .34 | .884 |
| **Signed Scores Where the Mean for Each IPS or Reactive Style Measure Constitutes the Balance Point** | | |
| Sex | 3.01 | .021 |
| CBC-MC (M) | 9.90 | .003 |
| PAPI-MC (M) | .23 | .638 |
| PPST (M) | .88 | .354 |
| STC-EVAL (M) | 4.48 | .040 |
| STC-BEH (M) | .02 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 2.39 | .055 |
| CBC-MC (M) | 2.17 | .148 |
| PAPI-MC (M) | 3.33 | .075 |
| PPST (M) | .36 | .554 |
| STC-EVAL (M) | 3.38 | .073 |
| STC-BEH (M) | 3.10 | .086 |
| Sex x adjustment | .35 | .880 |

Table 3 (cont'd.)

| Source | F[a] | p< |
|---|---|---|
| Signed Scores Where the Empirically Derived Balance Points (for the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC) or Mean Score (for the PPST, STC-EVAL, STC-BEH) for Each Measure Constitutes the Balance Point | | |
| Sex | 3.01 | .022 |
| CBC-MC (E) | 9.90 | .003 |
| PAPI-MC (E) | .27 | .612 |
| PPST (M) | .88 | .354 |
| STC-EVAL (M) | 4.48 | .040 |
| STC-BEH (M) | .03 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 2.38 | .055 |
| CBC-MC (E) | 2.17 | .148 |
| PAPI-MC (E) | 3.26 | .078 |
| PPST (M) | .36 | .554 |
| STC-EVAL (M) | 3.38 | .073 |
| STC-BEH (M) | 3.10 | .086 |
| Sex x adjustment | .36 | .879 |

[a]df for the comparisons were always 5, 41.

Table 4

Adjusted Mean Scores for Child Sex and Adjustment Groups on IPS and Reactive Style Measures Where Univariate Results Which are Subsumed Under a Significant or Marginally Significant Multivariate Effect Approach Significance ($p < .10$)

| Measure | Sex Group Differences | |
|---|---|---|
| | Male Children | Female Children |
| CBC-MC | - .355 | - .051 |
| CBC-MC (M) | - .132 | .185 |
| STC-EVAL (M) | - .078 | .087 |
| CBC-MC (E) | - .165 | .152 |
| | Adjustment Group Differences | |
| | High Psychosocially Competent Group | Low Psychosocially Competent Group |
| PAPI-MC (M) | 3.100 | - 2.776 |
| STC-EVAL (M) | .093 | - .084 |
| STC-BEH (M) | .277 | - .278 |
| PAPI-MC (E) | - .055 | - 5.868 |

As can be seen from Table 3, however, all three analyses in which the IPS and reactive style measures' different signed scores were subjected to 2 (sex) x 2 (psychosocial competence) multivariate analyses of covariance yielded significant or marginally significant main effects. More specifically, where scores are derived from raw score zero, the relationship of child sex to IPS and reactive style scores approach significance with the significant group difference on the CBC-MC apparently accounting for the effect. Where signed scores are derived from the mean sample score on each IPS or reactive style measure and in the third MANCOVA where the signed scores are based on either the empirically derived balance points or, where no such empirical derivation is possible, the mean sample score, child sex and child psychosocial groups differ significantly in their relationship to the IPS and reactive style scores. Examination of the univariate *F*s and adjusted means shows that child sex groups differ significantly on the CBC-MC (M), STC-EVAL (M), and CBC-MC (E), with females scoring significantly more positively on each, and that adjustment group differences approach significance on the PAPI-MC (M), STC-EVAL (M), STC-BEH (M), and PAPI-MC (E), with the children higher in psychosocial competence having marginally significantly more positive scores on all four.

Although Hypothesis 1 is not confirmed, results indicate that children rated high compared to children rated low in psychosocial competence tend to evidence more positive perceptions of the adult stimulus, respond more positively to their hypothetical child, and in those responses more frequently evidence acknowledgement of the

child's positive behaviors or intentions. Further, results indicate that compared to their male peers, female children perceive the child SPS significantly more positively and respond more positively to their hypothetical child.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicts that children whose parents both evidence a balanced IPS will evidence a more balanced IPS than children whose parents both evidence the same biased IPS. Additionally and relevant to Hypothesis 2, theories suggesting different and sometimes opposed relationships between parent IPS on the one hand and child IPS and psychosocial competence on the other are tested.

To select the children of parents who both have the same biased IPS, balanced IPS, or opposite IPS (i.e., one parent is positively biased and the other is negatively biased), all parents' CBC-M and then PAPI-M scores were rank ordered. Then, in successive procedures first using raw score zero, then parents' mean score, and finally the empirically derived balance point for the CBC-M and then the PAPI-M, approximately one-third of the sample whose scores fell closest to the balance point being used at any time were considered balanced perceivers, while those who scored higher than this range were considered positively biased perceivers; those scoring lower were considered negatively biased perceivers. Thus, each parent was categorized six times as balanced or positively or negatively biased in IPS, based on the three different balance points for each of the two measures. Based on each of these six sets of ratings, six sets of three child groups were formed. For each set of parent ratings, children

whose parents both evidenced a balanced IPS constituted one group; children whose parents both evidenced the same biased IPS constituted the second group; and, children whose parents evidenced opposite IPS's constituted the third group. Because fewer than five children had both parents classified as perceptually balanced when raw score zero on the CBC-M or PAPI-M or the empirically derived balance point on the PAPI-M were used to create parents' absolute scores, comparisons between child groups formed on the basis of these three parent balance points would have been inappropriate; thus, these groups were not compared in the analyses performed to test Hypothesis 2 and related theories.

In the series of one-way analyses of variance designed to test Hypothesis 2 and related theories, the three child groups in each of the three remaining sets were compared on psychosocial competence ratings and absolute and signed IPS scores based on the corresponding balance point of the corresponding measure which parents of that grouping of children were originally rated.

No significant differences on psychosocial competence or signed or absolute scores in any of the nine analyses are evident (a summary of these analyses appears in Appendix T). But where the empirically derived balance point was used to categorize parents on the CBC-M, child group differences on the corresponding child measure (i.e., absolute CBC-MC scores based on the empirically derived balance point) approach significance, $\underline{F}$ (2,29) = 2.52; $\underline{p} < .10$. However, examination of these group differences showed that the children whose parents both evidenced balanced IPS had significantly more biased IPS than children

whose parents both evidenced the same biased IPS (absolute mean scores = .44 and .21, respectively; $t$ (29) = 2.33; $p < .05$) which is inconsistent with Hypothesis 2.

Thus, the results provide no support for Hypothesis 2. Further, there is no suggestion that having two parents who are oppositely biased, similarly biased, or both balanced in their perceptions of children or adults has differential consequences for their child's perceptions of the adult or psychosocial competence.

## Relationships of Paternally and Maternally Balanced IPS to Child IPS and Adjustment

Tables 5 and 6 show a number of correlations between either father or mother balanced IPS and child IPS and adjustment.

### Child Adjustment

Table 5 shows significant and marginally significant correlations between children's psychosocial competence and two of their fathers' three absolute CBC-M scores, indicating that fathers who are more balanced in their perceptions of the child SPS have children who are rated higher in psychosocial competence.

### Child Balanced or Biased IPS

Table 6 presents the correlations between parent and child IPS scores on the modified CBC and PAPI measures. Correlations between fathers or mothers and sons and daughters on corresponding forms of absolute CBC and PAPI scores are single underlined in Table 6 and are discussed below. However, as mentioned earlier, because the validity of absolute scores based on CBC-M and CBC-MC raw score zero is probably poor, correlations between parent and child absolute scores

Table 5

The Relationship of Parents' Signed and Absolute

CBC-M Scores to Child Psychosocial Competence

| | Fathers' CBC-M Scores (N = 50) | | | | Mothers' CBC-M Scores (N = 53) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Raw Scores | A | AM | AE | Raw Scores | A | AM | AE |
| Child Psychosocial Competence[a] (N = 56) | .12 | -.23** | .02 | -.22* | -.05 | .01 | -.07 | -.02 |

[a]One-tailed tests of significance were used. Also, low psychosocially competent children were coded as 1, while high psychosocially competent children were coded as 2.

*$p < .10$.

**$p < .05$.

Table 6

[a]Absolute scores are indicated by an (A) after a measure's abbreviated name.

[b]One-tailed tests of significance were used for correlations which are underlined either one or three times. Two-tailed tests of significance were used for all other correlations. Single underlines indicate correlations between absolute parent and child scores on corresponding forms of absolute scores of CBC or PAPI measures. Double underlines indicate correlations between absolute parent and signed child scores on CBC or PAPI measures. Triple underlines indicate correlations between signed parent and child scores on corresponding CBC and PAPI measures.

[c]The extreme positive skew of PAPI-MC absolute scores based on the mid-point of the theoretically possible range of scores (i.e., the PAPI-MC[A]) yielded no negative scores and the same distribution as PAPI-MC signed raw scores. Therefore, PAPI-MC(A) scores were not used in this study.

*$p < .10$.

**$p < .05$.

***$p < .01$.

Table 6

The Relationship of Fathers' and Mothers' Signed and Absolute IPS's to the Corresponding IPS Scores of Their Children and Their Children's Scores Divided by Child Sex and by Parent Identification[abc]

| Children's Scores | | Fathers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | | Mothers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | CBC-M (N = 50) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 52) | | | CBC-M (N = 53) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 53) | | |
| | N | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE |
| CBC-MC | 53 | .11 | -.07 | -.12 | -.18 | -.10 | .22 | .12 | .25** | -.30** | -.14 | -.34** | .15 | -.23 | -.25* |
| CBC-MC(A) | 53 | .04 | -.06 | .01 | -.03 | .08 | -.27* | -.11 | -.13 | .16 | .06 | .12 | -.09 | .23 | .16 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 53 | .16 | -.20 | .04 | -.21 | -.01 | -.09 | -.03 | .06 | -.09 | -.08 | -.14 | .04 | .11 | -.03 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 53 | .17 | -.20 | -.06 | -.21* | -.05 | -.12 | -.04 | .01 | -.03 | -.04 | -.09 | .03 | .15 | .00 |
| PAPI-MC | 54 | -.01 | -.02 | -.21 | -.04 | .05 | .27* | .02 | .13 | -.07 | .03 | .03 | -.12 | .17 | -.16 |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 54 | -.13 | .13 | .20* | .12 | .08 | -.13 | -.05 | -.21 | .16 | .03 | .02 | .05 | -.05 | -.08 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 54 | -.07 | .09 | .18 | .08 | -.03 | -.22 | -.02 | -.22 | .17 | .07 | .00 | .09 | -.09 | -.11 |

Table 6 (cont'd.)

| Male Children's Scores | N | Fathers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | | Mothers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | CBC-M (N = 27) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 28) | | | CBC-M (N = 28) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 28) | | |
| | | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE |
| CBC-MC | 27 | -.27 | .26 | -.20 | .03 | -.15 | .47** | .27 | .21 | -.34* | -.38* | -.31 | .06 | -.07 | -.16 |
| CBC-MC(A) | 27 | .37* | -.40** | .15 | -.17 | .08 | -.35* | -.17 | -.20 | .28 | .23 | .21 | .06 | .20 | .06 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 27 | .34 | -.42** | .01 | -.26 | -.04 | -.01 | .04 | -.07 | .05 | -.21 | .08 | .29 | .34** | -.24 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 27 | .40* | -.48** | .00 | -.31* | -.05 | -.06 | .04 | -.06 | .09 | -.09 | .00 | .27 | .35* | -.20 |
| PAPI-MC | 28 | .08 | -.05 | -.12 | -.05 | -.04 | .33 | .14 | .23 | -.11 | .00 | -.05 | .02 | .06 | .10 |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 28 | -.09 | .06 | .08 | .00 | -.05 | -.23 | .02 | -.25 | .13 | -.07 | .00 | .08 | -.08 | -.21 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 28 | -.10 | .06 | .12 | .03 | -.05 | -.26 | -.03 | -.25 | .13 | -.02 | .03 | .03 | -.06 | -.15 |

Table 6 (cont'd.)

| Female Children's Scores | N | Fathers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | | Mothers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | CBC-M (N = 23) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 24) | | | CBC-M (N = 25) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 25) | | |
| | | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE |
| CBC-MC | 26 | .31** | -.37* | -.03 | -.45** | -.04 | .07 | -.01 | .33* | -.34* | -.20 | -.41** | .28 | -.36* | -.37* |
| CBC-MC(A) | 26 | -.31 | .27 | -.17 | .14 | .06 | -.20 | -.05 | -.19 | .17 | .10 | .08 | -.22 | .29 | .25 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 26 | .02 | -.03 | -.10 | -.17 | .01 | -.15 | -.09 | .17 | -.18 | .02 | -.21 | -.04 | -.02 | .03 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 26 | -.04 | .02 | -.12 | -.12 | .02 | -.16 | -.09 | .13 | -.14 | .04 | -.18 | -.07 | .03 | .07 |
| PAPI-MC | 26 | -.09 | .17 | -.06 | .17 | .34* | -.01 | -.25 | -.02 | .04 | .31 | .16 | -.28* | .33 | .27 |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 26 | -.18 | .26 | .06 | .32 | .25 | .07 | -.16 | -.31 | .34* | .05 | .30 | -.22 | .28* | .24 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 26 | -.10 | .09 | .09 | .13 | -.03 | .02 | .08 | -.35* | .36* | -.32 | .18 | .12 | -.02 | -.06 |

Table 6 (cont'd.)

| Scores of Children Who Identify Primarily With Father | N | Fathers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | | Mothers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | CBC-M (N = 11) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 11) | | | CBC-M (N = 12) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 12) | | |
| | | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE |
| CBC-MC | 11 | -.31 | -.07 | .56 | .07 | .28 | -.22 | -.52 | .30 | -.30 | -.55* | -.30 | .28 | -.34 | -.21 |
| CBC-MC(A) | 11 | .00 | -.03 | -.74** | -.26 | -.04 | .67* | .27 | -.24 | .24 | .59* | .24 | -.17 | .45 | .18 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 11 | .49 | -.35 | -.76*** | -.67** | .21 | .14 | .06 | -.16 | .16 | .45* | .16 | -.12 | .58** | .24 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 11 | .26 | -.31 | -.84*** | -.66** | .12 | .95*** | .15 | -.19 | .19 | .52 | .19 | -.11 | .56* | .21 |
| PAPI-MC | 12 | -.07 | .07 | -.39 | -.07 | .08 | -.23 | -.08 | -.12 | .12 | .52* | .12 | -.01 | .33 | .11 |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 12 | .09 | -.11 | -.51* | -.32 | -.16 | -.23 | .21 | -.24 | .24 | .65** | .24 | -.04 | .34 | .15 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 12 | .27 | -.32 | -.51 | -.58** | -.47 | -.02 | .62** | -.39 | .39 | .60** | .39 | -.04 | .13 | .11 |

Table 6 (cont'd.)

| Scores of Children Who Identify Primarily With Mother | N | Fathers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | | Mothers' Perceptual Style Scores | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | CBC-M (N = 16) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 17) | | | CBC-M (N = 17) | | | | PAPI-M (N = 17) | | |
| | | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE | Raw Score | A | AM | AE | Raw Score | AM | AE |
| CBC-MC | 20 | .45** | -.37* | .36 | -.06 | -.25 | .37 | .24 | .39* | -.26 | -.28 | -.28 | .28 | -.46* | -.41* |
| CBC-MC(A) | 20 | -.20 | -.34 | -.43* | .01 | .22 | -.34 | -.22 | -.06 | .04 | .13 | -.02 | -.27 | .52** | -.27 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 20 | .30 | -.32 | -.37* | -.40 | -.27 | .00 | .15 | .15 | -.51** | -.25 | -.15 | -.21 | .30 | .33 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 20 | .26 | -.30 | -.49** | -.42** | -.20 | -.07 | .11 | .04 | -.43* | -.19 | -.06 | -.29 | .45* | .44** |
| PAPI-MC | 19 | .36* | -.35 | -.53** | -.50** | -.09 | .31 | .19 | -.25 | .28 | .17 | .40 | -.10 | .13 | -.14 |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 19 | -.61*** | .69*** | .63*** | .87*** | .26 | -.16 | -.27 | .15 | -.16 | -.11 | -.28 | .07 | -.14 | -.14 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 19 | -.51** | .61*** | .64*** | .79*** | .24 | -.26 | -.28 | .32 | -.23 | -.20 | -.39* | .14 | -.12 | -.18 |

based on raw score zero will not be discussed unless replicated by a correlation between the same set of parent and child subjects' absolute scores on the same measures but derived from a different balance point.

As can be seen from the single underlined correlations, fathers' and children's (a) absolute CBC scores based on the empirical balance point are marginally significantly and negatively correlated; (b) CBC-M and PAPI-MC absolute scores based on the sample means are marginally significantly and positively correlated, and two of the three corresponding sets of absolute father and male child CBC scores, respectively, are significantly and marginally significantly and negatively correlated. Underlined correlations between mother and child absolute scores indicate a significant correlation between respective mother and male child PAPI-M and CBC-MC absolute scores based on the sample means, and a marginally significant positive relationship between mothers and daughters on one of two corresponding sets of absolute modified PAPI scores. However, given this latter correlation's marginal significance and occurrence within a context of eight non-significant correlations, its validity should be considered most tentative. Indeed, given the presence of only one relationship which even approaches significance among the 18 correlations between balanced paternal or maternal and daughter perceptual style, these results provide no evidence that either father or mother balanced perceptual style relates to balanced daughter perceptual style. The father-child relationships provide some marginal support that fathers who are balanced in their perceptions of the child stimulus have

(a) children who are more balanced in their perceptions of the adult stimulus and (b) sons but not daughters who are more biased in their perceptions of the child stimulus. This latter relationship suggests that the marginally significant relationship between fathers who are balanced and children who are biased in perception of the child stimulus results from the relationship between fathers' and sons' IPS's. Regarding mother-child relationships, these results suggest that mothers who are more balanced in perceptions of the adult stimulus have male children who are more balanced in their perceptions of the child stimulus.

Child Positive or Negative IPS

Correlations between both paternal and maternal absolute IPS scores and child signed IPS scores are double underlined in Table 6. Because no reasonable predictions concerning these relationships follow from any research or theory presented in the Introduction, all tests of significance are two-tailed.

Mother-Child Relationships

In looking at the mother-child relationships, it can be seen that two of mothers' three absolute CBC-M scores correlate significantly and negatively with children's signed CBC-MC scores, thus providing support that in viewing the child stimulus, mothers' balanced IPS relates to children's positive IPS. The fact that two of mothers' three absolute CBC-M scores correlate either significantly or marginally significantly and negatively with sons as well as daughters' CBC-MC signed scores suggests that this relationship holds for both sons and daughters. In addition, that both of mothers' absolute

PAPI-M scores correlate marginally significantly and negatively with their daughters' signed CBC-MC scores provide a suggestion that mothers who are more balanced in their perceptions of the adult stimulus have daughters who perceive the child stimulus more positively.

Father-Child Relationships

In looking at relationships between balanced father IPS and child IPS which disregard child sex, the presence of only one marginally significant correlation in 10 analyses provides virtually no support for the hypothesis that balanced father IPS relates to positive or negative child IPS, at least when child sex is disregarded. However, the fact that (a) one of fathers' two absolute PAPI-M scores correlates significantly and positively with sons' signed CBC-MC scores, and (b) two of fathers' three absolute CBC-M scores respectively correlate significantly and marginally significantly and negatively with daughters' CBC-MC scores suggest that fathers who are more balanced in their perceptions of the adult stimulus have sons who are more negative in their perceptions of the child stimulus and, in perceptions of the child stimulus, fathers who are more balanced have daughters who are positive.

Summary of the Relationships of Paternally and Maternally Balanced IPS to Child IPS

Summarizing all the results concerning the relationship of fathers' and mothers' balanced IPS to child IPS, it can be seen that: (a) regarding the child SPS, mothers' balanced IPS relates to sons' and daughters' positive IPS; (b) mothers with more balanced perceptions of the adult SPS have sons who evidence more balanced and daughters who

evidence more positive perceptions of the child SPS; (c) in perceptions of the child SPS, fathers' balanced IPS relates to sons' biased and daughters' positive IPS; and, (d) fathers' balanced IPS regarding the adult SPS correlates with sons' negative IPS regarding the child SPS. From this, one fairly consistent pattern is apparent. That is, in perceptions of the child SPS and with the exception of fathers and sons, balanced parent IPS relates to offsprings' positive IPS. This latter finding is particularly interesting in its suggestion that the earlier cited finding that (contrary to Hypothesis 2) manifestation of balanced IPS in both parents related to biased child IPS probably resulted from the relationship between balanced parent IPS and positive child IPS.

Last, (a) significant negative correlations are apparent between all three absolute CBC-MC male child scores and one of fathers' three absolute CBC-M scores; and, (b) marginally significant relationships are apparent between both absolute PAPI-MC female child scores and one of mothers' three CBC-M scores. If accepted at face value, these results suggest that in perceptions of the child SPS, fathers and mothers, respectively, who evidence balanced IPS have sons who are more biased in perceptions of the child SPS and daughters who are more balanced in their perceptions of the adult SPS. However, in both sets of correlations, the single parent score correlating with the child scores was the CBC-M absolute score based on raw score zero. Since this is probably the least valid of the three absolute scores, findings

based only on this absolute score should be interpreted with utmost caution.

## Examination of Relationships Between Parent and Child IPS Suggested by Various Theories

As noted earlier, various theories presented in the Introduction and alluded to under Hypothesis 2 would seem to predict that a child's IPS will be similar to each parent's IPS and will be more similar to the IPS of (a) the parent with whom the child most identifies, (b) the same-sexed parent, and (c) the mother. To test these theories, correlations between each parent and his or her child on corresponding signed CBC and PAPI scores were performed in samples consisting of (a) all children, (b) male children, (c) female children, (d) children who identify primarily with their father, and (e) children who identify primarily with their mother. The results of these correlations are triple underlined in Table 6. Then, where the theories predict differences in strengths of relationships, Hotelling *t*-tests were performed to test for such differences (a summary of these *t*-test results are presented in Table 7).

The relevant results presented in Table 6 indicate that children's CBC-MC scores correlated significantly with their mothers' CBC-M scores and failed to correlate significantly with their fathers' CBC-M scores; also, children's PAPI-MC scores failed to correlate significantly with either their mothers' or fathers' PAPI-M scores. Thus, speculations suggesting that children's and parents' IPS are related is supported only for mothers and children in their perceptions of the child but not the adult portrayed in the SPS and is not supported for children

Table 7

Summary of Hotelling *t*-Tests for Differences Between Correlations of Fathers' and of Mothers' Signed IPS Scores with Their Children's Corresponding IPS Scores When the Children are Grouped in Various Ways

| Groups Compared | df | t | p |
|---|---|---|---|
| **All Children** | | | |
| CBC-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 93 | - .77 | N.S. |
| PAPI-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' PAPI-M scores | 95 | + .34 | N.S. |
| **Male Children** | | | |
| CBC-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 47 | -1.92 | $<.05$ |
| PAPI-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 50 | + .21 | N.S. |
| **Female Children** | | | |
| CBC-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 44 | - .09 | N.S. |
| PAPI-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 47 | 2.04 | $<.05$ |
| **Children Who Identify Primarily with Their Fathers** | | | |
| CBC-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 17 | -1.56 | $<.10$ |
| PAPI-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 19 | .18 | N.S. |

Table 7 (cont'd.)

| Groups Compared | df | t | p |
|---|---|---|---|
| Children Who Identify Primarily with Their Mothers | | | |
| CBC-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 31 | .22 | N.S. |
| PAPI-MC correlations with fathers' vs. mothers' CBC-M scores | 32 | - .02 | N.S. |

and fathers in their perceptions of either. Further, the lack of significant differences in correlations between children's and each parents' corresponding IPS scores as shown in Table 7 provides no support for the speculation that children are more similar to their mother than father in IPS.

From Table 6, it can be seen that there are no significant correlations between male children and either parent on corresponding signed IPS scores. Although Table 7 shows that correlations between male children's PAPI-MC scores and each of their parents' PAPI-M scores are not significantly different, it can be seen that male children's CBC-MC scores correlate significantly more positively with mothers' than fathers' CBC-M scores. Analogously, Table 7 shows that although correlations between female children's CBC-MC and each of their parents' CBC-M are not significantly different, female children's PAPI-MC scores are significantly more positively related to their fathers' than mothers' PAPI-M scores. These results do not support

the theory that children and parents of the same sex will have more similar IPS's; in fact, results of one of the two *t*-tests in both the male and female child samples suggest the opposite.

Contrary to the lack of significant IPS relationships between male children and either parent, Table 6 indicates marginally significant and positive IPS relationships between female children and each parent in three of four analyses. This finding necessitates qualification of the above cited results concerning the relationship between child and parent IPS; it seems that while male children's IPS's are not significantly related to that of either parents, female children's are related.

Lastly, results in Table 7 indicate that while children who identify more strongly with their fathers tend to be more similar to their mothers in their perceptions of the child SPS, these children show no greater similarity to either parent in their perceptions of the adult SPS. Further, children who identify more strongly with their mothers show no greater similarity to either parent in their perceptions of either the child or adult SPS. Thus, these results do not support speculation that the IPS of children who identify more strongly with a particular parent will be more similar to that parent, and the one marginally significant difference suggests the opposite.

## Other Findings

### Intercorrelation of the Children's Perceptual and Reactive Style Measures

Table 8 presents the intercorrelations between children's signed perceptual and reactive style measures. The significant relationship

Table 8

Intercorrelations of Children's Signed Perceptual and Reactive Style Scores

| | CBC-MC | PAPI-MC | PPST | STC-EVAL | STC-BEH |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CBC-MC | 1.00 | | | | |
| PAPI-MC | .29** | 1.00 | | | |
| PPST | .30** | .23** | 1.00 | | |
| STC-EVAL | .06 | .18 | .27** | 1.00 | |
| STC-BEH | - .10 | - .03 | - .10 | .29** | 1.00 |

**$p < .05$

between the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC suggests that children's IPS with regard to viewing a child and with regard to viewing an adult are related. The significant intercorrelations between all three IPS measures suggests that the two different conceptualizations of IPS (as most clearly represented by the CBC-MC on the one hand and the PPST on the other) are significantly related. In addition, the significant relationship between the STC-EVAL and STC-BEH substantiates the expected relationship between the two measures of children projective responses to their hypothetical child. And finally, the fact that the STC-EVAL is related significantly to the PPST, but not to the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC, suggests that one type of children's perceptual style is related to benignness of response to the hypothetical child. More specifically, the relationship between the PPST and

STC-EVAL indicates that children who see others responding more benignly or positively to a child such as themselves respond more positively to their hypothetical child also. The lack of significant relationships between either the CBC-MC or PAPI-MC and the STC-EVAL suggests that a tendency to perceive and characterize the child and adult SPS either more positively or negatively does not translate into more benign or critical projective responses to the STC-MC child.

### The Relationship of Children's Perceptual Accuracy to Children's Perceptual and Reactive Style, Sex, and Psychosocial Competence

As mentioned earlier, tests of children's perceptual or observational accuracy were not included in this study's original investigation and, thus, were not included in most subjects' testing. Despite this, children's accuracy scores correlate with children's IPS measures, sex, and psychosocial competence in some interesting ways (see Appendix U for a tabular presentation of these results).

Although none of the accuracy scores correlates significantly with signed or absolute raw scores on either the perceptual or reactive style measures, accuracy in perceptions of the SPS child and the combined accuracy score correlate with absolute CBC-MC scores derived from both the sample's mean score (CBC-MC[M]) and the empirically derived balance point (CBC-MC[E]) ($r$ = -.46 and -.42; $p$s $<$ .05 and .06). No significant correlations are apparent between children's perceptual accuracy scores and the PAPI-MC, PPST, STC-EVAL, and STC-BEH scores. Together, these results suggest that children who are more balanced in their perceptions of the SPS child are more

accurate in their perceptions of the SPS child and in their combined perceptions of the SPS child and adult, thereby providing support for a positive relationship between balanced IPS and perceptual accuracy. However, no support is provided for a relationship between children's perceptual accuracy and IPS when viewing the SPS adult, IPS as measured by the PPST, or reactive style.

In light of the number of correlations involved, these few significant results should be interpreted with caution. However, it should be noted that while most of these correlations between perceptual accuracy and perceptual or reactive style involve correlations between (a) perceptions of different stimuli or (b) perceptions of one set of stimuli and responses to another set of stimuli and thus may not be expected to show strong relationships, the significant relationships are between perceptual accuracy and IPS scores involving the identical perceptual stimulus (i.e., the child).

Psychosocial competence correlates positively with all three accuracy scores, but relates significantly and marginally only to accuracy in perceptions of the adult SPS and the SPS child and adult combined, respectively ($r$ = .46 and .39, respectively; $p$s $<$ .05 and .10). It should be noted, however, that these results could be specious since accuracy scores based on perceptions of the adult SPS might be due to perceptual or response biases. However, the fact that the PAPI-MC, a measure of perceptual and response bias, does not correlate significantly or even positively with the two accuracy scores involving perceptions of the adult SPS ($r$s = -.14 and -.01; $p$s = .61 and .96, respectively) suggests that perceptual or response biases do

not relate to these perceptual accuracy scores for the 17 subjects who completed both the IPS and accuracy tests. Thus, the accuracy scores based on perceptions of the adult SPS and the SPS child and adult combined may be considered relatively free of perceptual or response biases. Also, that the PAPI-MC and perceptual accuracy measures discussed here do not relate seems consistent with Graham and Rutter (1968) and Smith (1973) who argued or implied that perceptual or response biases operate more on observational measures containing general trait or evaluative items (as in the IPS measures) as opposed to items which non-evaluatively describe specific behaviors. Finally, child sex did not correlate with any of the perceptual accuracy scores.

### The Relationship of Children's Age, Socioeconomic Status, and IQ to Their IPS, Reactive Style, and Perceptual Accuracy Scores

The relationship of children's age, socioeconomic status, and IQ to signed and absolute perceptual and reactive style and perceptual accuracy scores are presented in Table 9. Due to the exploratory nature of these analyses, two-tailed tests were used to calculate significance levels.

First, it can be seen that of the eight significant or marginally significant correlations with children's age for the total sample, six also appear in the male child sample and only one in the female child sample. Also, while female children's age related to few perceptual or reactive style or perceptual accuracy scores, male children's age related to many. More specifically, it appears that younger children, and in particular younger male but not female children,

Table 9

The Relationship of Children's Age, Socioeconomic Status, and IQ to Their Perceptual Style, Reactive Style, and Perceptual Accuracy Scores

| Scores[a] | N | Age[b] | Socioeconomic Status[b] | IQ[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| CBC-MC | 53 | -.42*** | .11 | -.21 |
| CBC-MC(A) | 53 | .38*** | -.10 | .03 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 53 | .09 | -.17 | -.16 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 53 | .14 | -.19 | -.14 |
| PAPI-MC | 54 | .27** | -.07 | .29** |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 54 | -.31** | .20 | -.12 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 54 | -.32** | .15 | -.21 |
| PPST | 52 | -.12 | .13 | .16 |
| PPST(A) | 52 | -.05 | .06 | .05 |
| PPST(AM) | 52 | -.08 | .08 | .06 |
| STC-MC | 48 | .25* | .29** | .38*** |
| STC-MC(A) | 48 | -.30** | -.12 | -.16 |
| STC-MC(AM) | 48 | -.16 | .28* | .19 |
| STC-BEH | 49 | .44*** | -.08 | .27* |
| STC-BEH(AM) | 49 | -.18 | .25* | -.15 |
| Accuracy in perception of child | 17 | -.01 | .59** | .27 |
| Accuracy in perception of adult | 17 | .24 | -.12 | -.07 |
| Combined accuracy scores | 17 | .07 | .41* | .20 |
| **Male Children** | | | | |
| CBC-MC | 27 | -.59*** | .41** | -.27 |
| CBC-MC(A) | 27 | .50*** | -.48** | .15 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 27 | .20 | -.37* | -.11 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 27 | -.30 | -.43** | -.07 |
| PAPI-MC | 28 | .42** | -.14 | .26 |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 28 | -.46** | .24 | -.11 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 28 | -.46** | .21 | -.21 |

Table 9 (cont'd.)

| Scores[a] | N | Age[b] | Socioeconomic Status[b] | IQ[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PPST | 25 | .04 | .15 | .34 |
| PPST(A) | 25 | -.01 | .12 | .08 |
| PPST(AM) | 25 | -.04 | .13 | .09 |
| STC-MC | 23 | .38* | .08 | .31 |
| STC-MC(A) | 23 | -.32 | .05 | -.29 |
| STC-MC(AM) | 23 | -.12 | .45** | .00 |
| STC-BEH | 23 | .27 | -.06 | .19 |
| STC-BEH(AM) | 23 | -.07 | .11 | -.27 |
| Accuracy in perception of child | 8 | -.53 | .21 | -.27 |
| Accuracy in perception of adult | 8 | -.05 | -.61 | -.16 |
| Combined accuracy scores | 8 | -.49 | -.26 | -.29 |
| **Female Children** | | | | |
| CBC-MC | 26 | -.29 | .01 | -.32 |
| CBC-MC(A) | 26 | .24 | .17 | -.02 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | 26 | -.02 | -.01 | -.24 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | 26 | .02 | .00 | -.23 |
| PAPI-MC | 26 | .02 | .26 | .36* |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | 26 | .00 | -.02 | .04 |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | 26 | -.06 | -.19 | -.19 |
| PPST | 27 | -.32 | .19 | -.03 |
| PPST(A) | 27 | -.08 | .02 | .02 |
| PPST(AM) | 27 | -.13 | .07 | .02 |
| STC-MC | 25 | .19 | .57*** | .39* |
| STC-MC(A) | 25 | -.31 | -.37* | .04 |
| STC-MC(AM) | 25 | -.19 | .15 | .38* |
| STC-BEH | 26 | .61*** | -.11 | .37* |
| STC-BEH(AM) | 26 | -.30 | .40** | -.03 |
| Accuracy in perception of child | 9 | .07 | .76** | .61* |

Table 9 (cont'd)

| Scores[a] | N | Age[b] | Socioeconomic Status[b] | IQ[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Accuracy in perception of adult | 9 | .30 | .27 | .16 |
| Combined accuracy scores | 9 | .13 | .69** | .53 |

[a]Absolute scores are indicated by an (A) following a measure's abbreviated name, e.g., CBC-MC(A); CBC-MC(AM).

[b]Two-tailed tests of significance are used for all correlations.

*$p < .10$.

**$p < .05$.

***$p < .01$.

(a) see the child SPS more positively, (b) see the adult SPS more negatively, (c) are more biased in their perceptions of the adult, and (d) tend to be more negative or destructive in their response to their hypothetical child. It should also be noted that while younger children and younger male children appear to be more balanced on CBC-MC scores, given the relatively few positively biased CBC-MC scores based on raw score zero and the absence of age relationships to the other two absolute CBC-MC scores, this relationship probably more accurately reflects the negative relationship between child age and CBC-MC scores. Also, older children and older female (but not male) children evidence greater acknowledgement of positive behaviors or intentions in response to their hypothetical child, and younger

children tend to be more positively or negatively deviant in their responses to their hypothetical child. Although there are no significant correlations between age and perceptual accuracy for any of the child groups, it should be remembered that the restricted sample size and age range (all third graders) of children who were administered the perceptual accuracy measures would make it very difficult to have discovered such a relationship.

Looking at the significant and marginally significant correlations between socioeconomic status and children's scores, it can be seen that in the total sample and female (but not male) sample, the children of higher socioeconomic status are more accurate in their perceptions of the child SPS and in their overall perceptions of the SPS child and adult, more positive in their responses to their hypothetical child, and show a greater tendency to acknowledge positive behavior or intentions to either a relatively high or low degree in their responses to their hypothetical child. Also, in the total sample and male (but not female) sample, children of higher socioeconomic status more often are either highly positive or negative in their responses to their hypothetical child. Other significant results indicate that male children of higher socioeconomic status are both more positive and balanced in their perceptions of the child SPS.

Finally, it can be seen that in the total sample and female (but not male) sample, children of higher verbal IQ see the adult SPS more positively and are more positive and tend to acknowledge more often positive behavior or intentions in their responses to their hypothetical child. In addition, female children of higher verbal IQ more

often tend to be highly positive or negative in their responses to their hypothetical child and more accurate in their perceptions of the child SPS.

## DISCUSSION

### The Relationship of Children's and Parents' Perceptual Style to Children's Psychosocial Competence

Contrary to Hypothesis 1, the results failed to show strong relationships between children's degree of balanced IPS and psychosocial competence. However, the results did indicate that children's IPS when viewing an adult--but not a child or ambiguous and neutral human figure drawings--related marginally to psychosocial competence. Thus, these results are contrary to previous IPS researchers' speculations concerning the positive relationship between balanced IPS and psychosocial competence, but are consistent with the speculations of earlier psychologists who argued or implied that more positive person perceptions correlate with more positive functioning (Asch, 1952; Lewin, 1951; Livesley & Bromley, 1973; Murphy, 1947).

Before leaving these results, a number of points should be raised to clarify their meaning. Given that the psychosocial competence ratings were based on adults' (i.e., teachers') ratings of children's school behavior[3] and given previous literature in this area, perhaps it is not surprising that children's perceptions of the adult but not child stimulus or the PPST figures related to these competency ratings. Regarding the relationship of the competency ratings to the PPST scores,

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[3]Although peer ratings constitute one of four sets of competency measures for the second set of subjects only, these subjects comprised less than one-third of the child sample.

because the PPST is based on observations of outline human figure drawings rather than live human interaction, less correspondence to behavior might be expected. As Bruner and Tagiuri (1954) have suggested, judgments based on drawings should be less meaningful "when we know that it is rarely that we make a judgment based on a frozen millisecond of exposure" (p. 220). Expanding on this, it can be noted in this study that scores on the STC-EVAL--one of the two measures which were based on responses to hypothetical interpersonal situations--correlated only with the sole IPS measure (i.e., the PPST) which was based on perceptions of hypothetical interpersonal situations, while the sole behavioral measure based on ratings of actual interpersonal behavior (i.e., the psychosocial competency ratings)correlated with one of the two perceptual style measures (i.e., the PAPI-MC) which was based on perceptions of actual interpersonal behavior. These results suggest that measures based on perceptions of hypothetical interpersonal situations have little relevance to _in vivo_ person perception or relationship to _in vivo_ behavior. On the other hand, the fact that the PPST correlated significantly with both of the other IPS measures suggests that person perceptions of hypothetical interpersonal situations relates to person perceptions of actual behavior. Moreover, that the PPST seems to have face validity and correlates with both other IPS measures as well as one of the two reactive style measures suggests that IPS, like perceptual accuracy (Cline, 1964), may consist of a number of related factors and that the PPST should not yet be rejected out of hand as a poor measure of IPS.

Regarding the relationship of competency ratings to children's scores on the PAPI-MC, if behavior toward another follows from perceptions of that other (as theory and research noted in the Introduction suggest), it would seem reasonable that children's perceptions of (and thus behavior toward) an adult (as in the PAPI-MC) and not necessarily another child (as in the CBC-MC) would relate to adult teachers' ratings of that child. In other words, it would seem that adults' ratings of children would relate more strongly to those children's perceptions of adults than their perceptions of other children. Following from this, if peer ratings were the sole basis of ratings, perhaps psychosocial competence would have related more strongly to positive IPS of the child stimulus. This reasoning is consistent with findings that adults who evidenced more positive perceptions of the child SPS were rated (a) most positively by children after interactions with those same children (Messé et al., 1979), but (b) most negatively by adult peers after interactions with those same adult peers (Larson, 1975), and (c) fathers' IPS regarding the child (but not adult) stimulus related to child psychosocial competence. These findings suggest that while the relationship between adult positive and balanced IPS regarding children relates respectively to more positive behavior with children and more positive child behavior, it is not carried into positive behavior with adults. Moreover, literature reviewed in the Introduction suggests that past experience influences perceptions and behavior, which seems consistent with this study's results. That is, as is likely if teachers and other adults perceive and act more favorably toward those children whom the

teachers rated higher in psychosocial competence, it would be expected that that child would see adults, but not necessarily other children (depending on how other children behave toward the child), more positively.

As may have been noticed, these results and arguments have implications concerning the nature of IPS. The results seem to suggest that while IPS may be highly stable across perceptions of individuals within specific classes of persons (such as adults as opposed to children), it is not highly (although it is significantly) correlated across perceptions of different classes of individuals. Thus, it will be the task of future research to clarify the classification parameters within which IPS is stable in both its nature and influence on behavior. Also, it may have been noticed that although these results provide some suggestion that IPS relates to child psychosocial competence, they do not suggest particular steps of the person perception process on which clinical interventions might most profitably focus. To elaborate, as noted in the Introduction, while the CBC-MC seems to primarily measure perceptual sensitivity regarding positive and negative behaviors which represents the first step in the person perception process, the PPST seems to primarily measure tendencies to distort, interpret, and perceive behaviors positively or negatively, which represents steps b and c in the person perception process, and the PAPI-MC measures a more even mixture of both. Since no relationships were found between either children's CBC-MC or PPST scores and psychosocial competence, the evidence does not suggest that differences in children's person perception processes exist in either steps

a, b, or c related to psychosocial competence. However, because relationships between psychosocial competence and both CBC-MC and PPST scores may have resulted respectively from the failure to use peer ratings of psychosocial competence or from the failure of the PPST to measure in vivo behavior, it would be premature to make conclusions regarding the particular importance of any steps of the person perception process in the relationship with psychosocial competence.

Despite the fact that children's balanced IPS did not relate to psychosocial competence as hypothesized, parents' balanced IPS did do so. This finding is consistent with Messe and Stollak's (1976) original hypothesis regarding the relationship of parents' IPS and children's psychosocial competence.

## Relationships Between Parents' and Children's IPS

The analyses examining relationships between parent and child IPS failed to support either Hypothesis 2 or the theories suggesting that children's IPS is more similar to mothers or parents with whom the children match on sex or with whom they identify more. In fact, the relevant results suggest that children have more similar IPS's to the opposite-sexed and less identified with parent. However, the results do support that in perceptions of the child stimulus, parents' balanced IPS relates to positive daughters' IPS, while only mothers' balanced IPS relates to sons' positive IPS. Also, in the positive relationships between parents' and daughters' (but not sons') signed IPS, the results provide limited support for previous IPS researchers' speculations that children should mirror their parents' IPS (Green, 1975).

That balanced parent IPS tends to relate to positive child IPS, at least in perceptions of the child stimulus, is not consistent with any of the parent-child IPS relationships proposed in the Introduction, and it is not clear why this relationship is more marked for daughters than sons. Although the relationships between signed parent and daughter IPS is consistent with previous IPS speculation, that this relationship is apparent for parents and daughters but not sons is unexpected. One might argue that, given the fact that needs, motives, roles, personality structure, defenses, and situational factors influence person perception (Cottrell, 1962; Goldin, 1969; Stollak, Messé, Michaels, & Ince, 1977; Tagiuri, 1969), the different patterns of needs, motives, etc. which accompany the different roles or personality structure of boys as opposed to girls could preclude positive IPS relationships between male children and parents. For example, as was alluded to earlier, many of the subjects (and particularly those who were younger and rated lower in psychosocial competence) found it difficult to maintain concentration on the experimental tasks. As a result, some subjects' scores on some measures were invalidated. However, the criteria for invalidation of a subject's responses on a measure were purposefully conservative. Thus, it is felt that the responses of many subjects on some of the measures which were used were substantially contaminated by this problem. To the extent that attention problems contributed to haphazard and invalid responses, it would be expected that this would have affected boys' more than girls' responses since boys, to a much greater extent than girls, suffer attention problems (see Huessy, 1967; Stewart, Pitts, Craig, & Dieruf,

1966; Wender, 1971). That is, due to boys' greater attention problems and, thus, higher rate of haphazard responses, invalid relationships with boys', more than girls', IPS would be observed.

Even so, the fact that parents' and daughters' IPS correlated positively (and at least marginally significantly) for three of the four signed IPS scores, but marginally significantly and negatively for the fourth (i.e., the correlation between mothers' and daughters' perceptions of the adult stimulus) suggests that the relationship between parents' and daughters' IPS (much less sons') is hardly straightforward.

As indicated earlier, the results did not support (and at times were opposite to) those predictions based on psychoanalytic identification and social learning theories. Thus, the results failed to support speculations that psychoanalytic identification or social learning theory processes facilitate similarity in parent-child IPS and suggest that while abundant evidence exists for the operation of identification and modeling in influencing behavior, these operations may be less applicable to person perception. That is, identification and social learning processes may enhance similarity of behavior, but not similarity of person perceptions. However, existing research findings (including those in this study) suggest reasons for this lack of similarity between parent and child IPS. First, to the extent that the valence of person perceptions and behavior do not match (as is suggested in the failure of reactive style measures to correlate with CBC-MC or PAPI-MC in this study), less similarity between the nature of parent and child person perceptions as opposed to behavior would be

expected. Second, the existence of distinct differences in the content and organization of adults' versus children's person perceptions (Campbell & Radke-Yarrow, 1956; Dubin & Dubin, 1965; Gollin, 1954; Piaget, 1950, 1952; Werner, 1948; Yarrow & Campbell, 1963) suggests that even if the nature of adults' person perceptions and behavior toward others are similar, children may perceive that behavior differently and infer parent person perceptions as being quite different than those the parents possess. Third, some might argue that due to these differences in the content and organization of children's and adults' person perceptions, as well as their differences in roles, needs, etc., any similarities between parents' and children's IPS would not be apparent until the child reaches a mature level of IPS development and a familial role (i.e., married adult with children) which is similar to those states of their parents at the time their parents were assessed. Even given these points, however, it is difficult to explain the results showing relationships which are opposite to those expected based on identification and social learning theory. Thus, these contrary results provide no support for the operation of modeling of or identification with parents in the etiology of children's IPS as measured above. However, one might argue that the results which show positive relationships between parents' and daughters' IPS provide some, although inconsistent, support for earlier IPS theorizing noted in the Introduction which implies that conditioning processes in parents' behavior (which result from their IPS toward their children, rather than modeling) is primarily responsible for similarities in parent-child IPS. Again, however, given that parents'

and male children's IPS's did not correlate and that one of four parent-daughter IPS relationships was negative (and marginally significant), conclusions about the degree to which parent and child IPS is similar, much less the nature of mechanisms responsible for similarities, must remain tentative.

### Does Pathogenic Parent IPS Relate to Pathogenic IPS in Future Generations? Another Look at the Relationships of Parents' IPS to Children's Psychosocial Competence and IPS

It may be remembered that a major purpose of this research was to examine the proposition that parental IPS relates to both psychosocial competence and IPS in children, thus providing evidence that parent IPS relates not only to offsprings' level of psychosocial competence but, through perpetuation of the same IPS in the offspring and then this offspring's offspring, to future generations' psychosocial competence. More specifically, it was speculated in the Introduction that parents' biased IPS relates to both child psychosocial dysfunction and biased child IPS and that this transmission of biased IPS in one's offspring leads to psychosocial dysfunction and biased IPS in that offspring's child, and so on in cyclical fashion through future generations.

Although the results support that only fathers' degree of bias in perceptions of the child stimulus related to child psychosocial dysfunction, it provides no evidence that biased father IPS relates to biased male (or female) child IPS. Rather, some evidence suggests that degree of fathers' bias in perceptions of the child stimulus relates to more balance in children's (especially male) perceptions of

the child stimulus. However, the results also suggest that balanced maternal perceptions of the adult SPS related to more balanced male child perceptions of the SPS child. That is: although balanced father perceptions of the child SPS related to higher child psychosocial competence, it also related to more biased male child IPS; given this study's results, such a biased IPS, if maintained into adulthood, would relate to low child competence in that child's offspring. Also, although maternal perceptual style did not relate to child competence, balanced maternal perceptions of the adult SPS related to male children's balanced perceptions of the child SPS; based on this study's results, if a balanced IPS is maintained into adulthood, it would relate to higher psychosocial competence in that male child's offspring. Thus, these results suggest that although fathers' (but not mothers') IPS relates to child psychosocial competence, mothers' (but not fathers') perceptual style relates to the kind of (male) child IPS that, if maintained into adulthood, is related to offspring's psychosocial competence. To speculate on possible causes, the results suggest that although fathers', but not mothers', IPS directly affects the child's level of psychosocial competence, it is mothers' and not fathers' IPS that is influential in creating the IPS in males which facilitates competence in one's children. However, recalling that the content and organization of person perceptions change with development, one might object to this reasoning which is based on an assumption of developmental stability in the valence of one's IPS relative to one's peers. On the other hand, it should be noted that although theory and research suggest that the content and organization

of person perceptions change with development, it does not clarify whether the valence of one's IPS relative to one's peers changes from childhood to adulthood.

## Other Findings

### The Relationship of Age, Verbal IQ, and Socioeconomic Status to Children's IPS

Based on this study's results, the relationship of IPS to age, verbal IQ, and socioeconomic status seem to yield few meaningful patterns. For example: (a) that age related to male children's positive perceptions of the adult stimulus, but to negative perceptions of the child stimulus, and did not relate to female children's IPS; (b) that verbal IQ related to female children's positive perceptions of the adult but not child stimulus and did not relate to male children's IPS; and, (c) that socioeconomic status related to male children's balanced and positive IPS when viewing the child but not adult stimulus, taken together, hardly suggest clear patterns of relationships. However, these results do suggest that demographic variables, child sex, and sex of the stimulus person perceived interact to produce differences in IPS. Given the previously noted conclusions that the nature of person perceptions varies with differences in perceiver role, sex, and personality variables, as well as with stimulus person variables (see reviews by Tagiuri, 1969, and Warr & Knapper, 1967), perhaps these results should not be surprising, even if their lack of consistency is disconcerting.

Despite this lack of clear-cut patterns to these findings, some highly tentative explanations of these relationships will be made.

Regarding the relationship of age to children's IPS, it may be that female children's narrower age deviations (SD in age = 19.7 months for females as opposed to 27.7 months for males) precluded discovery of a relationship between female children's age and IPS. Regarding correlations between age and male children's perceptions of the child stimulus, given that older child subjects probably saw the child stimulus (who is approximately 10 years old) as a peer, while younger subjects probably saw the child stimulus as an older child, results could be interpreted as showing that at least for male subjects age correlates positively with more positive IPS when viewing a person older than oneself; given that parents' perceptions of both the child and adult stimuli were more negative than their children's, as well as the correlations between male children's age and perceptions of the child stimulus, the results can be interpreted as indicating that IPS is more negative when viewing a peer or younger person, but is more positive when viewing an older person. Also, the significant positive correlation between male child subjects' age and balanced IPS when viewing the adult stimulus seems consistent with previous research (Gollin, 1954; Livesley & Bromley, 1974) showing that age affects the ability to integrate conflicting perceptions of an individual such that younger children more frequently evidence "simplified" person perceptions in which either the positive or negative behaviors evidenced by the same person are ignored. However, the fact that the relationship between age and balanced IPS in this study is evident only for males and that age did not correlate with more balanced IPS of the child stimulus who evidenced more discrepancies in behavior

suggests these results are equivocal at best regarding the existence of a relationship between age and balanced IPS. Moreover, the fact that verbal IQ did not relate to children's balanced perceptual style is inconsistent with the previous research just noted, which also found that lower IQ related to more frequent "simplified" person perceptions. In any event, it seems that clarifications of the relationship between IPS and age, IQ, and socioeconomic status must await further research.

Relationships Between Children's Perceptual Accuracy and IPS, Psychosocial Competence, Age, IQ, and Socioeconomic Status

As mentioned earlier, although perceptual or observational accuracy was not a primary focus of this study, and despite the fact that only 17 subjects were tested for it, a number of significant results which are noteworthy both in themselves and in terms of IPS merit discussion.

Although Messé et al. (1979) discussed perceptual balance and perceptual accuracy as if they were synonymous, previous research has not examined this contention directly. Bruni (1963) found that observational accuracy based on perceptions of filmed persons correlated with a tendency to rate others positively, thereby suggesting that perceptual accuracy correlates with positive perceptual style. However, Kaplan (1967) found that while normative scorers on the Repression-Sensitization Scale increased their predictive accuracy when given added information regarding another, repressors' and sensitizors' predictive accuracy decreased. If, as suggested (but not empirically demonstrated) earlier, less normative scores represent,

in part, inordinate sensitivity or insensitivity to positive and negative behavior, then this finding seems consistent with Messé and Stollak's assumption.

The fact that, in this study, more balanced IPS when viewing the child (but not the adult) stimulus correlated positively and robustly with accuracy in perceptions of the child stimulus and across perceptions of the child and adult stimuli combined provides some support for Messé and Stollak's assumption. At the same time, it should be noted that this relationship holds for perceptions of the child and not the adult stimulus, and that the relationships do not suggest that perceptual accuracy and balance, even when correlated, are identical. Also, that the relationship between accuracy and balance was found where the two newly created and probably more accurate balance points were used to calculate perceptual balance and not where raw score zero was used, reinforces evidence presented earlier that raw score zero should no longer be used as a balance point on the CBC measure.

As was noted in the Introduction, although many theoreticians have proposed a strong relationship between accuracy in person perceptions and psychosocial competence or adjustment (Ellis, 1962; Freud, 1961; Hartmann, 1939; Ittelson & Kutash, 1961; Kelly, 1955; Kris, 1952; Rorschach, 1942; Smith, 1973; Sullivan, 1953), few have satisfactorily demonstrated such a relationship (see reviews by Bruner & Tagiuri, 1954; Cronbach, 1955; Gage & Cronbach, 1955; Taft, 1955; Tagiuri, 1969; Warr & Knapper, 1968). Further, most of these theorists defined accuracy as the ability to predict others' self-ratings on a questionnaire or behavioral choices in very circumscribed situations. Also,

no study has demonstrated a significant relationship between observational accuracy and psychosocial competence.

By measuring observational accuracy, rather than predictive accuracy of another's highly circumscribed (and what Shrauger & Altrocchi [1964] call "theoretically barren") behaviors, this research studied a relatively unexamined but not unimportant aspect of person perception which is similar to what some of the above theoreticians seem to mean by accuracy when they stated that person perception accuracy relates to adjustment. Thus, this research's apparently unconfounded results indicating that children's accuracy in perceptions of the adult and across perceptions of the adult and child SPS figures relates positively to psychosocial competence and seems noteworthy in its support of those theoreticians who posit a link between person perception accuracy and psychosocial competence. However, the lack of a significant relationship between psychosocial competence and accuracy of perception of the child stimulus would seem to qualify this conclusion and reinforce previous researchers' conclusions that differences in perceiver variables, situational and contextual cues, and, most relevant here, characteristics of the stimulus person or behavior perceived mediate relationships between person perception and other variables (Bruner & Tagiuri, 1954; Tagiuri, 1969; Warr & Knapper, 1968). But since, as noted earlier, adults primarily rated subjects' psychosocial competence, it would seem to follow that children who are more accurate in perceptions of the adult, but not necessarily the child, stimulus would be rated higher in psychosocial competence in this study. Following from this, it would be predicted that if children primarily provided the ratings of psychosocial

competence, accuracy in perceptions of the child, but not necessarily the adult, stimulus would correlate with psychosocial competence.

Although previous research reviewed by Dubin and Dubin (1965) suggested that children's age relates to more realistic perceptions of adults, this study failed to find a relationship between children's age and perceptual accuracy. However, correspondence between this study's and those of previous studies' results should not necessarily be expected to be strong. First, the sample tested on perceptual accuracy in this study was small and had a very narrow age range. Second, all the studies reviewed by Dubin and Dubin used ratings of either parents or written descriptions of a stranger to assess accuracy, as opposed to live behavior as in this study.

The one study (Witryol & Kaess, 1957) which investigated the relationship of IQ to something akin to observational or perceptual accuracy (namely, the ability to remember names and faces) found no relationship between this ability and IQ. That female (but not male) children's verbal IQ in this study related marginally significantly to accuracy in perceptions of the child but not adult stimulus provides only slight support that verbal IQ and perceptual accuracy relate. Indeed, the presence of this single marginally significant finding among nine analyses performed to assess the relationship between IQ and perceptual accuracy is almost to be expected by chance; thus, it could be reasonably argued that this study's results are not discrepant from Witryol's and Kaess'.

No previous studies relating observational accuracy to children's socioeconomic status were found. However, this study's numerous findings of relationships between children's socioeconomic status and accuracy of person perceptions suggest that it is an important facet

of observational accuracy and that future researchers investigating observational accuracy should pay greater attention to socioeconomic status as a variable to be either studied or controlled.

The Relationship of Child Sex to Perceptual and Reactive Style

As noted in the Results, female child subjects exhibited significantly more positive IPS of the child stimulus and were more positive in their responses to their hypothetical child. The results indicating that female children express more positive perceptions of the child stimulus is consistent with research suggesting that females are generally more positive in their perceptions of others (Campbell & Radke-Yarrow, 1956; Dornsbusch, Hastorf, Richardson, Muzzy, & Vreeland, 1965; Dubin & Dubin, 1965; Kohn & Fiedler, 1961; Warr & Knapper, 1968). Given these findings, however, the lack of sex differences on the PAPI-MC is surprising, although they do seem to reinforce Tagiuri's (1969) conclusion based on his review that "the matter of sex differences in person perception is not a simple one" (p. 428), and that many other variables interact with sex to affect its relationship with person perception. However, it should be noted that from this researcher's impression while going through the initial teacher ratings of children, that a much higher proportion of the female children were rated high in psychosocial competence. Due to the needs of this research for a fairly balanced proportion of male and female children who were rated high and low in competence, a higher proportion of female than male children who rated high in competence were excluded from this sample. Given the possibility argued earlier (with some research support) that children who are rated more positively by teachers will more likely evidence

positive perceptions of adults, it may be that the lack of child sex differences on the PAPI-MC resulted from this sampling bias. In other words, because a higher proportion of female rather than male child subjects who received higher teacher ratings and thus would be expected to evidence more positive perceptions of adults (and thus higher PAPI-MC scores) were excluded from this sample, the lack of sex differences on the PAPI-MC may be spurious. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that while no adult sex differences were apparent in perceptions of the child SPS ($t = .64$; $p$ = N.S.) as there are with children, adult females perceived the SPS adult significantly more positively than adult males ($t = 2.63$; $p < .01$). If the lack of child sex differences in perceptions of the adult SPS is valid (and that is questionable), the child and adult results considered together suggest that sex differences in IPS operate when viewing a peer (i.e., another child or adult, as the case may be), but not when viewing a person who is significantly older or younger.

That female child subjects are more positive in response to their hypothetical child seems consistent with the abundant research showing that mothers rather than fathers are perceived by their children to be more positive in behavior (e.g., see reviews by Dubin & Dubin, [1965] and Goldin, [1969]) and suggests that mothers' more positive responsiveness predates adulthood and is directed toward children in general and not just their own children. However, given that most research has found that children see mothers more positively and that female children in this study evidenced more positive perceptions of

the child SPS, the fact that the valence of mothers' and fathers' perceptions of the child SPS do not differ is surprising. When taken in conjunction with the previous research showing that children perceive mothers more positively, this lack of difference suggests either that (a) mothers in this sample behave no more positively or negatively toward their children than fathers and, unlike children in previous studies, children in this study perceive mothers no more positively or negatively than fathers; (b) IPS and behavior are not related in a straightforward fashion (i.e., positive or negative IPS does not relate to more positive or negative behavior); or, (c) although mothers and fathers have equal tendencies to respond to positive and negative behaviors, the more aversive or less positive manner in which fathers may respond to negative and positive behavior may result in more positive child perceptions of mothers. Although it would not resolve this question entirely, it would be interesting to correlate the parents' IPS with their children's perceptions of them. (Note. Gerald Michaels, a co-worker on this project, collected these latter data on many of the child subjects used in this study.)

## Methodological Shortcomings of this Study

In evaluating this study's results, some shortcomings which could have diluted and perhaps obscured valid relationships should be summarized. First, it has already been noted that apparently due to young age and the time required by the experimental tasks, many subjects found it difficult to maintain their concentration throughout testing. It is felt that the responses of many subjects on some

measures which were used were substantially affected by this problem. Second, the discrepancy between children rated high and low in psychosocial competence (i.e., no child was clinic-referred) was less than originally intended and was not as great as was wished. Because of this, differences in IPS, reactive style, and perceptual accuracy between children rated high and low in psychosocial competence may have been obscured. Third, the STC-MC may have limitations which weakened it as a projective test of responsiveness to positive and negative behaviors. As Piaget (1965) has hypothesized, children differ developmentally in the degree to which they consider intentions and behavioral consequences in making moral judgments. More specifically, Piaget felt that before age 10, children tend to base their judgments on the consequences of a behavior rather than on the intentions behind a behavior. However, subsequent research has shown that, contrary to Piaget's claim, children as young as five and six years use intentionality in their moral judgments, and that differences in the relative use of intentions and behavioral consequences between children six and ten years old can be significant or negligible, depending on the type of story situation to which they are asked to respond (Armsby, 1971; Boehm, 1962; Costanzo, Coie, Grumet, & Farnell, 1973; Gutkin, 1972; Rule & Duker, 1973). Further, rather than resulting from insensitivity to intentions, developmental differences in moral judgments seem to result primarily from the younger child's tendency to attach greater importance to behavioral damage as it increases; when damage is relatively minor, the moral judgment differences found between six- and ten-year-old children can disappear. For example, Armsby (1971)

found that almost identical proportions of six- and ten-year-old children judged a child who broke one cup on purpose to be naughtier than a child who broke one cup by mistake. Even when the first child was compared to a child who broke 15 cups by accident, the difference between the groups was not great (75% of the six year olds versus 90% of the ten year olds judged the child who broke the one cup on purpose to be naughtier).

Since the negative behavioral consequences in the STC-MC are small, and since the child is not asked to compare two different situations of varying damage, it would seem that developmental differences in moral judgment such as Piaget found would not operate on the STC-MC. Also, it can be noted that moral judgment measures usually ask a subject to judge a hypothetical individual's goodness, based on a presentation of positive intentions behind, but negative consequences resulting from, that individual's behavior. Given this, it may be that development of perceptual sensitivity to positive and negative aspects of behavior, and therefore IPS, is partly responsible for developmental differences in IPS and/or moral judgment.

Since age, IQ, and socioeconomic status have all been shown to correlate with moral development (Boehm, 1962; Johnson, 1962; Piaget, 1950; Whiteman & Kozier, 1964), examination of the relationship between reactive style and then IPS with these variables should clarify the possibilities that (a) scores on the reactive style measures relate to, and thus may be confounded by, developmental differences in moral judgment; and (b) developmental differences in IPS may be partly responsible for developmental differences in moral judgment.

The fact that (a) age as well as IQ correlate at least marginally significantly and positively with scores on both reactive style measures, and (b) socioeconomic status correlates significantly with scores on one of the two reactive style measures provides evidence which is consistent with (but by no means conclusively supports) a relationship between reactive style and moral judgment. In contrast, the fact that scores on the CBC-MC IPS measure relate strongly and negatively to age and do not relate to socioeconomic status or IQ provides little evidence consistent with either a relationship between IPS and moral judgment or the theory that IPS is an important component in moral judgment.

## Summary

This study's results support relationships between (a) child IPS and psychosocial competence (at least when IPS is based on perceptions of an adult and competence is based primarily on ratings by adults), and (b) parent and child (and especially daughter) IPS. Because the relationship between child IPS and psychosocial competence was only marginally significant and the relationships between parent and child IPS were not always consistent, firm conclusions regarding the nature of these relationships could not be drawn. However, given the relatively small discrepancy in ratings between children rated high and low in psychosocial competence and the difficulties which many child subjects evidenced in maintaining their attention on the experimental tasks, the findings noted above are remarkable.

The results also provided support for relationships between balanced father, but not mother, IPS when viewing the child stimulus

and higher child psychosocial competence. Since balanced father IPS related to child psychosocial competence, while mother IPS related to the kind of IPS in sons which, if maintained into adulthood, is associated with child psychosocial competence, it can be seen that the results are consistent with the speculation that parental IPS not only affects child psychosocial competence, but fosters an IPS in sons which, if maintained into adulthood, could be pathogenic for the next generation.

As expected, the results provided support for relationships between (a) the three IPS measures, (b) the two reactive style measures, (c) perceptual accuracy and balanced IPS (at least in perceptions of the child stimulus), and (d) perceptual accuracy and psychosocial competence (at least in perceptions of the adult stimulus and when competence was based on adults' ratings). Also, females more than male children evidenced positive IPS of and reactive style toward the child stimuli, and numerous relationships were found between child age, verbal IQ, and socioeconomic status on the one hand, and IPS, reactive style, and perceptual accuracy on the other. Unexpectedly, scores on two of the three IPS measures did not relate to scores on the two reactive style measures. As was noted earlier, however, this may have been due to the fact that the reactive style measures involved imaginary role play situations, while the two IPS measures with which they failed to relate involved perception of *in vivo* behavior.

## Implications for Future Research

The marginal significance of many relationships, the small number of subjects tested on the perceptual accuracy measures, the

combination of young age and long duration of the testing which, for some subjects, resulted in poor concentration during the experimental period, and the small discrepancy between children rated high and low in psychosocial competence suggests that future research might profitably investigate some of the same relationships that this study investigated, after correcting the methodological shortcomings already summarized. More specifically, it would seem worthwhile to examine relationships of (a) perceptual accuracy to both IPS and psychosocial competence using more subjects, and (b) child IPS to psychosocial competence, parent IPS, and demographic variables using either subjects who were at least eight years old or procedures which took less time. In addition, it would seem that a more rigorous definition of high and especially low psychosocial competence than was used in this study would yield a more definitive test of the existence of relationships between psychosocial competence and both child IPS and perceptual accuracy.

Based on this study's results, it would also seem that research examining relationships with IPS should (a) concentrate their investigations on measures (including IPS measures) employing _in vivo_ stimulus behavior; (b) continue to examine relationships with positive, negative, and balanced IPS, but should no longer use raw score zero as the basis for determining balanced IPS on the CBC and PAPI measures; and, (c) more carefully match subjects on, or otherwise control for, the influence of demographic variables such as age, IQ, and socioeconomic status.

Further research is also needed to clarify the direction and causes of relationships which have been found in this study. For example, although this research suggests that children's positive perceptions of adults relate to more positive psychosocial competence ratings of these children by adults, the degree to which (a) children's more positive IPS results from more positive adult perceptions and, thus, behavior toward them; (b) the more positive teacher ratings result from the children's more positive behavior which results, in part, from those children's more positive IPS toward adults; or, (c) the operation of some other variable(s) which affect both the children's and adults' person perceptions (and thus ratings) of each other.

As mentioned earlier, relationships found between child psychosocial competence and IPS in perceptions of the adult but not child stimulus may have resulted from the fact that adults (i.e., teachers) and not children (i.e., peers) were primarily responsible for the competency ratings. To test this, future research might examine the relationship of children's IPS in perceptions of a child and adult stimulus (as this study did) and psychosocial competence based on peer as well as teacher ratings.

Finally, in addition to examining relationships with scores on the CBC and PAPI questionnaire measures of IPS, it may be of value to assess relationships with instruments which primarily measure only one of the two major components of IPS (i.e., either perceptual sensitivity to positive as opposed to negative behavior, or inferential tendencies regarding another's positive or negative behaviors, values, and/or

attitudes. For example, the Perceptual Accuracy Test items, more than the CBC or PAPI questionnaire items, refer in specific behavioral and non-evaluative items to a specific behavior(s) that the person in the SPS emitted. Thus, it would seem that the Perceptual Accuracy Test might provide the basis for a better measure of an individual's differential perceptual sensitivity to another's positive or negative behaviors than any IPS measure used to date has done. More specifically, a ratio of a subject's failure to endorse positive and negative behaviors on the Perceptual Accuracy Test which were emitted might yield a better measure of this differential sensitivity than either the CBC or PAPI measures do. Moreover, measurement of a person's tendency to endorse clearly evaluative items which refer to positive or negative qualities which do not fit any of an observed person's behaviors might yield a more pure measure of tendencies to infer positive or negative characteristics than any of the IPS measures in this study were able to do.

# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

## Further Arguments Concerning the Relationship Between Different Types of Parent and Child IPS and Behavior

## Further Arguments Concerning the Relationship Between Different Types of Parent and Child IPS and Behavior

Green (1975) and Larson (1975) argued that a parent of a child with a negative IPS would evidence one of three types of negative IPS. First, they argued that such a parent might be selectively attentive to and perhaps harshly punitive of negative child behaviors and ignoring of positive child behaviors. This type of parent might sensitize the child to negative behaviors, and as a result, the child might perceive negative behavior more readily and/or repress and project negative impulses onto others, thereby "seeing" others negatively. Second, they argued that parents with a negative IPS might interpret positive child behavior (e.g., assertive or affectionate behavior) as negative and punish it. Thus, the child would learn to label such behaviors as negative. In addition, because positive behaviors have received parental disapproval, such behaviors may become disassociated and not recognized by the child, thus contributing to a negative perceptual style.

Related to this, I would argue that parents who feel anxious regarding positive child behaviors (e.g., affectionate or helping behaviors), especially when directed toward that parent, might nonverbally and unintentionally communicate that anxiety to the child. According to Sullivan (1953) and learning theorists (Dollard & Miller,

1950), this might create anxiety for the child regarding those positive behaviors and consequent perceptual denial of them.

Green and Larson also argued that a parent who perceives the child's positive behavior but labels and punishes it as insufficiently positive places excessive demands on the child and fosters a similar negative IPS in the child. Although not stated by these researchers, it would also seem that due to either the punishment of positive behaviors as insufficient or the unrealistic demands placed upon the child, positive behaviors might become associated with enough anxiety to facilitate perceptual inattentiveness to positive behaviors and a negative IPS. Consistent with this last hypothesis, Green found that mothers of negative perceivers reported more "concern with children's pro-social, competent behavior" than did parents of balanced perceivers, thus suggesting high expectations and demands for positive child behavior.

Larson also argued that parents who are balanced perceivers more likely would be equally perceptive of and moderately but not inordinately concerned with positive and negative behaviors and therefore would be equally responsive to their child's positive and negative behaviors. Thus, the parents would appropriately but not excessively reward positive behaviors and punish negative behaviors. Lacking inordinate anxiety regarding positive or negative behaviors, the child would not need to distort or deny either positive or negative behaviors and, like his parents, would be perceptually sensitive to both.

Lastly, Green and Larson speculated that a child with a positive IPS would have at least one of three types of positive perceiving

parents. Due to their anxiety associated with negative impulses and behavior or their self-esteem needs, each of these parental types would tend to deny and ignore their child's negative behaviors while attending and responding to their child's real or imagined positive behaviors. Describing one of these parental types, Green argued that due to the parent's own fear of negative impulses or behaviors, he or she would deny the child's negative impulses and behavior, thus communicating that such impulses and behavior are too dangerous to admit into recognition. As a result, the child would similarly perceptually deny them.[1] In an attempt to fulfill their self-esteem needs through their child, the second parental type would label negative child behaviors as positive (e.g., interpret destructive or acting-out behavior as expressions of creativity, independence, assertiveness, etc.), thus contributing to a similar mislabeling by the child.[2] The third type of parent with a positive perceptual style would be "perfectionistic" in that he or she would focus disproportionate and punitive attention on positive behaviors for "not being

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[1]In addition, it would seem that being uncomfortable with negative impulses and behaviors, the parents might punish the child's acknowledgement of negative behaviors or impulses in others, thus communicating that such behavior and impulses are not permissible and facilitating in the child anxiety and denial of such behaviors and impulses in others.

[2]It would also seem that this parental interpretation of negative behaviors as positive might result from one of two other mechanisms. First, parents may have learned it from their own parents who similarly "mislabeled" behaviors. Although this could have negative psychological and psychosocial consequences for both parent and child, it would not be due to internal conflicts. Second, it could result from parental anxiety concerning negative behaviors as too threatening for whatever reason and thus a need to redefine those behaviors as positive.

good enough." This would seem to create inhibition in the child who, likewise, would tend to focus on positive behaviors in a similarly critical manner.[3]

Finally, Larson noted that parents of a child with a positive IPS may be like Baumrind's permissive parents.[4] That is, although the parent would generally ignore negative child behaviors, as did Baumrind's (1971) permissive parents, they would periodically "explode," directing high-intensity, often physical attacks of rage at the child. As a result, Larson speculated, expression of negative behaviors would produce severe conflicts in the child and, due to both the parent's implicit message that negative behaviors should be overlooked and the child's anxiety regarding negative behaviors, the child would deny negative impulses and behaviors and, like the parent, would evidence

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[3]As the reader may have noticed, this type of positive IPS proposed by Green is virtually identical to a negative IPS parental type described by Larson. It might seem, as Green has argued, that because such a parent frequently "perceives" the positive child behavior, he or she would be labeled a positive perceiver. However, because he or she cognizes, responds to, and reports these behaviors as negative on the CBC (the Children's Behavior Checklist used to determine perceptual style), this person's IPS would be classified as negative. Thus, it would seem, as Larson has argued, that such a parent as well as child must be considered a negative perceiver.

[4]In support of this, it may be remembered that undergraduates with positive IPS's resembled Baumrind's permissive parents in that they seemed to have trouble dealing with interpersonal conflict situations and significantly more often reported that they would "do nothing" in response to a child's limit-breaking behavior (Green, 1975; Larson, 1975). Moreover, the first two types of parents with positive IPS seem to resemble in behavior Baumrind's permissive parents; because they would tend not to "see" negative behaviors, they would be less effective in setting appropriate limits.

a positive perceptual style.

From the above speculation, it does seem that based on the parenting behaviors associated with biased IPS and the tendency for parent and child IPS to be similar, biased IPS in parents would facilitate child dysfunction and biased child IPS. At the same time, the above model seems incomplete. First, it would seem that in addition to those proposed above, other effects of negative or positive IPS are possible. For instance, it seems possible that inordinate punishment of negative behaviors might facilitate in a child (a) anxiety concerning and "perceptual repression" of (Blum, 1954; Bruner & Postman, 1947; Postman & Bruner, 1948; Postman, Bruner, & McGinnies, 1949) negative behaviors and characteristics in others and thus a positive IPS;[5] (b) negative self-perceptions and positive perceptions of others which would facilitate a positive IPS and poor psychosocial functioning (the negative parental evaluations would facilitate negative child self-perceptions [Cooley, 1909; Jourard & Remy, 1955; Mead, 1934] and contrast effects [Campbell et al., 1964] resulting from the child's comparison of himself or herself to others would facilitate a positive perception of others), or (c) through transference (Freud, 1933), "hypotheses" (Bruner, 1957), categories (Kelly, 1955), or "assumptions" (Ames, 1951) based on past experience, or stimulus generalization (Dollard & Miller, 1950), a tendency to see others similar to one's parents, thus facilitating a negative perceptual style. It also seems

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[5]In the extreme, such a person might resemble the stereotype of the meek and always-smiling milquetoast who, although having had extremely punitive parents, never sees the negative but always the positive in others.

possible that some of the IPS types of parents with positive IPS that they describe might facilitate a negative rather than positive IPS in their children. For example, it would seem that a parent with a positive IPS who occasionally "explodes" in response to negative child behaviors might foster a child who would not only repress negative impulses and behavior but (a) as Green and Larson have argued concerning children with a punitive and negative perceiving parent, might also project his or her own negative impulses onto others; (b) in fear might become "hypervigilant" (Blum, 1954) for negative behaviors; or, (c) in a transference reaction (Freud, 1933), "see" or interpret ambiguous or even positive behaviors in others negatively, thus leading to a <u>negative</u> IPS.

# APPENDIX B

## The Children's Behavior Checklist, Modified for Children (CBC-MC)

The Children's Behavior Checklist, Modified

for Children (CBC-MC)

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR CBC-MC

All answers to the CBC-MC go on IBM sheets. A new sheet should be used for each child. Since this is to be given orally, there is no need to write on the questionnaire itself. The experimenter should record the child's answers directly onto the IBM sheet, using a number 2 pencil: 1 = Like, 2 = Not Like.

Since the questionnaire is given orally, it is very important that the statements on the questionnaire are read slowly and distinctly, in a normal tone of voice, and without any uncalled for emphasis on a word or phrase which could influence the child's responses. If the child does not understand a word or phrase or does not hear the question, the word or phrase may be explained or the question repeated. Any elaboration of this type, however, must be limited to repeating or defining the content of a question. If the child seems hesitant or asks for additional information or help, the experimenter should refuse to give this and tell the child to "Try your best."

When you are done with each administration of the questionnaire, write one-sentence comment on the back of the IBM sheet concerning the child's concentration or any problems which might have been encountered. If all went well, it is sufficient to just write on the back of the IBM sheet, "O.K."

CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST-MC (modified for children)

Directions:

BEFORE I ASK YOU QUESTIONS ABOUT THE ADULT, I WANT TO FIND OUT HOW YOU SAW THE CHILD ON TV. TO DO THIS, I AM GOING TO READ YOU SOME THINGS WHICH DESCRIBE WHAT CHILDREN SOMETIMES DO, ACT, OR FEEL. SOME OF THESE THINGS WILL BE LIKE THE CHILD YOU JUST SAW ON TV, AND SOME OF THE THINGS I READ WILL NOT BE LIKE THE CHILD YOU SAW. NOW, FOR EACH THING I SAY, YOU CAN GIVE ME TWO KINDS OF ANSWERS. YOU CAN SAY THEY ARE "LIKE" OR "NOT LIKE".

HERE IS HOW IT WORKS: IF I SAY "THE CHILD WAS BOSSY WHEN HE/SHE PLAYED GAMES." WHAT IS YOUR ANSWER? (Let the child give the answer.) GOOD. BEFORE WE BEGIN, I WANT TO BE SURE YOU KNOW THE TWO WAYS YOU CAN ANSWER. WHAT ARE THE TWO WAYS? (Let the child tell you both possible responses.) GOOD.

I WANT YOU TO TELL ME WHAT YOU REALLY THINK. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS TO THESE QUESTIONS SO YOU DON'T HAVE TO WORRY ABOUT WHETHER OR NOT YOUR ANSWER ARE RIGHT OR WRONG. DO YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS? OK, LET'S BEGIN.

After questions 5 and 15, say to the child: "REMEMBER, YOUR ANSWERS ARE TO COME FROM HOW YOU SAW THE CHILD ACT ON TV AND YOU CAN ANSWER IN TWO WAYS, 'LIKE' AND 'NOT LIKE'."

1. The child on TV was tidy and neat, perhaps even a little bit fussy about it.

2. The child on TV couldn't wait for things; he/she wanted to have them right away.

3. The child on TV cared about other people's feelings.

4. The child got mad easily.

*5. The child played with toys in a rough way.

6. The child did not pay attention to what the adult said.

7. The child on TV kept his/her mind on what he/she was doing and seemed to finish things he/she started.

8. The child showed that he/she was proud and felt good when he/she finished something.

9. The child seemed to do things just to get the adult angry with him/her.

10. The child did not like doing much of anything; he/she quickly went from one thing to another.

11. The child on TV did what the adult asked him/her to do.

12. The child made friends quickly and easily.

13. The child seemed sad and unhappy.

14. The child seemed to feel that he/she can do almost anything well.

*15. The child on TV often had to be reminded of what he/she could and could not do.

16. The child pretended or acted like he/she might hit or hurt the adult.

17. The child was able to stand up for himself/herself.

18. The child was polite and cooperative.

19. The child on TV often broke the rules of games.

*After starred items, say to the child: "Remember, your answers are to come from how you saw the child act on TV and you can answer in two ways, 'Like' and 'Not Like'."

20. When told to do things he/she did not want to do, the child became angry.

21. The child was curious and liked to explore things.

22. The child did not seem to make or finish anything; he/she just seemed to go from one thing to another without finishing any of them.

23. The child on TV liked to play games with others to see who is better.

24. The child seemed selfish; he/she always wanted his/her own way.

25. The child showed other people he/she was glad when they helped or did things for him/her.

26. The child had lots of energy.

27. The child on TV didn't seem to care how he/she looked; he/she looked sloppy.

28. The child kept his/her mind on and liked doing most things he/she did.

29. The child was fidgety and restless; he/she just couldn't sit still.

30. The child helped when things had to be done.

31. The child learned things quickly.

The Perception of Adult Playmate Inventory,

Modified for Children (PAPI-MC)

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS: PAPI-MC

The PAPI-MC is read to the child after the oral administration of the Child Behavior Checklist-MC which immediately follows the viewing of the videotape. The child's responses should be recorded on IBM sheets. Use the numbers next to each response and record the number associated with the child's final response. Before you begin, make sure the family identifying number is put in the appropriate place on the IBM sheet.

When you read the questions on the PAPI-MC, it is extremely important that you keep an even tone of voice as you read the possible responses so as not to influence the child's answers in any way. If the child does not understand an answer, you may repeat it or even explain the meaning of a word. No other information or help pertaining to a particular item should be given.

When you have finished with each administration of the PAPI-MC, write a one- or two-sentence comment on the back of the IBM sheet concerning the child's motivation, concentration, any problems encountered, any items or words the child did not seem to understand, etc.

# APPENDIX C

## The Perception of Adult Playmate Inventory, Modified for Children (PAPI-MC)

DIRECTIONS FOR THE PAPI-MC

NOW, I WANT TO FIND OUT WHAT YOU THOUGHT ABOUT THE ADULT YOU JUST SAW ON TV. TO DO THIS, I'M GOING TO ASK YOU SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT HER, AND I WANT YOU TO TELL ME WHAT YOU REALLY THINK. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS TO THESE QUESTIONS, SO YOU DON'T HAVE TO WORRY ABOUT WHETHER OR NOT YOUR ANSWERS ARE RIGHT OR WRONG. DO YOU THINK YOU CAN TELL ME WHAT YOU REALLY THINK? GOOD. LET'S START.

Begin with the first question and follow the format as it is described in the following:

If a question is like Item No. 9: "The adult you saw on TV got angry - - or - - the adult did not get angry," read the question and wait for the child's response. If the child answers, "She did not get angry," you then ask: "She didn't get angry at all or she usually didn't get angry?" Notice that in this item, the alternative responses were "Not at all" and "Usually not," and that in asking the child the alternatives ("not at all" and "usually not") the item had to be worded into the original stem (which was, "The woman you saw on TV did not get angry") so as to fit. This is true of a number of items and you should read the alternatives into the stem as they make the most sense.

In answering, the child does not have to give you the complete sentence. As long as you know which answer he/she is referring to, this is enough. Make sure you do not say anything which would suggest an answer to the child. For example, if you didn't hear the answer, say "I didn't hear you," rather than, "Did you say . . .?"

PAPI-MC (Form 1)

Date: _____ Time: _____

Name of Interviewer: _____

Name of Child: _____

PAPI-MC

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | THE ADULT ON TV WANTED THE CHILD TO PLAY WHAT SHE WANTED. | OR | THE ADULT ON TV LET THE CHILD PLAY WHATEVER THE CHILD WANTED TO. |
| | 1 - A little<br>or<br>2 - A lot | | 3 - A little<br>or<br>4 - A lot |
| 2. | THE ADULT ON TV WAS POLITE. | OR | THE ADULT ON TV WAS IMPOLITE. (By impolite, I mean the adult had bad manners.) |
| | 4 - Was the adult a little polite<br>or<br>5 - Was the adult very polite | | 2 - Was the adult a little impolite<br>or<br>1 - Was the adult very impolite |
| 3. | THE ADULT ON TV SEEMED TO LIKE THE GAMES THE CHILD LIKED. | OR | THE ADULT ON TV SEEMED BORED WITH KID'S GAMES (By bored, I mean she didn't care about kid's games.) |
| | 3 - A little<br>or<br>4 - A lot | | 2 - A little<br>or<br>1 - A lot |
| 4. | THE ADULT WAS STINGY. (By stingy, I mean the adult did not share.) | OR | THE ADULT SHARED. |
| | 1 - Was the adult very stingy<br>or<br>2 - Was the adult a little stingy | | 5 - Did the adult share very much<br>or<br>4 - Did the adult share a little |
| 5. | THE ADULT WAS WORRIED. | OR | THE ADULT WAS CALM. |
| | 2 - Was the adult a little worried<br>or<br>1 - Was the adult very worried | | 4 - Was the adult a little calm<br>or<br>5 - Was the adult very calm |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 6. | YOU TRUST THIS ADULT (By trust, I mean you could count on the adult). | OR | YOU DON'T TRUST THIS ADULT (By don't trust, I mean you could not count on the adult). |
| | 5 - Do you trust the adult very much or<br>4 - Do you trust the adult a little | | 1 - You very much don't trust the adult or<br>2 - You don't trust the a little |
| 7. | THE ADULT WAS NOT SHY. | OR | THE ADULT WAS SHY. |
| | 4 - Was the adult usually not shy<br>or<br>5 - Was the adult not shy at all | | 2 - Was the adult a little shy<br>or<br>1 - Was the adult very shy |
| 8. | THE ADULT ASKED STUPID QUESTIONS. | OR | THE ADULT ASKED GOOD QUESTIONS. |
| | 2 - A little<br>or<br>1 - A lot | | 3 - A little<br>or<br>4 - A lot |
| 9. | THE ADULT GOT ANGRY. | OR | THE ADULT DIDN'T GET ANGRY. |
| | 1 - A lot<br>or<br>2 - A little | | 4 - Not at all<br>or<br>3 - Usually not |
| 10. | THE ADULT WAS NICE. | OR | THE ADULT WAS MEAN. |
| | 4 - Was the adult a little nice<br>or<br>5 - Was the adult very nice | | 2 - Was the adult a little mean<br>or<br>1 - Was the adult very mean |
| 11. | THE ADULT WAS IN A GOOD MOOD. | OR | THE ADULT WAS GROUCHY. |
| | 3 - Was the adult in a very good mood<br>or<br>4 - Was the adult in a little bit of a good mood | | 1 - Was the adult very grouchy<br>or<br>2 - Was the adult a little grouchy |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 12. | THE ADULT WAS UNHELPFUL. | OR | THE ADULT WAS HELPFUL. |
| | 1 - Was the adult very unhelpful<br>or<br>2 - Was the adult a little unhelpful | | 5 - Was the adult very helpful<br>or<br>4 - Was the adult a little helpful |
| 13. | THE ADULT ON TV DIDN'T LAUGH OR SMILE. | OR | THE ADULT ON TV LAUGHED AND SMILED. |
| | 1 - Not at all<br>or<br>2 - Usually not | | 4 - A lot<br>or<br>3 - A little |
| 14. | THE ADULT THANKED THE CHILD WHEN THE CHILD DID SOMETHING FOR HER. | OR | THE ADULT DIDN'T THANK THE CHILD WHEN THE CHILD DID SOMETHING FOR HER. |
| | 3 - Some of the time<br>or<br>4 - Very often | | 2 - Usually didn't thank the child<br>or<br>1 - Almost never thanked the child |
| 15. | THE ADULT WAS FRIENDLY. | OR | THE ADULT WAS UNFRIENDLY. |
| | 5 - Was the adult very friendly<br>or<br>4 - Was the adult a little friendly | | 1 - Was the adult very unfriendly<br>or<br>2 - Was the adult a little unfriendly |
| 16. | THE ADULT ON TV LIED. | OR | THE ADULT ON TV WAS HONEST. |
| | 2 - Did the adult lie a little<br>or<br>1 - Did the adult lie very much | | 4 - Was the adult a little honest<br>or<br>5 - Was the adult very honest |
| 17. | THE ADULT LET THE CHILD MAKE THE RULES | OR | THE ADULT MADE UP THE RULES |
| | 4 - A lot<br>or<br>3 - A little | | 1 - A lot<br>or<br>2 - A little |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 18. | IT WAS HARD TO UNDERSTAND WHEN THE ADULT EXPLAINED THINGS. | OR | THE ADULT EXPLAINED THINGS WELL. |
| | 1 - Very hard<br>or<br>2 - A little hard | | 5 - Very well<br>or<br>4 - Pretty well |
| 19. | THE ADULT LET THE CHILD DO THINGS WHEN THE CHILD WANTED TO. | OR | THE ADULT WANTED TO HAVE THE CHILD DO THINGS RIGHT AWAY. |
| | 4 - Some of the time<br>or<br>5 - Most of the time | | 2 - Some of the time<br>or<br>1 - Most of the time |
| 20. | THE ADULT ON TV WAS HAPPY. | OR | THE ADULT ON TV WAS SAD. |
| | 4 - Was she a little happy<br>or<br>5 - Was she very happy | | 2 - Was she a little sad<br>or<br>1 - Was she very sad |
| 21. | THE ADULT SEEMED LIKE SHE WOULD RATHER BE SOMEWHERE ELSE. | OR | THE ADULT LIKED TO PLAY WITH THE CHILD. |
| | 2 - A little<br>or<br>1 - A lot | | 3 - A little<br>or<br>4 - A lot |
| 22. | THE ADULT CARED ABOUT HOW THE CHILD FELT. | OR | THE ADULT DIDN'T SEEM TO CARE ABOUT HOW THE CHILD FELT. |
| | 4 - A lot<br>or<br>3 - A little | | 1 - Not at all<br>or<br>2 - Usually not |

# APPENDIX D

## The Person Picture Story Test (PPST)

The Picture Person Story Test (PPST)

DIRECTIONS

I WOULD LIKE TO PLAY SOMETHING LIKE A GAME WITH YOU IN WHICH I WILL SHOW YOU SOME PICTURES, AND I WILL ASK YOU SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT WHAT YOU THINK IS HAPPENING IN EACH PICTURE. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. WHAT IS IMPORTANT IS FOR YOU TO TELL ME WHATEVER YOU THINK IS GOING ON AND HOWEVER THINGS LOOK TO YOU. TO HELP ME REMEMBER WHAT YOU SAY, I'M GOING TO USE THIS TAPE RECORDER TO RECORD YOUR ANSWERS.

DO YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS? . . . O.K., HERE IS THE FIRST PICTURE.

After having completed the directions and answered any questions, turn on the recorder. Turn it off after the entire PPST has been completed.

If the child asks to hear himself on the recorder, tell the child that you would be happy to let him hear himself after you have finished the task. Then, after completion of the task, rewind the tape a little and play a segment long enough to satisfy the child's curiosity. I do not imagine the playing time would be longer than one minute and could be much less.

For six of the seven PPST card sets, there are two pictures. For each of these sets, you are to use the card in which the focus child in the picture is the same sex as the child you are testing. For the Teacher Card (card 2), there is only one picture. This is because the two focus children consist of a boy and a girl.

As you are explaining the scenario for each card, you should hold the picture so that the child can see it. The scenario and questions for each card are written on the reverse side so that as you show the card to the child, you can read the directions for that

card on the back. During the administration of this task, all cards except the one being dealt with should be kept out of sight.

If, in response to questions, a child says, "I can't," "You can't tell," or something like that, say, "Make up a story about what you think it looks like is happening (or what they are feeling, thinking, etc.)." If the child still refuses to venture a guess, say something like: "Even though it is hard to tell, I would like you just to make up a story as best you can. I really just want to hear you make up a story about it." If the child still refuses, note this and go on to the next item.

After the child completes his response to a card, you may commend the child with something like, "That's fine." For purposes of this research, however, such responses should be short and are to be used only to maintain good rapport or to facilitate the child's involvement in the task. Caution should be exercised so that any praising or prompting will not leave the child with the impression that the type of perception or story is desired by you.

If the child does not cover all parts of a question for a card, repeat the question or parts of it which did not seem to be clearly answered. For example, if a child does not answer a question or seems to have misunderstood the scenario or questions, repeat them or, if necessary, explain them. If a child's answer is nonsensical or is not clear in terms of the question, ask the child something like: "Can you tell me more about what the person is saying or thinking? What else might he/she be saying or thinking?"

If a child inquires about a detail in a picture which is unclear or about the picture's characters, situation, etc., you should reply with: "Make it anything you want." The point is that clarification to the child of the scenarios or questions as they are stated on the card's back is permissible, but anything beyond that is to be left to the child.

The primary purpose of the questions in this task are to tap whether or not the child perceives the adult (or in card 5, the peers) as acting and feeling positively or negatively toward the focus child in the pictures. Therefore, if the child has difficulty answering how a particular character feels as well as thinks (or vice versa), but has made clear whether the adult is feeling positively or negatively toward the child, or in the case of the focus child, has made clear how the child is feeling toward the adult, do not press too hard for the answer. However, the child should be pressed as outlined above to come up with a response to the questions: "What is happening?" and, "What is the adult saying to the child?"

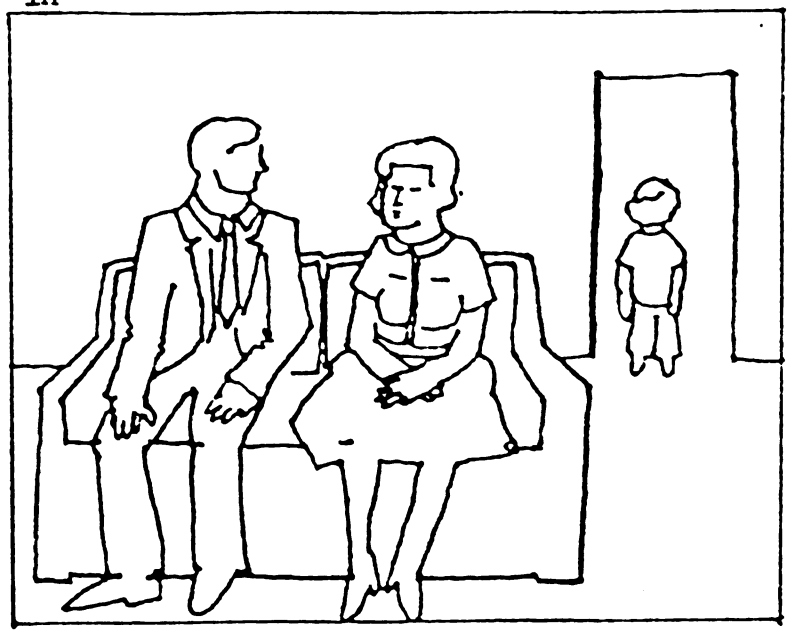
If, from the context formed by the pictures and the child's other responses, a particular response seems illogical or puzzling, feel free to ask the child "why?" or "how come?" in order to clarify how

the child sees things. For example, if in response to the teacher card (card 2), a child describes the teacher as upset with the child, but the child is happy, I would ask, "How come the child is happy?"

The Person Picture Story Test (PPST)

(Form for Male Subjects)

1M



(Information appearing on reverse side of picture card)

In this picture, a mother and a father are sitting together on a sofa. As they are talking, their son comes walking into the room, but the mother and father do not see him and continue talking. As the boy enters, he hears his parents talking about him. Make up a story about what each parent might be saying and what each person is thinking and feeling. For example:

1. What is the father and what is the mother each saying about the child?

2. What is the father thinking?

3. What is the father feeling?

4. What is the mother thinking?

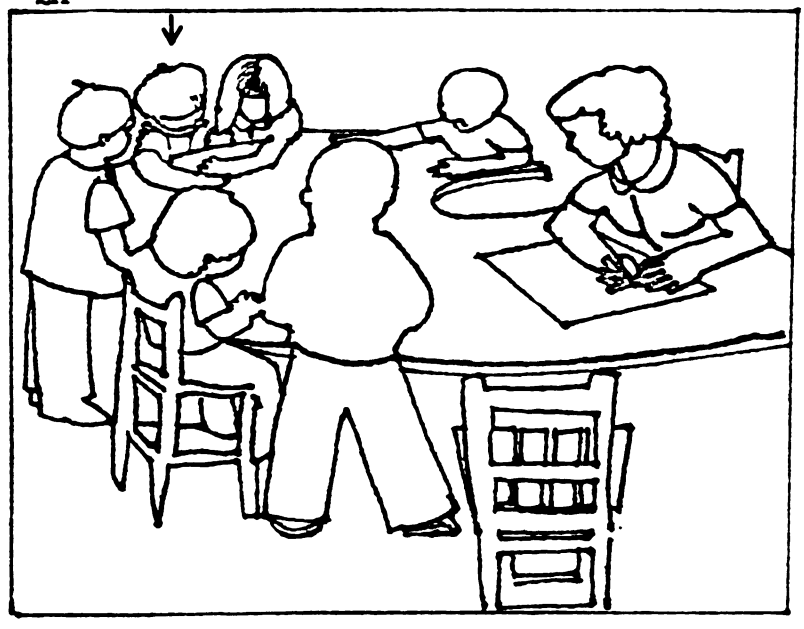
5. What is the mother feeling?

6. What is the child thinking?

7. What is the child feeling?

8. How does the story end?

2M



(Information appearing on reverse side of picture card)

In this picture, a teacher is looking at the boy designated by the arrow. Make up a story about what it looks like is happening in this picture, what the teacher is saying to the boy, and what the teacher and what the boy are each thinking and feeling. For example:

1. What is happening in this picture?

2. What is the teacher saying to the boy?

3. What is the teacher thinking?

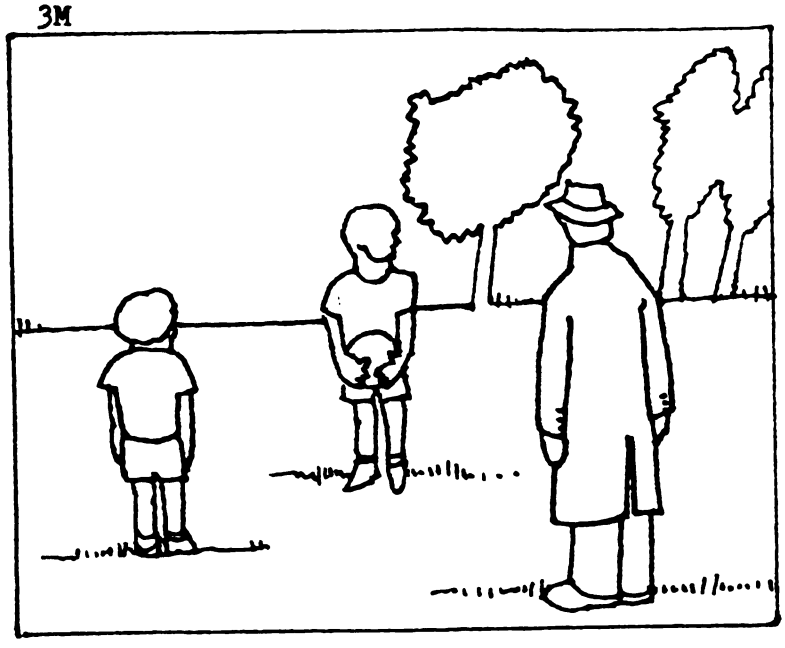
4. What is the teacher feeling?

5. What is the boy thinking?

6. What is the boy feeling?

7. How does the story end?

3M



(Information appearing on reverse side of picture card)

In this picture, the man is saying something to the boy holding the ball. The man could be anyone, but the boy's father (e.g., a stranger, friend, storekeeper, someone seen before but not known, etc.). Make up a story about who the man is, what you think is happening in this picture, what the man is saying to the designated child, and what the man and child are each thinking and feeling. For example:

1. Who is the man?

2. What is happening in the picture?

3. What is the man saying to the boy?

4. What is the man thinking?

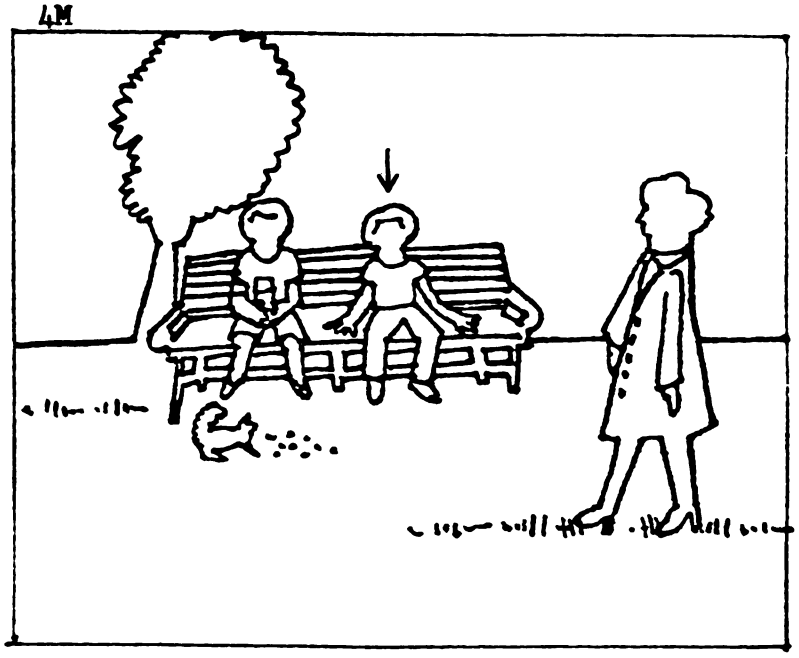
5. What is the man feeling?

6. What is the boy thinking?

7. What is the boy feeling?

8. How does the story end?

4M



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, the lady is thinking and saying something to the boy designated by the arrow. The lady could be anyone but the boy's mother (e.g., a stranger, friend, someone seen before but not known, etc.). Make up a story about who the woman is, what it looks like is happening, what the lady is saying to the designated boy, and what the woman and child are thinking and feeling. For example:

1. Who is the woman?

2. What is happening in the picture?

3. What is the woman saying to the boy?

4. What is the woman thinking?

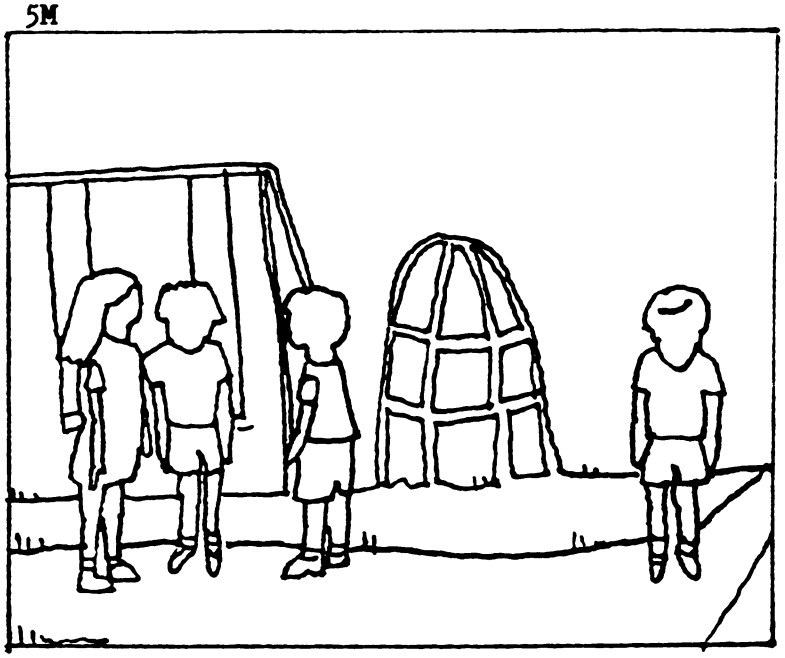
5. What is the woman feeling?

6. What is the boy thinking?

7. What is the boy feeling?

8. How does the story end?

5M



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

Here is a boy (point to the child on the right) and over here (point to the children on the left) are three kids he knows in school. These three kids are talking about him, but he is too far away to hear them. I would like you to tell me why they are talking about him and what they are saying, thinking, and feeling about him.

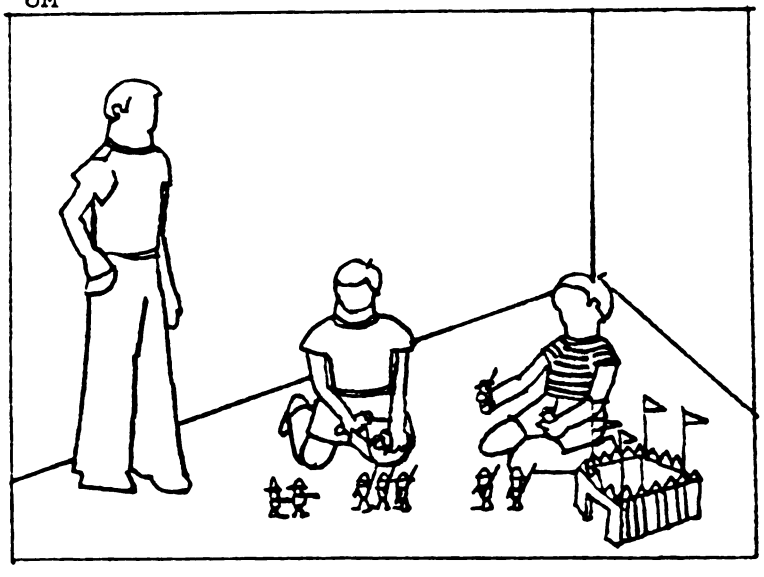
First, why are they talking about him?

What are they saying about him?

What are they thinking and feeling about him?

How does the story end?

6M



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, a father (point to the adult) is saying something to his son (point to the child on the right). I would like you to make up a story about what it looks like is happening, what the father is saying to his son, and what the father and his son are each thinking and feeling.

First, what is happening?

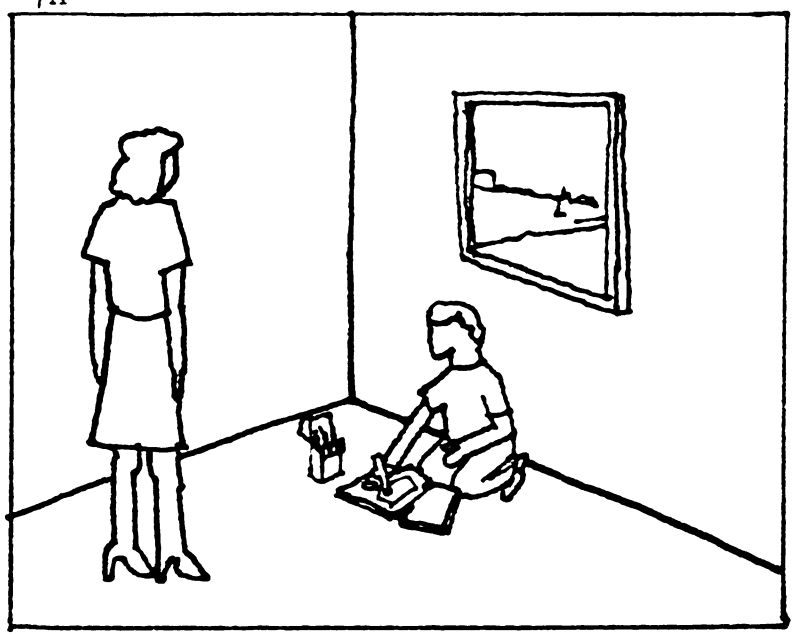
What is the father saying to his son?

What is the father thinking and feeling?

What is the son thinking and feeling?

How does the story end?

7M



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, a mother is saying something to her son. I would like you to make up a story about what it looks like is happening, what the mother is saying to her son, and what each person is thinking and feeling.

First, what is happening in this picture?

What is the mother saying to her son?

What is the mother thinking and feeling?

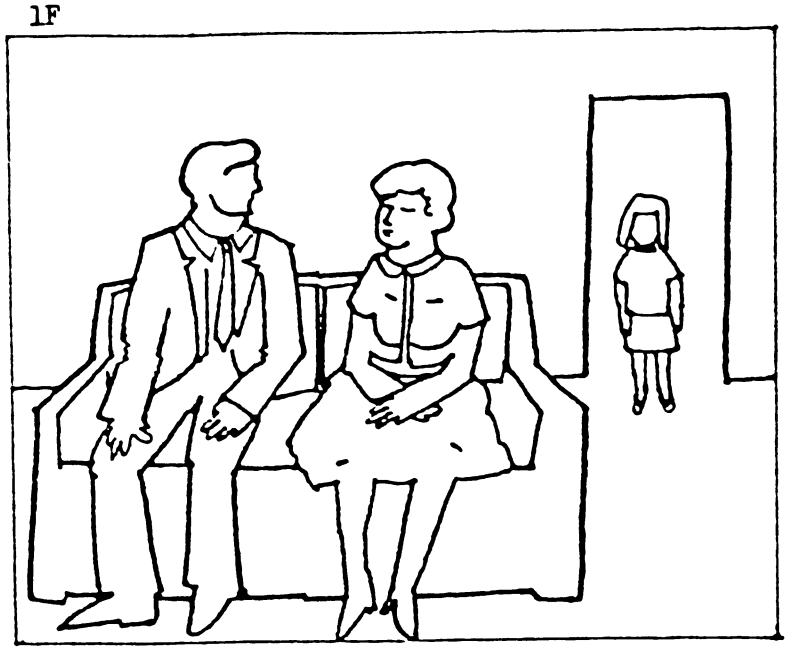
What is the child thinking and feeling?

How does the story end?

The Person Picture Story Test (PPST)

(Form for Female Subjects)

1F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, a mother and a father are sitting together on a sofa. As they are talking, their daughter comes walking into the room, but the mother and father do not see her and continue talking. As the girl enters, she hears her parents talking about her. Make up a story about what each parent might be saying and what each person is thinking and feeling. For example:

1. What is the father and what is the mother each saying about the child?

2. What is the father thinking?

3. What is the father feeling?

4. What is the mother thinking?

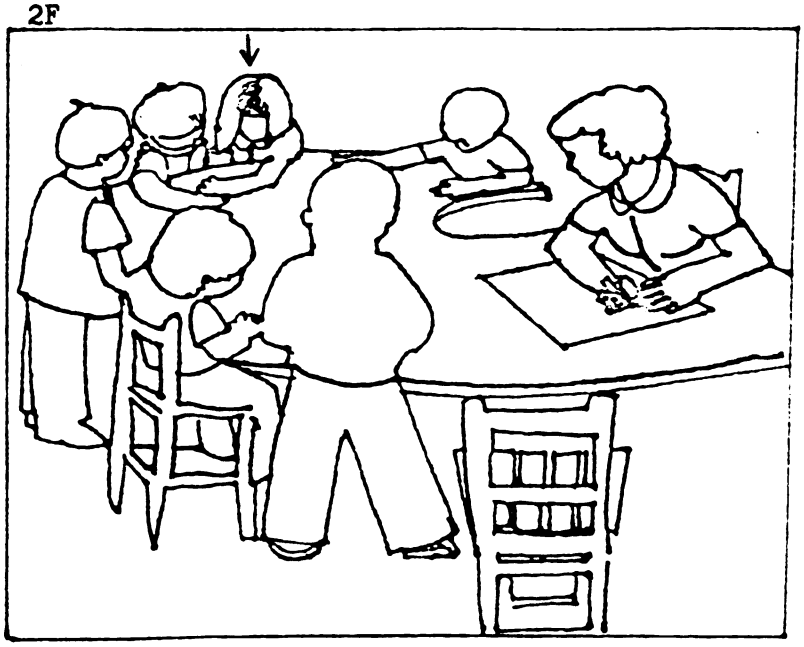
5. What is the mother feeling?

6. What is the child thinking?

7. What is the child feeling?

8. How does the story end?

2F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, a teacher is looking at the girl designated by the arrow. Make up a story about what it looks like is happening in this picture, what the teacher is saying to the girl, and what the teacher and what the girl are each thinking and feeling. For example:

1. What is happening in this picture?

2. What is the teacher saying to the girl?

3. What is the teacher thinking?

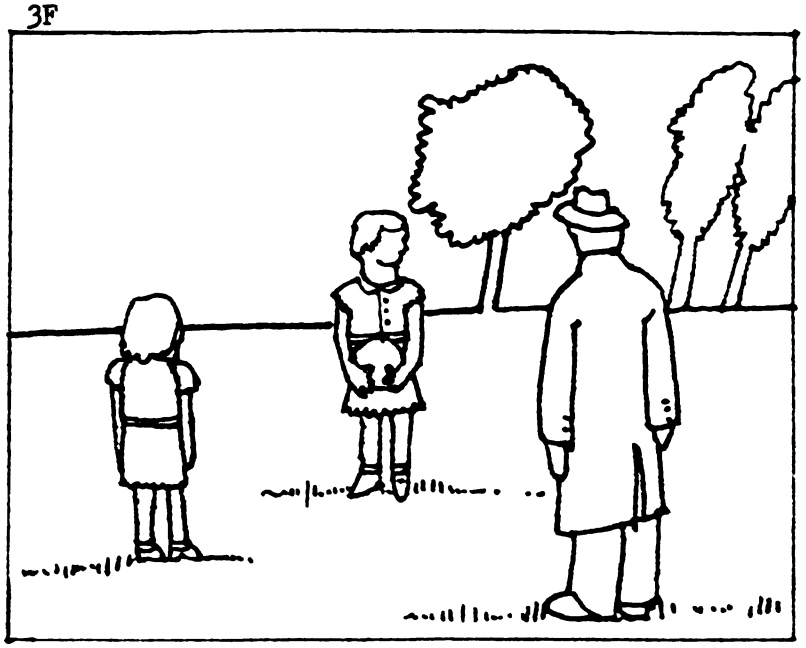
4. What is the teacher feeling?

5. What is the girl thinking?

6. What is the girl feeling?

7. How does the story end?

3F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, the man is saying something to the girl holding the ball. The man could be anyone but the girl's father (e.g., a stranger, friend, storekeeper, someone seen before but not known, etc.). Make up a story about who the man is, what you think is happening in this picture, what the man is saying to the designated child, and what the man and child are each thinking and feeling. For example:

1. Who is the man?

2. What is happening in the picture?

3. What is the man saying to the girl?

4. What is the man thinking?

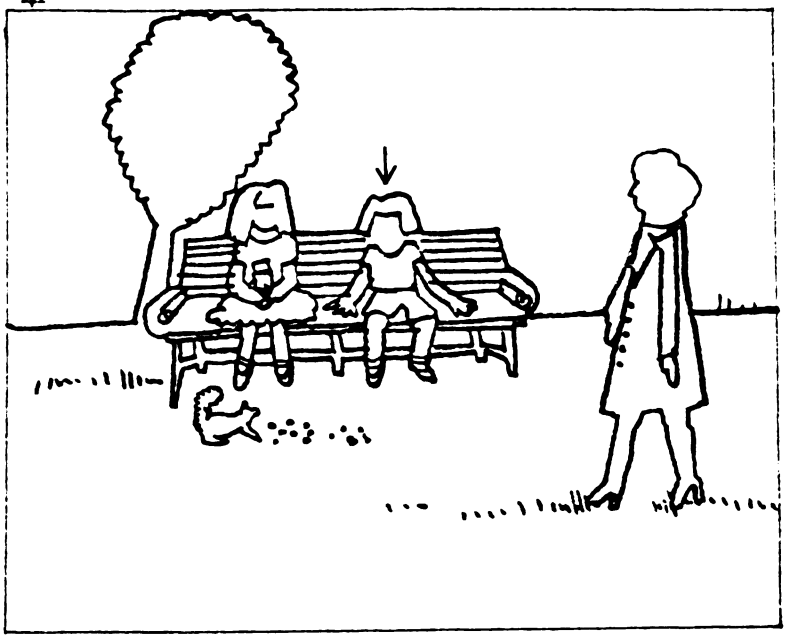
5. What is the man feeling?

6. What is the girl thinking?

7. What is the girl feeling?

8. How does the story end?

4F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, the lady is thinking and saying something to the girl designated by the arrow. The lady could be anyone but the girl's mother (e.g., a stranger, friend, someone seen before but not known, etc.). Make up a story about who the woman is, what it looks like is happening, what the lady is saying to the designated girl, and what the woman and child are thinking and feeling. For example:

1. Who is the woman?

2. What is happening in the picture?

3. What is the woman saying to the girl?

4. What is the woman thinking?

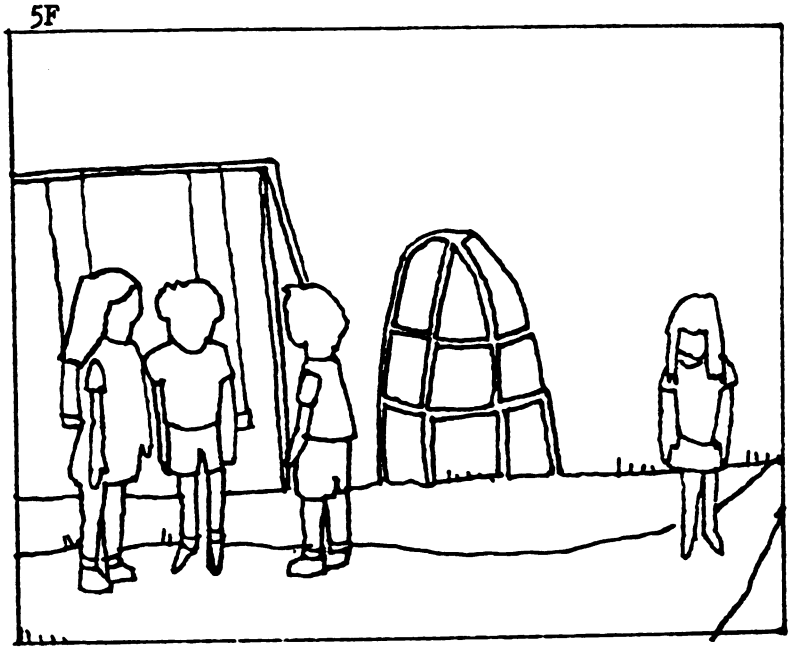
5. What is the woman feeling?

6. What is the girl thinking?

7. What is the girl feeling?

8. How does the story end?

5F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

Here is a girl (point to the child on the right) and over here (point to the children on the left) are three kids she knows in school. These three kids are talking about her, but she is too far away to hear them. I would like you to tell me why they are talking about her and what they are saying, thinking, and feeling about her.

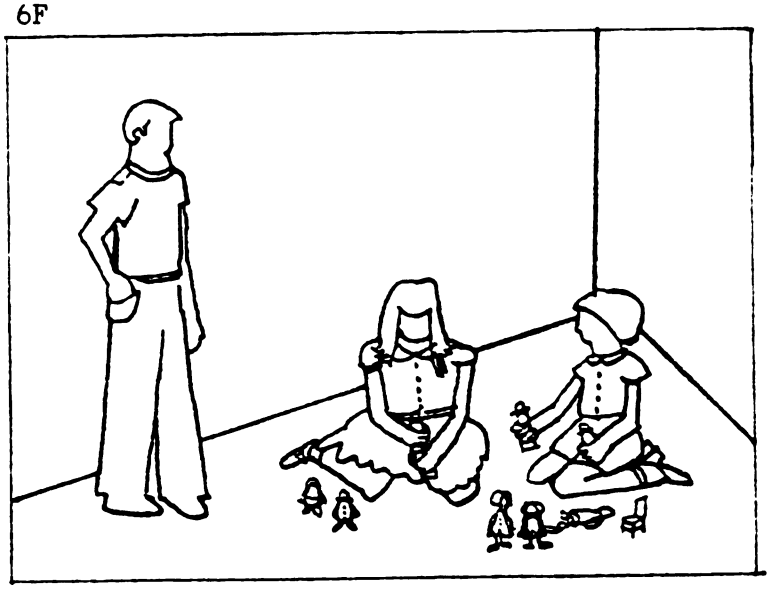
First, why are they talking about her?

What are they saying about her?

What are they thinking and feeling?

How does the story end?

6F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, a father (point to the adult) is saying something to his daughter (point to the child on the right). I would like you to make up a story about what it looks like is happening, what the father is saying to his daughter, and what the father and his daughter are each thinking and feeling.

First, what is happening?

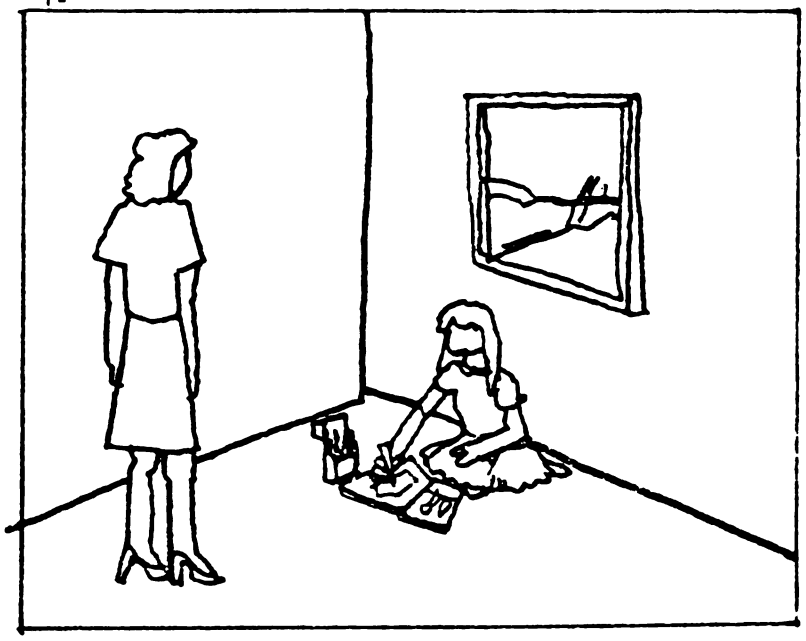
What is the father saying to his daughter?

What is the father thinking and feeling?

What is the daughter thinking and feeling?

How does the story end?

7F



(Information appearing on the reverse side of the picture card)

In this picture, a mother is saying something to her daughter. I would like you to make up a story about what it looks like is happening, what the mother is saying to her daughter, and what each person is thinking and feeling.

First, what is happening in the picture?

What is the mother saying to her daughter?

What is the mother thinking and feeling?

What is the child thinking and feeling?

How does the story end?

# APPENDIX E

## The Sensitivity to Children Questionnaire, Modified for Children (STC-MC)

The Sensitivity to Children Questionnaire,

Modified for Children (STC-MC)

DIRECTIONS

I WOULD LIKE TO PLAY A STORY GAME WITH YOU. I WANT YOU TO PRETEND THAT YOU ARE THE PARENT AND THAT YOU HAVE A MAKE-BELIEVE CHILD. I AM GOING TO READ YOU SOME STORIES. AFTER I HAVE READ THE STORY, I WANT YOU TO TELL ME WHAT YOU WOULD SAY TO THE CHILD IF YOU WERE THIS CHILD'S PARENT. I AM GOING TO TAPE RECORD YOUR ANSWERS SO THAT I CAN REMEMBER THEM AFTER WE ARE FINISHED. NO ONE WILL KNOW WHAT YOU SAY EXCEPT ME.

Turn on the tape recorder immediately after the above directions have been read and leave it on until the child's last response is completed.

The items may be repeated if the child asks for this, or if it seems like he has not heard or understood the scenario or part of it. However, no further explanation about the meaning of the story should be given.

It is important that the child says the exact words he/she would say in the situation. That is, his answer should be in the form of a script for a play. For example, if the child says, "I would get mad and hit him," you should inquire, "But what exactly would you say?"

Lastly, when necessary (as when "he/she" or "himself/herself" appears in the scenario), use the form which is the same sex as the child you are testing.

STC-MC

1. Make believe that you are the parent and your child decides to surprise you by setting the dinner table for you all by himself/herself. However, while he/she is setting the table, he/she accidentally drops a dish and it breaks. You come walking into the room and, at the same time, you see that your child has set the table for you all by himself/herself and has also broken a dish. Make believe you are the parent. What would you say to your child?

2. Make believe that you are the parent and you just bought your child a new coat, and he/she has worn it to school for the first time. You asked your child to try to keep it clean so it can be worn when your family goes out to dinner tonight. At school, your child saw that one of his/her friends was cold so he/she gave the friend his/her coat to wear, and his/her friend got the coat muddy. When your child comes home, the coat is covered with mud. Your child says, "My friend was cold so I let him/her wear it, and he/she got mud all over it." Make believe that you are the parent. What would you say to your child?

3. Make believe you are the parent, and you have been saving some nice paper to make into holiday cards for your friends, but your child did not know you were saving the paper. One day, your child saw the paper and thought it would be really fun to draw some pictures on the paper, so he/she did. When you come into

the room, you see your child really having fun drawing the pictures, and at the same time, you remember that you were saving this paper for the holiday cards. Make believe you are the parent. What would you say to your child?

4. Make believe you are the parent, and you and your child have just come home from shopping. You take one bag and go into the house, and your child decides to help you and take a bag, too. As your child is walking into the house, the bag is so heavy that it starts to tip over and a jar from the bag falls onto the floor, but does not break. Make believe you are the parent. What would you say to your child?

# APPENDIX F

## The Perceptual Accuracy Test

The Perceptual Accuracy Test

Directions: Now, I would like to ask you some more questions about the people you saw on the TV. Some of the things I will read will be things the person did do or say, and some of the things I read will be things the person did not do or say. For each thing I read, I want you to say "True" if the person did do it or say it, and "False" if the person did not do it or say it. Do you understand what you are to do?

1. Once on the TV, the child fixed something which was broken.

2. When the adult said she was not feeling well, the child pretended to help her by being a doctor.

3. When he/she was painting, the child put on a smock so paint would not get on his/her clothes.

4. When the adult asked about things, the child was able to tell her about what made her happy, sad, or mad.

5. Once or twice, the child grabbed a toy away from the adult.

6. The child once said to the adult: "If you don't play what I want to, I'll beat you up."

7. Near the end, the child said to the adult: "I really like playing with you."

8. In playing with the toy doll family, the child hit the father doll.

9. The child pushed some blocks down toward the adult, almost hitting her.

10. The child threw a toy against the wall.

11. After the child pushed the blocks down, he/she said, "I'm sorry."

12. The child broke a toy on purpose.

13. The child asked the adult if he/she could paint before the child began to paint.

14. The child sometimes said, "Thank you" to the adult.

15. When painting, the child splattered and brushed so the pictures did not look like much of anything.

16. The child said he/she liked his/her whole family.

17. Near the beginning, the child said to the adult: "These toys are dumb and so are you."

18. Once on the TV, the child said to the adult: I wish this were a real machine gun. Then I could shoot you dead."

19. The child sometimes helped the adult clean up.

20. The child spilled water on the floor.

21. The child once said to the adult: "I would like to play what you want to play."

22. The child sometimes said, "Goodbye" when he/she left the room.

23. The child once said to the adult: "You don't know how to do anything right. Everything you do is wrong."

24. Near the end, the child gave the adult some good things to eat.

25. At least once, the child told the adult to "shut up."

26. In playing with the toy doll family, the child said to the other toy doll person that he/she did not want to share his/her game.

27. The adult gave the child something to eat.

28. The adult wore glasses.

29. The adult told the child that she enjoyed playing with him/her.

30. The adult once said to the child: "If you don't act better, I'll tell your parents."

31. The adult let the child change the dart game rules.

32. Once, the adult grabbed a toy from the child that the child was playing with and played with it herself.

33. The adult let the child play whatever he/she wanted to play.

34. Once, the adult told the child: "The way you play is dumb."

35. The adult talked with the child about things the child's father did that the child did not like.

36. The adult wore a dress.

37. When leaving, the adult always let the child go first.

38. Once or twice, the adult clapped and smiled when the child did something well.

39. When the child kept pushing blocks down, the adult grabbed the child and made him/her sit down by pushing him/her down on the floor.

40. The adult always sat down on the floor.

41. The adult said to the child: "You are really good at games."

42. The adult said to the child: "I'd like you to come to my house and play someday."

# APPENDIX G

## The Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC)

The Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC)

Name of Person Completing Checklist: _____

Date: _____

Directions:

Below is a list of items describing many aspects of children's behavior--things that children do sometimes, ways that they act and feel. Of course, not all of these items apply to the child in the playroom that you first observed on the videotape, but quite a few of them do apply to that child.

First, read Item 1 carefully and then make up your mind about whether or not it describes the way he/she acted in the playroom. If so, mark an "X" in column one; if not, put a zero ("0") in the first column. Then, go on to the second item and decide whether or not this behavior applies to the child's behavior, marking it the same way. Do this for all 64 items, putting an "X" in the first column of each item which you feel is applicable to his/her playroom behavior and an "0" for each item you feel is not applicable to the behavior you observed.

Once you have completed this task, go back to the first item and, this time, decide if the behavior described applies to the way that you think that the child acts in general--that is, not just his/her behavior in the playroom, which you saw, but behavior which you think occurs in other situations such as at home, in school, on the playground, with friends, etc., as well. If you do not think this behavior occurs in other situations, put an "0" in the second column. On the other hand, if you think this item applies to his/her behavior in general, put an "X" in the second column (whether or not you put one in the first column). Again, go through all 64 items and decide for each item whether or not it applies to his/her behavior in general.

(CBC)

| | Item | Column 1<br>Applies to behavior in playroom, which I saw | Column 2<br>Applies to his/her behavior in general |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Is happy when he/she does a "good job". | _____ | _____ |
| 2. | Gets carried away by his/her feelings. | _____ | _____ |
| *3. | Is tidy and neat, perhaps even a little bit fussy about it. | _____ | _____ |
| *4. | Can't wait--wants to have things immediately. | _____ | _____ |
| *5. | Is concerned about the feelings of adults. | _____ | _____ |
| *6. | Gets irritated or angry easily. | _____ | _____ |
| 7. | Feelings are apparent in his/her facial expressions. | _____ | _____ |
| 8. | Plays with toys in a rough way. | _____ | _____ |
| 9. | Handles small objects skillfully. | _____ | _____ |
| *10. | Doesn't pay attention to what others say. | _____ | _____ |
| *11. | Activity is focused on a particular purpose; seems to accomplish what he/she sets out to do. | _____ | _____ |
| 12. | Looks awkward when he/she moves around. | _____ | _____ |
| 13. | Accepts new ideas without getting upset. | _____ | _____ |
| 14. | Acts in ways which make adults not like him/her. | _____ | _____ |
| *15. | Shows pride in accomplishment. | _____ | _____ |

| | Item | Column 1<br>Applies to behavior in playroom, which I saw | Column 2<br>Applies to his/her behavior in general |
|---|---|---|---|
| 16. | Appears stiff in walking or moving about. | _____ | _____ |
| 17. | Seemed comfortable in the situation that you observed. | _____ | _____ |
| 18. | Has trouble finding the right words to say what he/she means. | _____ | _____ |
| 19. | Wants very much to be approved of. | _____ | _____ |
| *20. | Seems to do things just to get adults angry with him/her. | _____ | _____ |
| 21. | Moves gracefully; well-coordinated. | _____ | _____ |
| 22. | Has a characteristic mannerism or nervous habit. | _____ | _____ |
| 23. | Plays to win. | _____ | _____ |
| *24. | Quickly loses interest in an activity | _____ | _____ |
| *25. | Does what persons ask him/her to do. | _____ | _____ |
| 26. | Never gets excited about anything, even when you would expect him/her to be pleased with something. | _____ | _____ |
| *27. | Makes friends quickly and easily. | _____ | _____ |
| *28. | Seems sad and unhappy. | _____ | _____ |
| *29. | Is self-confident. | _____ | _____ |
| 30. | Tends to go too far unless reminded of the rules. | _____ | _____ |
| 31. | Talks all the time. | _____ | _____ |
| *32. | Often has to be reminded of what he/she can and cannot do. | _____ | _____ |

| | Item | Column 1<br>Applies to behavior in playroom, which I saw | Column 2<br>Applies to his/her behavior in general |
|---|---|---|---|
| 33. | Is affectionate; enjoys being physically close to adults. | _____ | _____ |
| *34. | Threatens to hit or hurt others. | _____ | _____ |
| *35. | Is able to stand up for himself/herself. | _____ | _____ |
| 36. | Seems out of touch with what is going on around him/her--is off in his/her "own world." | _____ | _____ |
| *37. | Is polite and cooperative. | _____ | _____ |
| 38. | Has uncontrollable outbursts of temper. | _____ | _____ |
| 39. | Is easily embarrassed. | _____ | _____ |
| *40. | Often breaks the rules in games. | _____ | _____ |
| 41. | Is careful in explanations; is precise. | _____ | _____ |
| *42. | When told to do something he/she does not want to do, he/she becomes angry. | _____ | _____ |
| *43. | Is curious about things. | _____ | _____ |
| *44. | Plays aimlessly; does not seem to make or accomplish anything. | _____ | _____ |
| *45. | Prefers competitive games. | _____ | _____ |
| *46. | Seems selfish; always wants his/her own way. | _____ | _____ |
| *47. | Showed appreciation when others helped or did things for him/her. | _____ | _____ |
| 48. | Seldom laughs or smiles. | _____ | _____ |
| *49. | Is energetic. | _____ | _____ |

| | Item | Column 1<br>Applies to behavior in playroom, which I saw | Column 2<br>Applies to his/her behavior in general |
|---|---|---|---|
| *50. | Does not seem to care about how he/she looks; often looks sloppy. | _____ | _____ |
| 51. | Asks sensible questions. | _____ | _____ |
| 52. | Blows up very easily when bothered. | _____ | _____ |
| *53. | Shows pleasure and involvement in most things he/she does. | _____ | _____ |
| *54. | Is fidgety and restless. | _____ | _____ |
| 55. | Is competitive. | _____ | _____ |
| 56. | Acts as if adults are against him/her. | _____ | _____ |
| *57. | Pitches in when things have to be done. | _____ | _____ |
| 58. | Often seems angry for no particular reason; expresses it in many different ways. | _____ | _____ |
| 59. | Is quick and clever. | _____ | _____ |
| 60. | Is aggressive and overpowering. | _____ | _____ |
| *61. | Learns quickly. | _____ | _____ |
| 62. | Is bossy. | _____ | _____ |
| 63. | Likes to do things well. | _____ | _____ |
| 64. | Tires easily in activities. | _____ | _____ |

*Refers to items which (with some rewording) match those on the child subjects' Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC-MC) and were used in the scoring of the adult subjects' Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC-M).

# APPENDIX H

## The Perceptions of the Adult Playmate Inventory, Modified (PAPI-M)

The Perceptions of the Adult Playmate Inventory,

Modified (PAPI-M)

DIRECTIONS

Now I would like to find out what you thought about the adult you just saw on TV by having you rate your impressions in a way which will be helpful for us.

On the following pages, there are 22 sets of items, with each set having four different descriptions of the adult you just saw on TV playing with the child. Carefully read each of the choices for each item and then choose the one description which you think best fits the adult, based on what you saw of her. Once you have picked the one best description of the four, circle the letter (A, B, C, or D) next to your choice. Before beginning, let's try an example to be sure you have the idea. Each of the items are set up something like this:

Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult:

A. She could do things very well.

B. She could do things pretty well.

C. She usually did things the wrong way.

D. She almost always did things the wrong way.

Let's say you thought the description which best fits was "She almost always did things the wrong way." If that was your choice,

you would circle the letter next to that choice. In this case, the letter "D", and you would circle it so it would look like this:

A. She could do things very well.

B. She could do things pretty well.

C. She usually did things the wrong way.

(D) She almost always did things the wrong way.

You might feel that some of the judgments you are being asked to make are too hard, especially since you saw the adult playing with the child for only a short time. However, we would like you to give your first impressions the best you can. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Since we are most interested in your first impressions, do not spend too much time on any one item, but be sure to read all the choices carefully.

If you have any questions about what you are to do, please ask the person who gave this to you.

The Perceptions of the Adult Playmate Inventory,
Modified, (PAPI-M)

1. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. A little bit, the adult wanted the child to play what she, the adult, wanted to play.
   B. The adult very much wanted the child to play what she, the adult, wanted to play.
   C. A little bit, the adult let the child play whatever the child wanted to play.
   D. A lot, the adult let the child play whatever the child wanted to play.

2. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult was a little polite.
   B. The adult was very polite.
   C. The adult was a little impolite.
   D. The adult was very impolite.

3. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult seemed to like a little the games the child liked.
   B. The adult seemed to like a lot the games the child liked.
   C. The adult seemed to be a little bored with kid's games.
   D. The adult seemed to be very bored with kid's games.

4. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult was very stingy.
   B. The adult was a little stingy.
   C. The adult shared very much.
   D. The adult shared a little.

5. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult was a little worried.
   B. The adult was very worried.
   C. The adult was a little calm.
   D. The adult was very calm.

6. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. You trust the adult very much.
   B. You trust the adult a little.
   C. You very much don't trust the adult.
   D. You don't trust the adult a little bit.

7. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult was usually not shy.
   B. The adult was not shy at all.
   C. The adult was a little shy.
   D. The adult was very shy.

8. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult asked stupid questions a little.
   B. The adult asked stupid questions a lot.
   C. The adult asked good questions a little.
   D. The adult asked good questions a lot.

9. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

   A. The adult got angry a lot.
   B. The adult got angry a little.
   C. The adult didn't get angry at all.
   D. The adult usually did not get angry.

10. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult was a little nice.
    B. The adult was very nice.
    C. The adult was a little mean.
    D. The adult was very mean.

11. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult was in a very good mood.
    B. The adult was in a little bit of a good mood.
    C. The adult was very grouchy.
    D. The adult was a little grouchy.

12. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult was very unhelpful.
    B. The adult was a little unhelpful.
    C. The adult was very helpful.
    D. The adult was a little helpful.

13. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult didn't laugh or smile at all.
    B. The adult usually didn't laugh or smile.
    C. The adult laughed and smiled a lot.
    D. The adult laughed and smiled a little.

14. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult thanked the child some of the time when the child did something for her.
    B. The adult thanked the child very often when the child did something for her.
    C. The adult usually didn't thank the child when the child did something for her.
    D. The adult almost never thanked the child when the child did something for her.

15. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult was very friendly.
    B. The adult was a little friendly.
    C. The adult was very unfriendly.
    D. The adult was a little unfriendly.

16. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult on TV lied a little.
    B. The adult lied very much.
    C. The adult was a little honest.
    D. The adult was very honest.

17. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult let the child make the rules a lot.
    B. The adult let the child make the rules a little.
    C. The adult made up the rules a lot.
    D. The adult made up the rules a little.

18. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. It was very hard to understand the adult when she explained things.
    B. It was a little hard to understand the adult when she explained things.
    C. The adult explained things very well.
    D. The adult explained things pretty well.

19. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. Some of the time, the adult let the child do thing when the child wanted to do them.
    B. Most of the time, the adult let the child do things when the child wanted to do them.
    C. Some of the time, the adult wanted to have the child do things right away.
    D. Most of the time, the adult wanted to have the child do things right away.

20. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. The adult was a little happy.
    B. The adult was very happy.
    C. The adult was a little sad.
    D. The adult was very sad.

21. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

    A. A little bit, the adult seemed like she would rather be somewhere else.
    B. A lot, the adult seemed like she would rather be somewhere else.
    C. The adult liked to play with the child a little bit.
    D. The adult liked to play with the child a lot.

22. Circle the letter of the one description which best fits the adult you saw on TV:

A. The adult cared a lot about how the child felt.
B. The adult cared a little bit about how the child felt.
C. The adult didn't seem to care at all about how the child felt.
D. The adult didn't usually seem to care about how the child felt.

# APPENDIX I

## The Identification Index

The Identification Index

1. Which person do you admire or look up to the most?

2. Which person do you want to be like when you grow up?

3. Which person do you take after mostly?

# APPENDIX J

## The Demographic Questionnaire

The Demographic Questionnaire

Mother Code Number _____

Name _____ Age ____ Telephone No. _____

Present Address _____

Marital Status _____

Occupation _____ Years in Occupation _____

Highest Level of Education Completed (circle one):

Elementary grade: 1 2 3 4 5 6
Junior High School: 7 8 9
High School: 10 11 12
College: 1 year 2 years 3 years 4 years degree granted
M.S. Degree
Ph.D. Degree
Other degrees or certificates (e.g., M.D., D.D.S., D.O., law or high school certificates indicating completion of vocational training):

_____

Names and Ages of Children: _____

_____

Children's Grades in School: _____

_____

Other People in Household and Relationship to Children: _____

_____

Note. Only this questionnaire will contain your name. The checklists you will complete will contain only the code number in the upper right-hand corner. This questionnaire will be removed and kept in a separately locked file, and your answers will be kept completely confidential.

# APPENDIX K

## The Pupil Behavior Rating Scale

The Pupil Behavior Rating Scale*

Teacher's Name: _____

School: _____

Grade: _____ Date: _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHER

Please rate all of the children (boys and girls) in your class as "most like" or "least like" the pupil described on each of the following pages.

For each description, we are asking you to first list the names of the three children (boys and/or girls) "most like," and the three children (boys and/or girls) "least like" the pupil described on that page, in the appropriate boxes. If you genuinely feel none or only one or two of the children in your class are "most like" the pupil described on that page, feel free to leave it blank or write in the number of names you feel accurately reflects your perceptions. Then, please list the names of the five children "next most like" and the five children "next least like" the described pupil, in their boxes. Finally, please list the names of the remaining children in your class in the middle box of that page, using as many lines as needed.

Although we expect that one or more children will be rated as "most like" or "least like" the described pupil on two or more pages, it is not expected that a particular child will be rated as "most like" or "least like" the described pupil on every page or that only

boys or only girls will or have to be chosen as "most like" or "least like" the described pupil. That is, it is possible for a particular boy or girl to be "most like" the described pupil on one, two, or three pages, "least like" the described pupil on another page, and "next most like" the described pupil on another page.

Please complete all pages.

We would like to thank you for your time and effort in completing this rating form.

*The following page is a sample of the Rating Scale forms given to the teachers. One of the following pupil behavior descriptions appeared at the bottom of each of the pages.

"This pupil is competent and mature at work, play, and interpersonal relations and is emotionally and psychologically healthy."

"This pupil has difficulty delaying gratification of his/her impulses."

"This pupil gets into fights or quarrels with other pupils."

"This pupil spends much of the time in school alone and quiet, actively avoiding working or playing with other pupils.

"This pupil actively goes against my requests and school rules."

| THE CHILDREN MOST LIKE THE PUPIL DESCRIBED BELOW | THE CHILDREN NEXT MOST LIKE THE PUPIL DESCRIBED BELOW | REMAINING CHILDREN | THE CHILDREN NEXT LEAST LIKE THE PUPIL DESCRIBED BELOW | THE CHILDREN LEAST LIKE THE PUPIL DESCRIBED BELOW |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1._____ | | |
| | | 2._____ | | |
| | | 3._____ | | |
| | | 4._____ | | |
| | | 5._____ | | |
| | | 6._____ | | |
| | | 7._____ | | |
| | | 8._____ | | |
| | | 9._____ | | |
| | | 10._____ | | |
| | 1._____ | 11._____ | 1._____ | |
| | 2._____ | 12._____ | 2._____ | |
| 1._____ | 3._____ | 13._____ | 3._____ | 1._____ |
| 2._____ | 4._____ | 14._____ | 4._____ | 2._____ |
| 3._____ | 5._____ | 15._____ | 5._____ | 3._____ |

THIS PUPIL ACTIVELY GOES AGAINST MY REQUESTS AND SCHOOL RULES.

# APPENDIX L

## Cowen's Teacher Rating Scales: The AML, TRF, and General Child Adjustment Rating Scale

Cowen's Teacher Rating Scales: The AML, TRF,

and General Child Adjustment Rating Scale

Pupil _____ Date _____

Sex of Pupil (circle one) M F

Grade of Pupil _____ School _____

Teacher's Name _____

We would like you to indicate how often you have observed certain behaviors in the classroom of the child named above. To help you interpret the five rating points, brief descriptions are provided for each.

1. Never -- You have literally never observed this behavior in this child.

2. Seldom -- You have observed this behavior once or twice in the past three months.

3. Moderate Frequency -- You have seen this behavior more often than once a month, but less than once a week.

4. Often -- You have seen the behavior more often than once a week, but less often than daily.

5. Most or all of the time -- You have seen the behavior with great frequency, averaging once a day or more often.

Two things should be kept in mind while completing the AML: (a) Work rapidly and don't fret too much about making fine discriminations; (b) It is extremely important that your ratings realistically reflect problems which the child evidences. Please make your ratings reflect problems as you have perceived them.

Thank you for your attention.

Directions: Please rate this pupil's behavior as you have observed and experienced it.

| This Pupil . . . | Never (1) | Seldom (2) | Moderate Frequency (3) | Often (4) | Most of all of the Time (5) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Gets into fights or quarrels with other students | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 2. Has to be coaxed or forced to work or play with other pupils | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 3. Is restless | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 4. Is unhappy or depressed | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 5. Disrupts class discipline | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 6. Becomes sick when faced with a difficult school problem or situation | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 7. Is obstinate | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 8. Feels hurt when criticized | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 9. Is impulsive | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 10. Is moody | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |
| 11. Has difficulty learning | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) |

SECTION I.

Below, we have listed specific behavior and adaptation problems which may appear to you as interfering with this child's ability to profit from his/her school experience. Please rate every item in Section I on the following scale of problem severity:

1. Not a problem
2. Very mild problem
3. Moderate problem
4. Serious problem
5. Very serious problem

---

Child's Classroom Behavior:

_____ Disruptive in class

_____ Fidgety, hyperactive, can't stay in seat

_____ Talks out of turn, disturbs others while they are working

_____ Constantly seeks attention, "clowns around"

_____ Overly aggressive to peers (fights, is overbearing, belligerent)

_____ Defiant, obstinate, stubborn

_____ Impulsive, is unable to delay

_____ Withdrawn

_____ Shy, timid

_____ Does not make friends

_____ Over-conforms to rules

_____ Daydreams, is preoccupied, "off in another world"

_____ Unable to express feelings

_____ Anxious

_____ Cries easily, pouts, sulks

_____ Worried, frightened, tense

_____ Depressed

_____ Does not trust others

_____ Shows other signs of "nervousness," specify: _____

_____ Fears, specify: _____ _____

Other Behaviors:

_____ Lacks self-confidence

_____ Overly sensitive to criticism

_____ Reacts poorly to disappointment

_____ Depends too much on others

_____ Pretends to be ill

_____ Other, specify: _____ _____

1. Not a problem
2. Very mild problem
3. Moderate problem
4. Serious problem
5. Very serious problem

---

Child's Academic Performance:

_____ Underachieving (not working up to potential)

_____ Poorly motivated to achieve

_____ Poor work habits

_____ Difficulty following directions

_____ Poor concentration, limited attention span

_____ Motor coordination problem

_____ Other, specify:_____

Child has Specific Academic Problems in:

_____ Reading

_____ Mathematics

_____ Numbers

_____ Writing

_____ Colors

_____ Concepts

_____ Language skills, specify: _____

SECTION II.

From your experiences with this child, please check (✓) any of the following which you believe relates to the problems you have reported:

_____ Separation or divorce of parents

_____ Illness or death of a family member

_____ Lack of educational stimulation in the home

_____ Economic difficulties

_____ Under family pressure to succeed

_____ Family difficulties

SECTION III.

From your experiences with this child, please check (✓) where he/she would lie on the following dimensions, taking into account the direction of each item:

Know child well — Barely know child

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7

Child seems easy to like — Child seems difficult to like

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7

Child has significant school adjustment problems — Child has no school adjustment problems

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7

# APPENDIX M

## The Bessell-Palomares Rating Form (B-P)

The Bessell-Palomares Rating Form (B-P)

RATING SCALES

Name of Person Being Rated _____

Your Name _____

Date Rated _____

Instructions

You have been observing someone in interaction with a child, and you are now being asked to convey your impressions of this person through this brief checklist. On each of the next pages, you will find a description of a different characteristic. Please read the definition of each of the characteristics and then rate the adult on the scale below that description. Do this by putting an "X" next to the statement which best describes your perception of where the adult falls on that characteristic. You might feel that some of the judgments you are being asked to make are too hard, especially since they must be based on only a brief period of observation. However, we would like you to trust your first impressions. If it would be helpful, try to imagine yourself as the child having a long-term relationship with this person. Your first impressions are what we are interested in. Obviously, there are no "correct" answers.

## AWARENESS OF SELF

The aware person knows how he/she feels, what he/she thinks, and what he/she is doing. Although he/she is conscious of self, he/she is not self-conscious, insecure, or embarrassed. This awareness does not produce anxiety. He/she accepts and can acknowledge how he/she really feels, thinks, and acts.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be very aware; always conscious of feelings, wishes, fears, and the meaning of his/her behavior (positive or negative).

4_____ Seems to be most of the time aware; ready to acknowledge what he/she feels, thinks, and does. Only occasionally uses denial.

3_____ Often aware of his/her feelings, thoughts, and behavior, and willing to recognize them as such. However, often reacts without awareness or uses denial.

2_____ Seems to be usually unconscious or unaware of self; denies his/her real feelings and thoughts and cannot recognize his/her own actions for what they are.

1_____ Unconscious of self; full of denial; completely unable to recognize his/her true feelings, thoughts, or behavior.

## CONSIDERATENESS

The considerate person cares about the well-being of others. He/she adjusts his/her behavior in ways which are thoughtful and beneficial to others.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be extremely considerate; always thoughtful and spontaneously concerned with the child's welfare.

4_____ Seems to be very considerate. Most of the time, he/she is thoughtful and deals constructively with the child.

3_____ Seems to be somewhat considerate, but sometimes inconsiderate about what is good for the child.

2_____ Seems to seldom consider the well-being of the child; only rarely takes into account what the child may feel. Tends to be thoughtless, indifferent.

1_____ Seems to rarely consider the child. Tends to pursue his/her behavior no matter how it may affect the child.

## EFFECTIVENESS

The effective person copes appropriately. He/she readily tries and is successful in efforts to implement own desires or to meet the external demands of the environment.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be very effective. Always deals appropriately and successfully with inner needs and external demands. Always meets and responds effectively to a problem situation.

4_____ Seems to be mostly effective. Typically gets needs met and handles challenges successfully.

3_____ Seems to be moderately effective. Often successful, but often fails to get needs met or to cope with problems successfully.

2_____ Seems to be mostly ineffective, but occasionally successful in efforts.

1_____ Seems to rarely succeed in efforts; inadequate; ineffective.

## FLEXIBILITY

The flexible person can shift his/her viewpoint or behavior in accordance with new information or new demands made of him/her. He/she is adaptive, but shifts because of conviction rather than because of passively submitting to persuasion. When changing, he/she continues with the same degree of interest and involvement.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be very flexible. Adapts readily and easily to new information and demands. Participation continues with undiminished interest.

4_____ Seems to be very frequently flexible. Most of the time adapts, although shows some tendency to persist even in the face of new information or new expectations.

3_____ Seems to be reasonably flexible, but often clings to his/her original viewpoint or behavior.

2_____ Seems at times flexible, but usually unable to adapt to new information or demands.

1_____ Seems to be rigid. Very unresponsive to new information or demands; cannot shift.

## INTERPERSONAL COMPREHENSION

This trait assesses the person's understanding of how one person's behavior causes approval or disapproval of that behavior in another person.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to have very high comprehension. Person almost always recognizes the effect of any given behavior.

4_____ Seems to usually comprehend what the child's reaction will be to his/her behavior.

3_____ Seems to sometimes perceive the interpersonal effects, but just as often, seems to fail in comprehending how one person's behavior affects another person's attitude.

2_____ Seems to seldom comprehend interpersonal interaction. Seems to usually be at a loss in being able to see how one person's behavior affects another person's reaction.

1_____ Seems to have virtually no comprehension of how a person's behavior causes attitudes in other people. Seems to almost always fail to comprehend the interaction.

## SELF-CONFIDENCE

The confident person believes that he/she is able and behaves with a calm, assured manner. He/she is self-assured and realistic when coping with new challenges.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be realistically very confident. Seems to approach challenge with assurance. Possible failure does not deter action.

4_____ Seems confident most of the time with realistic challenges. Seems to be only mildly cautious with unfamiliar tasks.

3_____ While often confident, in many instances is unsure of ability to cope with realistic challenges.

2_____ Seems to have some degree of confidence with familiar things, but often expects to meet with failure with challenge.

1_____ Seems to have virtually no self-confidence. Unable or unwilling to try. Almost always behaves as though he/she expects to fail with new challenges.

## SENSITIVITY TO OTHERS

The sensitive person is aware and concerned about the welfare of other people. He/she readily ascertains what the other person is feeling and what would be in his or her best interest.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be acutely aware and concerned about the child's feelings and reactions.

4_____ Seems to be most of the time aware and concerned about how the child is truly feeling and reacting.

3_____ Seems to be often aware and concerned, but in many instances, seems unaware and relatively unconcerned about the child's feelings and reactions.

2_____ Seems to be usually unaware and disinterested in what the child is feeling, but can recognize what is going on when it is directly called to his/her attention.

1_____ Seems to be insensitive and unconcerned as to what is going on in and with the child. Deals with the child as though the child was devoid of feelings.

## TOLERANCE

The tolerant person recognizes and accepts individual differences. He/she accepts and gives full regard to others who have different feelings, thoughts, and reactions than his/her own. But he/she does not necessarily approve or yield to their influence.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be extremely tolerant. Understands and accepts differences as natural. Tolerates a very broad spectrum of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors in others.

4_____ Seems to be reasonably tolerant about individual differences.

3_____ Seems to be mildly tolerant, but tends to not accept certain natural variations.

2_____ Seems to be usually intolerant. Tends to regard people who differ from him/her as being unacceptable, even wrong.

1_____ Seems to be very intolerant. His/her way of feeling, thinking, and reacting is the only way that he/she can accept. People who are different are completely unacceptable. Very narrow.

## SPONTANEITY

The spontaneous person is natural. His/her acceptance of self is high and permits freedom of expression. He/she is uninhibited, but not dramatic or exhibitionistic.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be always highly spontaneous. Very natural and free in expressions.

4_____ Seems to be very often spontaneous. Most of the time, reacts freely and naturally, but on occasion is inhibited.

3_____ Seems to be usually spontaneous. While he/she frequently expresses self naturally, he/she is inhibited on many occasions.

2_____ Seems to show spontaneity on occasion, but more often is inhibited, constricted, and stilted in response.

1_____ Seems to have many strong inhibitions; very constricted. Almost never spontaneous; not natural.

## STABILITY

The stable person is emotionally balanced. He/she remains composed in the face of stressful events. He/she remains involved and does not find it necessary to shift his/her direction.

---

Rating

5_____ Seems to be very stable. Not easily upset by change or disappointment.

4_____ Seems to be usually stable. Accepts and adjusts well to changing circumstances, but occasionally loses calmness and direction.

3_____ Seems to be moderately stable. Often retains equilibrium, but rather easily upset and loses direction.

2_____ Seems to sometimes show stability, calm, and direction, but frequently is upset and loses bearings when circumstances change.

1_____ Seems to be unstable. Shows little capacity to accommodate to change. Excitable or immobilized by new demands.

# APPENDIX N

## Bower's Class Play Peer Rating Form

Bower's Class Play Peer Rating Form

School _____

Name _____ Grade _____

Teacher _____ Date _____

A CLASS PLAY

Just suppose our class is going to have a play. Would you like to pretend you are going to direct the play? The director of a play has to do many things, but the most important job is to select the right people to act in the play.

When you turn the page, you will find a list of characters or "parts" in this make-believe play. As director, you must try to think of the boy or girl in the class who can play each part best.

You may want to choose a boy or a girl in your class for more than one part. That is all right, just so long as you think carefully about your choices and are sure the boy or girl fits both parts.

Do not choose yourself for any of the parts.

If you are not sure of what you are to do, or if you do not understand all of the words, ask your teacher.

A CLASS PLAY

On the line next to each part, write the name of either a boy or girl whom you think could best play the part.

_____ 1. A true friend.

_____ 2. Somebody who is often afraid and who acts like a little boy or girl.

_____ 3. A class president.

_____ 4. Somebody who is stuck-up and thinks he or she is better than everyone else.

_____ 5. A boy or girl to act the part of a teacher of small children.

_____ 6. A mean, cruel boss.

_____ 7. A boy or girl to act the part of a team captain, someone good in sports and liked by all.

_____ 8. A mean, bossy sister or brother.

_____ 9. Someone who is smart and usually knows the answer.

_____ 10. A person who often gets angry over nothing and gets into lots of arguments.

_____ 11. Someone who is jolly and doesn't cause any trouble in class.

_____ 12. A bully who picks on smaller boys and girls.

_____ 13. Someone who is liked by everybody and who tries to help everybody.

_____ 14. A very lazy person.

_____ 15. A very fair person who plays games fairly.

_____ 16. A nice pest--someone who often gets into trouble, but is really nice.

_____17. Someone else, besides yourself, who could direct the play.

_____18. A smaller, younger child who is always falling down and getting hurt.

_____19. A school nurse or a doctor.

_____20. Somebody who seems always to be late for school.

# APPENDIX O

## Children's Instructions for Viewing the Standard Perceptual Stimulus (SPS)

Children's Instructions for Viewing the

Standard Perceptual Stimulus (SPS)

NOW I WOULD LIKE YOU TO WATCH THE TV UNTIL THE BIG HAND IS ON THE (point to where the big hand will be 20 minutes later). ON THE TV, I WILL SHOW YOU SOMETHING LIKE A MOVIE OF AN ADULT PLAYING WITH A CHILD. THIS ADULT WAS IN SCHOOL AND WAS TRYING TO LEARN TO PLAY WITH CHILDREN, AND THE CHILD WAS ONE OF THE MANY CHILDREN FROM SCHOOLS AROUND HERE WHO WERE PAID TO PLAY WITH THE ADULT ONCE A WEEK OVER MANY WEEKS. BECAUSE IT WOULD TAKE TOO LONG TO SHOW YOU ALL THE TIME THE ADULT AND CHILD PLAYED TOGETHER, YOU WILL ONLY SEE PARTS OF THEIR PLAY TOGETHER ON DIFFERENT DAYS.

I WANT YOU TO WATCH THE ADULT ESPECIALLY BECAUSE AFTERWARD I WANT TO ASK YOU SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT WHAT YOU THOUGHT OF HER.

DO YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS?

Answer any questions the child may have except those which would alter the instructional set the directions have attempted to create. For instance, if the child asked why he/she is being asked to watch the film, just say: "To see what you think about how they play together." Or, if the child asks about the relationship of the adult and child, just rephrase what the directions explain (i.e., that they did not know each other before they began to play together and they were paid to play together to make the movie). If the child begins asking a number of questions which are not relevant to the directions, asks questions about how the adult and child feel toward each other, or about what happens, just say something like: "That is something you can watch for when you see the movie. If you still want me to answer these questions after you have watched the TV and after I have asked you some questions, I'll answer them for you."

After any questions are answered or allayed, say:

NOW I AM GOING TO START THE TV. I WANT YOU TO WATCH IT CLOSELY SO YOU CAN BE SURE TO SEE IT ALL.

Turn on the tape.

If, during the course of the tape, the child's attention waivers off the TV for more than a few seconds, reflect to the child something like this: "Boy, it sure is hard to keep watching the TV, but I'd like you to try your best to keep watching it. When the big hand gets to the _____ (point to and say the number), it will be finished."

When the tape is finished, shut off the TV and write a sentence on the back of the Children's Behavior Checklist-MC answer sheet concerning the child's concentration or any problems encountered during the showing. If all went well, just write "O.K." and proceed to the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC questionnaires.

# APPENDIX P

## The Person Picture Story Test (PPST)

## Scoring System

The Person Picture Story Test (PPST)

Scoring System

Objective of the Measure

The major purpose of the PPST is to determine whether a subject tends to see others behaving positively, negatively, or neutrally toward a child similar to himself. To do this, seven PPST pictures with vignettes were created and questions arranged so that an "orientation" of parents (Pictures 1, 6, 7), teacher (Picture 2), peers (Picture 5), and non-parent adults (Pictures 3 & 4) toward a child similar in age and sex to the subject (hereafter referred to as "focus child") could be determined (see Appendix D). The instrument's assumption is that subjects' perceptions and interpretations in these pictures of others' behavior, thoughts, and feelings toward the focus child is indicative of a subject's perceptual style as it operates *in vivo*.

To ascertain these perceptions, a vignette followed by questions is read as each picture is shown. The questions ask the subject what is happening in the picture; what the adult(s) or peers (hereafter referred to as the "other(s)") in the picture is saying to and thinking and feeling about the focus child; what the focus child is thinking and feeling; and, how the story ends. Based on the subject's responses for each PPST stimulus, a score indicating whether the other is seen as positively, negatively, or neutrally interacting with or

reacting to the focus child can be determined.

Scoring

Subject's response to each picture should be scored in the following way: If the child's response indicates that the other's actions, intentions, thoughts, or feelings (hereafter referred to as the "other's orientation") toward the focus child are positive, then a positive score (+) should be given; if they are negative, a negative score (-) is given; and, if they are neither positive nor negative, a neutral score (N) is given. In judging whether a response directed toward the focus child is positive, negative, or neutral, a number of factors in the response should be considered: (a) the nature of others' behavior toward the child, (b) the tone of voice which the subject uses in reporting what the other is saying to the focus child, (c) the emotional or cognitive reaction subject says the focus child is having in response to the other's behavior toward him or her, and (d) what the subject says the other is thinking, feeling, planning, or intending in relation to the focus child. Primarily, the other's orientation toward the focus child should be scored based on how the subject sees the other's actual or intended behavior toward or evaluation of the focus child. However, because from the other's behavior, thoughts, or feelings how subject sees the other oriented toward the focus child will not always be clear, the focus child's thoughts, feelings, or behavior in response to the other must be taken into consideration before a scoring determination can be made.

For each of the seven PPST vignettes, the subject is asked what is happening in the picture, what the other is saying, thinking, and feeling about the focus child, what the focus child is thinking and feeling, and lastly, how the story ends. From subject's response to the question about what is happening (Question 1) or what the other is saying to the focus child (Question 2), the scoring may seem clear. For example, if the other is punishing the focus child or saying something derogatory to the child, it would seem that since the subject "sees" the other as behaving negatively toward the focus child, the orientation of the other would be scored negatively (-). However, the scorer is to continue reading subject's responses to all questions before making a scoring determination because other factors in subject's responses may serve to override this initial impression.

In many cases, from reading the transcript of what subject has said is happening or reports the other to be saying to the focus child, scoring of an item may be unclear. For example, if in response to picture story number 6, subject reports that the mother is telling the child to "clean up your room," it is not clear whether it should be scored negatively or neutrally. However, when listening to the subject's audiotaped response, a scoring determination can sometimes be made from subject's tone of voice. For example, if subject says those words in an irritated tone, it might be clear that the adult's orientation toward the child is negative. However, if the tone was matter-of-fact, the orientation (depending on what subject reported the other and the child to be thinking and feeling) might be scored neutrally. However, if in response to the subsequent questions,

subject reported the adult or child to be feeling negatively (e.g., angry or irritated) or the child to be feeling sad or unhappy <u>as a result</u> of what the other did or said, because it is clear that subject either saw the other negatively oriented toward the focus child or saw the child experiencing the other's behavior adversely, the other's orientation (or the other's orientation as experienced by the child) would be scored negatively. Alternatively, if subject reported that both the mother and the child were thinking and feeling "O.K." or "nothing much" in the interaction, it would seem that since both the adult's orientation toward the child as well as the child's experience of the interaction was neither positive nor negative, it would be scored neutrally (N). However, if in response to the last question, "How does the story end?", subject should add that the child started to cry, because it would then seem that subject "saw" the child as experiencing the interaction or the other adversely, then it would be scored negatively (-).

The point is that when scoring subject's responses, the scorer should consider for scoring clues the actual behaviors reported--the voice tone subject uses in describing what the other says to the child, the thoughts, feelings, and intentions of all the characters, and the story's conclusion.

To further clarify the scoring, a number of examples follow which illustrate important points. First, it can be appropriate to give both a (+) and (-) score to subject's response to a single PPST vignette. For example, if in response to picture story number 1, subject reports that one parent is saying that the child is "dumb" and the

other parent is saying that the child is "smart," both a negative and a positive score representing each parent's orientation should be given. Second, it is important to remember in considering the other's behavior (either real, planned, or intended) and/or thoughts or feelings, only the other's behavior, thoughts, and feelings directed toward the focus child are to be considered; the other's orientation toward any other character or the general mood of the characters except as it affects the focus child's experience is unimportant for scoring purposes. To clarify this point, if all characters in a picture story are feeling "happy," but the focus child's "happy" feeling is clearly independent of the other's behavior, thoughts, and feelings toward him/her, a positive score would not be appropriate. To be more specific, assume that in response to picture story number 7 subject had reported that the mother was saying to the focus child in a matter-of-fact, affectless tone, "Come to dinner," and both were feeling "happy," the mother because she was going out that night and the child because his/her birthday was the next day. Because the child's happiness was clearly independent of the mother's behavior or feelings and because there was no evidence of positive or negative maternal behavior toward the focus child, a neutral score would be appropriate. To illustrate this in another way, if in response to a picture story, subject reports that the parent says to the focus child, "Come on, we have to go to the store" (in a neutral tone), and the parent is feeling happy because she is going to get something for herself, and the child is feeling happy because he/she is going something for himself/herself, because the other's happiness is not

directed at the child and the child's happiness does not follow from the parent's behavior (i.e., "Come on, we have to go to the store," which is neutral), intentions, or feelings (subject reports that the mother is only intending to get something for herself and reports the child to be happy because he/she is going to get something for himself/herself), the scoring would be neutral. However, assume that in the first example subject either reported that the focus child felt "good" because it was time for dinner or because the mother was happy, or that the mother's tone when saying, "Come to dinner" sounded positive (e.g., friendly), because the focus child's experience as a result of his/her mother's behavior was positive or, in the second instance, because the mother's tone was positive, a positive score should be given. Similarly, if in the second example in which the mother had said, "Come on, we have to go to the store," subject had reported that the child was happy because his/her mother might get something for him/her, because the child's feelings resulted from what he/she thought was going to be the mother's behavior, a positive score for the adult's orientation would be given.

To illustrate in another way that it is the other's orientation <u>toward the focus child only</u> and not the characters' general mood that is relevant in scoring, more examples follow. If, in response to PPST vignette number 4, subject reported only that a lady was feeling "lonely" and now feels "good because she has someone to talk to," because the lady's "good" feelings resulted from her use of the child to meet her needs and there exists no evidence that the child is experiencing the lady's orientation toward him/her as either

positive or negative, a neutral score should be given. However, if subject had added that the focus child felt "good" because the lady was talking with him/her, then because the child evidently experienced the lady's behavior positively, a positive score should be given. As another example, assume that in PPST vignette number 6 the father thinks that one child is being treated unfairly and thus takes some soldiers from one child and gives them to the other, with the result that the first child feels "mad" and the second child "happy." Depending on which was the focus child, this vignette would be scored positively or negatively. If the focus child was the happy one who was given the soldiers, a positive score would be given; alternatively, if the focus child was the angry one who had some soldiers taken away, a negative score should be given.

Sometimes it may happen that subject will only report that the other is behaving in a way which seems ambiguous or neutral and that both the other and the focus child are feeling "happy," and subject does not explain the reasons for their "happy" feelings. Although it is not clear if the "happy" feelings of the other and the focus child are related, it is to be assumed in such situations where there exists no evidence to the contrary that the focus child is experiencing the other (or the interaction with the other) positively, and a positive score should be given. For instance, if in the earlier examples subject had only reported that the mother had said, "Come to dinner," or "Come on, we have to go to the store," in a neutral tone, and both the focus child and mother were feeling "happy," and subject did not explain the reasons for the "happy" feelings, it would be

assumed that the characters' happy feelings were related and a positive score given. However, if subject's response that the characters are "happy," or whatever, is said in an extremely flippant and unexplained manner which seems clearly designed to terminate experimenter's repeated questioning and does not seem to derive from <u>any</u> reflection as to how the subject really "sees" the PPST characters' feelings, this response should be ignored and scoring should be based on subject's previous responses. For example, assume that in response to the question, "What is the child feeling?", subject says, "I don't know," and the question is repeated and the subject says in a rushed, flippant, or even irritated say, "Oh, happy." If the scorer felt that this answer was independent of any child perception or feeling as to what the PPST character was feeling, it should be disregarded and a score based on all the responses to that point which had been neutral should be given. At the same time, it is important to remember that the exception is to be used sparingly and that <u>usually</u>, when subject reports that the child is "happy" and the reported interaction seems neither positive nor negative and without an explanation, it is to be scored positively.

As mentioned above, the focus child's reported experience of the other, as well as the other's behavior, must be taken into consideration. For instance, assume in the above example in which subject reported that the father took some of the focus child's soldiers, subject had also reported that the focus child realized that he/she had been unfair in his/her play, was "sorry," and from the circumstances it seemed that the focus child primarily and sincerely viewed the

father's behavior as "just" (i.e., positive). Although the adult's behavior resulted in a personal loss for the focus child, a positive score would be given. Similarly, assume that in response to PPST vignette number 3, subject reported that the stranger told the focus child that he/she should stop playing ball and get off the yard because the child would get into trouble. Also assume that the tone in which subject reported what the stranger said was "neutral" and that, as a result of the remark, the focus child was reported to be feeling "good." Based on the focus child's reaction, it seems that the child saw the stranger's remark (which to this point was ambiguous) as helpful and positive and, thus, the other's orientation would be scored positively.

In the above examples, the child's experience of the other was not inconsistent with subject's other responses to the particular PPST vignette. Sometimes, however, it may happen that subject will respond that the other is behaving in what seems to be an unambiguously negative way toward the focus child (e.g., punishing or beating the child, taking something of value from the child, etc.), but subject reports that the focus child is feeling "good" or thinks the other is "nice." In such cases, scoring will depend on the nature of the negative behavior and subject's ability to reasonably justify the apparently contradictory feeling. If the child is not able to justify his/her feelings or evaluation of the adult in a way which is reasonably plausible, given the situation, the apparently negative valence of the other's behavior should take precedence in scoring and a negative score given. For example, assume that in the last example the subject

said that although the other was punishing the focus child, the focus child felt that the other was "nice" because it did not "hurt." Or, to alter slightly another example cited above in which the stranger in PPST vignette number 3 had said in a neutral tone, "Get off the yard" because the child would get into trouble and the child felt good (which resulted in a positive score), the stranger was reported to have said the above in an irritated voice or to have said, "Get off the yard or I will get you into trouble," and the focus child was reported to have felt "good." Because the child's reaction does not seem reasonably plausible, given the situation, the apparently negative valence of the other's behavior would take precedence in scoring, and a negative score would be given. In some cases, an adult's behavior toward the focus child may even be what most would consider negative or aversive, but the focus child does not seem to cue on it or seems to react to it as a point of information or constructive rather than critical behavior. For example, suppose that in response to PPST vignette number 2, subject reports that the teacher is telling the focus child that he/she was "incorrect in his work," and the focus child is feeling "good" because he/she re-did the problem and it came out correctly. Because there is no evidence that the focus child experienced the teacher's comment as aversive or that the teacher meant it negatively, and the child seemed to regard it as merely informative feedback and did not seem to regard it either positively or negatively, a neutral score should be given. However, if subject's <u>only</u> response was that the teacher said the focus child's work was "incorrect," because most of us would view this as a negative

experience and because there exists no evidence that the focus child experienced it otherwise, a negative score would be given. The point being made in the above examples is that if subject is able to reasonably justify the focus child's positive feelings or evaluation of the other, the nature of the child's experience or evaluation should take precedence in scoring.

To take a slightly different situation, assume that the other's behavior appears to be negative (e.g., punishing, derogatory), and the focus child is reportedly feeling "happy" because he/she is thinking about "the fun times he/she had at school" or "how he/she is going to get back at the other." Because the focus child's reported feelings are not in response to the other's behavior or thoughts or feelings toward him/her, they are not relevant for scoring and a negative score based on the other's orientation toward the focus child should be given.

In scoring subject's response to the last question ("How does the story end?"), this response is to be considered only as a last resort in scoring and primarily in situations where subject's responses to all preceding questions have provided no clear evidence for either a positive or negative score. That is, subject's response to the last question is to be used primarily to resolve any confusion or ambiguities in subject's responses up to that point. Also, in considering subject's response to the last question, two other points should be remembered. First, it may happen that in response to this question subject will say, "I don't know"; however, when the experimenter persists with the question, subject may respond with either a cliché such

as, "They lived happily ever after" or a silly remark in a hasty, flippant manner which seems designed to give some answer and seems clearly unrelated to subject's perception of the PPST stimulus. In these cases, subject's response to the last question is to be ignored and scoring is to be based on the nature of subject's previous responses. On the other hand, if subject's answer to the question, "How does the story end?" seems silly or is a cliché, it should not necessarily be ignored. If it is given when the question is first asked and seems genuine, it may be considered in scoring. Second, it may happen that subject's responses to earlier PPST questions regarding a picture clearly suggest a positive or negative score, but subject's response to the last question contradicts that scoring. For example, subject may report that the other is criticizing the focus child, the focus child is feeling "sad," but that "the story ends happily ever after" or with both characters feeling "happy." If subject is not able to explain the contradiction in a plausible way, subject's response is not to be considered in scoring and a score based on subject's previous responses should be given.

Sometimes it may happen that subject's response indicates that the other only asked the focus child a question which is straightforward, impersonal, information-seeking, or otherwise innocuous. As long as the tone in which the question is asked seems neutral, and the characters are not reported to be feeling or thinking either positively or negatively toward one another, a neutral score is to be given.

If, from subject's responses, the other's orientation toward the child and the child's experience of the other seems neutral (e.g., neither positive nor negative), but the other is described as a person who is almost always associated with aggressive or aversive behavior (e.g., a robber, murderer, ghost, etc.), a negative score should be given. However, if subject reports that the other is a "robber," "murderer," "ghost," etc., but describes that other's orientation toward the focus child positively, a positive score should be given. In other words, if subject reports the other to be the kind of person normally associated with aggression, the other's orientation will never be scored neutrally and is to be scored negatively <u>unless</u> there is clear evidence that the other's orientation is positive.

At this point, it may be helpful to review the order in which subject's different responses should be considered in scoring. First, the other's evaluation of or feelings toward the focus child should usually be the most important evidence on which to base a score. Second, the focus child's experience of or reaction to the other or the other's orientation (i.e., behavior, thoughts, or feelings) toward him/her will usually be the second most important evidence to consider in scoring. The apparent nature of the other's behavior toward the focus child should usually be the third most important basis for scoring, and subject's response to the last question concerning the situation's ending should be considered last in scoring. Stated another way, given inconsistencies between the (positive, negative, and neutral) nature of the other's evaluation of or feelings toward the focus child, the focus child's experience of the other, and the

apparent nature of the other's behavior toward the focus child, scoring should usually be based on the other's evaluation of and/or feelings toward the focus child. If subject does not mention the other's evaluation of and/or feelings toward the focus child or reports them in a way which enables neither a positive nor negative score, the scorer should next attempt to base the scoring on the focus child's reported experience of the other; only as a third alternative should scoring be based on the apparent nature of the other's behavior.[1]

To clarify this further, an example follows. Assume that in response to PPST vignette number 2, subject reports that a teacher is saying to the focus child, "No, your work is wrong, so stay in your seat and try again," (a seemingly negative response to the focus child); the teacher is feeling proud of the child; and, the child is feeling "no good" (i.e., the child is experiencing the other's behavior as negative). Remembering that the PPST is attempting to measure the subject's perception of the other's orientation toward the focus child, and the other's (i.e., the teacher's) evaluation of the focus child is positive, this response should be scored positively. However, if subject had said that he/she did not know what the teacher was thinking and feeling, but had otherwise responded the same, due

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[1]It may seem that the (positive or negative) nature of the other's <u>behavior</u> toward the focus child should be the most important aspect to consider in scoring. However, given the fact that individuals can interpret the same behavior differently and that the scoring should reflect how the subject sees the other oriented toward the focus child, a scoring assessment based on the other's orientation toward the focus child (as assessed through the other's thoughts and feelings toward the focus child), or secondly, the focus child's experience of the other, would seem to yield the greatest assurance of scoring based on subject's perception.

to the higher priority of the focus child's reaction over the teacher's behavior, a negative score would be given.

It is important to remember two exceptions to the above order when scoring. If subject reports what appears to be a blatant contradiction between the other's behavior toward the child and the child's feeling, and subject does not provide an explanation of this apparent contradiction which resolves it in a reasonably conceivable way, the nature of the other's behavior takes priority over the focus child's experience. For example, if in the example just cited, subject said that he/she did not know what the teacher was thinking or feeling, reported that in response to the teacher's admonition the focus child felt "good," and did not explain this apparent contradiction in a reasonable way, a negative score based on the apparently negative valence of the teacher's behavior toward the focus child would be given.

There is a second exception to the above order in which subject responses should be considered. It may occur that although the "other" regards the focus child negatively, it seems that the other's overriding orientation toward the focus child is positive (e.g., one of sympathy, caring, concern, wanting to help, etc.). For example, assume that in response to PPST vignette number 4, subject reports that the lady helped the focus child because she thought he/she was doing "bad" in his/her work. Even though the lady sees the focus child doing "bad" (a negative evaluation), because it seems that the major emphasis in subject's response is on the help offered to the child, and the evaluation of "bad" seems almost incidental, a positive

score would be given.

Lastly, to get a better idea of positive, negative, and neutral scorings, see the list which follows describing some key kinds of orientations which may be categorized positively, negatively, or neutrally.

Each picture story response should also be scored for "action" or "evaluation." If, in a picture story, the other's planned or actual behavior (i.e., action) toward the focus child (which includes talking to the focus child) or the child's affective or cognitive reaction to the other's behavior is the basis of or reinforces the first scoring (i.e., taken by itself would necessitate the same first scoring as was given), an "action" rating should be given. If the scoring of the "other's orientation" derives from (a) the other's thoughts or feelings about the focus child, (b) the focus child's experience of the other's imagined thoughts or feelings, or (c) the others' talk among themselves about the focus child <u>and</u> and other(s) is not engaging in behavior toward the child which, by itself, would merit the same scoring, an "evaluation" rating would be given. To emphasize this "evaluation" scoring rule, if the first scoring is based primarily on the other's cognitive or affective reaction toward the focus child, but the other(s) is also behaving toward the focus child in a way which, by itself, would necessitate a similar "other orientation" scoring, an "action" score should be given. For example, if the other is both positively evaluating and positively behaving toward the focus child, the story is to be rated "action." To emphasize another point, if subject's report of the other's behavior,

thoughts, and feelings regarding the focus child can be scored neither positively nor negatively, but it seems clear that the focus child is experiencing the other either positively or negatively, the action/evaluation scoring will depend on whether the focus child's reaction is based on the other's behavior toward (and therefore merits an "action" score) or the other's evaluation of or talk or feelings about the focus child (and therefore merits an "evaluation" score). Also, only a rating of "action" or "evaluation" may be given to the same PPST vignette, and if no scorable response has been given to a vignette, note this with a non-scorable (N.S.) rating. To further clarify the scoring, some examples follow.

If, in picture story number 5, the focus child's peers are only reported to be talking among themselves and are discussing positive qualities of the focus child, an "evaluation" score would be given. If, however, subject had added to this that the peers also asked the focus child to play (i.e., an action), because the others' action takes priority over others' evaluation if they both yield the same scoring, an "action" score would be given.

As suggested above, if the other engages in action toward the focus child which does not justify a positive or negative score, but the other also feels, evaluates, or talks positively or negatively about the child, an "evaluation" rating should be given. For example, assume that in response to vignette number 6 the father tells the child in a neutral or ambiguous tone to come to dinner, but is feeling upset at the child. Since the father's behavior (i.e., talking to the child) could not be scored positively or negatively, but his feeling toward

the child could be, an evaluation rating would be given.

If the first scoring is based on the other's or the focus child's reaction to the other's plans or talk about something he/she will or wants to do to or for the focus child, the story will be scored "action" (notice that this is the only situation in which talking about the child should be scored as "action"). However, if the first scoring is based on the other's or the focus child's reaction to the other's thoughts about doing or not doing something for or to the focus child, an "evaluation" rating is appropriate. To illustrate this distinction, if in response to vignette number 1, the parents were talking or thinking about their plans to help their child, an "action" score (for the planned action) would be appropriate; however, if the parents were said to be "thinking about helping their child" or "thinking about making plans" (as opposed to "thinking about their plans"), an "evaluation" score would be given. In this second instance, an "evaluation" score was given because the phrase "thinking about helping" or "thinking about making plans" is interpreted to mean that the parents were contemplating the possibility of helping or making plans (but had no plans to act). If the phrase was interpreted to mean that the parents were involved in planning how to help (and not just contemplating whether they would or should help), an "action" score should be given.

Lastly, if the other in PPST vignette numbers 3 and 4 is referred to as a "robber," "murderer," "ghost," or some other character associated with malevolent behavior, and from subject's response neither the other or the focus child is doing, thinking, or feeling anything

which can be scored positively or negatively, because the character of the other is usually associated with malevolent action, an "action" score should be given. However, if subject also reported that this robber, murderer, ghost, etc. was not doing anything, but was having thoughts or feelings about the child which would normally merit an "evaluation" score (i.e., was feeling mad at the child), an "evaluation" score would be given.

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Key Kinds of Orientations Which May Be Categorized Positively, Negatively, or Neutrally

Examples of "other's orientations" (as determined through "the other's actual, intended, or planned behavior toward or thoughts or feelings about the focus child, or the focus child's reaction to "the other") which might be considered positive, negative, or neutral are:[2]

Positive Orientation[3]

The "other" either does the following and/or is seen as doing or being the following:

- Gives permission to or helps the focus child
- Shares or gives something positive to the focus child
- Invites the focus child to participate
- Compliments the focus child
- Does something for the focus child
- Praises the focus child

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[2]This list is neither comprehensive nor rigid and, depending on the tone, context, and focus of the child's reaction, these examples may not be scored in the category as here described.

[3]To be scored positively, it is assumed that all these behaviors, thoughts, and feelings are directed toward the focus child.

- Attempts to sympathize or empathize with the focus child
- Attempts to make the focus child feel better or comforts him/her
- Supportively encourages the focus child
- Feels proud of or happy with the focus child
- The focus child feels "good" about, "happy" with, or "proud of" the other
- The "other" uses a friendly tone toward the focus child

Negative Orientation

The "other" either does the following and/or is seen as doing or being the following:

- Punishes, reprimands, hits, rejects the focus child (e.g., tells the focus child to go away, does not let the focus child play with him/her, tells the focus child that he/she is not liked, etc.)
- Makes negative evaluations about or feels negatively toward the focus child (e.g., child is stupid, not liked, clumsy, ugly, "bad," feels child is not capable of doing things, etc.)
- Makes derogatory comments toward or about the focus child
- Forces (not just requests) the focus child to do something or not to do something which the child does not like (be sure to examine the child's reaction or experience of this to be sure the child sees or experiences the other's force as negative before scoring it so. Also, requests do not necessarily fall into this category. Whether a request is positive, neutral, or negative depends on the tone in which it is said, the child's reaction, and the context)
- "The other" feels angry, impatient, irritated with the focus child
- Hurts the focus child
- Ignores the focus child when he/she attempts to get the other's attention
- Generally acts in ways which are unfair toward the focus child
- Threatens the focus child

Neutral Orientation

Primarily, a neutral score indicates a non-evaluative reaction, question, or exchange of information between the other(s) and the focus child with no positive or negative behavior, thoughts, or feelings involved. If there are any positive or negative behaviors, thoughts, or feelings of the other toward the focus child or vice versa, they take precedence over any "neutral" aspects of the

interaction in scoring. What follows are more specific examples of items which might comprise a neutral score. The "other" might:

- Make a request of the child in a casual tone
- Ask the focus child a question in a casual tone
- Converse with the focus child in a casual tone and/or convey information in a matter-of-fact tone

or:

- An interchange which is done according to custom or common formalities with very little interpersonal involvement (e.g., the other and the focus child casually say "Hi" to each other in passing) should be scored neutrally.

# APPENDIX Q

## The Sensitivity to Children, Modified for Children (STC-MC) Questionnaire Scoring System

The Sensitivity to Children, Modified for Children (STC-MC) Questionnaire Scoring System

The child depicted in each STC-MC vignette evidences both positive intentions or behavior and behavior which has negative consequences. Subject is asked to assume a parental role and respond to the child. As a scorer, you are to make two scoring determinations for each response. First, you are to assess whether each subject response evidences perception of either positive or negative aspects of the child's functioning. If subject comments on both the positive and negative aspects of behavior or the intentions behind the child's behavior, you would score the response as positive (+) and negative (-). If subject's response acknowledges only the negative aspects of behavior, it would be scored (-); and, if subject's response acknowledges only positive aspects of the child's behavior or intentions, it would be scored (+). Thus, subject's response to a STC-MC situation could be scored (+), (-), or both (+) and (-). To aid in determining what kinds of subject responses necessitate positive and/or negative scoring, study the list of the kinds of subject responses which would be scored as positive or negative which follows this description of the STC-MC scoring system.

Besides the guidelines emphasized in the list which follows this explanation of the scoring system, other points should be remembered. Sometimes neither a positive nor negative behavior, intention, or behavioral consequence will be mentioned in subject's response, but from

the response it is clear that subject is responding to his/her perception of a negative or positive behavior, intention, or behavioral consequence. For example, although responses such as, "I'd take his coat and wash it," "I'd get some new paper for myself," or "Don't carry heavy bags because if they contained glass and fell, they would break," do not explicitly respond to what happened in vignettes numbers 2, 3, and 4, respectively, because the responses seem to implicitly acknowledge perception of the "negative" behaviors or consequences described in each of those vignettes (i.e., such responses seem to be based on perception of negative behaviors or consequences), a negative score should be given.

It is important to remember that only what the subject says in his/her role as parent should be scored. For example, if subject should respond to situation number 1 as follows: "What happened?" And my child would say, 'I was setting the table and a dish broke,' and I'd say, 'Go to your room'," based on the "parent's" sending the child to his/her room (which represents an implicit acknowledgement of the negative consequences of the child's behavior), a (-) score only would be given. Although "setting the table" was mentioned, because the child and not the "parent" mentioned it, it would not be scored.

If a positive child behavior or intention is acknowledged, but is interpreted in a negative way, it is to be scored negatively. For example, if the subject says in response to situation number 2, "You know it's not good to lend your coat to another," it would be scored negatively. Although the subject acknowledges the positive behavior, because subject "saw" it negatively (i.e., "not good"), a negative

score and no positive score should be given.

Lastly, some responses cannot be scored either positively or negatively and therefore should be rated "N.S." (non-scorable). For example, if subject reponds to situation number 4 with only, "Bags are beautiful," or to situation number 2 with, "I bought that coat for you" (using a neutral tone of voice), or "I don't know," since neither a positive nor negative behavior or intention was implicitly or explicitly acknowledged, no score could be given and the response should be rated "N.S."

The STC-MC responses should also be rated for the nature of subject's evaluation of the child's behavior, intentions, or behavioral consequences. If, in any of the vignettes, subject responds to the child with praise, thanks, sympathy, empathy, or acknowledgement of some positive aspect of behavior or intentions, a positive evaluation score (+) should be given under the "evaluation" column of the scoring sheet. For example, is subject responds to the child's use of his/her paper in situation number 3 in a sympathetic voice saying, "Why didn't you ask me first?", it should be scored (+). If, in responding to the child, subject says, "Don't (do something)," critically lectures the child, punishes or responds to the child in an angry, sarcastic, or belittling tone, a negative evaluation score (-) should be given. If subject's <u>only</u> response is a question asked in a neutral, non-angry tone, a non-committal statement said in a neutral tone (e.g., "Oh, well," or even, "Darn it," if said in a neutral tone), or is intended merely to convey information (e.g., in response to situation number 3, subject only says in a neutral tone, "Next time ask me for the

paper"), a neutral (N) score should be given.

It is important that only the overt behaviors (e.g., words, voice tone) subject uses in speaking to the child or says he/she would use in responding to the child be considered in scoring; extemporaneous subject comments about the child or the situation (unless they are expressed in some overt way to the child) should be ignored. For example, if in responding to the child's behavior in situation number 1, subject says, "I would say that's O.K. We can get a new dish (in a sympathetic tone), but I would think to myself, 'Boy! That kid is dumb for breaking the dish'," because a positive evaluation would be conveyed to the child, based on the overt behavior a positive evaluation score should be given. Although subject also said that he/she would think that the kid was "dumb," because it was not expressed in or through overt behavior, and thus would not be conveyed to the child, it should be ignored in scoring.

If both a scorable positive and negative evaluation is present in subject's response to the child, two scores (+ and -) should be given. For example, if in response to situation number 1, subject said in a stern tone, "You are a good boy (for trying to help), but you shouldn't do things like that," because subject said to the child that he was a "good boy," a positive (+) score should be given, and because subject said in a stern tone that the child "shouldn't do things like that," a negative (-) score should be given.

Lastly, if subject did not respond to an STC-MC item or responded with "I don't know," since it would be impossible to score for positive, negative, or neutral evaluation, a score of non-scorable (N.S.)

should be noted within the appropriate scoring column.

Kinds of Subject Responses Which Would be Scored as Positive or Negative[1]

| If, in responding to the child, subject mentions, alludes to, or acts as if he/she is aware of any of the following aspects of the child's behaviors or intentions, a (+) score is indicated. | If, in responding to the child, subject mentions, alludes to, or acts as if he/she is aware of any of the following aspects of the child's behavior or behavioral consequences, a (-) score is indicated. |
|---|---|
| STC-MC Situation No. 1 | |
| - The child's desire to surprise the parent<br>- That the child set the table<br>- That the child did a "good job" or positively or otherwise praises the child (e.g., "good boy")[2] | - The dropped dish<br>- The broken plate<br>- That "We'll get a new dish," "just have to get a new dish" (or something like this)<br>- That the child is "bad," "should not do it again," or otherwise scolds, criticizes the child[3] |

[1]The following examples are not all-inclusive. Rather, they are only meant to acquaint the scorer with some criteria for scoring items positively or negatively.

[2]If, in his/her response, subject praises or rewards the child or tells the child he/she is "good" or "did a good job," it can usually be assumed to indicate acknowledgement of the child's positive behavior or intentions and should be scored (+). However, if subject, who is acting as the parent, praises, rewards, or positively labels the child or his/her behavior and the praise or reward is clearly related to a negative child behavior or behavioral consequence, it is to be scored (-). For example, assume that in response to situation number 1, subject only responded, "Good boy, I'm glad you broke the dish because I have been wanting to get a new one." Because it is clear that the praise results from subject's perception of the negative consequences of the child's behavior, a (-) score should be given.

[3]If subject criticizes, condemns, punishes, etc. the child or labels him/her "bad," "dumb," etc., unless there is evidence to the

STC-MC Situation No. 2

- That the child saw that the person was cold
- That the child gave the coat to the other child or "let the other child wear it"
- That the child was "good" or otherwise positively labels or praises the child.[2]

- That the coat has mud on it, is dirty, needs to be cleaned
- That the child "should not do it again," "should not have done it," disobeyed, was "bad," or otherwise scolds, criticizes, or punishes the child.[3]

STC-MC Situation No. 3

- That the child "did something on his/her own," did something "pretty," or "creative," or "thought it (drawing the pictures) would be fun"
- That the child did a "good job" or otherwise praises the child, the child's work.[2]

- That he/she (i.e., the parent) "had been saving the paper"
- That the child "should not do it again"
- That the child was "bad" or scolds, criticizes, or punishes the child.[3]

STC-MC Situation No. 4

- That the child "helped" or "took in a bag"
- That the jar did not break
- That the child was "good," considerate, etc., or did a "good job".[2]

- That the child made a mistake
- That a jar fell out
- That "it was good thing that it did not break" (or something like this)
- That the child "should not have done it," "did something wrong," was "bad," or otherwise scolds, criticizes, punishes the child.[3]

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contrary, it can be assumed to indicate acknowledgement of the child's negative behavior or behavioral consequences and should be scored (-). However, in some cases, the parent's criticizing, negative labeling, etc. may be clearly related to the child's positive intentions or behaviors. In those cases, both a (+) and (-) score (because the positive behavior or intention was acknowledged, and because, it will be assumed, the negative tone probably results from the subject's perception of the negative behavior or behavioral consequences) should be given. For example, if the subject said in a harsh tone (situation no. 1), "Don't help me again," the fact that "help" was mentioned necessitates a (+) score; however, because subject's response is scolding in tone, it can be assumed to represent perception of the negative consequences of the child's behavior and a (-) score should be given.

# APPENDIX R

## Stollak's Scoring Guide to Responses to Children

Stollak's Scoring Guide to Responses to Children

Scoring Categories

1. Ordering, Directing Commanding

Telling the child to do something, giving him/her an order or a command. This does not include telling him/her, "You may do . . ." or giving the child alternatives.

Example phrases: "You must . . .," "You have to . . .," "You will . . ."

Examples:
"I don't care what other parents do, you have to do the homework."
"Don't talk to your mother like that!"
"Now you go back there and play with Ginny and Joyce."
"Stop complaining."
"Stop doing that."

2. Warning, Admonishing, Threatening

Telling the child what consequences will occur if he/she does something.

Example phrases: "You had better . . .," "If you don't, then . . ."

Examples:
"If you do that, you'll be sorry."
"One more statement like that and you'll be sorry."
"One more statement like that and you'll leave the room."
"You'd better not do that if you know what's good for you."

3. Exhorting, Moralizing, Preaching

Telling the child what he/she should or ought to do.

Example phrases: "You should. . .," "You ought . . .," "It's your duty to . . .," "It is your responsibility to . . .," "You are required . . ."

Examples:
"You shouldn't act like that."
"You ought to do this."
"You must always respect your elders."
"Don't ever interrupt a person when he's talking."
"You have to learn to share."
"Always clean up after yourself."
"That's not a nice way to talk."

4. Advising, Recommending, Providing Answers or Solutions

Telling the child how to solve a problem, giving the child advice or suggestions, providing answers or solutions for the child.

Example phrases: "What I would do is . . .," "Why don't you . . .," "Let me suggest . . .," "It would be best for you to . . ."

Examples:
"I suggest that you talk to your father about it."
"Can't you put each thing away after you use it?"
"Why don't you go outside and play."

5. Persuading with Logic, Arguing, Instructing, Lecturing

Trying to influence the child with facts, counterarguments, logic, information, or your own opinions.

Example phrases: "Do you realize . . .," "Here is why you are wrong." That is not right . . .," "The facts are . . .," "Yes, but . . ."

Examples:
"School can be the most wonderful experience you'll ever have."
"Children must learn to get along with others."
"Let's look at the facts about college graduates."
"If kids learn to take responsibility around the house, they'll grow up to be responsible adults."
"Look at it this way. Your mother needs help around the house."
"When I was your age, I had twice as much to do as you."

6. Evaluating/Judging Negatively, Disapproving, Blaming, Criticizing

Making a negative judgment or evaluation of the child.

Examples:
"You are bad."
"You are lazy."
"You are not thinking straight."

"You are acting foolishly."
"You're very wrong about that."

7. Praising, Judging/Evaluating Positively, Approving, Agreeing

Offering a positive evaluation of the child (child's personality or character), agreeing.

Examples:
"You are a good boy."
"That's good."
"I approve of . . ."
"Well, I think you're pretty smart."
"I agree with you."
"That's more like it."

8. Name-Calling, Ridiculing, Shaming, Using Sarcasm, Making Light of

Making the child feel foolish, putting the child into a category, shaming the child.

Examples:
"You're a spoiled brat."
"Look here, Mr. Smarty."
"You're acting like a wild animal."
"Okay, little baby."
"Get up on the wrong side of the bed this morning?"
"Cat got your tongue?"

9. Diagnosing, Psychoanalyzing, Interpreting, Reading-In, Offering Insights

Telling the child what his/her motives are or analyzing why he/she is doing or saying something; communicating that you have the child figured out or have diagnosed the child.

Example phrases: "What you need is . . . ," "What's wrong with you is . . .," "You're just trying to get attention by . . .," "You don't really mean that . . .," "I know what you need." "Your problem is . . ."

Examples:
"You're just jealous of Ginny."
"You're saying that to bug me."
"You don't believe that at all."
"You feel that way because you're not doing well in school."
"You always want to play when I'm working."
"You must love to see how far you can go before I get mad."

"You're trying to get my goat."
"You know you're lying."
"I know you took that just because you knew I was saving it."

10. Supporting, Reassuring, Excusing, Sympathizing, Consoling

Trying to make the child feel better, talking her out of her feelings, trying to make the child's feelings go away, denying the strength of the child's feelings.

Examples:
"It's not so bad."
"Don't worry."
"That's too bad."
"You'll feel better tomorrow."
"All kids go through this at some time."
"I used to think that, too."
"You could be an excellent student with your potential."

11. Questioning, Probing, Cross-Examining, Prying, Interrogating

Trying to find reasons, motives, causes; searching for more information to help you solve the problem.

Example phrases: "Why . . .," "Who . . .," "Where . . .," "When . . .," "How . . ."

Examples:
"Why do you suppose you hate school?"
"Who put that idea in your head?"
"Where did you get those flowers?"
"Do the other kids tell you why they won't play with you?"
"What will you do if you don't go to college?"

12. Withdrawing, Distracting, Avoiding, Ignoring, Bypassing

Trying to get the child away from the problem; withdrawing from the problem yourself; distracting the child or pushing the problem aside.

Examples:
"Let's not talk about it now."
"Not at the table."
"Just forget it."
"That reminds me . . ."
"We can discuss it later."
"We've been through all this before. Let's not go through it again."

13. Unrestricted Compliance with the Child's Needs, Wishes, or Demands

A statement which allows the child to satisfy his needs, wishes, or demands without any limits or behavioral restrictions on the expression of this need.

Examples:
"I'll take you to the zoo right now."
"You can keep the money and buy what you want."
"You can stay up as late as you want."

14. Restriction of Privileges, Grounding

Grounding or restricting of privileges as the method of discipline to resolve the issue.

Examples:
"You cannot go outside to play for the next three days."
"You won't come shopping with me next week."
"You're grounded for a week."
"No TV for a week."

15. Physical Punishment

A statement which indicates the parent uses some form of physical punishment to resolve the issue.

Example:
"I would hit, spank, swat, or clobber him."

16. Yelling or Shouting (Irrespective of Content)

Inclusion of the manner in which the parent would respond by yelling, shouting, or scolding.

Examples:
"I would yell at him or scold him."
"I would shout or yell . . ."

17. Punishment (Isolation)

A statement which indicates that the parent uses some type of isolation as discipline.

Examples:
"I would send him to his room."
"I would tell her to go to her room."

18. Reflection of the Child's Feelings, Needs, or Wishes

A clear and unambiguous statement that indicates awareness and understanding of the child's feelings, needs, or wishes. That is, reflecting what the child is feeling, needs, or seems to be wishing for and how his/her actions derive from such thoughts and feelings.

Examples:
"You're looking at the money in the wallet because you want something very, very much and need some money."
"I can see that you're very sad, angry, or unhappy."
"You seem excited."
"You want to help."

19. A Statement of Acceptance of the Validity of the Child's Feelings and Needs

A statement of acceptance of the child's feelings, needs, and wishes as natural and valid human experiences, but not necessarily the child's actions which may be unacceptable to the adult.

Examples:
"I understand how that would make you feel afraid."
"I understand that you wanted to give me something special."
"Sometimes we get so excited when we win."
"If he did something I didn't like, I would be angry, too."

20. A Statement of the Adult's Own Feelings

A clear statement which indicates how the adult feels and thinks.

Examples:
"I feel bad that I made you angry."
"I wish we could give you a bigger allowance."
"I am very happy, sad, or angry."
"I don't think hitting is a good way to tell people you're angry."

21. Relating of Child Feelings to Adult Feelings

Examples:
"When you look upset, I become sad."
"When you're excited, I feel happy."

22. Relating of Child Feelings to Adult Behavior

Examples:
"When you look upset, I try to cheer you up."
"When you're worried, I try to understand what is wrong."

23. Relating of Child Behavior to Adult Feelings

Examples:
"When you're not careful, I get annoyed."
"When you hit your friends, I get upset."

24. Relating of Child Behavior to Adult Behavior

Example:
"When you yell, I tell you to stop."

25. Providing Alternate Routes of Expression for the Child's Feelings, Thoughts, and Wishes (in the Present)

A clear statement of how you want the child to express his/her feelings or thoughts in the present--right now. If possible, giving the child two or three alternatives to express these "inner experiences."

Examples:
"When you need money, I hope you can come and tell me."
"If you're angry at your friend, I would like you to tell him right now what makes you angry."
"The best thing we can do right now is to clean the spots or have you get another jacket."
Note. Offering alternatives may be in the form of a choice (e.g., "Do you want to change your clothes or go as you are?") or a question (e.g., "Will you ask before you use wood that isn't in the wood box?")

26. Providing Alternate Routes of Expression for the Child's Feelings, Thoughts, or Wishes (In the Future)

A clear statement indicating how you want the child to express his/her "inner experiences" or feelings in the future.

Examples:
"I hope in the future you'll be able to tell me what you want."
"If you feel like hitting something, I'd like you to hit the bobo doll or throw a pillow on your bed."

"When you get angry, you can tell her so."
"If you want to be helpful, just come and tell me what is happening."

27. Attempt to Obtain More Information Regarding Child's Feelings

A statement indicating that the adult wants to understand more about the child's feelings. The adult is not trying to find reasons, motives, or causes, or searching for information to help solve the problem. Rather, the adult's response indicates an interest in knowing more about the child's experience.

Examples:
"Can you tell me what you're upset about?"

28. Attempting to Obtain More Information Regarding Child Behavior

A statement indicating that the adult wants to understand more about what has occurred for the child. The adult is not trying to find reasons, motives, or causes, or searching for information to help solve the problem. Rather, the adult's response indicates an interest in knowing more about the child's experience.

Example:
"Tell me what happened."

29. Other-Oriented Discipline

A statement with some reference to the implication of the child's behavior for another person by (a) directly pointing out or explaining the nature of the consequences, (b) pointing out the relevant needs or desires of others, or (c) explaining the motives underlying the other person's behavior toward the child.

Examples:
(a)"If you pick those flowers, there won't be as many for them to enjoy."
"If you throw mud, they will have to clean it up."
"When you hit Michael, he gets scared and starts to cry."
"Pulling the cat's tail can hurt it."
(b)"He's afraid to be alone, so please don't leave him until I get back."
"Mrs. Jones likes to let her flowers grow in the garden, so please don't pick them."
"Steve will be angry if he finds his money gone, so please put it back in his wallet."
(c)"Please don't hit Michael. He doesn't understand that plants are not to be played with."

30. Desirable and Helpful Praise

A statement of praise which deals only with the child's efforts and accomplishments, not with his/her character and personality. Words of praise should mirror for the child a realistic picture of his/her accomplishments.

Examples:
"Thank you for being concerned about the plants."
"You must have played well."
"Your gift is so pretty and colorful."
"I appreciate your doing the dishes."
"It was nice of you to help your friend."
Note. Helpful praise does not include such statement as: "You're such an angel"; "You're always so thoughtful"; "You're a good girl"; "You're such a considerate person"; "You always do well"; "You're such a wonderful child."

31. Statement of Mutual Reciprocity

A statement that indicates the solution for the problem is based on mutual respect and cooperation of the parent and the child.

Examples:
"Since we agreed that the jacket should be kept clean, I expect you to do that."
"Since Steven does not take things from your room without asking, I expect you to ask before taking things from his."

32. Restricted Compliance with the Child's Needs, Wishes, or Demands

A statement from the parent which allows the child to satisfy his/her needs, wishes, or demands within limits or behavioral restrictions.

Examples:
"If you really need the money, I will give you a dollar."
"You can wear your other clothes, even though we agreed that you'd wear these."

33. Indirect Statement of the Parent's Feelings

An indirect statement by the adult which would indicate how he/she felt, but not including an "I" statement of how the adult felt.

Examples:
"I would give him an angry look and say . . ."
"I would be really mad, or embarrassed, or pleased."
"I would frown and say in an angry voice . . ."

34. <u>Is there some recognition of or statement about the child's "positive" intent, feelings, or behavior?</u>

Does the parent make any type of comment about the child's "positive" behavior or feelings? Does the parent pay any attention to this behavior at all?

Examples:
"That was thoughtful of you, but . . ."
"I know you wanted to get me something special."
"That was nice, but . . ."

35. <u>Is there some recognition of or statement about the child's "negative" or less desirable behavior?</u>

Does the parent make any type of comment about the child's "negative" behavior? Does the parent pay any attention at all to this behavior?

36. <u>Does the parent recognize the "positive" behavior or feeling first?</u>

Does the parent make some type of statement or comment about the child's "positive" feeling or behavior before mentioning the "negative" behavior?

37. <u>Does the parent recognize the "negative" behavior or feeling first?</u>

Does the parent first make some kind of statement or comment about the "negative" behavior before saying anything about the "positive" behavior?

# APPENDIX S

## Summary of Main and Interaction Effects and Univariate Results in Multivariate Analyses of Covariance (With Children's Age, Socioeconomic Status, and IQ Covaried Out) Which were Designed to Test for Sex, Adjustment, and Sex X Adjustment Group Differences on the IPS and Reactive Style Measures

Table 10

Summary of Main and Interaction Effects and Univariate Results in Multivariate Analyses of Covariance (with Children's Age, Socioeconomic Status, and IQ Covaried Out) Which Were Designed to Test for Sex, Adjustment, and Sex x Adjustment Group Differences on the IPS and Reactive Style Measures[a]

| Source | F[a] | p |
|---|---|---|
| Raw Scores | | |
| Sex | 2.15 | .079 |
| CBC-MC | 9.49 | .004 |
| PAPI-MC | .01 | .921 |
| PPST | .67 | .416 |
| STC-EVAL | 1.85 | .181 |
| STC-BEH | .07 | .793 |
| Adjustment | 1.72 | .152 |
| CBC-MC | 2.41 | .127 |
| PAPI-MC | 1.94 | .171 |
| PPST | .19 | .664 |
| STC-EVAL | 2.50 | .121 |
| STC-BEH | 3.04 | .088 |
| Sex x Adjustment | .34 | .883 |
| CBC-MC | 1.22 | .276 |
| PAPI-MC | .01 | .919 |
| PPST | .06 | .804 |
| STC-EVAL | .15 | .696 |
| STC-BEH | .02 | .889 |
| Signed Scores Where the Mean for Each Measure Constitutes the Balance Point | | |
| Sex | 3.01 | .021 |
| CBC-MC | 9.90 | .003 |
| PAPI-MC | .23 | .638 |
| PPST | .88 | .354 |

Table 10 (cont'd.)

| Source | F[a] | p |
|---|---|---|
| STC-EVAL | 4.48 | .040 |
| STC-BEH | .02 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 2.39 | .055 |
| CBC-MC | 2.17 | .148 |
| PAPI-MC | 3.33 | .075 |
| PPST | .36 | .554 |
| STC-EVAL | 3.38 | .073 |
| STC-BEH | 3.10 | .086 |
| Sex x Adjustment | .35 | .880 |
| CBC-MC | 1.41 | .241 |
| PAPI-MC | .54 | .465 |
| PPST | .00 | .955 |
| STC-EVAL | .02 | .886 |
| STC-BEH | .03 | .865 |
| **Signed Scores Where the Empirically Derived Balance Points (for the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC) or Mean Score (for the PPST, STC-EVAL, and STC-BEH) Constitutes the Balance Point** | | |
| Sex | 3.01 | .022 |
| CBC-MC | 9.90 | .003 |
| PAPI-MC | .27 | .612 |
| PPST | .88 | .354 |
| STC-EVAL | 4.88 | .040 |
| STC-BEH | .03 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 2.38 | .055 |
| CBC-MC | 2.17 | .148 |
| PAPI-MC | 3.26 | .078 |
| PPST | .36 | .554 |
| STC-EVAL | 3.38 | .073 |
| STC-BEH | 3.10 | .086 |
| Sex x Adjustment | .36 | .879 |
| CBC-MC | 1.41 | .241 |
| PAPI-MC | .58 | .450 |
| PPST | .00 | .955 |
| STC-EVAL | .02 | .886 |
| STC-BEH | .03 | .865 |

Table 10 (cont'd.)

| Source | F[a] | p |
|---|---|---|
| **Absolute Scores Where Raw Score Zero Constitutes the Balance Point for Each Measure** | | |
| Sex | .58 | .714 |
| CBC-MC | 1.09 | .303 |
| PAPI-MC | .12 | .729 |
| PPST | .44 | .512 |
| STC-EVAL | .74 | .394 |
| STC-BEH | .02 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 1.32 | .275 |
| CBC-MC | .41 | .527 |
| PAPI-MC | 2.08 | .156 |
| PPST | .14 | .709 |
| STC-EVAL | .78 | .381 |
| STC-BEH | 3.09 | .086 |
| Sex x Adjustment | .28 | .924 |
| CBC-MC | .12 | .730 |
| PAPI-MC | .00 | .999 |
| PPST | .57 | .455 |
| STC-EVAL | .48 | .493 |
| STC-BEH | .03 | .865 |
| **Absolute Scores Where the Mean for Each Measure Constitutes the Balance Point** | | |
| Sex | 1.08 | .388 |
| CBC-MC | 3.19 | .081 |
| PAPI-MC | .78 | .383 |
| PPST | .42 | .519 |
| STC-EVAL | .47 | .497 |
| STC-BEH | .02 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 1.49 | .215 |
| CBC-MC | 2.48 | .122 |
| PAPI-MC | 2.18 | .147 |
| PPST | .02 | .900 |
| STC-EVAL | .06 | .811 |
| STC-BEH | 3.09 | .086 |

Table 10 (cont'd.)

| Source | F[a] | p |
|---|---|---|
| Sex x Adjustment | .59 | .711 |
| CBC-MC | 1.65 | .205 |
| PAPI-MC | .21 | .652 |
| PPST | .60 | .444 |
| STC-EVAL | .36 | .554 |
| STC-BEH | .03 | .865 |
| Absolute Scores Where the Empirically Derived Balance Points (for the CBC-MC and PAPI-MC) or Mean Score (for the PPST, STC-EVAL, and STC-BEH) Constitutes the Balance Point | | |
| Sex | .28 | .924 |
| CBC-MC | .07 | .798 |
| PAPI-MC | .28 | .602 |
| PPST | .42 | .519 |
| STC-EVAL | .47 | .497 |
| STC-BEH | .02 | .881 |
| Adjustment | 1.15 | .351 |
| CBC-MC | .00 | .982 |
| PAPI-MC | 2.64 | .111 |
| PPST | .02 | .898 |
| STC-EVAL | .06 | .811 |
| STC-BEH | 3.09 | .086 |
| Sex x Adjustment | .40 | .848 |
| CBC-MC | .71 | .405 |
| PAPI-MC | .55 | .461 |
| PPST | .60 | .444 |
| STC-EVAL | .36 | .554 |
| STC-BEH | .03 | .865 |

[a]df for the comparisons were always 5, 41.

# APPENDIX T

Analysis of Variance of Children's Adjustment and Signed and Absolute IPS Scores When Children are Grouped According to Whether Both Parents are Perceptually Balanced, Similarly Biased, or Oppositely Biased on Their Respective CBC-M or PAPI-M IPS Scores

Table 11

Analysis of Variance of Children's Adjustment and Signed and Absolute IPS Scores When Children are Grouped According to Whether Both Parents are Perceptually Balanced, Similarly Biased, or Oppositely Biased on Their Respective CBC-M or PAPI-M IPS Scores[a]

| Source | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Children's Adjustment Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their CBC-M(M) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .0417 | .10 | .91 |
| Within groups | 21 | .4226 | | |
| Children's CBC-MC(M) (Signed) IPS Score When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their CBC-M(M) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .1775 | 1.11 | .35 |
| Within groups | 21 | .1606 | | |
| Children's CBC-MC(AM) (Absolute) IPS Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their CBC-M(M) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .1132 | 1.48 | .25 |
| Within groups | 21 | .0763 | | |

Table 11 (cont'd.)

| Source | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Children's Adjustment Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their CBC-M(E) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .0625 | .15 | .86 |
| Within groups | 29 | .4052 | | |
| Children's CBC-MC(E) (Signed) IPS Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their CBC-M(E) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .0691 | .45 | .64 |
| Within groups | 29 | .1542 | | |
| Children's CBC-MC(AE) (Absolute) IPS Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their CBC-M(E) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .1413 | 2.52 | .10 |
| Within groups | 29 | .0560 | | |
| Children's Adjustment Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their PAPI-M(M) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | .5677 | 1.63 | .21 |
| Within groups | 29 | .3477 | | |

# APPENDIX U

## Correlations and Partial Correlations of the Three Perceptual Accuracy Scores with Children's Signed and Absolute IPS and Reactive Style Scores, Sex, and Adjustment

Table 11 (cont'd.)

| Source | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Children's PAPI-MC(M) (Signed) IPS Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their PAPI-M(M) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | 119.7083 | .89 | .42 |
| Within groups | 29 | 134.8434 | | |
| Children's PAPI-MC(AM) (Absolute) IPS Scores When Grouped According to Parent Classification Based on Their PAPI-M(M) IPS Scores | | | | |
| Between groups | 2 | 106.9347 | 1.51 | .24 |
| Within groups | 29 | 70.7212 | | |

[a]Because fewer than five children had both parents classified as perceptually balanced when raw score zero on the CBC-M or PAPI-M or the empirically derived balance point on the PAPI-M were used to create parents' absolute scores, comparisons between child groups formed on the basis of these three parent balance points would have been inappropriate; thus, they are not presented here.

Table 12

Correlations and Partial Correlations of the Three Perceptual Accuracy Scores with Children's Signed and Absolute IPS and Reactive Style Scores, Sex, and Adjustment[ab]

| Children's Scores, Sex, & Adjustment | Perceptual Accuracy Scores | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | When Viewing the Child SPS | When Viewing the Adult SPS | Combined Scores |
| CBC-MC | .04 | -.16 | -.03 |
| PAPI-MC | .08 | -.14 | -.01 |
| PPST | .16 | -.21 | .03 |
| STC-EVAL | -.07 | -.05 | -.05 |
| STC-BEH | -.14 | -.13 | .22 |
| CBC-MC(A) | -.26 | .01 | -.22 |
| PPST(A) | -.05 | -.15 | -.10 |
| STC-EVAL(A) | .03 | .06 | .05 |
| CBC-MC(AM) | -.50** | -.21 | -.50** |
| PAPI-MC(AM) | .18 | -.01 | .10 |
| PPST(AM) | .00 | -.22 | .10 |
| STC-MC(AM) | .06 | -.15 | -.15 |
| STC-BEH(AM) | .13 | .10 | .16 |
| CBC-MC(AE) | -.46** | -.17 | -.42* |
| PAPI-MC(AE) | .21 | .08 | .18 |
| Sex | -.01 | .24 | -.11 |
| Adjustment | .20 | .46** | .39* |

[a]Absolute scores are indicated by an (A) following a measure's abbreviated name, e.g., CBC-MC(A), CBC-MC(AM).

[b]Correlations between perceptual accuracy and both balanced IPS and adjustment only are one-tailed.

*$p < .10$.

**$p < .05$.

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