The Effects of Congruence in Mother-Adolescent Communication, Dyadic Relationships, and Adolescent Self-Image on Adolescent Person Perception

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to examine intrafamily relationship variables which constitute the frame of reference for person perception. A model was proposed to conceptualize how the variables interact and influence the process. Specifically, the proposed model was developed to investigate how adolescent person perception is influenced by congruence between the mother and adolescent in: (a) communication, (b) dyadic relationships, and (c) adolescent self-image.

One hundred forty-six mother-adolescent dyads participated in the study. Fifty-nine males and 87 females ($\underline{M}$ = 14.6 years) represented the adolescent sample.

Two communication subscales from The Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale were used to measure mother-adolescent congruence: Open and Problem Family Communication (Barnes & Olson, 1982). Congruence in four aspects of dyadic relationships was measured with the Family Assessment Measure-Dyadic Relationship Scale (Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barbara, 1984). The four dyadic relationship subscales were: (a) task accomplishment, (b) role performance, (c) affective interaction,

and (d) control. Congruence between the adolescent's own self-image and the perception of the adolescent held by the mother was measured with The Offer Self-Image Questionnaire For Adolescents (Offer, 1977), and The Offer Parent-Adolescent Questionnaire (Offer, 1982). Adolescent person perception was measured using the Adapted Modified Role Reperatory Test-(AMRRT) (Vacc & Vacc, 1982).

The results indicated a significant path coefficient between mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image and adolescent person perception ability. Contrary to expected outcomes, high percentages of mother-adolescent congruence were associated with less self and other role differentiation by the adolescent and accounted for 6% of the total variance in the model. These data indicate that the unexpected high percentages of congruence occurring in the mother's and adolescent's perceptions of the adolescent's social self-image could have represented an enmeshed relationship, thus inhibiting the adolescent's self and other role differentiation. Additionally, the dispersion of scores on the AMRRT indicated possible random responding on the instrument by the adolescent which could have contributed to a large variance, and subsequently, the loss of path linkages in the proposed model.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction and Review of Literature

During the past thirty years the focus of person perception studies has been based primarily on two different theoretical frameworks: the cognitive-developmental and the social psychological. The cognitive-developmental framework has focused on the developmental changes that occur in person perception from early childhood through adolescence. The social psychological framework has focused on adult personality and its influence on person perception. Although different aspects of person perception have been explored from each theoretical framework, both utilize similar definitions in their studies. These definitions are: (1) the personal constructs that a person employs to describe the range of abilities, attitudes, interests, physical features, traits, and values perceived in the self and in others, (2) the complexity of one's perceptions of self and other persons (i.e., how individuals vary in the number of personal constructs they use to make self and other judgements and, (3) how persons differ in the number of differentiations that they make on a given personal construct.

The literature reviewed indicated that, in spite of theoretical differences, a common assumption of person perception is identifiable. It is assumed that the perceptions children form of people who have some psychological significance for them are likely to set a pattern for the development of their self-image and style of social interaction. It is assumed that such

perceptions contribute to their frame of reference for understanding other people throughout their lifespan.

Past studies have assumed that intrafamily relationships provide the frame of reference for one's development of person perception. This has been a recognized and reocurring theme identified in the person perception literature. However, few studies have been undertaken to identify the intrafamily relationship variables which seem to influence the child's ability to perceive and understand the self and others. For the purpose of filling this void the following study was developed.

The purpose of this study was to examine intrafamily relationship variables which constitute the frame of reference for person perception. These variables were assumed to directly or indirectly influence person perception. A proposed model was used to conceptualize how the variables interact and influence the process. Specifically, the proposed model investigated how congruence between the mother and adolescent in communication, dyadic relationships, and adolescent self-image influence adolescent person perception.

Person Perception

Past research concerning person perception has been based primarily upon two major theoretical frameworks: social psychological and cognitive-developmental. The first focuses on various aspects of the adult personality and the latter on its sequential development through childhood and early adolescence.

The social psychological perspective, based on theories of

personality, focuses on specific interpersonal aspects of person perception. These studies include investigations of cognitive differentiation and integration (Werner, 1948, 1957, 1961), impression formation (Asch, 1946, 1952, 1958), implicit personality theory (Bruner & Tagiuri, 1954; Rodgers, 1974; Rosenberg, 1977), personal constructs (Bieri, 1955; Kelly, 1955, 1967), cognitive complexity (Bieri, 1955, 1958; Bieri, et al., 1966; Vacc & Burt, 1980; Vacc & Greenleaf, 1975), attribution processes (Heider, 1944, 1958; Heider & Simmel, 1944) and self-other attribution (Bem, 1965, 1967, 1972; Bem & Allen, 1974; Goldberg, 1978; Jones, 1976; Jones & Nisbett, 1972; Kelly, 1967).

Studies from the cognitive developmental perspective were focused on the growth of the children's cognitions about their social worlds. These studies have examined the development of empathy (Hoffman, 1978, 1981; Rothenberg, 1970), role or perspective taking (Abrahams, 1979; Chandler, 1977; Flavell, 1974; Selman, 1980; Selman & Byrne, 1974), moral consciousness (Kohlberg, 1976; Smetana, 1985; Turiel, 1983), social attachment (Bowlby, 1982; Maccoby, 1980; Maccoby & Masters, 1970), friendship (Damon, 1977), self-conceptions (Damon & Hart, 1982; Maccoby, 1980; Rotenberg, 1982), parent-child relationships (Belsky, Lerner, & Spanier, 1984; Maccoby, 1980; Maccoby & Masters, 1970), and other aspects of social-cognitive growth.

Recent studies incorporating both frameworks of person perception have examined developmental changes in children's development in regard to the following: (a) recognition of

attributes (Peevers & Secord, 1973; Rholes & Ruble, 1984; (b) concept organization and complexity (Barenboim, 1977, 1981; Chambers, 1983; Vacc & Burt, 1980; Vacc & Greenleaf, 1975), (c) differentiation between acquaintances and nonacquaintances (Barratt, 1977; Higgins, Feldman, & Ruble, 1980; Goldberg, 1978; Scarlett, Press & Crockett, 1971), (d) stereotypic thinking (Chambers, 1985a; Heller & Berndt, 1981), (e) observation of actions and intentionality in prescribing dispositions (Barenboim, 1981; Jones & Nesbitt, 1972; Rotenberg, 1980; Smetana, 1985), and (f) stability and consistency in giving person attributes (Chambers, 1985c; DiVitto & McArthur, 1978; MacLennan & Jackson, 1985). The findings of the studies consistently indicated that children's judgments of another person's attributes become increasingly psychological, intentional, dispositional, differentiated, and organized with age.

One classic investigation on the developmental aspects of person perception was conducted by Livesley and Bromley (1973). Their study involved 320 English children, ages 7 to 16. Content analysis procedures were used to examine age changes in children's written descriptions of people in their life. Two broad categories of person perception were examined: (a) peripheral or external aspects of others, such as appearance, name, age, sex, routine habits, possessions, social roles, and such; and (b) central or psychological aspects of others that were more abstract, inferential, and differentiated, such as personality traits, motives, values, and attitudes.

The findings of the study by Livesley and Bromley (1973) indicated that the number and proportion of central statements made by the children generally increases with age and, more importantly, there is a significant increase in the use of psychological statements occurring between 7.6 and 8.6-years-of-age. This change combined with changes in three other measurements at the same age span (number of categories used, the use of traits, and the use of qualifying and organizing terms) led them to designate the 8th year as a critical point in the development of person perception.

The significant difference occurring in person perception between the ages of 7 and 9 is represented in the following two examples. The first, a 7-year-old's description of another boy:

> He is very tall. He has dark brown hair, he goes to our school. I don't think he has any brothers or sisters. He is in our class. Today he has a dark orange jumper and grey trousers and brown shoes. (Livesley & Bromley, 1973, p. 217)

The 7-year-old's description contains no reference to the other boy's personal qualities or attributes but rather focuses on stereotypical physical appearance, physical surroundings and family relationships. The person is perceived in terms of his environmental circumstances, that is, the person is what he owns and where he lives. Such global evaluative terms are generally used by children age 7 and younger.

At 9 years of age the perceptions of others are significantly different as depicted in this example of a 9-year-old's

description of a classmate:

> He smells very much and is very nasty. He has no sense of humor and is very dull. He is always fighting and he is cruel. He does silly things and is very stupid.... He has a croaky voice and always chews his pencil and picks his teeth and I think he is disgusting. (Livesley & Bromley, 1973, p. 217)

At this age there is a shift that occurs toward relatively more abstract and inferential concepts, such as the regularities in behavior of a person, traits, abilities, and characteristics. More categories and organizing terms are used in the description of others; for example, "...always fighting and he is cruel" or "...does silly things and he is disgusting". These descriptions reflect the 9-year-old's integration of perceptions toward a more covert orientation of the other, that is, values and beliefs "...he is disgusting."

Livesley and Bromley (1973) examined age changes in person perception into late adolescence. Their results showed no significant changes in person descriptions after age eight for the number of categories used. However, significant increases in the use of qualifying terms (occasionally, sometimes, or quite) and organizing terms occurred during adolescence, with 12-to-14-year olds. The adolescent's organizing terms included implicit and explicit explanations of the person's behaviors and specifications of how traits are displayed and in what situations. These findings suggested that during early adolescence one becomes

"...less stimulus oriented to the surface aspects of people and increasingly abstracts regularities or differentations across time and situations, and infers motives for behavior." (Livesley & Bromley, 1973, p. 174). As an example, consider the following description of a 15-year-old adolescent's perception of a friend:

> Andy is very modest. He is even shyer than I am when near strangers and yet is very talkative with people he knows and likes. He always seems good tempered and I have never seen him in a bad temper. He tends to degrade other people's achievements, and yet never praises his own.... He easily get nervous. (p. 221)

This is an important change because qualifying and organizing terms used by the adolescent reflect their understanding of causal networks in which neither very general trait attributions nor total situational factors are adequate. Instead, it reflects a situation and person interaction (Barenboim, 1977, 1981; Rotenberg, 1980).

In summation, the developmental changes in person perception occur as follows: (a) prior to 7-or-8-years-of-age, the child conceives and interprets other persons largely in terms of the physical environment and observable behavior; (b) during middle childhood, 9-to-10-years-of-age, persons are perceived more in terms of traits and personality characteristics; and (c) by the onset of adolescence, a more integrated and abstract perception emerges in which people and their behavior are often seen as a combined function of personal characteristics, intentionality, and

situational factors (Barenboim, 1977, 1981; Barratt, 1977; Hortacsu, 1987; O'Mahony, 1986b; Peevers & Secord, 1973).

IQ and Person Perception. Early research by Dymond (1949) showed that subjects scoring high on accuracy in predicting and judging others tended to have higher performance IQ's on the Wechsler-Bellevue Adult Intelligence Scale. Dymond had students rate fellow members of the small groups into which a college class had been divided. She employed the following six traits in the ratings: (a) superior-inferior, (b) friendly-unfriendly, (c) leader-follower, (d) shy-self-assured, (e) sympathetic-unsympathetic, and (f) secure-insecure. Each subject was asked: (a) to rate one's self on each trait, (b) to rate another person on each trait, (c) to predict what rating the other gave one's self, and (d) to predict what rating the other gave to him or her self. Two scores were obtained for each subject. First, the difference between prediction of the other's self-rating (c) and the other's actual self-rating (a), and second, the difference between prediction of the other's rating of the subject (d) and, the other's actual rating of the subject (b). Dymond reasoned that since both measurements involved the subject's abilities to take the role of the other person and predict responses, both must measure empathic ability; thus the two scores were summed to provide a Deviation Score. The greater the Deviation Score, the less accurate was the subject in making predictions about the reactions of others. Dymond found the more empathetic and more differentiating subjects tended to have higher

IQ's.

Gollin (1954) measured approximately 700 elementary and secondary students, ages 8 to 18, on their organizational characteristics of social judgement. Also analyzed were the effects of the subjects' social backgrounds (fathers' vocation), IQ scores, and sex. The subjects viewed a five-scene silent movie presenting the behavior of a boy in four differing situations. The subjects were instructed to write descriptions of their opinions (judgements) about the boy. Content analysis on the written statements were then used to tap the use of inference (psychological) statements and concept statements (attempts to account for diversity of behaviors). The subjects IQ scores ranged from 80 to 135. Subjects were placed in two groups; those scoring above an IQ of 108 and those scoring below an IQ of 107. The subjects in each group were further divided into three subgroups based on chronological age: (a) 10.7-years, (b) 13.6-years, and (c) 16.6-years.

Gollin's study showed that in the oldest age group (16.6-years) neither sex nor IQ category produces much variability in the use of inference and concept statements. In the 13.6-age group the males in the low IQ subgroup significantly trailed the low IQ females by 20% in their use of psychological inference statements and in accounting for the diversity of behaviors (concept statements) viewed in the movie. Females in both high and low subgroups exceed males significantly in the same subgroups in the use of inference and concept statements. In the youngest

age group (10.7) subjects in the upper IQ subgroup significantly exceeded subjects in the lower category in the use of inference statements, but at this age no prominent sex differences were found.

Livesley and Bromley (1973) drew conclusions in their study which were similar to Gollin (1954). Their results consistently showed that children of higher intelligence used more central (psychological) statements than those of lower intelligence, particularly at older ages. Recent developmental studies by Baronboim (1981) and O'Mahony (1986b) continue to support past findings concerning the role of intelligence in person perception ability. However, these findings are applicable only to those studies using content analysis (written descriptions) to tap person perception.

Sex and Person Perception. As aforementioned, Gollin (1954) showed that significant differences occur between males and females in the use of inference and concept statements. With the exception of the youngest group of subjects (10.7-years), females used significantly more inference and concept statements. However, later studies (Goldberg, 1978; Peevers & Secord, 1973; Scarlet, Press, & Crockett, 1971) showed that boys and girls tend not to differ in their person descriptions. Similar findings in person perception research continued into the late 1970's. For example, Goldberg (1978) showed that more psychological statements were used by children in describing males than females, but no sex differences were found for describers. That is, boys and girls

tended not to differ in the ways they described others at each age but whether children were describing males or females did influence descriptions.

Barenboim's (1981) developmental study of person perception from childhood through adolescence confirmed prevous findings. His studies specifically examined age and sex related changes in how children go from behavioral comparisons to psychological constructs to psychological comparisons. The results indicated a child's sex has tended to be either statistically nonsignificant or inconsistent in respect to affecting the use of behavioral and psychological constructs in person perception. This finding holds true regardless of the individual's age.

Social Background and Person Perception. Gollin's (1954) study showed that social background influenced the subject's use of inference and concept statements. The Minnesota Scale for Paternal Occupations was used to categorize subjects into six paternal occupation categories. These categories served as an index of social background status. The subjects were then categorized by age, sex, father's occupation, and matched for intelligence. With the exception of the youngest age group (10.7), male and female subjects in categories having fathers with vocations requiring a college or graduate degree used significantly more inference and concept statements. Similarly, Livesley and Bromley (1973) and Scarlet et al. (1971) showed that subjects over age 10 and who came from lower SES families used significantly fewer content (psychological) statements than

subjects from higher SES families. Thus, factors associated with social background appear to influence the mode of organization of one's personal construct development and person perception ability.

Self-Other Differentiation in Person Perception. Another method of studying person perception focuses on self-other differentiation and its role in the development of person perception. For example, the young child, in contrast to the middle-school child and adolescent, seems not to be able to differentiate clearly the following: (a) a person as a psychological being separate from the physical surrounding, (b) a person's outside appearances from one's inward characteristics (e.g. looking happy; feeling sad), (c) one's conceptions of a person (e.g. the person is as I conceive that person), and (d) a person having both good and bad characteristics or contradictory tendencies (e.g., the person is either good or bad, not both) (Flavell, 1985).

Young children's self-other differentiations are similar to how they perceive and think about their nonsocial-physical world, based on the cognitive-developmental model of Jean Piaget (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969) and the social developmental theory of Heinz Werner (1961). Accordingly, younger children tend to be "stimulus bound" (Shantz, 1983a, p. 507), not differentiating appearance and reality. During middle childhood, the differentiations begin to occur and stabilize. This differentiation process is characterized by a child's shift from egocentric to other-oriented

descriptions of others (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Egocentrism is defined as the child's ability to differentiate from personally oriented descriptions to third-party observer descriptions. As the child grows, outward and observable characteristics (behaviors) are supplemented with inferences about the other's attitudes, beliefs, abilities, and motives (i.e., psychological constructs). Last, the way their traits are expressed in different situations becomes differentiated from global evaluative and global personality attributions commonly used at the earlier age (Barenboim, 1977, 1981; Peevers & Secord, 1973; Scarlett et al., 1971; Smetana, 1985).

From the social psychology point of view, this developmental process of differentiation is best examined using the adult personality model of G.A. Kelly (1955, 1967, 1973). Kelly believes that people expect different schemata to be appropriate for explaining different person types and the context in which particular events occur. Compatible with the models of Piaget and Werner, Kelly's adult personality model is based on the concept that human personality development has at its roots the movement toward greater cognitive differentiation of an individual's interpersonal environment and personal construct system.

Kelly (1967, 1973) argued that each individual uses three types of information in assigning the causality of an event to the person, to the self, or to circumstances: (a) consensus, (b) consistency, and (c) distinctiveness. In addition, each type of information is differentiated by the individual into a high versus

low causality perspective. Thus, high versus low consensus refers to the similarity or dissimilarity of the other person's behavior toward yourself, while high versus low consistency refers to the similarity or dissimilarity of the other's behavior toward yourself over time, and high versus low distinctiveness refers to the presence or absence of differentiation in the other person's behavior in relation to different circumstances. These particular patterns of information are associated with characteristic attributes to person, self, and circumstance; these patterns (schemata) are said to be acquired as a result of one's social experience. According to this view, one's attributions are made by comparing available information with the pattern of information associated with each schema, and then assigning causality to the factor corresponding to the most similar schemata. The two developmental studies of DiVito and McArthur (1978) and Rholes and Walters (1982), based on Kelly's premise, suggested that neither of these three schemata exist before age 9, and that other-person and circumstance schemata develop earlier than the self-schemata.

Some of these findings were further supported in a study by Rholes and Ruble (1984) concerning the child's understanding of dispositional characteristics of others. The results indicated that it is not until 7 or 8 years-of-age that the child achieves three critical milestones in understanding others: (a) the realization that other's actions are caused by the others themselves, (b) the realization that other's actions are guided by intentions, and (c) the realization that others behave in

predictable and consistent ways. The specific age at which the change occurs may vary considerably as a function of different stimulus factors. These factors, the emergence of self-evaluation and family relationship patterns, to name a few, will be discussed later in the literature review.

The social psychologist's explanations of the self-other differentiation process shows strong similarities to Piaget's cognitive developmental model of decentration. The decentration process has generally been shown to begin in the child's transition between preoperational and concrete operational thinking, but to be not fully developed until after the middle school years (Flavell, 1985; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). In fact, the younger children's self-descriptions lack the same personal-psychological constructs given in their descriptions of others (Guardo & Bohan, 1971; Shantz, 1983a). For example, the child acquires, with age and maturation, the sense of individual distinction and separation clearly differentiated from all others. The child will learn that one's own distinct physical properties (hair, voice quality, body build) are different from those of other people, and one's distinct psychological being (a person, a self), is distinguished from all fellow psychological beings. The child will gradually understand and perceive oneself as a unique, singular identity ("me"-"I") as development occurs and with those physical and psychological changes that time brings (Selman, 1980).

Thus, through comparisons with others, the child will

distinguish between personal attributes (constructs) that are available and applicable, and those that are lacking. The result is a differentiated psychological profile of the "self". These differentiations will, in time, lead to a greater or lesser understanding of one's actual self, ideal self, and others in the environment. Through the natural developmental process, one's personal constructs of the self becomes less global and more differentiated with age (Damon & Hart, 1982; Livesley & Bromley, 1973; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Rotenberg, 1982; Vacc & Greenleaf, 1975; Werner, 1961).

Cognitive Complexity-Simplicity in Person Perception. Recent research has examined the development of self-other and within-self differentiation in person perception from the concept of cognitive complexity-simplicity. Cognitive complexity-simplicity, an information-processing variable which is unrelated to intelligence (Bieri, 1955; Mayo & Crockett, 1964; Mitchell, 1972), is based on the personal contruct theory of Kelly (1955). This variable is a construct designed to reflect a person's structuring of the social world. Cognitive complexity-simplicity is intended to reflect the relative differentiation of a person's system of dimensions for construing self and others' behavior, or the person's capacity to construe social behavior in a multidimensional way. That is, a more cognitively complex person has a more differentiated system of dimensions for perceiving another's behavior than does a less cognitively complex individual (Bieri, 1955; Bieri et al., 1966;

Chambers, 1983, 1985a, 1985b; Chambers & Epting, 1985; Chambers, Carlock, Olson, & Olson, 1986).

Based on Kelly's premise that a person's social cognitive processes are psychologically channeled by the ways in which events are anticipated, cognitive complexity-simplicity examines a personal construct as a dimension for predicting and construing the way in which persons are alike and different from self and others. Bieri (1955) found that when subjects performed tasks involving prediction of behavior in a series of twelve common social situations, the relationship between cognitive complexity and two scores of predictive accuracy was significant. In the study, two independent components of the accuracy measure were isolated: (a) accurate perceived differences and; (b) inaccurate projection. The results indicated that cognitive complexity was significantly related to the accurate perception of differences between self and the other person (accurate perceived differences), and the cognitively simple subjects tended to perceive unwarranted similarities between themselves and others (inaccurate projection). The results suggested a difference in the mode of processing person perception information between the cognitively complex and the cognitively simple individual. This difference continues to be observed in subsequent studies.

Leventhal (1962) also found that cognitively complex individuals tended to judge another person more accurately than did less cognitively complex individuals. More importantly, research has stressed that cognitively simple individuals respond

more to the outer, normative quality of another's behavior, while cognitively complex individuals search for information concerning inner psychological states of the other person. Such an external versus internal orientation in judgement was previously cited in content analyses research (Livesley & Bromley, 1973; Schneider, Hastorf, & Ellsworth, 1979) concerning the developmental changes occurring in self-other differentiation and person perception.

Accordingly, Scott (1963) indicated that cognitively complex subjects were less likely than simple ones to see the world in dichotomized terms. For example, Scott showed that in written descriptions of others, cognitively simple subjects were more inclined to describe the other as either completely favorable or unfavorable. In support of Scott, Crockett (1965) found cognitively complex subjects had a greater capacity to tolerate contradictory information about a single person. The cognitvely complex person appears to be able to live with the fact that people can be contradictory, for example, an honest person can on occasion do an unkind thing or be charming. An implication of this is that the cognitively complex person has more categories of judgements and more dimensions within each category to be used in the perceptions of others. And inversely, the cognitively simple person will be likely to rate others as extreme because he has fewer categories and dimensions of judgment. In fact, research by Hastorf, Schneider, and Polefka (1970) indicated that the extremely simple subject may often use only one category (good-bad) in judging people, thus placing others in only one or

the other of those dimensions. Conversely, the cognitively complex person has more categories and dimensions regarding people, and makes finer differentiations along each dimension. And last, of related interest, Hastorf found cognitive simplicity related to authoritarianism.

Other characteristics of cognitive complexity-simplicity were shown by Mayo and Crockett (1964) who found that cognitively simple subjects showed large recency effects in person perceptions. That is, they reacted to favorable information with very favorable impressions and then, when presented later with negative information, became quite negative in their impressions. The cognitively complex subjects, on the other hand, became less extreme when they encountered the new information and achieved a final impression which was a balance of the two kinds of information. In a similar study, Leventhal and Singer (1964) also reported data which showed that cognitively simple subjects changed more with disconfirming evidence.

The studies reviewed indicate that in adolescents and adults, less differentiated constructs result in extreme and often inaccurate interpretations of other's behaviors and traits. That is, the individual has difficulty in selecting accurate person perceptions across circumstances, which are due, in part, to their limited constructs or an inability to differentiate existing dimensions within their personal construct system. Also, there appear to be strong similarities between the cognitively simple adult and the younger preoperational or early concrete-operational

child in their use of personal dimensions. This suggests that a developmental process is involved in cognitive complexity-simplicity, and that other influences come into play in the development of personal constructs to account for the conceptual differences exhibited in adolescence and adulthood.

To examine this developmental process, Barenboim (1977) combined the use of content analysis with a cognitive complexity-simplicity measure to tap the developmental changes in cognitive complexity-simplicity in person perception from middle childhood to adolescence. He used Bieri's et al. (1966) Role Construct Repertory Test, known as the Rep Test, to explore the relationship between construct differentiation (cognitive complexity-simplicity) and those organizing relationships represented by the subjects written descriptions (content analysis). Barenboim hypothesized that, with increasing age, there should be an increase in scores derived from the Repgrid, hence showing a strong positive relationship to the increase in organizing relationships used by children as found by Livesley and Bromley's (1973) research. Barenboim stated:

> The expectations concerning the relationship between the Repgrid dependent measures and the proportion of organizing relationships were largely confirmed. The construct differentiation measure [Rep Test] did relate overall to the proportion of organizing relationships, but was most strongly related within the 12-year-old group and subsequently ceased to be an effective predictor of performance on the organizing

relationships measure. Such a finding is congruent with the notion that the basic differentiation of psychological constructs, one from another, is no longer a major developmental process within the post-middle-childhood interpersonal cognitive system. (p.1473)

In an earlier study, Vacc and Greenleaf (1975) modified the Bieri et al. (1966) Rep Test. Their modified version, the Adapted Modified Role Reperatory Test (AMRRT), was designed to be used with a younger population. Using this instrument, Vacc and Greenleaf examined the sequential development of cognitive complexity-simplicity in approximately 451 subjects ranging from grades three to nine and 83 adult subjects. These findings indicated significant grade and age differences in cognitive complexity between each age/grade group, with the exception of the 9th-grade group and the adults. In fact, the age trends indicated that with maturity children become cognitively more complex with a plateau occurring in the adolescent and adult age group. Therefore, development is accompanied by more complex and differentiated social perceptions with the system continually developing and expanding until the onset of formal operational thinking in the emerging adolescent (Barenboim, 1981). Vacc and Greenleaf concluded that "...the more limited construct system of children may be due perhaps to the more confined environment of a child" (p. 321).

The studies reviewed above seem to indicate that the developmental process involved in self and other construct

differentiation in cognitive complexity-simplicity is congruent with the developmental process of person perception found when using content analysis procedures. In fact, the two processes seem to develop in parallel with each other. Also, studies indicated the family environment may facilitate or hinder this developmental process (Bieri et al., 1966; Varma & Krishnan, 1986). Considering social cognitive development, it seems plausible that the child would be receptive to input concerning self and other distinctions from family members in the preoperational and concrete operational stages. During this transitional period, categories and dimensions of one's personal construct system are being organized and internalized. Later, with the emergence of formal operations, the construct system should become increasingly implicit with a greater ability to accurately differentiate constructs across circumstances (Barenboim, 1981; Bieri, 1965; Kelly, 1967).

Self-Concept and Person Perception. Research has indicated that self-concept plays a crucial part in the person perception differentiation process. Bender and Hastorf (1953) stated that "...the ability to judge people represents an important social talent that is represented by the individual's understanding of self and, sequentially, their ability to perceive and predict the behavior, thoughts and feelings of the other person" (p. 556). Similarly, Bronfenbrenner (1958) indicated that "...the emergence of self influences the process of acquiring a role, in the emergence of insight, in communication, in the integration of a

group and in the internalization of social norms" (p. 32). Other components (e.g. communication, insight, role integration) also influence person perception. These factors play an integral part in the parent-child relationship and the child's person perception development. This latter issue will be discussed in more detail later.

The literature has indicated a common theoretical consensus that a person's self-concept development directly influences how one comes to know about others. However, there is very limited empirical research specifically relating self-concept with person perception. Guardo and Bohan (1971) examined age-related changes in frequency of statements expressed by children about covert thoughts and feelings toward stimulus material similar to those used in the TAT (Thematic Apperception Technique). In examining the statements it was discovered that the expressions contained similar shifts from physical to covert state descriptors as in the self-referential statements of 6-through 9-year-old children.

Lemon and Warren (1974) showed that the salient or nonsalient traits one has given in the judgements of another automatically involve a kind of implicit self-comparison process in which relevant information is selected because the perceiver uses it to characterize the self. The authors suggested that "...this seems to us a neglected aspect of the dynamics of person perception: we shall refer to it as self-relevance" (p. 119). In their study, they used content analysis on the subjects' descriptive writings and a bipolar self-evaluative instrument incorporating fifteen

inference traits (e.g. cautious, sociable, gentle, anxious, careless, etc.) to measure self-relevance. The subjects were asked to infer from their own salient or non-salient traits to a number of inference traits written of other's, and also the reverse, to infer from the others inference traits to those of their own. The authors hypothesized that: (a) salient traits are more central than non-salient traits, in that they allow more definite inferences to other traits, and (b) salient traits are more self-relevant than non-salient traits. Results indicated that salient traits permit significantly wider or more definite extrapolation beyond the information given and they facilitate self-other comparison (i.e., infer more self-associative information than non-salient traits). The authors concluded that "...the self-relevance of salient constructs will entail that the 'self' (as an object) be judged in a clear-cut way on dimensions. If judgements of others involve, as we suggest, an implicit self comparison, the self-construct will act as an anchoring-point to produce the effects of assimilation and contrast. Clearly, the more extreme the rating of self the greater the polarization along the construct dimension" (p.121). This seems to indicate that the decentration of self is essential in the development of person perception: It allows for a wider range of self-relevant traits in one's categories and dimensions used to describe self and others.

Kuiper and Rogers (1979) examined the self and other differences in processing personal information by having subjects

make self-referent (describes you?) or other-referent (describes experimenter?) ratings of personal adjectives. Results showed that self-ratings were consistently judged as easier to make, and the subjects always placed more confidence in these judgements. This is due, in part, to findings that self-referent processing involves the self as a highly organized and efficient schema while other-referent processing, in comparison, requires processes involving more rehearsal and effort. Thus, the self-referent (self-concept) primarily serves as a base in processing information concerning our perception of others. Contrarily, other-referent perceptions seem to require more practice and clarification from the environment (e.g., family, friends). This finding supports the hypothesis that a strong self-concept may play a crucial role in the achievement of person perception. In fact, it seems to act as a foundation from which one's other-person descriptions are compared and contrasted.

Gara and Rosenberg (1979), in studying the personal constructs of 14 college undergraduates, identified two types of persons: (a) those to whom many different personal attributes were applied, and (b) those who attracted a more limited set of attributes. These two classes of persons were named supersets and subsets, respectively. Supersets (those who received ascriptions from many different categories, such as behavorial, psychological, physical) were always significantly related to the describer (subject) as measured by ratings of closeness, self-disclosure, concern for approval, range of interaction, and other indices.

Parents, lovers, and close friends were often supersets whereas subsets (those who attracted a more limited set of categories) were more casual acquaintances. The most common superset was the self in 8 out of 14 cases. The authors suggested that persons who fall into the superset category are pivotal in person conception and that observation of these persons provides descriptive categories which are then used in thinking about other persons. Thus, the self and interactions with significant others seem to influence the complexity of one's personal construct system (i.e., categories, dimensions) used in person perception.

Higgins, Feldman, and Ruble (1980) have made a similar analysis of social perception and self. They argued that social perception is organized around prototypes, persons who are particularly salient members of certain social categories, and that inferences about members of these various categories proceed by analogy with these particular salient individuals. For example, "...a parent might be taken as the [child's] prototype for the category of grown ups and questions relating to the behavior of adults judged in relation to this particular individual" (p. 504). Higgins et al. (1980) suggested that the self might be a prototype in this way, that is, serving as a reference from which to judge particular others as similar or dissimilar, and so forth.

These findings encouraged O'Mahony (1986a) to examine the functions of self-related thinking in the development of social conceptions of others. Freely written descriptions of self and

various others were elicited from 190 school children 13-to-17-years-old. A measure of common dimensions and concepts between self and other descriptions called projection was defined. Significant postive correlations were found between projection and the length of self and other descriptions, percentage of differentiating/dispositonal items in self and other descriptions, and percentage of qualifying items in the self description. Results indicated a significantly greater amount of projection of self description than other description. O'Mahony concluded from the results of Gara and Rosenberg (1979) and Higgins et al. (1980) as follows:

> These two examinations of projection (independently formulated) are very similar. They agree with the account presented earlier in postulating that social perception may proceed by analogy with the self, and in taking a positive view of the process. However, these accounts and mine attach different amounts of importance to the self. My account stresses the primacy of the self in social conception, whereas Gara and Rosenberg (1979) and Higgins et. al. (1980) argue that other persons may serve the same functions as the self in social conception. Most likely, use of the self as prototype will be a function of a number of factors, for example: type of social-judgmental task, nature of the relationship between judge and judged, and age of judge. (p. 504)

The child's developing self-concept and significant others in the

child's life play an important and crucial role in the development of a personal construct system and person perception. Consequently, what a child perceives in the social world is best conceived of as a joint function of the characteristics of the perceiver and the characteristics of the perceived.

Parent-Child Relationships

The above review of person perception has focused on the involvement of a child's own mental processes in construct development and differentiation processes. However, Shantz (1983a) suggested that there are other influences in the child's acquisition of inferences about psychological states and processes:

> ...the environment has been largely neglected. For example, the impact of the ways in which others interpret events to the child or the impact of formal schooling appear irrelevant to mental development. In short, the child is viewed as too captive to her own mental processes, with little appreciation of the influence of the social environment and the essential social nature of mental processes. (p. 509)

Thus, person perception develops as a reciprocal process of environmental and social interaction between self and others involving the communication of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors. According to Hastorf, Schneider, & Polefka (1970), such reciprocity in sharing perspectives most likely begins within the family context. The following was their statement concerning the development of person perception:

> Although there are no specific answers, it is likely that aspects of implicit personality theories [person perception] are learned all through the socialization process. Parents may point out the joint occurrence of traits in various individuals or may often repeat such abstract phrases as "...cleanliness is next to godliness." Many of the relationships between traits are probably inferred by the individual after he has noted repeated joint occurances of characteristics in his encounters with other people; for example, he may have observed that churchgoers appear to be well scrubbed. (p. 47)

Research by Shaver (1975) and Rotenberg (1982) has indicated that the child's cognitive ability interacts with social experience in determining the acquisition of cross-situational judgements of others or, as they prefer, character constancy. That is, as the child grows up, there is a tendency for the child to have increased social interaction within the family as well as with others, particularly peers. This increase in social interaction poses the child with increasing variablity in, and uncertainty over, other's behavior. Consequently, the parent-child relationship is likely to provide the child with an explanation of other's behavior and serve as a basis for predicting future behavior of others. Moreover, this parent-child attribution process would provide the basis, for example, of deciding who was mean and who was kind, and correspondingly, who to avoid or approach in the future. That is, parents play a

primary role in the child's development of accurate personal constructs or schemas used in person perception. The parent-child relationship also contributes to the development of the child's character constancy of self. When encountering different adults or peers, a child may be pressured to define one's own disposition, which would then lead to further self and other differentiation and interaction. For example, in the course of an interaction with a peer, the child might need to convey either verbally or behaviorally that "I am a nice boy or girl and you will probably like to play with me" (Rotenberg, 1982, p. 515). The child may derive self-characteristics from a summation of previous self-behavior. This summation of previous behavior has, in part, been guided and clarified by parent-child communication and interaction. Initially, the development of person perception occurs through the socialization process between the parent and the child. Specifically, the child's ability to apply traits, dispositions, and abstract phrases is developed through the child's observations and life experiences with the parents and in the family setting. Studies have focused on four specific aspects of the family's interpersonal interactions which seems to influence the development of person perception: (a) quality of parent-child affective involvement (Hoffman, 1983; Selman, 1980; Smetana, 1985), (b) feedback on performance in trait-inference tasks (Bieri et al., 1966; Higgins, Feldman, & Ruble, 1980; Kuiper & Rogers, 1979; Lay, 1970; MacLennon & Jackson, 1985; Strasburger & Jackson, 1977; Varma & Krishnan, 1986), (c) role development

within the family setting (Shantz, 1983a; Shaw & Costanzo, 1970; Steinhauer, Santa-Barbara, & Skinner, 1984), and (d) learned rules of behavior and control issues (Hoffman, 1983; Light, 1979; Livesley & Bromely, 1973; Rotenberg, 1982).

Affective Involvement. The degree of parent-child affective involvement plays a major role in the child's perception of others. Person experiences, perhaps more so than other types of experiences, are the focus of intense and complex feelings and motives. These affective processes must be regarded as main determinants of our impressions of self and others. Livesley and Bromley (1973) indicated that:

> ...mechanisms underlying impression formation has centered on the cognitive aspects of social construing; emotion has received little attention although it clearly plays an important part" (p. 43).

Other studies confirmed the important role parent-child affective involvement has in the development of the child. In fact, many researchers indicated this lack of affective involvement or interaction may distort our perceptions of others (Belsky et al., 1984; Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Flavell, 1985; Maccoby, 1984). For example, consider the need for a parent to clarify for an upset and guilt ridden 6-year-old that angry feelings toward parents do not erase affectionate feelings for them. This parent-child affective interaction may help the child accept and reconsider not only previously unexpressed anger from a prior context, but also may clarify his or her conceptualization

of the relationship among self and other attributes at a higher developmental level. That is, from a globally described behavior of being "bad" for having angry feelings at the parents, to an understanding of within self psychological inference that sometimes one can have two simultaneous but contrary feelings influencing their perception of an event or another. The parent-child relationship based upon mutual affectionate interaction, which is matched to the child's developmental level, may not only insure greater comprehension and acceptance of the affective content of the exchange, but may also foster change in interpersonal and intrapsychic understanding of self and others as well. Indeed, children often present conflicts and dilemmas related to their lives that can be used as a "springboard to developmentally provocative [affective] dialogues and interactions" (Selman, 1980, p. 207).

Selman (1980) has also indicated that once a child understands complex processing about the self, that is, that evaluations of the self as a whole can be differentiated from evaluations of a specific aspect of one's function, an "affective confusion" about such issues may still be evidenced by the child. Clarification of this "affective confusion" often depends on the parent giving the child the chance to both express their feelings and act upon them in order to test the correctness of their orientations to self and others within the security of the family. This applies to the child's interpretations of peer behavior and attributes as well, which provides the opportunity for more

accurate predictions in cross-situational settings.

Parent-child affective interaction also plays a major role in the development of person perception in conjunction with the process of moral internalization. Hoffman (1983) has indicated that attribution theory, in part, explains how a child internalizes self and other attributes, traits, and behaviors to moral and immoral actions. For example, parents who give inductive information concerning their emotions and explain how and why an emotion is aroused will contribute to the moral rule at hand being internalized by the child. Thus, when a child is disciplined for behaviors affecting either the self or others, these parents are more likely to exchange information concerning the behavior, clarify misrepresented application of traits to self or others, and correct faulty attributes. Communicating defined emotions with appropriate affective interaction helps children understand and consider others by defining appropriate personal constructs for the situation. This, in turn, encourages the child to internalize the rule and to become increasingly differentiated and accurate in observational learning in future contexts.

In a related study, Smetana (1985) examined the relationship between children's developmental differences in person impressions and their understanding of moral and/or social transgressions, that is, how and why different aged children applied different behavioral descriptions and/or psychological impressions to others depending on the severity of the transgression. Her findings confirmed that conceptual differences in person impression ability

do exist in children. Her results also indicated that the child's behavioral descriptions and/or psychological impressions of others are influenced by the distinctions between the moral and social conventional characteristics of the act. It is likely that through parent-child and peer interactions the child learns to differentiate the moral and social conventional rules. These rules play a major role in child's application of attributes and psychological traits to self and others.

Smetana believes parents begin differentiating between the moral and social conventional rules at a very young age. In fact, parents who foster affective interaction and who stress accuracy in giving attributions to self and others appropriate to moral and social conventional rules will be encouraging the child's personal construct development. In turn, only in extreme emotional situations will the child be influenced to overgeneralize the application of these attributes leading to a misinterpretation of the other person and, perhaps, erroneous personal construct development. The parent-child relationship which promotes the child sharing the parent's point of view and expressing associated feelings in a situation motivates the child to examine self and other perceptions and accurately internalize appropriate standards for judging of others (Hoffman, 1983; Smetana, 1985).

Trait Inference Tasks. Within the family relationship framework, parental consistency and feedback concerning inferences and impressions given to self and others influence how the child functions on everyday developmental tasks and in meeting the

demands of the social environment. Two studies, by Lay (1970) and Strasburger and Jackson (1977) have demonstrated that short-term practice and feedback on performance facilitate children's accuracy on trait-inference tasks and in the development of social perception skills. For example, children's impressions are verbalized in terms of traits such as mean, friendly, awesome, bully, and nasty. The impressions given are immediate; they are unaware of making inferences. Family members will often "step in" to give feedback relating to accuracy of these social perceptions. Families which accurately identify and clarify behavioral responses with the very young child will later clarify appropriate trait-inference tasks with their children in regard to psychological characteristics. This, in turn, enhances the child's social perception ability in developing and accurately differentiating appropriate responses to self and others (Kuiper & Rogers, 1979).

Varma and Krishnan (1986) supported the findings of Kuiper and Rogers (1979).. Their research focused on cognitive complexity and giving positive or negative internal (self) attributes with a sample of preadolescent school children and college students. The results of their study indicated that:

> From a developmental point of view, under optimal environmental conditions (that is, one that provides sufficient information as well as feedback) [underlining added], cognitive complexity develops from a relatively simple, concrete state to an abstract and well-differentiated

state, which is attained only after the age of 10. (p. 640)

Higgins, Feldman, and Ruble (1980) suggested that social reference categories, similar to Kelly's (1955) personal construct categories, are "...developed by the child and are used to retrieve information about a typical member of an observed group" (p. 521). The development of the child's social reference categories are assisted by salient family members (e.g. parents and grandparents) who serve as reference points for guiding the motives, attitudes, and responses the child gives to self and others. The parent's and grandparent's consistency and stability in providing practice and feedback to the child, "...increased the accuracy of the child's social category knowledge and the representativeness or typicality of a person's social references" (p. 538). The authors' results indicated it is these mechanisms, in part, that explain why predictive accuracy in trait application increased in children whose social reference categories were influenced by salient family members, and with increased age, peers.

Similarly, Bieri et al. (1966) commented on the role of practice and feedback in the development of cognitive complexity in person perception:

> The less practiced a person is in the social techniques of sharing the perspectives of others, the less opportunity he will have of finding out how different from himself other ordinary people can be. The less his opportunities for finding out and sharing in such individual differences, the

more likely is he to extend assimilative projection [assumes others are the same as him self] farther than the actual conditions warrant. (p. 264)

Kelly's Personal Construct Theory also suggests that a person will use personal constructs that are believed valuable in anticipating and predicting behavior and attributes in others. If a personal construct is not useful in this process then the "...person develops alternative constructions and continues in the quest for meaningful constructs" (Chamber, 1983, p. 34). In the event the person fails to create alternative constructions upon invalidation the person is left with no construct to apply to events. Kelly (1955) and Chambers (1983) suggested this lack of alternative personal constructs leads to anxiety, uncertainty, and frustration which is characterized by rigidness, dogmatism, and a tendency to group others into stereotypical categories. That is, the lack of practice and feedback from significant others during the formative middle school years may result in the child having a narrow range of personal constructs to draw upon. Furthermore, the child may not have the experience to create other constructs when the need arises. The critical period between 7-to-9-years-of-age, when self and other differentiation and construct development is occurring, theoretically can have long term personality implications for the child.

Steinhauer, Santa-Barbara, and Skinner's (1984) research on family processes indicated congruence may encourage the development of personal constructs when defined as a family

psychological or social goal. For example, the parent wants the child to achieve a thorough understanding of self and others' motives, traits, behaviors, and have a range of appropriate personal constructs. Congruence in parent-child affective interaction and in the child's developmental task accomplishments can play a vital role in this process. Such a social or psychological goal is facilitated when there is acceptance and encouragement of affective expression between parent and child. The achievement of such a goal is encouraged by a parent-child relationship based on the following: (a) practice and feedback concerning behavior and intentions, (b) an examination of alternative ways of perceiving one's goals, and (c) a mechanism for monitoring, evaluating, and renegotiating.

Steinhauer, Santa-Barbara, and Skinner (1984) also have indicated that content, intensity, and timing of the feelings involved will, in turn, influence the kind of involvement the family members have with one another and will either help or hinder the development of psychological and social goals by the family. If such a social and psychological goal is to encourage the child to decentrate and accurately interpret other's behaviors and, with maturation, psychological traits across situations, then it seems plausible that accurate feedback and consistency will encourage the child's development of a personal construct system.

Social Role Development. An understanding of social roles plays an important part in a child's development of a personal construct system. Roles are defined as a set of "functions a

person performs when occupying a particular characterization within a particular social context" (Shaw & Costanzo, 1970, p. 326). As such, roles refer to shared expectations of society for certain appropriate behaviors in self and other relationships which begin in the family socialization process.

Studies reviewed indicate that role development within the family setting influences person perception. In particular, a study by Peevers and Secord (1973) indicated that the child initially begins to understand patterns of behavior in others within the family context. They stated that "results yield a distinct impression that simple differentiating concepts and even undifferentiating concepts were important in grasping the essence of a person" (p. 127). And furthermore, the content analysis on the child's verbatim descriptions "...show role-category items and even possessions and family-setting items contributed in some important way to creating a vivid impression of a person" (p. 127).

Speaking from a developmental framework concerning a child's conception of a social role, Shantz (1983a) stated:

> ...whereas even young children ascribe different behaviors, functions, and powers to various familiar roles, such as father, mother, and sibling, the stability of role concepts undergoes a rather long developmental course. First, most children up to the age of 7 or so have difficulty understanding that a person can occupy two or more roles at the same time, which, as a finding, accords well with the

onset of multiple-class membership concepts in nonsocial material." (p. 539)

Shantz continued by suggesting that "...some changes and aspects of people influence children's ability to conserve social roles....and attributes of people in roles" (p. 539). Thus an understanding of multiple-class social roles and the accompanying expectations follow a global to more abstract conceptual understanding by children. And accordingly, the child's understanding of self and other social roles follows a decentration process and is directly influenced by those around him or her, beginning initally with an understanding of his or her family role.

Social roles are prescribed and repetitive behaviors involving a set of reciprocal activities with other family members, and either facilitate or interfere with successful task accomplishment and role integration (Steinhauer et al., 1984). Parents facilitate this process by clarifying role appropriate behaviors and allowing the child to "practice" appropriate roles within the family context. This process may encourage accurate development of the child's person perception by remediating inaccurate constructs of self and other family and social roles, and concurrently assisting in the child's ability to socially conserve. In turn, the child's personal construct system (schemas) becomes more differentiated (e.g. that a person can have many different social roles but invariant psychological attributes and traits across roles). Albeit speculative, this implies that

an inductive and authoritative parent-child relationship can encourage the conserving of social roles and facilitate accuracy in the perception of self and other attributes across multiple-class categories.

Control. Rotenberg's (1980, 1982) research in person perception showed the child's identification and recognition of self and other traits will develop based upon the stability and consistency of parental-child relationships across time. Similarly, Smetana (1985) suggested that when rules of behavior are explained and understood in early social experiences, the child will develop skills relating to predicting accurate impressions of the person and understanding trait behaviors in others.

Concerning the process of parental-child control issues Hoffman (1983) stated:

> Parental control techniques should point out the effects of the child's behavior on others and should vary in complexity with age. For example, at an early age simple direct [behavioral] effects should be included, such as "If you keep pushing him, he'll fall down and cry.") Later the parent may explain why the childs's act was not justified, for example, by clarifying the victim's intentions ("Don't yell at him. He was only trying to help"). With further cognitive development, more subtle psychological effects may be pointed up ("He feels bad because he was proud of his tower and you knocked it down"). (p.246)

Hoffman's research concerning moral internalization indicates that effective discipline includes communicating with the child at their developmental level beginning at an early age. This is accomplished by the parent identifying and explaining to the child the behavioral consequences of self-other interaction. With further cognitive development, inferences about psychological implications and intentions gleaned from observed self and other behavior are identified to the child. Hoffman's and Smetana's research was congruent with the person perception research (Barenboim, 1977, 1981) that indicated the young child cognitively progresses from an understanding of self and others using behavioral comparisons toward developing a personal construct system which enables the preadolescent's increasingly implicit use of intentions and psychological comparisons. Barenboim also suggested it is this ability to place "...a thematic framework around sets of discrete behaviors which is an important prerequisite to the developmentally subsequent use of behavioral comparisons" (p. 142), and subsequently, the child's developing ability in accurately using mulitiple-class psychological constructs in applying psychological comparisons to self and others beginning around preadolescence.

While studies by Hoffman and Smetana focused on the process of moral internalization, they also have implied the influence which parental-child discipline and control issues have in person perception. In fact, Smetana's (1985) research has drawn strong implications toward the role of discipline and "rules of behavior"

which parents need to express clearly to the young child in order for accurate person impressions to develop.

The result of the study by Livesley and Bromley (1973) supported the above assertion. They indicated that with age, children become more interested in the personal qualities of others, including conformity and control issues. How structured, disciplined, and controlled the parent-child relationship is during childhood has been shown to positively influence the quality of the child's later interpersonal relationships within the immediate family, as well as on the perception of people in general. In a study conceptually related to person perception development, Light (1979) reported that mothers of 3-year-olds who performed well on conceptual perspective-taking tasks were more concerned with the child's feelings and intentions (i.e., more responsive and empathic) than were mothers of children who remained essentially egocentric at this age. These latter mothers were more authoritarian in their child-rearing orientations.

Studies by Maccoby (1980) and Flavell (1985) supported the contention that the authoritative parent who clarifies issues with appropriate affective responses will: (a) encourage the child's early achievement of self-regulation, (b) facilitate the child's decision-making skills, and (c) foster independence in the child. In turn, the child may better understand and accomplish the following developmental tasks: (a) building positive social relationships (Barenboim, 1977, 1981; Flavel, 1985; Selman, 1980), (b) accepting and internalizing rules of behavior (Smetana, 1985;

Hoffman, 1983), (c) encourage moral development (Mischel & Mischel, 1976), (d) enhance self-image (Gjerde, Block, & Block, 1986; Offer, Ostrove & Howard, 1982), and (e) promote perspective taking abilities (Chandler, 1977; Maccoby, 1980).

Family Communication

Within the family socialization context, Piaget's (1964) concept of social transmission helps explain how person perception develops through interpersonal interactions. Piaget's concept of social transmission is the process of passing down the accumulated wisdom of a culture from generation to generation. This enables the child to learn through the experience of others. In person perception this may occur through the parent explaining rules of behavior, or clarifying tasks and role expectations, or clarifying an impression of a friend to the child. This learning can also occur through the child's imitation of a model.

Chandler (1977) stated that the development of person perception supports Piaget's conceptualization of social transmission:

> While it is true that certain social cues tend to be quite subtle, and in that sense might be easily overlooked, the majority of common social gestures, facial expressions, and voice inflections seem to occur on a sufficiently macroscopic scale as to pose little or no challenge to the resolving powers of our sensory powers. According to Piaget, the task which faces the child is not seen, therefore, as one of coming to perceive social cues in the literal sense, but of

coming to know and understand the cultural [implicit] meanings commonly attached to them. (p. 101)

Facilitating social transmission is the child's developing language and communication skills. Language and communication mediate between one's interpretation of internal and external events; between one's ideal psychological self and one's real self; and between one's perception of another person and that person's actual self. Thus, language along with social transmission through parent-child communication play a direct role in the child's development of self and other person perceptions (Schneider et al., 1979; Shantz, 1983b; Shantz & Gelman, 1973). The importance of effective communication to family satisfaction has been supported by numerous studies. These studies have investigated the effects of communication on home environment (Moos & Moos, 1974), family cohesion and adaptability (Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1980), and parent-child adjustment patterns (Serot & Teevan, 1961).

Past methods used to examine communication within the family context has been to assess dyadic relationships between family members. For example, researchers have investigated the effect of interspousal and intrafamily communication. The focus of these studies has been to tap the congruence of intrafamily agreement between dyads. Congruence was defined as the degree of mutual understanding, agreement, and perceptions in family functioning. This method has been utilized in assessing dyadic relationships between spouse, between parents and children, and parents and

adolescents. This method of investigation has been used to examine: (a) open versus problem communication between parents and adolescents (Barnes & Olson, 1985), (b) the impact of dyadic congruence on adolescent self-image (Offer, Ostrov, and Howard, 1982), (c) interpersonal perceptions of families with behaviorally troubled adolescents (Faw & Goldsmith, 1980), (d) actual versus perceived similarity of attributes among parents and youth (Acock & Bengtson, 1980), (e) agreement between generations concerning parent-child acceptance (Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985), (f) congruence between parent-child perceptions of specific family strengths or weaknesses (Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barbara, 1983; Steinhauer et al., 1984), and (g) parent-adolescent communication deviance and affective style (Doan, West, Goldstein, Rodnick, & Jones, 1981).

Among the above parent-child congruency studies, one study has implications for examining parent-child dyadic congruence in communicating beliefs. Lack of congruence in this plays a crucial role in developmental differences in person perception. Alessandri and Wozniak (1987) investigated adolescents' and preadolescents' awareness of the beliefs parents held regarding them by examining dyadic patterns of agreement (congruence) between parents and between parents and children concerning the children's likely behavior in a variety of situations. Their findings indicated preadolescents are more likely than adolescents to assume that their parents are more similar to one another in their perceptions of their child. The authors stated:

> ...this [result] appears consistent with Piagetian theory and Barenboim's (1981) developmental model of processes in person perception. Presumably, the attainment of formal operational thinking allows the adolescent to create an implicit personality theory [personal construct system] of the other that includes an understanding of how personality traits relate to one another; the reason for their existence, and the causative effects on behavior....The fact that, relative to preadolescence, adolescents appear to conceptualize parent belief systems more accurately and to differentiate between the beliefs of the two parents may reflect their increased capacity to modify [personal] constructs as a function of systematic experience. (p. 322)

In short, these studies have shown that congruence in dyadic communication of beliefs, attitudes, and attributes provides valuable information about individual development and family functioning. The degree of congruence between a dyad's perceived interactions may influence the level of dyadic satisfaction, esteem, cohesion, adaptability, and general well-being. In fact, children who perceive their parents' beliefs accurately are more likely to agree with those beliefs (Furstenberg, 1971; Smith, 1982; Tedin, 1974). Furthermore, the degree of acceptance and positive emotional tone between the parent-child relationship has a strong effect on dyadic congruence (Rollins & Thomas, 1979).

Mother-Child Communication

Studies concerned with dyadic relationships and communication

patterns have suggested that mother plays the dominant role in predicting the child's social orientations (Acock & Bengston, 1980). In fact, in their examination of the socialization and attribution process between parents and adolescents, the authors stated that: "...the mother is not only more predictive in most expressive areas, but her influence extends beyond this to most areas of socialization including sociopolitical and work orientations" (p. 509).

The social influence mothers have on the child's expressive and attributional orientations is supported by Barnes and Olson (1985). Their study, concerned with parent-adolescent communication and family cohension, indicated "...mothers claim a greater degree of openness with their children than is indicated by fathers....[and]...the adolescents' perceptions support them" (p. 446). The authors related this to traditional sex-role patterns in the family in that the males are defined as more instrumental and females as more expressive or emotionally open. As indicated in the literature review, the latter two are characteristics of the mother-child affective interaction (i.e. expressive or emotionally open) which have substantial influence in the child's personal construct organization and development.

Another study of mother-child communication by Offer, Ostrov, and Howard (1982) examined the effect of congruence on mother-father-adolescent perceptions of adolescent self-image. Their results, regarding differences by gender in the relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescent self-image

"...found that mother-daughter communication was most strongly related to the self-image of adolescent girls. Commmunication between fathers and daughters had less effect on self-image....The mother-daughter relationship apparently is crucial for the development of adolescent girls' self-image" (p. 290). The authors suggested that mother-adolescent congruence in communication promotes a healthier adolescent self-image and fosters smooth functioning and understanding about their "...feelings, perceptions, and goals" (p. 290). Similarly, Skinner, Steinhauer, and Santa-Barbara (1983), in examining dyadic functioning among clinical and nonclinical families, found that mothers provided the most critical information concerning the family relationship patterns.

It has been well documented that the mother plays the primary role in the socialization of the young child. For example, positive maternal care fosters secure attachment and the child's later interpersonal relationships (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1982). In fact, Sroufe (1983) suggested that, having experienced responsive (emphatic) care, securely attached children will develop a functional capacity for empathic responses to others, or perspective taking in the interpersonal domain. And accordingly, Schutze (1984) presented evidence of the role of maternal communciational style for the development of perspective-taking competence in the child.

These findings are especially relevant in indicating the role the mother plays in guiding her child toward reorganizing and

supplanting personal constructs (categories and dimensions) into an integrated system. It is primarily the congruence between the mother and child in the communication of expectations concerning family role, discipline, and responsibilities (ie. dyadic relationship issues) which influences the child's self-esteem (Offer et al., 1983). In turn, such congruence in communication appears to encourage the child to accurately make use of abstract psychological inferences and attributes in describing self and others.

Empirical research in the person perception process is deficient in two respects: (a) Research examining how congruence in mother-child communication interacts with other family dyadic relationship factors to influence differences in person perception ability, and (b) research examining to what degree these identified factors, (mother-child communication, dyadic relations, and self-image) when combined, differentially affect an individual's personal construct development and, sequentially, his or her person perception ability. The natural starting point for this search, as indicated by recent studies (Alessandri et al., 1987; Acock et al., 1980; Offer et al., 1983), lies in an examination of how congruence in parent-child communication influences intrafamily beliefs, perceptions, self-image, and a variety of other social cognitive constructs in the child, and all of which are empirically associated with person perception. One proposal is that mother-child communication can provide the early structural framework for the development of dyadic relationships,

child's self-image, and consequently, the child's person perception ability.

Proposed Model

A proposed model of the interacting variables that determine person perception is presented in the schematic diagram in Figure 1. The model suggests that three exogenous variables, mother's education, mother's marital status, and adolescent's sex are directly/indirectly related to mother-adolescent congruence in communication and, directly related to adolescent person perception ability. The selection of these variables was based on the research of Gollin (1954) who indicated: "Apparently, factors such as age, sex, and social background are associated with the mode of organization employed when an impression of personality is formed" (p. 152). And Lay (1970) who stated: "It has been generally agreed that these variables [social background] are extremely important in person perception although the relationships appear to be complex and at times inconsistent" (p. 4).

Based on the literature reviewed it was assumed that a direct relationship between the degree of congruence in mother-adolescent communication and adolescent's person perception ability. Also, it was assumed the degree of congruence in communication has a direct/indirect relationship to the mother-adolescent dyadic relationship variables: (a) affective involvement, (b) task accomplishment, (c) role performance, and (d) control. These four variables were assumed to have direct/indirect effect upon

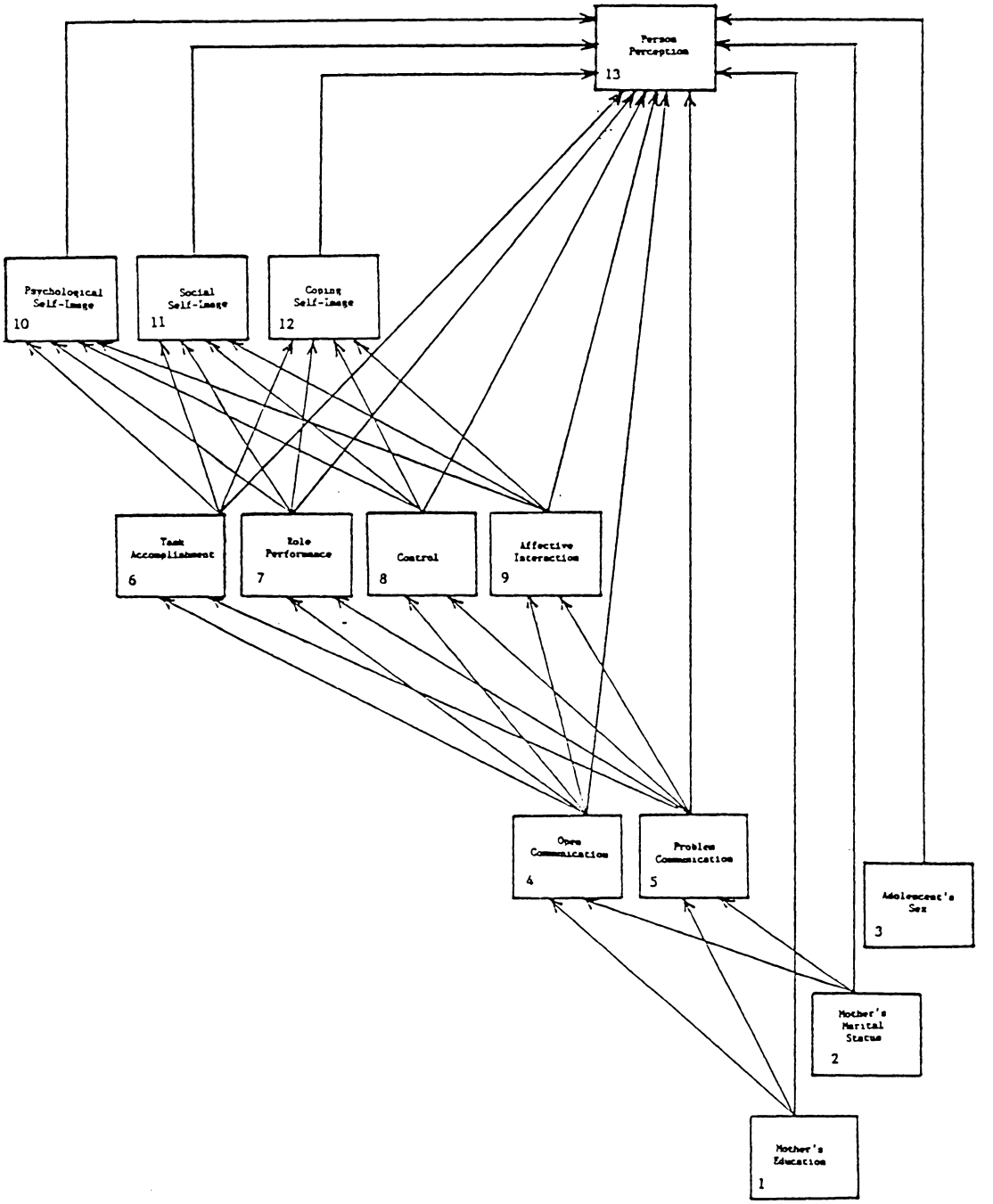

Figure 1. Schematic diagram of path model of person perception.

the congruence between the adolescent's self-image and mother's perception of the adolescent's self-image (Offer et al., 1982; Steinhauer et al., 1984). Also, congruence in the dyadic relationship was assummed to have a direct relationship with adolescent person perception.

Studies indicate an adolescent's self-image has a direct relationship to the adolescent's person perception ability (Bieri, 1955; Gara et al., 1979; Higgin et al., 1980; O'Mahony, 1986a; Varma et al., 1986). Based on the literature reviewed it was assumed that the adolescent's person perception ability was related to the degree of congruence in mother-adolescent communication on the four dyadic relationship variables and on the adolescent psychological, social, and coping self-image variables.

Although past studies indicated ambiguity in finding sex differences in adolescent person perception ability, in this study the adolescent's sex was assumed to have a direct effect on person perception ability (Barenboim, 1977, 1981; Gollin, 1954). The underlying proposal was that congruence in mother-adolescent communication, dyadic family function, and adolescent self-image affects the development of adolescent person perception.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine intrafamily relationship variables which constitute the frame of reference for person perception. A model was proposed to conceptualize how the variables interact and influence the process. Specifically, the

proposed model was developed to investigate how congruence between the mother and adolescent in communication, dyadic relationships, and adolescent self-image influence adolescent person perception.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in this investigation were:

1. Mother's marital status has a direct/indirect effect on congruence in mother-adolescent communication.
2. Mother's marital status has a direct effect on adolescent person perception.
3. Mother's level of education has a direct/indirect effect on congruence in mother-adolescent communication.
4. Mother's education has a direct effect on adolescent person perception.
5. Sex of the adolescent has a direct effect on adolescent person perception.
6. Congruence in mother-adolescent communication (open and problem) has a direct-indirect effect on mother-adolescent congruence in dyadic relationships (task accomplishment, role performance, control, and affective interaction).
7. Congruence in mother-adolescent communication (open and problem) has a direct effect on adolescent person perception.
8. Congruence in dyadic relationships has a direct-indirect effect on congruence in mother's and adolescent's perceptions of the adolescent's psychological, social, and coping self-image.
9. Congruence in mother-adolescent dyadic relationship (task

accomplishment, role performance, control, and affective interaction) has a direct effect on adolescent person perception.

10. Congruence in mother and adolescent's perceptions of adolescent's psycholgocial, social, and coping self-image has a direct effect on adolescent person perception.

Definition of Terms

The following terms defined the variables in this study:

Congruence. The percentage of item agreement between the mother-adolescent responses. A high percentage of item agreement indicated congruence and a low percentage indicated incongruence.

Communication. The percentage of item agreement (congruence) in mother-adolescent communication. It was proposed that a high percentage of mother-adolescent item agreement indicated congruence. A low percentage of mother-adolescent item agreement indicated incongruence.

Dyadic Relationship. The relationship between the mother-adolescent pair was defined by four family interpersonal functions as follows:

1. Task Accomplishment. The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on mother-adolescent family task identification, mutual helpfulness, and flexibility in accomplishing the identified tasks, and in exploring alternative in accomplishing identified tasks.

2. Role Performance. The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on perceived understanding of one another's

respective roles and role expectations, and their willingness to maintain their roles or adapt to new roles.

3. Control. The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on perceived mutual influence based on nurturant and constructive criticism; predictability in behavior with enough flexibility to adapt to changing demands; and consistency in discipline.

4. Affective Involvement. The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on mutual emotional involvement and support, and the fulfillment of emotional needs and autonomous functioning.

Adolescent Self-Image. The percentage of item agreement (congruence) between the adolescent's psychological, social, and coping self-image, and the perception of the adolescent held by mother.

Psychological Self (PS). The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on two adolescent emotional variables:

PS-1. Impulse Control. The adolescent's tendency to act impulsively or to delay gratification.

PS-2. Emotional Tone. The adolescent's ability to monitor their emotions and show appropriate self-control.

Social Self (SS). The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on two adolescent interpersonal variables

SS-1. Social Relationships. The adolescent's understanding of friendship patterns and the need to be with others.

SS-2. Morals. The adolescent's responsibility, honesty, and

concern toward others.

Coping Self (CS). The percentage of item agreement (congruence) on two adolescent coping variables:

CS-1. Internal Mastery. The adolescent's ability to cope with frustrating situations and visualize positive outcomes.

CS-2. Superior Adjustment. The adolescent's ability to act independently and complete personal goals.

Person Perception Ability. The adolescent's ability to effectively and consistently differentiate between self and other personal role constructs. Increased differentiation was associated with greater ability in person perception; less personal role construct differentiation was associated with limited ability.

CHAPTER 2

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine intrafamily relationship variables which constitute the frame of reference for person perception. A model was proposed to conceptualize how the variables interact and influence the process (Figure 1). Specifically, the proposed model was developed to investigate how congruence between the mother-adolescent in communication, dyadic relationships, and adolescent self-image influence adolescent person perception.

Subjects

One hundred forty-six mother-adolescent dyads participated in the study. Fifty-nine males and 87 females, ages 12 to 18-years-old (M = 14.6 years), represented the adolescent sample. The all Caucasion mother-adolescent dyads were voluntary participants from primarily middle-class backgrounds in a small midwestern city of approximately 10,000 people. The dyads were recruited from the city's junior and senior high schools (grades 7 through 12). This 13-to 18-year-old age range selection was based on Baronboim (1981) who indicated that..."by adolescence a plateau is reached in the child's use of psychological constructs" (p. 142).

Research Instruments

The following instruments were used in collecting data pertinent to the variables under study:

Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale (Barnes & Olson, 1985).

This self-report inventory consisted of two scales: (a) a measure of openness in family communication and (b) a measure of the extent of problems in family communication (Appendix A). For this study the inventory was utilized to assess the percentage of item agreement or congruence between mother-adolescent communication. A high percentage of item agreement on Open and Problem Family Communication was assumed to indicate congruence. A low percentage of item agreement on Open and Problems in Family Communication was assumed to indicate incongruence. Alpha reliabilities for Open Family Communications were .87 and .78 for Problems in Family Communication with .88 for total scale reliability.

Family Assessment Measure-Dyadic Relationship Scale (Skinner et al., 1983). This scale measured strengths and problems in dyadic relationships on seven subscales (Appendix B). Based on the review of literature, four subscales pertinent to the study were utilized: (a) task accomplishment, (b) role performance, (c) affective involvement, and (d) control. A high percentage of item-agreement between mother-adolescent responses indicated dyadic strength or congruence, while a low percentage of item-agreement indicated dyadic problems or incongruence. Internal consistency-reliability for the six adult and child subscales provided by coefficient alpha's ranged from .59 to .82. The overall scale alpha were .95 for adults and .94 for children.

The Offer Self-Image Questionnaire For Adolescents (Offer et al., 1977) and The Offer Parent-Adolescent Questionnaire (Offer,

1982). The OSIQ, a self-descriptive personality test, measured five aspects of the self-system on eleven areas of the adolescent's life. For this study three self-systems and under each respective self-system, two areas of the adolescent's psychosocial self were utilized (Appendix C). These self-systems and their respective subscales were: (a) Psychological Self: Impulse Control and Emotional Tone, (b) Social Self: Social Relationships and Morals, and (c) Coping Self: Mastery of the External World and Superior Adjustment.

Responses on the OSIQ were matched with those on The Offer Parent-Adolescent Questionnaire to obtain the percentage of agreement between the adolescent's own self-image and the perception of the adolescent held by the mother. A high percentage of item-agreement indicated congruence between mother and the adolescent's perceptions on the latter's self-image, while a low percentage of agreement indicated incongruence between mother and the adolescent's perceptions.

The test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .48 to .84 for the scales and .73 for the total score.

Adapted Modified Role Reperatory Test--AMRRT (Vacc & Vacc, 1973, 1982). This test used a matrix grid to measure the preadolescent's and adolescent's differentiation in attributes given to self and nine other people (Appendix D). Each adolescent was presented with a 10 x 10 matrix grid. Each of the ten columns was identified by a different role type selected to represent the people in a preadolescent's and adolescent's interpersonal

experiences: (a) Yourself, (b) Child you do not like, (c) Your mother, (d) Someone you would like to help, (e) Your father, (f) A friend (boy), (g) A friend (girl), (h) Your teacher, (i) Grown-up you do not like and, (j) Someone you find hard to get to know real well. The adolescent listed the name or initial of each of the nine persons who best correspond to the nine role types.

After having listed the nine persons as directed, the subject was instructed to rate each of the nine persons and himself or herself on a list of 10 pairs of person attributions. The 10 pairs of person attributes were: (a) friendly--not friendly, (b) gets along well with others--does not get along well with others, (c) can always decide what to do--has trouble deciding what to do, (d) does not get upset quickly--gets upset quickly, (e) cares about others--does not care about others, (f) happy--unhappy, (g) does all his/her work--does not do all his/her work, (h) kind to others--unkind to others, (i) can work well alone--needs help with his/her work, and (j) fun to be with--not fun to be with. Each pair of person attributes were rated on a 6-point Likkert-type scale, ranging from 1 = All the time to 6 = Not all the time. Thus each subject made ten ratings for each of the role types, for a total of 100 ratings.

Person perception was measured by comparing each rating in a row with the rating directly below it in the other rows of the matrix grid. In comparing any two construct rows, a score of one was given for every exact agreement of ratings on any one person. This matching procedure was carried out for all possible

comparisons, and the scores for each comparison were added to give one total score. There are 45 possible row comparisons in a 10 x 10 matrix. The highest possible score was 450. A score of 450 indicated that the adolescent gave the same rating on all attributes to all of the role types. A high score indicated a lack of person perception ability because the adolescent assigned attributions in an identical manner to construe all the individuals on the grid. A low score indicated greater person perception ability because the adolescent used attributions differently in discriminating among people. That is, the adolescent showed greater differentiation among personal role constructs in construing others.

The AMRRT test-retest reliability for an interval of four weeks between administrations was reported significant (rho = .82, $p < .05$).

Procedures

A total of 700 recruitment letters were dissiminated by the school counselors; 350 letters in one junior high school and 350 in one senior high school. The recruitment letters were addressed to the mother and the adolescent. The letter explained the purpose of the study, asked for their cooperation and consent to participate, and assured confidentiality (Appendix E). The letter had a detachable agreement form to be filled out by the mother and the adolescent indicating their consent to participate in the study. The detached consent form, signed by the mother and the adolescent, were then returned to the school counselor by the

adolescent. Following dissmination of the recruitment letters, the school counselors made public address announcements. The announcements were given three times a week, for a two week period, to encourage participation and remind the adolescents to return their signed consent forms. Of the 700 recruitment letters dissiminated, 251 responses to participate (consent forms) were collected resulting in a 36% return rate.

An envelope containing a stamped, self-addressed return envelope and two packets of self-report instruments were mailed to each pair of mother and adolescent who wanted to participate. Each packet contained a cover letter and instructions for completing family background information (Appendix F), a set of self-report instruments, and directions for responding to each instrument. The adolescent packet contained the following self-report scales: Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale (Barnes & Olson, 1982); Family Assessment Measure-Dyadic Relationship Scale (Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barbara, 1983); The Offer Self-Image Questionnaire for Adolescents (Offer et al., 1977) and the Adapted Modified Role Reperatory Test--AMRRT (Vacc & Vacc, 1973). The mother's packet contained the parent versions of the above scales with the exception of the AMRRT.

The mother and adolescent were asked to complete the family background information section of the packet together prior to individual completion of their respective self-report instruments. The mother and the adolescent were instructed to complete their respective self-report instruments independently.

Upon completion, they were asked to mail their completed packets to the researcher in the self-addressed envelopes.

After one week, postal cards were mailed reminding those mother-adolescent dyads who had not returned the surveys. After two weeks, follow-up phone calls were made to encourage completion of the surveys and to return them in the self-addressed, stamped envelopes. To encourage quick responses from the subjects, hamburger or cookie certificates from two local fast food restaurants were promised and mailed to each adolescent who returned their packet within the two week period. A total of 146 completed self-report packets were collected by the researcher; 48 mother and adolescent pairs failed to acknowledge followup requests and return their self-report packets.

Design and Data Analysis

The primary statistical procedure in this study was path analysis. In path analysis, the standardized regression coefficient (b), is referred to in this context as the path coefficient (p). The path coefficient estimates how much change in standard deviation units in the dependent variable is associated with one standard deviation change in the independent variable. Significant direct and indirect paths in the proposed model were determined using the procedures described by Duncan (1966). These paths were assumed "to account for a set of observed correlations on the assumption of a particular formal or causal ordering of the variables involved" (Duncan, 1966, p. 2).

Congruence measure. Congruence between the mother and

adolescent was measured using an item agreement score. The item agreement score was the inverse of the sum of the absolute values of differences between corresponding mother's self-report items and the adolescent's self-report items. This score tested the level of absolute pair agreement and was presented as the percentage of agreement between the mother and adolescent. Commenting on the usefulness of absolute mean difference scores with intrafamily research, Glass and Polisar (1987) stated:

> Difference scores are quick summary measures of agreement and can be quite useful in testing hypotheses about groups of dyads.... In fact, difference scores are often most appropriately used to rank or classify different subgroups of dyads relative to each other for use as independent variables in subsequent dyad analyses. (p. 663)

Rather than examine different subgroups of dyads relative to each other, this study examined one select dyad (mother-adolescent) across multiple independent variables. The dyad's item agreement score was used in the multiple regression equation as a measure of mother-adolescent congruence. The higher this score, the more the mother's perception agreed with her adolescent's perception and the reverse, that is, the more the adolescent's perception agreed with mother's perception of him or her. Agreement was assumed to represent mutual shared experiences between the mother-adolescent pair which influence adolescent person perception.

However, it should be noted that an item agreement score indicated only the percentage of agreement occurring between the

mother-adolescent pair on each self-report item. This score was not indicative of the quality of the mother-adolescent relationship. For example, a mother-adolescent pair may have responded in absolute agreement on the question "This person is always on my back", having indicated congruence in each one's perception on such an issue. From this, however, one cannot assume such congruence implies either a positive or negative mother-adolescent relationship. Again, the score only confirmed that the mother-adolescent pair were in agreement concerning each one's perceptions of the questions content.

CHAPTER 3

Results, Discussion, and Conclusions

Mean percentages, standard deviations, and ranges for the mother-adolescent congruence scores, i.e., item agreement scores, are reported in Table 1. These information are presented as the mean percentage of item agreement between the mother and her adolescent son or daughter. For each variable, the mean percentage of the item agreement score was calculated by dividing the mother-adolescent raw score mean by the total raw score possible and multiplying this by 100. The correlations among the variables used in calculating the item agreement scores, exogenous variables (mother's education, marital status and adolescent's sex), and the adolescent's person perception score (Adapted Modified Role Reperatory Test-AMRRT) are reported in Table 2.

Results

The first step of the analysis included all 12 variables of the proposed model as depicted in Figure 1 and represented in the Table 2. Subsequently, the model was refined to include only one variable with a path coefficient (p) statistically significant at the .07 level. This reduced model is depicted in Figure 2. In this figure, a straight line with an arrowhead represented the direct effect, and straight lines without arrowheads represented the total residual remaining after the significant variable was entered into the regression equation. The standardized path coefficient is presented without parenthesis. As shown in Figure 2 only one variable, congruence in adolescent social-self

TABLE 1
Mean Percentages, Standard Deviations and Ranges for
Mother-Adolescent Congruence Scores
(Percentage of Item Agreement)

Variable	MOTHER & SONS			MOTHER & DAUGHTERS		
	Mean %	SD	Range	Mean %	SD	Range
Communication			**(00.00 - 40.00)**			**(00.00 - 40.00)**
Open	.74	.11	21.00 - 39.00	.73	.14	15.00 - 40.00
Problem	.66	.11	18.00 - 36.00	.64	.11	14.00 - 39.00
Dyadic Relations			**(00.00 - 18.00)**			**(00.00 - 18.00)**
Task Accomplish	.81	.10	9.00 - 18.00	.78	.11	8.00 - 18.00
Role Performance	.78	.11	10.00 - 18.00	.75	.12	8.00 - 18.00
Control	.74	.14	4.00 - 18.00	.75	.14	6.00 - 18.00
Affective Interaction	.75	.14	6.00 - 17.00	.76	.12	7.00 - 18.00
Self-Image			**(00.00 - 45.00)**			**(00.00 - 45.00)**
Psychological	.73	.11	13.00 - 44.00	.72	.11	17.00 - 41.00
Social	.70	.11	15.00 - 34.00	.71	.11	15.00 - 37.00
Coping	.74	.09	18.00 - 39.00	.74	.11	19.00 - 39.00

Note. Theoretical ranges are in bold type.
N = 146

TABLE 2
Pearson Zero Order Correlation Matrix (r) of
Mother-Adolescent Congruence Scores

	MS	AS	OC	PC	TA	RP	C	AI	PS	SS	CS	PP
Variables	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Mother's Education (1)	-.07	.06	.18*	.01	-.006	-.06	-.11	.06	.17*	.12	.06	-.03
Marital Status (2)		-.009	-.04	.03	-.02	-.06	-.002	-.18*	-.04	-.17*	.06	-.15**
Adolescent's Sex (3)			.02	-.07	-.16*	-.06	.01	.001	-.003	.07	.04	.05
Communication												
Open (4)				.48*	.30*	.17*	.37*	.60*	.32*	.18*	.29*	.12
Problem (5)					.24*	.29*	.31*	.38*	.20*	.14**	.34*	.13
Dyadic Relations												
Task Accomplishment (6)						.33*	.34*	.31*	.23*	.29*	.26*	.10
Role Performance (7)							.42*	.40*	.25*	.18*	.30*	.05
Control (8)								.50*	.29*	.23*	.30*	.18*
Affective Interaction (9)									.30*	.22*	.34*	.17*
Self-Image												
Psychological Self (10)										.37*	.50*	.21*
Social Self (11)											.29*	.25*
Coping Self (12)												.23*
Person Perception (AMRRT) (13)												

*p < .05
**p < .10
N = 146

image, remained in the reduced model.

Figure 2 dipicts a statistically significant relationship between mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image and adolescent person perception ($r = .25$ $p < .05$). In addition, mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image had a significant direct effect on adolescent person perception ($p_{11-13} = .17$, $p < .07$). Decomposition of the correlation between mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image and adolescent person perception showed that this variable explaining approximately 6% of the model variance F (1,145) = 9.402 < .003. Total variance accounted for by the proposed model (approximately 13%) was small, F (12,133) = 1.58, $p < .10$.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to test an assumed path model concerning the effects of mother-adolescent congruence on adolescent person perception. The path model developed for this study was based on an assumed order of interrelationships between adolescent person perception and mother-adolescent congruence, which determined the entrance of variables in the path model. A high percentage of mother-adolescent congruence in the relationship was hypothesized to be associated with greater differentiation in the adolescent's self and other personal role constructs. Mother-adolescent congruence was measured in respect to: (a) open and problem communication, (b) dyadic relationships (task accomplishment, role performance, control, and affective

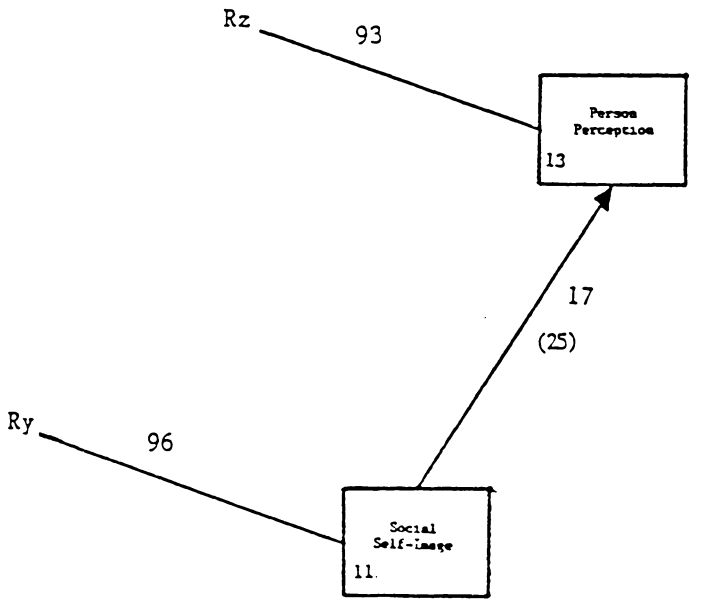

Figure 2. Empirically estimated path model of person perception (zero-order correlation coefficient is in parenthesis).

involvement), and (c) the adolescent's psychological, social, and coping self-images. The significant component of the conceptual model is presented in Figure 3. One major link was found that indicated congruence between mother-adolescent perception concerning the adolescent's social self-image was significantly associated with the adolescent's person perception ability.

This result, congruence in social self-image, does not support the hypothesized outcome. The positive path coefficient, considering direct effects only, indicated that with an increase in mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image by one standard deviation, there is a .17 of one standard deviation increase in adolescent person perception. That is, high mother-adolescent congruence was associated with poor self and other role construct differentiation by the adolescent (i.e., scored higher on the AMRRT). This variable accounted for the largest amount of variance (approximately 6%) in the model.

There are two possible explanations for this result. First, a high degree of congruence in the mother-adolescent relationship may be indicative of enmeshment. Assuming this is the case, it may explain the adolescent's poor self and other differentiation score on the AMRRT. Second, the instrument used to measure person perception (AMRRT) may be limited in its sensitivity to discriminate an adolescent's self and other differentiation. The first explanation will be discussed in respect to family systems theory. Bowen (1976) reported in his study that parents

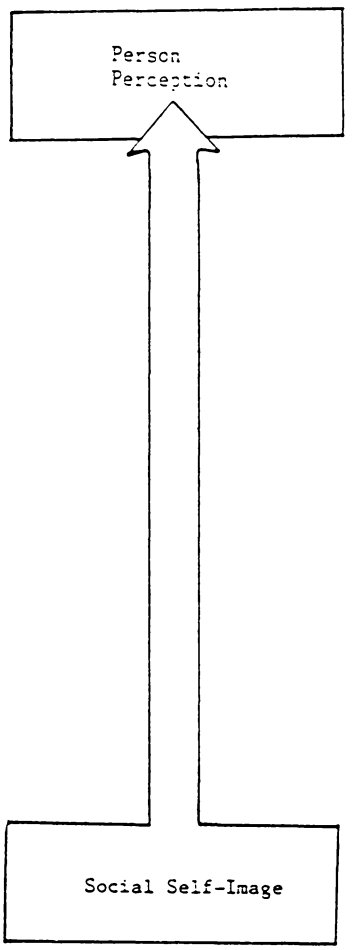

Figure 3. Major components of the final path model of person perception.

communicate their immaturity and lack of differentiation to their children. This emotional enmeshment is communicated to the childen in a mulitgenerational transmission process. This may result in their children not developing individualized and rational modes of interpreting, responding to, and differentiating among their environments; because their safety and importance in the family depend on viewing the world the way their parents do. Enmeshment is an intrapsychic concept. A person's psychological embeddedness (undifferentiation) is assessed in relation to other people within a social systems context. (Bowen, 1976).

Two aspects of this study seem to support the above explanation based on the concept of enmeshment. First, mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image was assessed in a social relationship context. That is, the focus was on the mother's and the adolescent's perceptual congruence concerning the adolescent's social discrimination patterns in: (1) the need to be with others, (2) social responsibility, and (3) concern toward others. Second, in examining the mean percentage of item agreement (congruence) in social self-image (see Table 1), the mother-adolescent item agreement percentages were very high ($\underline{M}$ = 70% for mother-son and $\underline{M}$ = 71% for mother-daughter).

Assuming that high mother-adolescent congruence scores were indicative of enmeshment, then the corresponding lack of differentiation by the adolescent may be explained in respect to family systems theory or, specifically, Bowen's concept of

differentiation. That is, because of the "oneness" of the mother-adolescent relationship, the adolescent was not effectively differentiating between self and other personal role constructs. This explanation is supported in part by Nichol's (1984) position "...that enmeshed or fused subsystems offer a heightened sense of mutual support, but at the expense of independence and autonomy. Children enmeshed with parents learn to rely on their parents and tend to be dependent. They are less comfortable by themselves, and may have trouble relating to people outside the family" (p. 526). Thus, high mother-adolescent congruence may be representative of enmeshment, and that enmeshment may in turn influence other aspects of the adolescent's self-image. However, one must keep in perspective the small amount of variance (6%) accounted for by congruence in social self-image and the large residual. Many other variables not included in the model could have been influencing the adolescent's person perception ability.

The second explanation, in regards to the results, focus on an examination of the Adapted Modified Reperatory Role Test (AMRRT) used to measure the dependent variable. The standard deviation reported for the AMRRT in this study was very large (SD = 53.96, Range = 75 - 363). A standard deviation of this magnitude indicates a large amount of variation in the adolescent's AMRRT scores. Such a large standard deviation in the dependent variable may have been a function of the instrument's poor discrimination ability, and which in turn may have contributed to the elimination of many independent variables in

the regression analysis. As depicted in Figure 2, only one of the 12 variables remained in the final model.

A probable explanation for this large standard deviation and variance appears evident upon a reexamination of the raw scores. Many adolescents rapidly filled in the 100 grid boxes with little regard to the directions (Appendix D). In fact, it appears that many subjects might have filled in the 100 grids with similar numbers to hasten completion of the test; for example, consistently placing a "3" across all 10 grid boxes for each role construct. The AMRRT was initially designed for group testing under supervision. In this study the AMRRT was mailed to the adolescent's home with written instructions to fill out the AMRRT individually or, if necessary, with parental assistance. Thus, the manner and context in which the instrument was administered could have contributed to the large variation in the scores.

In support of this explanation, an examination of the correlational matrix (see Table 2) indicates small but significant correlations occurring between the AMRRT and two of the four variables under Dyadic Relations: Control (r = .18, $p < .05$), and Affective Interaction (r = .17, $p < .05$). Under Self-Image, the subscale Psychological Self-Image correlated significantly with the AMRRT (r = .21, $p < .05$), as did Coping Self-Image (r = .23, $p < .05$). These low correlations appear to lend support to the prior conclusion that the large standard deviation of the AMRRT (SD = 53.96) resulted in the exclusion of these variables from the final model. That is, a correlation under r = .25 in the

independent variable, while significant, may be too weak relative to the large variance and corresponding standard deviation of the dependent variable (AMRRT). With respect to the above mentioned factors, one may assume that the primary reason for the loss of path links can be attributed to the large variance among adolescents' scoring procedures on the AMRRT and not necessarily to the reliability of the instrument.

Summary and Conclusion

The results of the present study provided only limited support for the proposed model. The final model explained only 13% of the variance associated with adolescent person perception. Mother-adolescent congruence in adolescent social self-image was the best single predictor of adolescent person perception, accounting for approximately 6% of the model's total variance. Also in the above section possible limitations of the study were examined. Considering the results and limitations, three suggestions for a future studies to reexamine the proposed model are offered: (a) Group testing for the AMRRT, (b) a more heterogeneous sample, and (c) the inclusion of an additional independent variable.

The first suggestion is that the AMRRT should be administered in a group testing situation with supervision as intended. Group testing of the AMRRT would enable the researcher to clarify the instructions and to monitor the completion of the task. In accordance, proper test administration could provide better data collection which may result in a more restricted standard

deviation, variance, and range on the AMRRT. This would provide a more complete check of the interrelationships among the proposed model variables and adolescent person perception. The second suggestion concerns the sampling of the mother-adolescent. The particular sample was drawn from a predominantly rural homogeneous population. A reexamination of the proposed model should utilize a more heterogeneous sample including subjects from an urban population. This would provide diversity among the sample and, consequently, may provide more data that are needed to better understand the issue of mother-adolescent enmeshment. For example, Devereux et al., (1974) indicated that young people living in rural locations feel more pressure to conform to their peer groups than those living in an uran area. This pressure may serve to make the rural group youngster more egocentric in their thinking and more concerned about the imaginary audience. That is, socialization practices and peer relations among rural teenagers may be oriented toward social conditions where people rely more heavily upon family members and a limited number of peers for emotional support and daily activities; whereas, in urban environments, social networks tend to be spread beyond family members and include a larger number of peers.

The third suggestion is to include a measure of adolescent egocentrism as an additional independent variable in the proposed model. This recommendation is made based on examining the results of this study. There is a need to clarify what section or factors contribute to the adolescents limited ability to differentiate

self and other personal role constructs. Specifically, to clarify the relative contribution of: (a) levels of mother-adolescent congruency and accompanied enmeshment; (b) adolescent egocentrism; and/or (3) the interaction between these two factors.

The suggestion of the inclusion of an assessment of adolescent egocentrism, in reexamining the proposed model, is based on literature reviewed which strongly implies that the social consequence of adolescent egocentrism is an indication of acute self-consciousness (Elkind, 1967). This factor is assumed to lead to self-centered and egocentric adolescent behavior. Other researchers (Adam & Jones, 1982; Riley, Adams, & Nielsen, 1984; Steinberg & Hill, 1978) have also examined family-child socialization experiences as related to adolescent egocentrism. For example, data summarized by Steinberg & Hill (1978) indicate that parental support can either limit or inhibit heightened adolescent egocentrism. Thus, the parent-child relationship during adolescence may increase the adolescent's egocentric behavior and, consequently, inhibit the adolescent's ability to decentrate self from others. This finding has found further support in a number of studies, Higgins et al., (1980); Kuiper & Rogers, (1979); O'Mahony, (1986a); which indicated that decentration from self is an essential step in organizing, integrating, and differentiating among one's personal role contructs.

In lieu of the above discussion, it is important that the proposed model be reexamined. The new model would include a

measurement of adolescent egocentrism as an independent variable. This inclusion of adolescent egocentrism, a group testing format, and an urban mother-adolescent sample may provide evidence to clarify the mother-adolescent congruence-enmeshment issue. Accordingly, the new model may shed light on how congruence in mother-adolescent relationships and adolescent egocentrism interact to restrict the adolescent's differentiation of self and other personal role constructs.

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APPENDIX A

Mother-Adolescent Communication Scales

DIRECTIONS

Below you will find 20 statements concerning communication between yourself and your teenage son or daughter. Please read each statement and decide how well the statement describes your relationship with your teenage son or daughter. Then, circle your response at the end of each sentence. Please circle only one number (response) for each statement. Answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

RESPONSE CHOICE				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

O 1. I can discuss my beliefs with my child without feeling restrained or embarassed.
1 2 3 4 5

P 2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my child tells me.
1 2 3 4 5

O 3. My child is always a good listener.
1 2 3 4 5

P 4. I am sometimes afraid to ask my child for what I want.
1 2 3 4 5

P 5. My child has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
1 2 3 4 5

O 6. My child can tell how I'm feeling without asking.
1 2 3 4 5

O 7. I am very satisfied with how my child and I talk together.
1 2 3 4 5

O 8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my child.
1 2 3 4 5

O 9. I openly show affection to my child.
1 2 3 4 5

P 10. When we are having a problem, I often give my chld the silent treatment.
1 2 3 4 5

P 11. I am careful about what I say to my child.
1 2 3 4 5

P 12. When talking to my child I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.
1 2 3 4 5

O 13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my child.
1 2 3 4 5

O 14. My child tries to understand my point of view.
1 2 3 4 5

P 15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my child.
1 2 3 4 5

O 17. It is easy for me to express all my true feelings to my child.
1 2 3 4 5

P 18. My child nags/bothers me.
1 2 3 4 5

P 19. My child insults me when she is angry with me.
1 2 3 4 5

P 20. I don't think I can tell my child how I really feel about some things.
1 2 3 4 5

O = Open Communication
P = Problem Communication

DIRECTIONS

Below you will find 20 statements concerning communication between yourself and your mother. Please read each statement and decide how well the statement describes your relationship with your mother. Then, circle your repsonse at the end of each sentence. Please circle only one number (response) for each statement. Answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

RESPONSE CHOICE				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

O 1. I can discuss my beliefs with my mother without feeling restrained or embarassed.
1 2 3 4 5

P 2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my mother tells me.
1 2 3 4 5

O 3. My mother is always a good listener.
1 2 3 4 5

P 4. I am sometimes afraid to ask my mother for what I want.
1 2 3 4 5

P 5. My mother has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
1 2 3 4 5

O 6. My mother can tell how I'm feeling without asking.
1 2 3 4 5

O 7. I am very satisfied with how my mother and I talk together.
1 2 3 4 5

O 8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my mother.
1 2 3 4 5

O 9. I openly show affection to my mother.
1 2 3 4 5

P 10. When we are having a problem, I often give my mother the silent treatment.
1 2 3 4 5

P 11. I am careful about what I say to my mother.
1 2 3 4 5

P 12. When talking to my mother I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.
1 2 3 4 5

O 13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my mother.
1 2 3 4 5

O 14. My mother tries to understand my point of view.
1 2 3 4 5

P 15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my mother.
1 2 3 4 5

O 17. It is easy for me to express all my true feelings to my mother.
1 2 3 4 5

P 18. My mother nags/bothers me.
1 2 3 4 5

P 19. My mother insults me when she is angry with me.
1 2 3 4 5

P 20. I don't think I can tell my mother how I really feel about some things.
1 2 3 4 5

O = Open Communication
P = Problem Communication

APPENDIX B

Mother-Adolescent Dyadic Assessment Scale

DIRECTIONS

Below you will find 24 statements about the relationship between yourself and your teenage son or daughter. Please read each statement and decide how well the statement describes your relationship with your teenage son or daughter. Then, circle your response at the end of each sentence. Please circle only one number (response) for each statement. Answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

RESPONSE CHOICES

1	2	3	4
Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

TA 1. This person and I never see family problems the same way.
1 2 3 4

RP 2. This person accepts what I expect of him/her in the family.
1 2 3 4

AI 3. This person and I aren't close to each other.
1 2 3 4

CON 4. This person is reasonable when I make a mistake.
1 2 3 4

TA 5. This person can never accept my answer to a problem.
1 2 3 4

RP 6. This person takes his/her share of family responsibilities.
1 2 3 4

AI 7. When I'm upset, I know this person really cares.
1 2 3 4

CON 8. Even when I admit I'm wrong, this person doesn't forgive me.
1 2 3 4

TA 9. When I have a problem, this person helps me with it.
1 2 3 4

RP 10. This person complains that I expect too much of him/her.
1 2 3 4

AI 11. This person still loves me even when I argue with him/her.
1 2 3 4

CON 12. I never know how this person will react when I make a mistake.
1 2 3 4

TA 13. When there's a problem between us, this person finds a new way of working it out.
1 2 3 4

RP 14. This person often ruins things for me.
1 2 3 4

AI 15. This person gets too involved in my affairs.
1 2 3 4

CON 16. This person gives me a change to explain when I make a mistake.
1 2 3 4

TA 17. When problems come up between us, this person is all talk and no action.
1 2 3 4

RP 18. This person expects too much of me.
1 2 3 4

AI 19. This person really trusts me.
1 2 3 4

CON 20. This person is always on my back.
1 2 3 4

TA 21. I can count on this person to help me in a crisis.
1 2 3 4

RP 22. This person and I have the same views about who should do what in our family.
1 2 3 4

AI 23. This person worries too much about me.
1 2 3 4

CON 24. I don't need to remind this person to do his/her share.
1 2 3 4

TA = Task Accomplishment
RP = Role Performance
AI = Affective Interaction
CON = Control

DIRECTIONS

Below you will find 24 statements about the relationship between yourself and your mother. Please read each statement and decide how well the statement describes your relationship with your mother. Then, circle your response at the end of each sentence. Please circle only one number (response) for each statement. Answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

RESPONSE CHOICES

1	2	3	4
Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

TA 1. This person and I never see family problems the same way.
1 2 3 4

RP 2. This person accepts what I expect of her in the family.
1 2 3 4

AI 3. This person and I aren't close to each other.
1 2 3 4

CON 4. This person is reasonable when I make a mistake.
1 2 3 4

TA 5. This person can never accept my answer to a problem.
1 2 3 4

RP 6. This person takes her share of family responsibilities.
1 2 3 4

AI 7. When I'm upset, I know this person really cares.
1 2 3 4

CON 8. Even when I admit I'm wrong, this person doesn't forgive me.
1 2 3 4

TA 9. When I have a problem, this person helps me with it.
1 2 3 4

RP 10. This person complains that I expect too much of her.
1 2 3 4

AI 11. This person still loves me even when I argue with her.
1 2 3 4

CON 12. I never know how this person will react when I make a mistake.
1 2 3 4

TA 13. When there's a problem between us, this person finds a new way of working it out.
1 2 3 4

RP 14. This person often ruins things for me.
1 2 3 4

AI 15. This person gets too involved in my affairs.
1 2 3 4

CON 16. This person gives me a change to explain when I make a mistake.
1 2 3 4

TA 17. When problems come up between us, this person is all talk and no action.
1 2 3 4

RP 18. This person expects too much of me.
1 2 3 4

AI 19. This person really trusts me.
1 2 3 4

CON 20. This person is always on my back.
1 2 3 4

TA 21. I can count on this person to help me in a crisis.
1 2 3 4

RP 22. This person and I have the same views about who should do what in our family.
1 2 3 4

AI 23. This person worries too much about me.
1 2 3 4

CON 24. I don't need to remind this person to do her share.
1 2 3 4

TA = Task Accomplishment
RP = Role Performance
AI = Affective Interaction
CON = Control

APPENDIX C

Mother-Adolescent Self-Image Scales

DIRECTIONS

On these two pages, you will find 25 statements. After carefully reading each of the statements, please circle the number at the end of each statement that indicates how well the statement describes your teenage son or daughter. The numbers at the end of each statement each statement correspond with the descriptions listed directly below. Please circle only one number (response) for each statement. Answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

RESPONSE CHOICES

1-Describes child very well	4-Does not quite describe child
2-Describes child well	5-Does not really describe child
3-Describes child fairly well	6-Does not describe child at all

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IC 1. My son/daughter "loses his/her head" easily.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 2. My son/daughter feels tense most of the time.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 3. My son/daughter usually feels out of place at picnics and parties.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 4. My son/daughter feels inferior to most people he/she knows.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 5. My son/daughter does not have a particularly difficult time in making friends.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 6. My son's/daughter's feelings are easily hurt.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 7. Our society is a competitive one, and my son/daughter is not afraid of it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 8. Even under pressure my son/daughter manages to remain calm.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 9. My son/daughter does not mind being corrected since he/she can learn from it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 10. If others disapprove of my son/daughter he/she gets terribly upset.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 11. Dealing with new intellectual subjects is a challenge for my son/daughter.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 12. My son/daughter prefers being alone than with kids his/her own age.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 13. My son/daughter can take criticism without resentment.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 14. At times my son/daughter has fits of crying and/or laughing that he/she seems unable to control.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 15. My son/daughter would not stop at anything if he/she felt he/she was done wrong.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 16. My son/daughter is a superior student in school.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 17. My son/daughter frequently feels sad.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 18. My son/daughter is so very anxious.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 19. When my son/daughter wants something, he/she just sits around wishing he/she could have it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 20. My son/daughter does not enjoy solving difficult problems.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 21. Most of the time my son/daughter thinks that the world is an exciting place to live in.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 22. My son/daughter is fearful of growing up.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 23. My son/daughter feels that an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth does not apply to our society.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 24. My son/daughter blames others even when he/she knows that he/she is at fault too.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 25. My son/daughter finds life an endless series of problems without a solution in sight.

1 2 3 4 5 6

Psychological Self
IC = Impulse Control
ET = Emotional Tone

Social Self
SR = Social Relationships
M = Morals

Coping Self
SA = Superior Adjustment
MEW = Mastery of the External World

DIRECTIONS

On the following three pages you will find 60 statements concerning yourself. Please read each statement and decide how well the statement describes you. Then, circle your response. Please circle only one number (response) for each statement. Answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

RESPONSE CHOICES

1-Describes me very well
2-Describes me well
3-Describes me fairly well
4-Does not quite describe me
5-Does not really describe me
6-Does not describe me at all

IC 1. I carry many grudges.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 2. Most of the time I think that the world is an exciting place to live in.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 3. I would not hurt someone just for the "heck of it".
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 4. I "lose my head" easily.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 5. If I would be separated from all the people I know, I feel that I would not be able to make a go of it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 6. I feel tense most of the time.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 7. I usually feel out of place at picnics and parties.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 8. At times, I have fits of crying and/or laughing that I seem unable to control.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 9. If I put my mind to it, I can learn almost anything.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 10. I feel inferior to most people I know.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 11. I do not like to put things in order and make sense of them.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 12. I would not stop at anything if I felt I was done wrong.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 13. Most of the time I am happy.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 14. I can take criticism without resentment.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 15. My work, in general, is at least as good as the work of the guy next to me.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 16. My feelings are easily hurt.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 17. When a tragedy occurs to one of my friends, I feel sad too.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 18. I blame others even when I know that I am at fault too.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 19. When I want something, I just sit around wishing I could have it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 20. I am a superior student in school.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 21. I feel relaxed under normal circumstances.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 22. Telling the truth means nothing to me.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 23. Our society is a competitive one and I am not afraid of it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 24. I get violent if I don't get my way.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 25. I find it very difficult to establish new friendships.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 26. I am so very anxious.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 27. Working closely with another person never gives me pleasure.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 28. Even under pressure I manage to remain calm.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 29. I find it extremely hard to make friends.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 30. I do not mind being corrected, since I can learn from it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 31. I feel so very lonely.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 32. I do not care how my actions affect others as long as I gain something.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 33. I enjoy life.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 34. I keep an even temper most of the time.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 35. For me good sportsmanship in school is as important as winning a game.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 36. I prefer being alone than with kids my age.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 37. When I decide to do something, I do it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 38. I fear something constantly.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 39. I like to help a friend whenever I can.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 40. If I know that I will have to face a new situation, I will try in advance to find out as much as is possible about it.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 41. If others disapprove of me I get terribly upset.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 42. Being together with other people gives me a good feeling.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 43. Whenever I fail in something, I try to find out what I can do in order to avoid another failure.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 44. If you confide in others you ask for trouble.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 45. Even when I am sad I can enjoy a good joke.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 46. I find life an endless series of problems--without solution in sight.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 47. I feel that I am able to make decisions.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 48. I am certain that I will not be able to assume responsibilities for myself in the future.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 49. I feel that I have no talent whatsoever.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 50. I do not rehearse how I might deal with a real coming event.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SR 51. I do not have a particularly difficult time in making friends.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 52. I do not enjoy solving difficult problems.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 53. Eye for an eye and tooth for a tooth does not apply for our society.
1 2 3 4 5 6

M 54. I would not like to be associated with those kids who "hit below the belt".
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 55. Worrying a little about one's future helps to make it work out better.
1 2 3 4 5 6

IC 56. Usually I control myself.
1 2 3 4 5 6

SA 57. Dealing with new intellectual subjects is a challange for me.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 58. I am fearful of growing up.
1 2 3 4 5 6

MEW 59. I repeat things continuously to be sure that I am right.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ET 60. I frequently feel sad.
1 2 3 4 5 6

Psychological Self
IC = Impulse Control
ET = Emotional Tone

Social Self
SR = Social Relationship
M = Morals

Coping Self
SA = Superior Adjustment
MEW = Mastery of the External World

APPENDIX D

Advanced Modified Role Reperatory Test

DIRECTIONS FOR GRID SURVEY

Instructions for filling in person's initials:

1. Beginning with column one to your left, put your initials on the line beside the description labeled "Yourself."

2. Next, for column two, select a person in your life who fits the description labeled, "Child you do not like" and put that child's initials on the line.

3. Repeat the above steps for each of the remaining columns (one through ten) until initials have been entered on each line.

Instructions for filling in the Grid Boxes:

Each of the persons you selected in columns one through ten on the grid will be evaluated according to the personal descriptions provided to the right of the grid. This will be done as follows:

1. Beginning with "Yourself" in row one, you are to select one of the two personal characteristics for that row friendly, or not friendly. If you view "Yourself" as friendly, then next decide how friendly. For example, are you friendly (1) All of the time, (2) most of the time, or (3) some of the time. Or, perhaps, you see "Yourself" as not friendly. Next, decide if you are not friendly (4) some of the time, (5) most of the time, or (6) all of the time. When you have decided whether you are friendly or not friendly and have decided how much using the numbers above, then put your number in the row one grid box underneath "Yourself."

2. Next, continue along row one, entering a 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 in each grid box according to the personal characteristics and "how much" the person is like this. For example, after the grid box marked "Yourself," you would next do the grid box marked "Child you do not like" followed by "Your mother" and so on until you are finished with all of the first row of boxes.

3. Repeat the above procedure for each of the remaining nine rows of grid boxes. For example, on the last row of grid boxes, you will be deciding on personal descriptions of "fun to be with" or "not fun to be with" and also deciding how much and putting the number you select in the grid box.

Yourself	Child you do not like	Your mother	Someone you would like to help	Your father	A friend (boy)	A friend (girl)	A teacher	Grown-up you do not like	Someone you find hard to get to know real well

all of the time 1	most of the time 2	some of the time 3	some of the time 4	most of the time 5	all of the time 6
friendly			not friendly		
gets along well with others			does not get along well with others		
can always decide what to do			has trouble deciding what to do		
does not get upset quickly			gets upset quickly		
cares about others			cares only about himself		
happy			unhappy		
does all his work			does not do all his work		
kind to others			not kind to others		
can work well alone			needs help with his work		
fun to be with			not fun to be with		

APPENDIX E

Mother-Adolescent Letter and Consent Form

Dear Parent and Teenager:

I am an instructor at Northwest Missouri State University in the Psychology/Sociology/Guidance Department. I am currently working on a study of teenagers and their parents. This study is done because there has been a great deal of interest in understanding how family communication affects teenagers' self-concepts, that is, how they feel and see themselves as individuals. This has a great deal of influence on teenagers' overall adjustment and their social relationships. I am currently planning a study to better understand this parent-teenager communication process.

This study investigates how communication between mothers and teenage sons or daughters may influence the teenagers' feelings about themselves. In order to examine this important issue, we are asking both mothers of teenagers and teenagers to answer a series of questions about communication and relationships in various situations. These multiple choice questions do not have a right or wrong answer. You are to respond by choosing the choices that best describe your feelings and beliefs.

To encourage your participation in the study, McDonalds and Hardees restaurants have agreed to sponsor the research by giving free hamburger or cookie certificates to those teenagers who participate, complete, and return the questionnaires. I hope you agree to participate in this study. It will help us better understand teenagers and their perceptions. The success of this study depends on your help and cooperation.

If you agree to participate, please the attached consent form below which insures confidentiality of all information.

Thank you for your consideration and assistance.

Sincerely,

Jon Hixon

CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in this study. I understand all responses will be kept confidential.

_____ _____

Mother's name (please print) Mother's signature

I agree to participate and complete the questionnaire. I understand all responses are confidential. I also understand I will receive a free hamburger or cookie certificate upon completion of the questionnaire.

_____ _____

Teenager's name (please print) Teenager's signature

APPENDIX F

Packet Cover Letter and Family Background Information

Dear Parent and Teenager:

This packet contains a background information sheet and two different questionnaires; one questionnaire for the mother and one questionnaire for the teenage son or daughter. The mother and teenager may fill out the background information sheet together. However, the mother and the teenager each fill out **their own** questionnaire. These questionnaires do not have a right or wrong answer. You are to respond by choosing the choices that best describe your feelings and beliefs.

Please complete your questionnaire on your own without help from any other family members. When all of the statements in the questionnaires have been completed by the mother and the teenager, then mail both questionnaires back to me in the stamped, self-addressed envelope. Upon the envelope's arrival at my office, I will mail the teenager their free McDonald's or Hardee's certificate.

Please call me at my office (562-1263) or my home (582-2444), should you have any questions concerning the questionnaires or instructions.

Thank you.

Jon Hixon

TEENAGER'S PACKET

Dear Teenager:

Thank you agreeing to participate in this study. Before you begin, however, there are some small details I would like to draw your attention to:

1. Please help your mother fill out the **"Background Information Sheet"** which is attached to her packet. Some of the information on the sheet concerns you.

2. The last survey, a **"Grid Survey,"** may be confusing when you first read the directions. If so, please ask a parent to help you with your questions.

3. When you have completed all the surveys in this packet, put them in the self-addressed envelope I have provided.

Thank you. I will send the free certificate as soon as I receive your survey.

Please check one:

McDonald's certificate for hamburger _____

Hardee's certificate for large cookie _____

Please fill out the background information form below. All information is kept strictly confidential.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION SHEET

Your Teenager:

Age (coded as is) Grade in school (coded as is) Sex 1 male
2 female

Race 1 White 2 Black 3 Other (write in)

Religion 1 Protestant 2 Catholic 3 Other (write in)

Mother:

Present Marital Status:	**Mother**	**Father**
Married	1	1
Divorced	2	2
Remarried	3	3
Deceased	4	4

Education (check highest one compleged):

	Mother	Father
Graduate Degree	5	5
College Degree	4	4
Some college	3	3
High School Graduate	2	2
Less than 9 years school	1	1

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