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Traditional studies of parent-child relationships have focused on the influence of parental characteristics on various behavioral, social, and personality outcomes in children. During the past decade, social scientists have suggested that other influences of the social worlds of individuals be studied. As a result, the parent-child system is being studied in relationship to the child-peer system. These studies are beginning to indicate that the family and peer system are related in a variety of ways. In accordance with these ideas, the purpose of this study was to examine how parental perceptions of the family environment (i.e., cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict), adult psychosocial competence, acceptance of children, and socioeconomic status predict social competence in children's peer relations.

Subjects consisted of 74 pairs of parents and their children aged 3-5 years who resided in northwest communities with populations of

30,000-40,000. Questionnaire data were administered to the parents and sociometric measures and teacher ratings were collected on the children. Multiple regression analyses were used to test the theoretical model developed for the study. Separate regression analyses were conducted to analyze the father-mother-child, father-mother-son, and father-mother-daughter relationships. Partial support was found for the predicted relationships between parental perceptions and children's social competence. In addition, differences between fathers' and mothers' and the sex of the child were noted. In general boys' peer acceptance was predicted by mothers' competence and cohesion, while popularity was predicted by fathers' competence. Rejection by peers was predicted by low maternal acceptance and cohesion. Teacher ratings were predicted by mothers' cohesion and acceptance and fathers' competence.

For girls, peer acceptance was predicted by fathers' expressiveness and cohesion. Popularity was predicted by fathers' competence and acceptance, and mothers' expressiveness, while rejection was predicted by fathers' conflict. Teacher ratings were predicted by mothers' acceptance and competence and fathers' competence.

It was concluded that parental perceptions of some aspects of the family environment are adequate predictors of social competence in children's peer relations.

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Competence, Parental Acceptance, and Social
Competence in Children's Peer Relations

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Chapter I

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, ADULT PSYCHOSOCIAL COMPETENCE,
PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE, AND SOCIAL COMPETENCE
IN CHILDREN'S PEER RELATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, the family has been viewed as the major socializer of the young child. Children, afterall, spend the majority of their time interacting with various members of the family system (Hartup, 1979). Consequently, an appreciation of the importance of the role of the family in adult-child socialization has been detailed over the past several years (e.g., Baumrind, 1972). Much of the research has focused on the importance of the family environment and the development of social competence in children. For example, studies have investigated the relationships between competence in children and parental roles in regards to attachment (Ainsworth, 1967, 1969; Ainsworth & Bell, 1969), parental styles (e.g., Baumrind, 1967, 1971, 1972), parental support (Ellis, Thomas, & Rollins, 1976), and a secure environment (Maslow, 1962).

In spite of the early emphasis on the importance of the family, greater attention is being focused on additional social worlds of the child. As a result, the importance of the relationships among various social worlds is receiving considerable attention. It is now being recognized that the social world of the child is composed of several influential and interrelated systems including nuclear family, relatives, other adults, peers, and school (Damon, 1979).

The interdependencies of the positive links between family relationships and peer interactions have only recently been explored in any great detail. A serious oversight in the socialization literature has been the lack of information emphasizing the influences of the social worlds in which individuals take part (Hartup, 1979). Further, the interrelations among family members and peers have typically been characterized by turmoil which often leads to conflict. However, more recent evidence seems to dispute this view, as additional studies support the idea of concordance among the family and peer systems. A more positive approach now views the child's relationship within the family structure as an important antecedent of peer relations (Hartup, 1978).

The family system can be viewed as a complex social structure which varies greatly in the way it adapts to its surroundings. Furthermore, differences in family cohesiveness, attitudes, values, and beliefs exist. Due to the vast differences in family structures, an interest in the links between the family and peer systems has generated questions addressing relationships and reciprocities which are crucial to the understanding of children's socialization.

Evidence has suggested the importance of both the adult and peer systems as contributors to the social competencies of children. The importance of these two systems has been supported by the theoretical orientation of a single-process model (Hartup, 1979) in which the initial mother-child attachment process provides the impetus for later child-peer interactions. In fact, several recent studies have given support to the associations among parent-child attachments and

children's social competence (Easterbrooks & Lamb, 1979; LaFreniere
& Sroufe, 1985; Lieberman, 1977; Pastor, 1981; Waters, Wippman &
Sroufe, 1979).

Several of these studies are correlational in nature and thus
preclude causal interpretations. Nevertheless, they support the idea
that the initial parent-child relationship provides the child with the
security and support which is important for later exploration and
social interaction with peers. It seems that the initial competencies
acquired by these children in their early interactions with their
parents are later generalized to other systems, including the peer
system. Satisfactory interactions within the family are thus
predictive of positive peer interactions in later childhood.

Furthermore, parents who structure the social climate of the
family in positive ways (by explaining reasons to children behind
demands and discipline, encouraging verbal give and take, and
discouraging aggression) ultimately contribute to the social
development of their children. Children in turn use the skills that
they have acquired in the family environment in subsequent
interactions with peers. Baumrind (1972) indicates that the social
climate of the family is an important variable related to instrumental
competence in young children and seems to be more important than any
one adult behavior.

Only in recent years, however, have researchers begun to investi-
gate more specific aspects of parent-child and child-peer relation-
ships (e.g., MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Vandell, 1977). These and other
studies (discussed in the Literature Review) indicate that the family

and peer system are related in a variety of ways. Yet these studies represent only limited avenues by which parents influence child-peer relations. MacDonald and Parke (1984) have recommended that additional analysis of parental influences on children's peer relations be undertaken.

One purpose of this study was to extend the investigation of the relationship between additional family environmental factors and social competence in young children's peer relations. Since it is evident that fathers and mothers both exert influences on children, it was of interest to determine whether parents' perceptions of the family social environment, feelings of their own social competence, their acceptance of children, and socioeconomic status (SES) were related to and predictive of social competence in children.

An interest in determining additional parental perceptions predictive of social competence in children is important for a number of reasons. First, behaviors commonly associated with social competence (e.g., being friendly, being liked, having satisfying interactions, and social responsibility) are considered necessary in order to participate in society (O'Malley, 1977). Likewise, socially competent individuals are defined as those who are able to maintain positive relationships with others and within society in general (Damon, 1983). Getzels and Jackson (1961) noted that parents rated social competence skills as being more likely to lead to success in life than I.Q. or aptitude. Emmerich and Smoller (1964) reported that middle class parents had a clear preference for those behaviors associated with social competence. Parents ranked the behaviors of

assertiveness, friendliness, independence, and obedience as being valued.

Previous research has not addressed the individual and cumulative contribution of parents' perception's of the family social environment, self, child, and SES to social competence in peer relations. While the literature suggests that satisfactory family life involves consistent positive parent-child interactions and are predictive of social competence in children (Baumrind, 1972), additional work is clearly needed to understand the relative effects of adults' perceptions on children's peer relations.

Finally, the study of several behaviors commonly associated with social competence can contribute to a greater understanding of the socialization process over such isolated constructs as self-concept, empathy, or locus of control (O'Malley, 1977). As a result, four different, yet sometimes related constructs were used in this study. These included friendship ratings, positive and negative peer nominations, and teacher ratings of social competence. In addition, several researchers (e.g., Berndt, 1983; Blyth, 1983) have suggested that studies on sociometrics need to be expanded beyond the correlates of the peer group. A necessary step involves expanding the framework by examining aspects of parent-parent and parent-child settings as they relate to children's peer relations.

A second purpose of the study was to examine relationships between fathers' and mothers' perceptions and social competence in boys' and girls' peer relations. A great majority of the research on parent-child relations focuses on the parents without making a

distinction between fathers and mothers, or more commonly focuses on the mother-child relationship at the exclusion of the father-child the father-child relationship. It has only been in the last few decades that serious consideration has been given to the contribution of the father to the socialization of the child (e.g., Hoffman, 1961; Lamb, 1977a, 1977b; Pederson, 1975). It is becoming increasingly clear that both fathers and mothers contribute to the developing child, and that they adopt different strategies, attitudes, and beliefs which can contribute to different outcomes in their relation-ships with their children (Parke & O'Leary, 1975; Pederson, 1975, 1981). Furthermore, evidence suggests that parents interact differently with their children depending on the sex of the parent and the sex of the child. Frankel and Rollins (1983) indicated that in an instructional task between parents and children, parents were more directive, approving, and disapproving with their sons, and more cooperative, concrete, and specific with their daughters. MacDonald and Park (1984) reported that positive peer relations in boys and girls were associated with paternal physical play and maternal verbal behavior. Since it is evident that both parents exert influences upon the child, there is a clear need to examine the relative effects of fathers' and mothers' perceptions of their family, self, and child on boys' and girls' social competence.

The third purpose of this study was to examine the interrelations among the different measures of social competence, i.e., friendship ratings, positive and negative peer nominations, and teacher ratings. It was of interest to determine whether the interrelations between the

sociometric measures in this study (a) supported the results of previous studies (e.g., Gottman, 1977; Hymel & Asher, 1977; Roff, 1972) and (b) were related to teacher ratings of social competence of children.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between parental perceptions of the social climate of the family environment, parental psychosocial competence, acceptance of children, SES, and social competence in children's peer relations. Furthermore, this study sought to determine which parent variables were most predictive of children's social competence.

The principal aim of the study was to examine whether or not these relationships were influenced the sex of the parent and sex of the child. The impact of parental agreement on the perceived social climate of the family, psychosocial competence, and parental acceptance of children's behavior were also examined. Both fathers' and mothers' responses were of interest because research indicates that the behaviors and interactions of both are related to the child's social interactions (Baldwin, 1948; Frankel & Rollins, 1983; Winder & Rau, 1962).

It appears that no studies have investigated the individual or combined effects of the perceptions and feelings of adults associated with children's peer relations. Such a study is important as a means of understanding the relative impact of these variables as they relate to social competence in children. Furthermore, by examining the

degree of both the fathers' and mothers' agreement of their
perceptions of the family environment, self, and child, it may be
possible to identify additional aspects of family variables which
influence children's social competence in peer relations.

In addition, an examination of the structural elements of the
family were investigated. It was of interest to determine whether
such factors as education, salary, and occupational status of parents
were useful in predicting children's social competence.

Finally, an examination of the measures of social competence were
conducted to ascertain their interrelations and to extend upon and
seek additional support for previous studies.

<center>Nominal Definitions</center>

The terms used throughout the study have been defined in the
following manner:

Family Environment is defined as the social climate of the home
with an emphasis on interpersonal relationships (e.g., cohesion,
expressiveness, and conflict) (Moos & Moos, 1981).

Adult Psychosocial Competence is conceptualized in terms of self-
attributes which underlie patterns of behavior that assist in
sustaining human functioning. The behavioral attitudes of a competent
person include active coping, initiating goal setting which is
realistic, planning, enjoying success, and learning from unsuccessful
experiences. The non-competent person is viewed as passive, unable to
plan, setting goals in an erratic manner, and not enjoying success or
profiting from mistakes (Tyler, 1978).

Parental Acceptance is characterized by the parents' feelings and behaviors which are directed toward the child. More specifically, parental acceptance is defined as those feelings and behaviors of parents which are characterized by unconditional love, the recognition of the rights and needs of the children, and the recognition of children to develop their own independence and autonomy. Non-acceptance is conceptualized as parental feelings and behaviors which include rejection, indulgence, overprotection, and behaviors which interfere with the child's ability to develop an autonomous self (Porter, 1954).

Children's Social Competence is a broad construct which has yet to take on a universal definition, and therefore has been defined in a variety of ways. For the purpose of this study, social competence is conceptualized in terms of three related yet different dimensions of social status: friendship or social acceptance by peers (McCandless & Marshall, 1957); popularity of peers (Roistacher, 1974; Singleton & Asher, 1977; Thomas & Powell, 1951); and the adequacy of children's interpersonal behavior, the degree to which they assume appropriate independent functioning, and the degree of social responsibility perceived by the child's teacher (Levine, Elzey, & Lewis, 1969).

Children's Peer Relations is defined as the child's interactions with other similar age and same-sex children in an educational set-ting. Because young children typically interact with same-sex peers, the sociometric scores (nominations and ratings) are based on these groups (McCandless & Marshall, 1957; Singleton & Asher, 1977).

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Family Environment

Socialization of the young child within the family environment has historically been researched in terms of the mother-child dyad (Bowlby, 1969). Many researchers were particularly interested in the mother's behavior and how this might influence child behaviors in terms of attachment, security, and anxiousness (Ainsworth, 1967). As the issue of early socialization took on more importance, the child's impact on the mother was additionally considered (e.g., Buss, 1981). The mother-child dyad, after all, was a fairly captive audience and easy to recruit for various research studies.

The early emphasis on the mother-child dyad tended to ignore the issue that children live in families and are members of a complex social system involving parents, siblings, other relatives, and friends. As a result, more recent attention has focused on studying and viewing the child as a member of a social system (MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Turner & Harris, 1984; Vandell, 1977).

From a theoretical and research perspective, then, it has been deemed necessary to study the child in terms of more complex models. As the emphasis on social development has shifted, the importance of viewing the child in a variety of social settings has been stressed. The principles of systems theory emphasize the importance of the

interdependence of the systems and is applicable to this study of

parent-child-peer interactions (Sameroff, 1983).

In recent years, the examination of the impact of various child

systems on their socialization experiences with peers has been of

considerable interest. A relatively recent viewpoint which has

dominated the literature is the influence of parent-infant attachments

on social competence.

A number of investigators have reported various associations

between parent-infant attachments and social competence of children

up to the age of five years. Easterbrooks and Lamb (1979) observed

18-month-old infants and their parents in order to determine the

relationship between quality of attachment and encounters with peers.

The more securely attached infants engaged in more frequent inter-

actions with peers than the insecurely attached infants who stayed in

proximity to their parents. The securely attached children were more

likely to wander further from their parents and to engage in social

interactions with their peers, parents, and a stranger.

Pastor (1981) indicated that securely attached toddlers aged 20-

23 months were more sociable and responded in more positive ways to

their mothers and peers than insecurely attached infants. The mothers

were reported to be more supportive of their infants' efforts and made

more positive statements when interacting with their children. The

insecurely attached toddlers were described as being more negative in

their interactions with peers and mothers, stressed by the

interactions, and often ignored their peers' offers to interact.

The importance of early parent-child interactions and the parents' influence on the child during the preschool years has been assessed in a few studies. In a longitudinal study on three year olds, Lieberman (1977) assessed the relationship between peer competence and attachment security and amount of peer interaction experience. Secure attachments were positively correlated with peer interactions while peer competence was related to both child-parent and child-peer relations.

Waters, Wippman, and Sroufe (1979) assessed the relationship between infant attachment and peer competence at age 3 1/2 years. The quality of early attachments was related to levels of social competence in personal and interpersonal skills. Parent-infant relationships which were determined to be more positive involved children who scored higher on Q-sort assessments at 3 1/2 years of age. Similar findings by LaFreniere and Sroufe (1985) indicated that children 4-5 years old with secure attachment histories were ranked higher on peer status measures than anxious children.

These findings suggest that the ways in which children and parents interact is a reciprocal process. Parents who were judged to be more supportive of their children generally had children who were more securely attached. These parent-child interactions seemed to set the stage for more positive child-peer interactions. Likewise, research is indicating that the skills learned by children in child-peer interactions will be used in the parent-child interactions. Easterbrooks and Lamb (1979) state that the various interrelationships among these social systems are crucial for understanding complex

social interactions and early social development and need to be explored even more systematically.

The examination of the preceding literature suggests that parent and parent-child interactions which were judged socially competent affected the child-peer interactions in a variety of ways. In particular it appears that parents contribute to the child's social competence through social, emotional, and verbal means. In addition, most of the studies previously cited suggested that parents who were supportive of each other were more effective in their interactions and supportive of their children. These direct effects in turn had an indirect effect on child-peer relations.

Several research studies have further focused on different aspects of parental behaviors within the family as a means of establishing correlates of social competence. Some of the early studies on patterns of child rearing for example, examined parental behaviors in relationship to personality factors in the child. In longitudinal studies by Baldwin (1948, 1949) parents and children were interviewed in the home on several occasions. From the ratings and interviews, two dimensions of child rearing emerged: democracy and control. Child behaviors were observed and rated on such characteristics as friendly, bossy, curiosity, emotional control, and asking help. Major findings from the study indicated that children of democratic parents appeared to be more socially interactive, often used verbal persuasion to meet their needs, and were generally constructive. Children of controlling parents were characterized as being fearful, obedient, and suggestible. Baldwin (1948, 1949)

suggested that democratic parents were more likely to be supportive of the child's independence which seemed preferential to the controlling parents behaviors.

More recent studies on child rearing correlates of social competence include those conducted by Baumrind (1967, 1971, 1977, 1979; Baumrind & Black, 1967). In her initial study, Baumrind (1967) indicated that authoritarian parents generally had children who were identified as unhappy and withdrawn socially in preschool. In later studies, Baumrind (1971, 1973) examined child-rearing patterns associated with clusters of behaviors in which three types of parenting patterns emerged: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. Authoritarian parents were more likely to shape and control behavior, value obedience, authority, and order, and discourage verbal exchanges. Authoritative parents were more likely to use explanations and reasons with their children, recognize rights of both children and adults, and enforce standards firmly. Permissive parents were less likely to use punishment, demands, control, or power, and were more likely to allow children to regulate their own behavior. Characteristics of the children were identified and behavioral differences were described according to the types of child-rearing patterns. Children of authoritarian parents showed little independence and scored average on social responsibility. Children of authoritative parents were described as being independent and socially responsible. Permissive parents had children who lacked independence and social responsibility.

In a follow-up study, Baumrind (1977) re-evaluated a group of
8 and 9 year old children who had been studied as preschoolers.
These children were rated on social agency (active participation,
leadership, interactions with children, and lack of anxiousness in
interacting with peers) and cognitive agency (sense of identify, met
intellectual challenges, set standards of self, and showed creativity
in thought processes). Early and late observations of children were
compared with early styles of parenting. Children who were identified
as scoring high in social and cognitive agency at 8 and 9 years of age
were more likely to have parents who were described as authoritative.
In summary, Baumrind's studies (1967, 1971, 1973, 1977) suggest that
parents characterized as authoritative have children who are described
as being more competent than children from either authoritarian or
permissive parents.

Sex differences related to parental patterns of childrearing were
also noted in several of Baumrind's studies. For example, Baumrind
(1971, 1973) noted that authoritarian parenting was associated with
less dependence, less self reliance, and more angry and defiant
behavior in boys more so than in girls. Authoritative parenting was
associated with more friendly and cooperative characteristics in boys.
Girls, on the other hand, were characterized as being more self-
reliant, achievement oriented, resistive toward parents, and
domineering toward peers when parents were authoritative. In a later
study (Baumrind, 1977) sex differences were again noted.
Authoritarian parenting was associated with low social and cognitive
achievement in boys more so than girls. These studies suggest that

authoritarian parenting seems to be more detrimental to boys than to girls. The number of studies by Baumrind which focused on instrumental competence generally provided results with high consistency. Generalizations based upon the data suggest that the greater the parental support, the greater the instrumental competence of children. Conversely, the greater the parental coercion, the less the instrumental competence in children.

According to Baumrind (1972) the emotional climate of the family environment is an important variable which is related to the outcome of the child. The responsibility of creating a supportive family environment, however, does not occur by chance; it is created by the interaction of parents and children (Patterson, 1975). Through interactions with various family members, children learn to acquire both positive and negative behaviors which partially reflect the family environment in which they are reared. According to Patterson (1975), non-supportive family environments contribute to disruptive behaviors in children. On the other hand, parents who are consistent about enforcing rules and demands have children who will more likely control their impulses and not show coercion toward their parents (Patterson, 1976). These studies suggest that a family environment which is characterized by supportive parents tends to facilitate adaptive and positive behavior in children by promoting the development of social responsibility, self-control, and self-competence.

Additional studies have focused on other characteristics of families as a means of assessing social compentence in children.

For example, Turner and Harris (1984) investigated the relationships between parental attitudes and social competence in children. Parental indulgence and protectiveness were positively associated, while parental rejection was negatively associated with children's self concept. Fathers' protectiveness was associated with vocabulary skills and a recognition of the emotions of others, while indulgence from mothers was related to greater generosity in children. In general, nuturance and discipline were positively related to social competence, while rejection was negatively related to various indices of social competence. However, a majority of the measures of social competence were not significantly related which indicates little validity for a global construct of social competence. The researchers suggested the use of more specific attitudes of parents and skills of children in future research.

Fowler (1980) assessed the structural analysis of the family and children's behavioral development on a sample of 6 year old children. Using an adaptation of Moos' (1974) Family Environment Scale, the structures of "organization-control" and "interpersonal-relationships" were determined by parents. The development of children was assessed by parents according to the areas of attention-span problems, speech and language deficits, behavioral problems, signs of developmental delays and shyness, and anxiety. Correlation coefficients and multiple regression analyses were used to assess the relationships and predictive value of the family's structure 18 months later and just prior to when children entered kindergarten. Developmental delays, speech language deficients, aggression, and hostility were associated

with mothers' perceptions of a less cohesive family. Shyness and anxiety were associated with less structural organization.

Overall, these studies suggest that certain characteristics within the family environment and behaviors of parents and children are often predictive of social competence in parent-child relations. Although the family system has been extensively studied in terms of the developing child, our knowledge concerning several behavioral influences existing within the family is uneven and incomplete (Hartup, 1979).

Missing from the literature are studies in which adult behaviors and perceptions of the social climate of the family are linked to peer relations. Studies of the social influences existing in the family requires the consideration of additional questions. For example, how do adult perceptions of certain behaviors within the family (e.g., cohesion, expressiveness, conflict) influence peer relations? Are different outcomes in children who are viewed as socially competent related to the sex of the parent and/or the sex of the child?

Research is beginning to focus more on the relationships between the family and peer systems. Yet it appears that several questions investigating the indirect links of these two systems remain unanswered. Clearly, the assessment of additional parental perceptions of the family environment as they relate to peer systems deserves attention.

Adult Psychosocial Competence

Efforts to develop and operationalize an adult competence construct have only recently been explored. Some of the early considerations of adult psychosocial functioning include the writings of positive mental health (Jahoda, 1958), the defining of the "conflict-free ego sphere" (Hartmann, 1958), instrinsic motivation (White, 1960), the fully functioning person (Rogers, 1961), and the outcomes of the psychosocial stages of development (Erikson, 1963).

A review of the literature indicates that very few studies concerning the relationships between adult psychosocial competence and social competence in peer relations in young children exist. A study by Mondell and Tyler (1981) investigated parental competence, defined as the configuration of self-efficiency, trust, and coping style as it related to parent problem solving and play behavior patterns with children. Patterns of problem solving included the dimensions of interaction style, feelings and affect, and modeling and guidance. The more competent parents interacted in a different manner than the less competent parents. The competent parents seemed to enjoy the interaction, were warm, and gave more positive and constructive instructions. The less competent parents were more authoritarian, less interested in the task, less warm, gave fewer suggestions for solving the problem, and performed less modeling. The researchers suggested that the parents' sense of competence may be a contributing factor which influences their styles of interaction with their children.

A longitudinal study by Vandell (1977) assessed the relationships between father-toddler, mother-toddler and toddler-toddler interactions among boys. Similarities between mother-child and father-child encounters in terms of length of interaction, frequency of motor behaviors, and vocalizations were noted. However, when examining the parent-child and child-child systems both similarities and differences between the relationships existed. More interactions between mother and child occurred, while more agonistic behaviors, contact, and positive affect occurred between the child and peer. Developmental trends over time (16, 19, 22 months) were similar. Furthermore, causal analyses indicated that parents had a significant impact on child-peer interactions and vice versa. The exchange of objects between mother-child and child-peer (and vice versa) and the exchange of positive affect between father-child and child-peer (and vice versa) were both noted. Although the sample size was small (N=6 families), and limited to male children, the results support the notion that parents significantly impact peer directed behavior in their toddlers and vice versa.

A recent study by MacDonald and Parke (1984) provides a descriptive analysis of the interrelationships between father and mother play interaction and peer competence. Children ages 3-4 years were videotaped interacting with their parents individually and their social competence with peers were assessed. Different patterns of parenting emerged which were related to peer interactive competence. Fathers' physical play and engagement and mothers' verbal behavior were positively related to children's peer relations. Fathers'

directiveness was negatively related to children's peer relations, while mothers' directiveness was positively related to girls' popularity. Although the casual direction of effect in these relationships cannot be determined, MacDonald and Parke (1984) emphasized that the interactions of the family and peer systems were linked in several ways.

Lastly, three studies were reviewed which focused on parental characteristics and behaviors and social competence in peer relations in an attempt to explain those variables which provided support for the indirect links among the parent system and child-peer system. Hoffman (1961) assessed the relationships between particular characteristics of the parent system and child-peer relationships. Fathers who were assessed as more powerful than mothers, parents who used positive discipline, and parents who had established a warm relationship with their children were identified as important indices related to child competence. These children were described as feeling accepted by their peers, assertive in peer groups, being well liked, and having a positive influence on others.

Krantz, Webb, and Andrews (1984) considered the parents' social participation as being potentially influential on socially competent behaviors in kindergarten children. Parents who participated socially with friends, and mothers who participated socially in the community were related to measures of social competence in children.

The adequacy of mothers' skills related to the social competence of their adolescent sons was examined by Sherman and Farina (1974). The researchers proposed that inadequate skills for dealing with

others are learned early in life by incompetent parents who lack social skills. Two groups of college men were identified as being high and low in social competence. The mothers of the subjects were then rated on social competence. Those men rated most socially skilled had socially competent mothers, while those men rated less socially skilled had mothers who rated low in social competence. The researchers suggested that inadequate preparation of the child by the parent may contribute to difficulty in dealing with the social environment. Parents who possess inadequate social skills regardless of their intentions, do not provide their children with the necessary environment to develop social skills. Although the study is correlational in nature, it does indicate a relationship between the mothers' and sons' skills. The researchers suggested that the parents' teaching role is an important contribution to the development of social competence in children. Parents appear to play a crucial role in determining which early patterns of social interaction are transferred to their offspring.

The last three studies taken together are particularly relevant to this study. Collectively, these studies suggest the importance of particular parental social behaviors and skills to competent peer relations. The assumption that family characteristics are significantly related to positive peer relations has thus been supported in terms of parental warmth and power (Hoffman, 1961), parents' social participation (Krantz, Webb & Andrews, 1984) and mothers' social skills (Sherman & Farina, 1974). It appears that

certain family factors supply the child with important

behaviors and skills necessary for positive peer interactions.

While the above studies begin to delineate the parents' contribution to the development of social skills in children, more evidence on additional parental perceptions is needed. A critical element lacking in the literature is an understanding of specific parental perceptions of their own competence related to the emergence of social competencies of their young children. For example, Sherman and Farina (1974) indicated that the social skills of mothers are related to social competence in adolescent boys. Since many of our social skills are learned early in life, it is of interest to extend the study of adult psychosocial competence and competent peer relations downward to younger children. It is of further interest to extend the study of adult competence to include both the fathers' and mothers' influence on boys and girls. Additional research on adult psychosocial competence of fathers and mothers on their sons and daughters would provide information on stylistic differences of the various relationships.

Parental Acceptance

For decades the parent-child literature has identified parental acceptance as crucial to the socialization of children. The general construct of acceptance has been labeled in terms of a variety of similar connatations such as support, nurturance, warmth, and approval (e.g., Ellis, Thomas, & Rollins, 1976). Acceptance was identified

initially by Symonds (1939) in his work and was operationalized in terms of a continuum of acceptance-rejection behavior.

Several studies indicate that warmth is an important factor in parent-child relationships. According to Maccoby (1980) a warm parent is concerned about the welfare of the child, responsive to the needs of the child, spends time interacting in activities chosen by the child, is enthusiastic about the child's accomplishments, and is sensitive to the emotional needs of the child.

Children of accepting, warm, and affectionate parents have been shown to exhibit several characteristics. Adult acceptance or supportiveness has been found to be related to secure attachments (Ainsworth & Bell, 1969), instrumental competence (Baumrind, 1972), prosocial behavior (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977), moral development (Peterson, 1976), and problem solving (Mondell & Tyler, 1981) in children. Patterson (1976) indicates that children of warm parents are less coercive and more compliant. Further, children of warm parents are high in self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967; Gecas, 1969; Thomas, Gecas, Weigert, & Rooney, 1974), more considerate of schoolmates (Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967), and more altruistic (Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, & King, 1979). These studies suggest that parental acceptance and warmth are important factors which facilitate positive interactions and behaviors between parents and children. As a result, children tend to be more responsive and more readily accept guidance from parents.

Parents of socially competent children are often characterized as being gentle and supportive of their young children's needs (Marion,

1981). For example, evidence from the literature indicates that a number of parental practices predict social competence in the early years of children. It appears that adults of competent children foster a general atmosphere of acceptance and supportiveness which tends to have a positive effect on the child's socialization.

Cole et al. (1982) reported that parents who are warm and interact frequently with their children, have children who exhibit friendly, assertive behavior. Friendly assertive behavior seems to be an important function of social development, and "is an indicator of the degree to which (children) will engage other people, of their willingness to seek out help, information and support, and of their probable success" (p. 61). Moore and Bulbulian (1976) tested the hypothesis that adult acceptance and supportiveness had a facilitative effect on the child's curiosity as compared with adult criticalness. Two groups of children aged 3-5 years received treatments of either adult friendly-approving or aloof-critical comments after the completion of two tasks. After the treatments, children participated in a guessing game in which exploratory behavior was recorded. The results indicated that children who received critical feedback were less likely to display curiosity related to the task, were less exploratory, took a longer amount of time before exploration began, and were less likely to make guesses compared to children subjected to the friendly-approving adults. Although sex differences were not consistent for the data, girls appeared to be more sensitive to critical adults.

Results of studies using slightly older children lends additional support to the importance of accepting parents. Winder and Rau (1962) noted that boys who were identified as "being liked" through sociometrics had parents who used considerable supportive reinforcement, discouraged antisocial behavior, and used small amounts of punishment. Elkins (1958) found that children whose parents indicated satisfaction with them received higher sociometric scores than those children whose parents expressed a dissatisfaction with them. Further, researchers and theorists from a variety of perspectives indicate the importance of an accepting, supportive, and warm family environment for the development of a healthy personality (Dreikers, 1964; Erikson, 1963; Maslow, 1962; Patterson, 1975). Katz (1977) believes that accepting, supportive, and warm adults support the child by providing a psychologically safe environment.

The relationship between active/warm interactions with well and mildly mentally ill parents and children's school functioning was noted in a study by Cole et al. (1982). The child's overall level of social competence measured by teacher and peer ratings were assessed. Sex differences of mother-child and father-child interactions were considered. Children in active/warm relationships were rated higher by peers than those not in active/warm relationships, and more so for father-child interactions. Children not in an active/warm relationship with either parent were rated high on intrusiveness by peers. Teacher ratings paralleled those of the peer ratings. Active/warm father-child relationships were related to the child's school performance, in particular, cognitive performance

and motivation. These results were found in both well and ill parents. Parents whose diagnoses suggested that they were ill yet responsive to their children had children who performed better in school than children of parents who were ill and unresponsive to their children. In general, children of active/warm parents were more likely to successfully engage actively in their environment.

Supportive adults are also characterized as being firm, placing reasonable limits on the child, and being clear about which actions are acceptable or not acceptable. There is a fair amount of research for example, that indicates a relationship between parents who use reasonable limits, self control, and growth, and helping behaviors in children (Coopersmith, 1967; Marcus & Leiserson, 1978). A study by Baumrind (1967) noted a relationship between parents who were firm yet encouraging and children who were socially responsible and independent. White and Watts (1973) described parents of competent children as not allowing unacceptable behaviors and their children as having the ability to foresee the undesirable actions of their behavior.

Pease and Mendez (1985) investigated the relationship between parents' perceptions of child-rearing practices and their perceptions of social competence and social style in children ages 5, 8, and 11 years. Parents who rated themselves high on the child-rearing factors of limit setting, responsiveness, reasoning, guidance, and intimacy, had children that were less disruptive and more task persistent, affectionate, cooperative, and responsive. Some sex differences were demonstrated between fathers and mothers. Fathers reported using more

discipline related to safety and respect, while mothers reported being more involved with their children.

The results concerning accepting parents produce fairly consistent outcomes. Accepting adults are characterized as supportive, yet firm and able to set reasonable limits on the child's behavior. Children are generally characterized as being socially responsible, independent, with high self-esteem.

A review of the literature on adult acceptance and supportiveness suggests that there are several important behaviors related to positive adult-child relationships. Furthermore, several studies, (e.g., Gecas, 1971) have shown that children who are a product of a positive family environment (particularly in terms of the parent-child relationship) generally perceive themselves in a competent manner. Children of accepting parents view themselves as friendly, good, active, and happy (Gecas, 1971). From these studies, it can be inferred that when parents are accepting of their children, these feelings are internalized by children which in turn contributes to the child's feeling of competence.

Nonaccepting and nonsupportive adults on the other hand are described as treating children with little respect, giving little encouragement, and viewing the child as a nuisance (Coopersmith, 1967). Parents who are demanding, restrict autonomy, and use irrational methods of control have children who often reject parental authority (Pikas, 1961). In addition, parents who do not practice what they preach to children, generally have children who model what was practiced. For example, self-indulgent behavior is likely to be

copied regardless of what was preached (Mischel & Liebert, 1966).
These behaviors were readily observable in children and were more
likely to occur through modeling than by direct rewards (Rosenhan,
Frederick & Burrowes 1968).

Because parents play an important role during the child's early
years, there continues to be considerable interest in determining the
relationships between characteristics of the family environment and
behaviors in the child. Despite methodological limitations, several
conclusions can be drawn from the literature. Parents who have
unwanted children and give little attention and affection to their
children are more likely to have children who display hostile patterns
of behavior (Glueck & Glueck, 1950). Home experiences of children
which included rejecting parents showed a strong relationship to
aggressive behavior in 9 year old, non-delinquent lower class boys.
Those boys characterized as assertive or nonagressive toward parents
had parents described as warm and affectionate (McCord, McCord &
Howard, 1961).

A review of the literature on acceptance indicates a
proliferation of studies generally directed at parent-child relations.
While this approach has demonstrated a link between warm and accepting
parents and positive parent-child relations as well as nonaccepting
and rejecting parents and negative parent-child relations, an
alternative approach seeks to discover the effects of parental
acceptance on child-peer relations. Since interactions with family
members are considered important antecedents to peer relations
(Hartup, 1979) the present study seeks to extend the examination of

parental influences to peer relations among children. A second aim is to extend the examination of similarities or differences in fathers' and mothers' acceptance and the sex of the child.

Demographics

The structural elements of the family (e.g., education, income, and occupation) are considered important in the child's development and behavior. Generalizations extracted from a large body of research summarized by Hess (1970) discuss several characteristics of the parents' behavior and family position. Lower-SES parents tend to emphasize respect, obedience, and staying out of trouble, while higher-SES parents value independence, curiosity, and self-control. Lower-SES parents are characterized as being authoritarian, controlling, and more likely to use physical punishment. Higher-SES parents are more democratic, more likely to use induction techniques, and are more responsive to their children's views of life. Further, higher-SES parents reason more with their children, communicate more, and use more complex language structure. Although certain families are difficult to classify according to the SES index, the index does provide a meaningful picture for the majority of families (Maccoby, 1980). These relationships have also been found to hold across culture and race (Hess & Shipman, 1965).

The impact of additional family factors on children's social competence were examined in a study by Adams (1985). Some predictive associations of demographic and parenting variables on indices of empathy and externality (perceived vulnerability) were reported as

significant. A relationship between mothers who stayed at home or
only worked part time and higher empathic abilities in children,
especially for sons was noted. Maternal responsiveness was
significantly related to children's externality and empathy. Parents'
education, employment status, and family income, however, did not make
a significant contribution to children's empathic abilities.
Additional studies examining socioeconomic status have reported
relative impacts of higher-SES parents and advanced academic ability
in children (Bradley, Caldwell, & Elardo, 1977; Marjoribanks, 1977).
However, other researchers (Henderson, 1981; Zill & Peterson, 1982)
have recommended that the influence of the structural forms of
families be investigated on forms of competence other than academic
ability.

A more recent study has examined the relationship between family
resources and the development of social competence in primary and
secondary school children. Amato and Ochiltree (1986) developed a
model to examine two categories of family resources to four forms of
child competence. The family resources consisted of the structural
resources of income, education, and occupation, while the process
resources consisted of parental expectations, help, and attention.
Child competence was measured in terms of reading ability, self-
esteem, everyday skills, and social competence. In general, the
analysis indicated that structural and process resources were related
to reading ability, process resources were related to self-esteem and
everyday skills, and that both resources were related more strongly to

the younger rather than the older children. Social competence was weakly associated with both sets of resources.

It appears that the majority of the research conducted on SES of parents has focused on parental behaviors or limited indices of behaviors of children. At present, very few demographic and family structural variables have been examined for their predictive relationship to additional aspects of social competence in young children. It is of interest to this study to extend the research to younger children and explore the predictive relationship of family SES, (income, education, and occupational prestige) to specific aspects of social competence (e.g., social acceptance, popularity, rejection, and social responsibility).

Social Competence in Children

Research studies on the interrelationships of the family and peer system present evidence to suggest that these two social worlds interact as a complex synergism. The studies reviewed lend support to the idea that children who are reared in warm, secure family environments are more successful in establishing and maintaining positive peer relations. The data at hand suggest that the child's early positive encounter with the parents provides that impetus for interacting in a positive manner with the peer system (e.g., LaFreniere & Sroufe, 1985; Lieberman, 1977).

Interest in the socially incompetent child, on the other hand, has often focused on early encounters of rejection by peers and adjustments in later life which has prompted the investigation of

several correlational studies. Asher, Oden, and Gottman (1977)
suggested that the consequences associated with peer rejection might
be more severe than those associated with low achievement. For
instance, in a longitudinal study by Cowen et al., (1973) children
were measured on a variety of variables such as peer acceptance, grade
point average, I.Q., absenteeism, achievement, and teacher ratings.
Eleven years later, an examination of mental health records indicated
that low acceptance by peers was the best predictor of those who were
most likely to receive treatment as adults. Further, it has been
found that those children who were judged socially incompetent early
in life were more likely to drop out of school (Ullmann, 1975), become
juvenile delinquents (Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972), be underachievers
academically (McCandless, 1967), and have mental health problems or
psychiatric records as adults (Pritchard & Graham, 1966). In order to
remedy some of the consequences of social incompetence, skills train-
ing and preventive approaches to mental health were emphasized (e.g.,
Allen et al., 1964; Asher, Markell, & Hymel, 1981; McFall & Twentyman,
1973). The focus of the programs often centered on the child without
giving consideration to the various systems, such as the family, which
may in fact be a contributing factor to the child's inadequate social
interaction with peers.

In spite of the fact that the family and peer system have been
studied separately as critical social systems impacting on the
development of the child, our knowledge is more limited in regards to
links between the family environment and peer relations. Yet, it is
the parents who initially exert a considerable influence on their

young children, which may ultimately be linked to how children manage

their social lives with their peers.

Stipulation of the child's social system requires thorough

examination of the environment in which the child lives. In order to

better understand child interactions, an examination of the social and

physical environments in which the child resides seems necessary.

Likewise, it seems necessary that we go beyond the exploration of the

immediate family system and consider how this immediate system relates

to various other systems of importance to the child, for example

peers.

Sex Differences of Parent and Child

Historically, approaches to the study of early socialization of

young children put considerable emphasis on the mother's role. Early

research tended to focus exclusively on the mother-infant dyad and

regarded the mother as being the most important person in the young

child's social milieu (Erikson, 1950; Bowlby, 1969). A common theme

of the research thrust of the 1960's involved the special features of

the mother-child relationship and how early attachment formation was

related to social competence in children (e.g., Ainsworth, 1967).

Similarly, an interactional view was gaining popularity with the

recognition that not only do mothers influence their children, but

children influence their mothers (Bell, 1968; Lewis & Rosenblum,

1974). Interestingly, during the same decade, research findings by

Schaffer and Emerson (1964) indicated that infants form multiple and

important attachments quite early in life with both the father and

mother, yet the significance of these findings were virtually ignored. The focus on the mother-infant dyad ignored the fact that an infant is a member of a family system, comprised of several members. Yet, infants quite often are interacting with several members of the family in unique and diverse ways.

There seem to be several reasons why theory and research have overlooked the father-child relationship:

1. Early developmental theories have focused exclusively on the importance of the mother-child relationship (Freud & Burlingham, 1944; Bowlby, 1951, 1969; Ainsworth, 1969). The central theme focused on the importance of mothering and attachment and the detrimental effects of maternal deprivation and failure to thrive due to lack of attachment.

2. The sterotypic idea of family roles has influenced the choice and direction of research topics concerning interaction (Rapoport, 1978).

3. Previous views of infants' knowledge in particular, as a passive organism unable to make discriminations between the parents, led researchers to ignore the father's role (Pederson, 1980).

4. Theories which look at marriage relationships were not directed at understanding the complex interactions between the father and child (Hill, 1966).

5. In addition to the more complex justifications often cited, practical limitations influenced the type of research which was conducted. The mother-child dyad was a more captive audience, easier to contact, and more available to study than the father-child dyad.

Despite these early limitations, researchers are now increasingly recognizing the fact that in order to understand the development of the child, the child needs to be studied within the context of the family unit. As a result, there have been a proliferation of studies concerned with the complex variables of socialization involving the interactions of father, mother, and child in recent years (e.g., Lamb, 1975, 1976a, 1976b). Likewise, researchers have begun to seriously explore the similarities and differences in mother-infant and father-infant dyads as well as studying the reciprocal influences of parent-child interactions within the family system (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Lewis and Weinraub, 1976).

It appears that the impetus for much of this work developed due to shifting sex-roles, which has contributed to an interest in the consequences of childhood socialization. Therefore, a greater emphasis on the impact of both the fathers' and mothers' role took on greater meaning. Individual differences on child outcomes as well as differences between the father-mother-child systems were additionally emphasized (e.g., Lamb, 1977a, 1977b). However, only within the past decade have descriptive and comparative studies of parent-child interactions been studied extensively (e.g., MacDonald & Parke, 1984).

A review of the literature has indicated the emergence of certain themes. Both fathers and mothers play important roles in the socialization process of children and the roles they play often vary according to the particular functions of parenting. Studies on father-infant and mother-infant interaction by Lamb (1977a, 1977b)

found that fathers interacted in more active ways with their children and held them most often in play. Mothers were more likely to hold infants while engaging in caretaking functions and were considered more nurturant. Studies by Clark-Stewart (1978) and Parke (1980) support the studies of Lamb (1977a, 1977b).

With respect to outcomes on slightly older children, a number of interactive differences between father and mother behaviors have been noted. Bright and Stockdale (1984) observed several interactive behaviors of fathers, mothers, and preschool children. During a play session, fathers were described as being more controlling and directive of their children while mothers were described as being quieter with their children. In turn, boys initiated more interactions with their fathers, showed greater affection toward their mothers, and gave more praise to their fathers than mothers. Although both parents were described as being involved, certain aspects of fathers' and mothers' behaviors were apparent.

In a study by Frankel and Rollins, (1983) both the sex of the parent and child were examined in an interactional teaching situation where parents were requested to assist a child in recalling picture cards. The teaching strategies of the parents were found to differ according to the sex of the child rather than as a function of their own sex. Parents were more directive, approving, and disapproving of their sons, provided more feedback, and were described as being effective in their teaching strategies on the particular task. However, parental sex effects may be dependent on the task being examined, therefore generalizations to other tasks may not be valid.

Based on this study, future research which explores the sex of parent and the sex of child might provide additional information concerning the links between adult behaviors and child outcomes.

The preceding studies lend support to the fact that a fair amount of research has been conducted on the effects of sex differences of parents on the sex of the child in terms of select variables. What is less clear is the effects of the sex of parent and the sex of the child on certain aspects of child-peer relations. Recently, there has been a greater recognition (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1973; Feiring & Lewis, 1978; Lamb, 1976b) that in order to have a more complete picture of the development of the child, the child must be studied within the context of additional social systems beyond the mother-child dyad. One purpose of this study was to extend the research on the sex of parent and the sex of the child in order to determine whether differences in outcomes exist which may influence peer relations.

Summary

It appears that previous research has not examined specific perceived family environmental factors, adult competence, parental acceptance of children, and socioeconomic status to social competence in children's peer relations. Further, few accurate accounts of father-child and mother-child effects exist in relationship to these variables. Therefore, there appears to be a need for additional research focusing on the relative effects of perceived parental

responses of the social climate of the family environment, self, and children, and children's social competence in peer relations.

Of greater interest to this study, is the view that the family exists as a system. Traditionally, a great amount of research has focused on the mother-child dyad while excluding the father's impact on the socialization effects of the young child. Previous research on socialization has neglected the fact that the mother-child dyad exists in a larger socialization system. Lewis, Feiring and Weinraub (1981) indicated that in order to understand the contributing sources of socialization on the child's development, the impact of the social network on the child must be studied. Ideally, this involves including as many people as possible which are important to the social development of the child such as fathers, mothers, siblings, friends, and relatives. Although it is clear that studying the influences of several members of the child's system increases methodological problems, Lamb, Suomi, and Stephenson (1979) stressed that the study of family socialization must at least include the father's role as well as the mother's role. Pederson (1981) indicated that research on family interaction which solely centers on the mother-child dyad may present misleading results.

In order to accurately assess the impact of family socialization on the young child it is necessary to consider the separate effects of both parents on child outcomes. Since young children spend a majority of their time in the family environment, an assessment of this environment, adult competence, and parental acceptance seems particularly relevant. The social climate of the family is often a

reflection of the quality of father-mother interaction. Rutter (1981) indicated, for example, that a disharmonious relationship marked by marital discord is related to antisocial behavior in children. In a review of discord between husband-wife relationships, Lamb (1981) suggested that these behaviors are associated with a variety of adverse psychosocial disruptions of the child's adjustment.

If a disharmonious marital relationship is disruptive to the parent-child relationship, the opposite also seems to be true. Within the family system, the ways in which the husband-wife relationship influences the father-child or mother-child relationship is termed second-order effect (Bronfenbrenner, 1973). Bronfenbrenner (1973) has stressed the importance of the parental systems on adult-child socialization. Examination of the literature supports this view with an emphasis on both the fathers' and mothers' role. Lynn (1974) and Schaefer (1974) suggested that fathers contribute to the child's development by being emotionally supportive of the mother. These studies indicated a relationship between perceived parental support by the mother and the mother's ratings of being involved and responsive to the child. Pederson (1975) suggested that the warmth and affection of the father interacting within the family system is related to support and effectiveness of the mother's role. Parke and O'Leary (1975) indicated that fathers who show an interest in their infants increased the mother's interest in the infant. What is less clear, however, is the nature of the parent and parent-child systems on the indirect effects of the child-peer system. Since it is evident that young children interact with individuals other than those of their

immediate family it seems necessary to examine the environments in which interactions occur. By examining the social and physical environments as they relate to parents and children, a greater under-standing of the links between the parents, parent-child and peer social systems may be demonstrated.

While several studies have indicated links between parent-child and peer systems (e.g., MacDonald & Park, 1984; Vandell, 1977), fewer studies have attempted to establish particular aspects of the parent-parent and parent-child relationship that are related to social competence in child-peer interactions. Eckerman and Stein (1983) stated that there is a greater need to establish relationships between more molecular constructs and social functioning in addition to exploring the more general constructs such as attachment.

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses based on six predictor variables (cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, psychosocial competence, parental acceptance, and SES) and four criterion variables (friendship ratings, positive and negative peer nominations, and social competence ratings by teachers) will be tested.

1. There will be significant positive relationships between fathers' and mothers' cohesion and expressiveness and measures of social competence (positive peer nominations, friendship ratings, and teacher ratings) (see Figure 1).

2. There will be significant negative relationships between fathers' and mothers' conflict and measures of social

competence (positive peer nominations, friendship ratings, and teacher ratings) (see Figure 1).

3. There will be significant negative relationships between fathers' and mothers' cohesion and expressiveness and children's negative peer nominations (see Figure 2).

4. There will be significant positive relationships between fathers' and mothers' conflict and children's negative peer nominations (see Figure 2).

5. There will be significant positive relationships between fathers' and mothers' psychosocial competence and measures of social competence (positive peer nominations, friendship ratings, and teacher ratings) (see Figure 1).

6. There will be significant negative relationships between fathers' and mothers' psychosocial competence and children's negative peer nominations (see Figure 2).

7. There will be significant positive relationships between fathers' and mothers' acceptance and measures of social competence (positive peer nominations, friendship ratings, and teacher ratings) (see Figure 1).

8. There will be significant negative relationships between fathers' and mothers' acceptance and children's negative peer nominations (see Figure 2).

9. There will not be a significant relationship between parents' socioeconomic status and measures of social competence (see Figures 1 and 2).

Figure 1. Dimensions of parental perceptions as predictors of
children's social competence (positive peer nominations,
friendship ratings and teacher ratings).
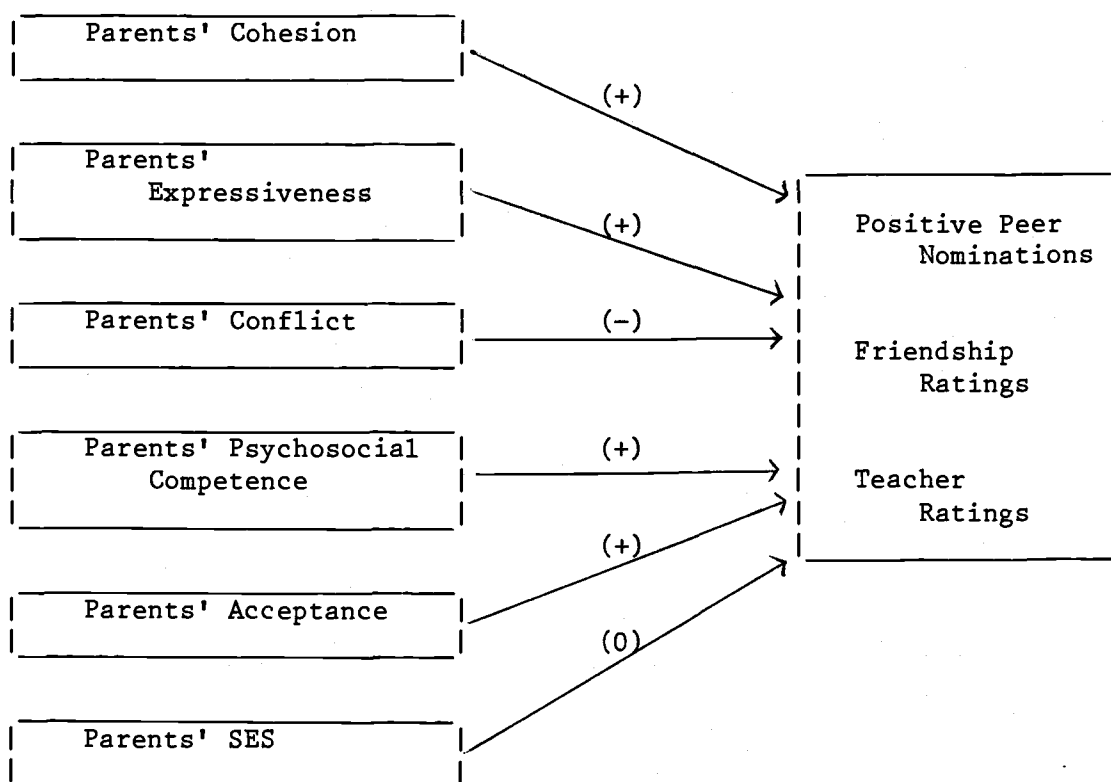
Figure 2.   Dimensions of parental perceptions as predictors of
            children's social competence (negative peer nominations).
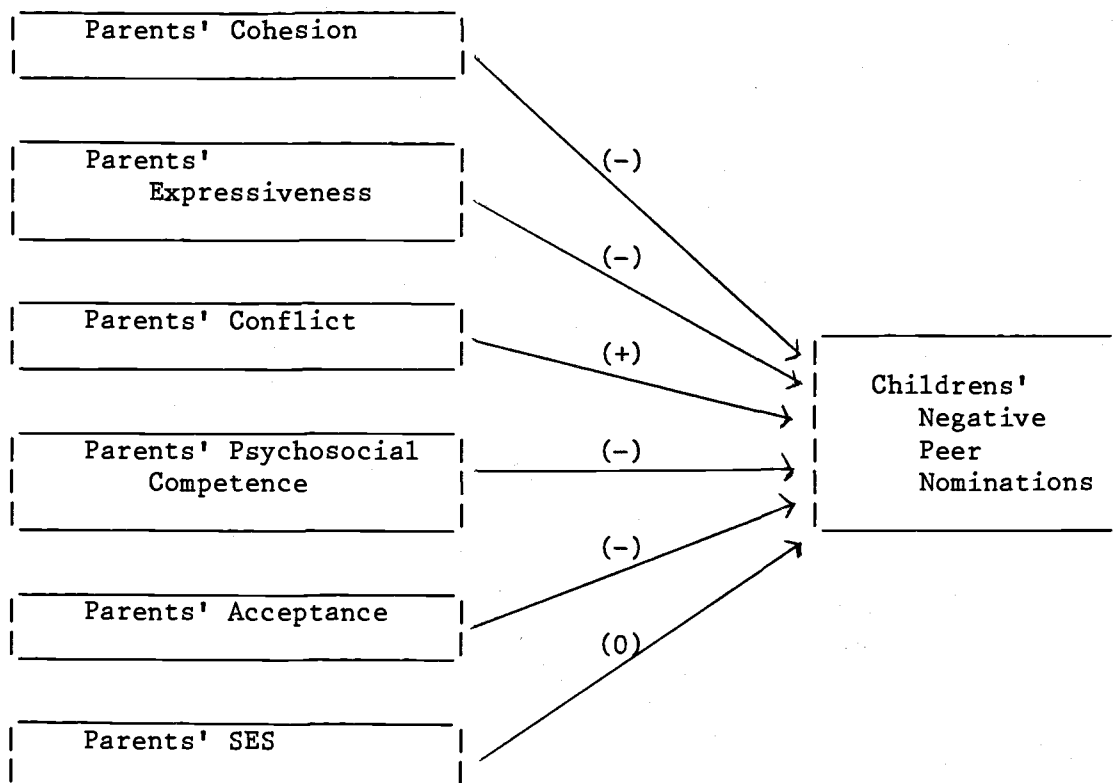
Chapter III

METHODS

Sample

Subjects consisted of 74 pairs of parents and their children. Because the responses of both fathers and mothers were of concern, only children from two-parent homes were considered in this study. Originally 90 parents and their children were chosen to participate in the study. However, due to incomplete (3) and non-returned questionnaires (13), the final number of subjects was reduced.

All children involved in the study attended one of two university laboratory preschools in Northwest communities with populations of 30,000 to 40,000. The study involved 38 boys who ranged in age from 38 to 66 months (M = 51.23) and 36 girls who ranged in age from 39 to 65 months (M = 50.04) (see Table 1).

Table 1. Sex and ages of children.

Characteristic	N	%	Mean
Sex	74		--
Boys	38	51.3	--
Girls	36	48.7	--
Age	74	--	
Boys	38	--	51.23
Girls	36	--	50.04

All of the subjects came from middle-lower to upper-class families. According to Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index, 42

families were considered upper-class, 17 upper-middle class, 12 middle class, and 3 middle-lower class (see Table 2). Fathers ranged in age from 22-44 years with a mean age of 35.15. Mothers ranged in age from 22-43 years with a mean age of 34.09.

Table 2. Mean, standard deviation, and level of parents' socioeconomic status.

Characteristic	$\underline{M}$	$\underline{SD}$	N	%
Socioeconomic Status of Parents	53.85	10.71	74	--
Level of Socioeconomic Status of Parents			74	--
Upper			42	57
Upper-Middle			17	23
Middle			12	16
Lower Middle			3	4

Instruments

Adult Measures

Demographics. The Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index was used to assess socioeconomic status of the family. This multidimensional tool uses the factors of occupation, education, marital status, and gender. Educational and occupational scores were collected on both fathers and mothers (see Appendix A). The occupational titles were graded on a nine step scale and given a weight of five points. The years of school completed were scored on a seven point scale and given a weight of three points. The status score of the family was calculated as the sum of fathers' and mothers' points divided by two.

The scores range from 6-88 points. Correlations between average years

of school completed by sex and occupation have been reported at .835

for males and .849 for females. Correlation scores assigned to

occupational groups and earned income have been reported at .781 for

males and .672 for females. Correlations between this scale and the

National Opinion Research Center scores have been reported at .927

(Hollingshead, 1975).

Family Environment. The relationship dimension of the Family

Environment Scale (FES) (Moos & Moos, 1981) was used to measure the

social climate of the family (see Appendix B). The dimensions

measured by the subscales of cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict

assess such aspects as commitment, help, support from family members;

encouragement to act openly and express feelings; and the amount of

anger, aggression, and conflict which occur among members of the

family.

Items for the Moos Scale (1981) were initially constructed from

information collected during the course of many interviews from a

variety of families. This initial procedure resulted in 200 items

which were administered to 285 diverse families. The selection of the

final 90 items was based upon five psychometric criteria: the item

split was as close to 50-50 as possible to avoid characteristics of

unusual families; items correlated more highly with their own

subscale; subscales had equal numbers of true and false items to

control for acquiescence response set; subscales had low to moderate

intercorrelations; and each item and subscale discriminated among

families. These five criteria were met for Caucasian, ethnic minority

and distressed families (Moos, 1981). The internal consistencies for the three subscales are all acceptable, ranging from moderate for expressiveness (.69), to good for conflict (.75) and cohesion (.78).

Each subscale consists of 9 questions for a total of 27 questions. The statements are marked true or false according to the extent to which parents either agree or disagree about the issue concerning their family. Each item was written to identify an aspect of the family which would be a reflection of their interpersonal relationships or organization (e.g., "family members really help and support one another", or "getting ahead in life is very important in our family"). Items are scored with the use of a template by counting the number of x's on each subscale. The total number of x's are entered at the bottom of the rows, from which individual or family averages can be converted to standard scores. Completion of test takes approximately 10 minutes.

Adult Psychosocial Competence. The Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale (BAPC) (Tyler, 1978) was used to measure adult social competence (see Appendix C). The BAPC measures three dimensions of individual coping styles: (a) activity which consists of coping, autonomy and self maintenance, (b) area which includes personal and interpersonal trust, and (c) phase which includes organizing, implementing, culminating, and redefining in the individual's approach to life.

Item validity of the BAPC was initially assessed in relation to three dimensional scores comprised of 174 separate item-dimensional total comparisons on approximately 500 adults. The revised form of

the scale was formed by eliminating the items which accounted for low item validity correlations. The final forms A and B included items which were "consistent with the assumed homogeneity of each of test dimensions and of the total test" (Tyler, 1978, p. 315). These revised forms correlated .88. Forms A and B yielded a split half reliability of .83 and .84.

The revised BAPC consists of two parallel forms (A and B) of a 58 item forced choice questionnaire. Respondents choose one of two statements which is most characteristic of them such as, "I plan to seek out new friendships and develop my capabilities for being a good friend" or "I hope to have new friendships and to develop my capabilities for being a good friend, but I probably won't work regularly on it". The measurement is tabulated to yield a total competent/incompetent score from a range of 1-58 points. Completion of the test takes approximately 20 minutes.

Parental Acceptance. The Parental Acceptance Scale (PAS) (Porter, 1954) was used to measure parental acceptance on a Likert type scale from low to high according to the degree of acceptance the parent has for the child (see Appendix D). The measurement tool consists of four dimensions composed of 10 questions each for a total of 40 questions. The four dimensions of an accepting parent include, one who (a) regards the child as a person with feelings and respects the child's right to express these feelings, (b) values the uniqueness of the child and encourages this uniqueness within the bounds of healthy personal and social adjustment, (c) recognizes the child's

need to develop a separate and autonomous self from parents, and (d) unconditionally loves the child.

Content validity of the scale was determined by a panel of five judges with academic and/or clinical experience. The judges were presented with the intermixed responses and instructed to rank them from low to high acceptance. The results indicated that 5 judges agreed on 46% of the responses, 4 out of 5 agreed on 26%, and 3 out of 5 agreed on 28%. The reliability of the PAS was assessed with the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula with the resultant reliability-coefficient of .865.

Items to the responses have been weighted from one (low acceptance) to 5 (high acceptance) for a range of 40-200 points. The higher the score, the more accepting the parent is assumed to be. Completion of the test takes approximately 30 minutes.

Child Competence Measures

Positive and Negative Peer Nominations. Picture nomination techniques (McCandless & Marshall, 1957) were used to assess popularity or high priority and rejection or low priority playmates among children. Standardized pictures of all the children were first taken. Each child was seated in a chair in front of a white wall and the child's clothing was covered with a white cloth from the neck down. Children were instructed not to smile or frown in order that a neutral picture of the face be acquired.

Later children were taken individually into a room and asked to nominate classmates according to a specified criteria. Children were

presented with an array of pictures of same sex children and asked to,
"point to the picture of the person you like to play with the most".
After the child indicated the selection, the picture was removed from
the array and the remaining pictures were reshuffled. This procedure
was repeated for the child's second choice. Children then went
through a similar procedure but were asked to, "point to the picture
of the person that you do no like to play with the most," (second
most). Using a weighted scoring system, the child's first nomination
choice was given a weight of 2, and the second choice was given a
weight of 1. The child's sociometric score was then calculated as the
total sum of the weighted scores received from peers. This procedure
was calculated for both positive and negative nominations which
yielded two variables.

Moderate concurrent validity has been established by demonstrat-
ing positive relationships between peer nomination ratings and
frequencies of observed interactions with those friends as well as
teacher ratings (McCandless & Marshall, 1957). Predictive validity
has been indicated in academic achievement in elementary school (Kohn,
1977) and in discriminating adults who were referred for mental health
problems from those who were not (Cowen et al., 1973). Reliability of
this measure with preschool children, reported from other studies,
shows a moderate-average, test-retest correlation ranging from .32
to .78 (Hartup, et al., 1967; Moore & Updegraff, 1964). Because
children exhibit a strong preference for same-sex peers (Asher &
Hymel, 1981) the peer group was defined in this manner. Since cross-
sex data are often negative (Asher & Hymel, 1981), the inclusion of

this data might lead to the selection of children who in reality are well liked by their primary membership group of same-sex peers. In general, this instrument provides a useful means of assessing children's impact on those who are around them.

Friendship Rating Scale. The rating scale measure (Roistacher, 1974; Singleton & Asher, 1977; Thomas & Powell, 1951) was used to access social acceptance or friendship among children. Each child was provided with a picture of a same sex classmate one at a time and asked to rate the classmate according to a specific criteria. Three faces ranging from a frown, neutral, and smile were provided, and the child was requested to, "put the picture of this child under the face according to how much you like to play with this person". A low rating indicated that the child did not like to play with the person while a high rating indicated that the child liked to play with the person. The child's score was determined by an average rating received from peers. The rating scale provides information about a child's acceptance by other members of the group.

Concurrent validity has been established demonstrating positive relationships between the rating scale and the partial-rank-order sociometric scale (Thomas & Powell, 1951). This suggests that both scales are tapping the same aspect of social status. The correlations of the two instruments range from .47 to .71 with a median value of .60. The rating scale has been shown to produce satisfactory test-retest reliability with a median correlation of .82 (Asher et al., 1979). The rating scale is generally thought to provide a measure of a child's level of acceptance or likability among peers.

Teacher Ratings of Social Competence. The California Preschool Social Competency Sale (CPSCS) (Levine, Elzey, & Lewis, 1969) was used to measure the adequacy of children's interpersonal behavior and social responsibility as perceived by the teacher (see Appendix E). The behaviors measured are situational in nature and represent competencies which are considered important to the socialization process. The scale consists of 30 items and covers a variety of observable behaviors. Each item contains four descriptive statements which are ordered from Level 1 (low degree of competence) to Level 4 (high degree of competence). The sum of all the ratings provides a total social competence score.

Content validity was based on judgments of professionals in early childhood education. Teachers judged several areas of social competence according to a five point scale from "not important" to "extremely important". Based on the agreement of the rank ordering of the items, an initial form of 34 items was selected. The scale was pretested on a random selection of 1,165 preschoolers. The ratings were analyzed for inter-item correlations, item-total score correlations, and item-chronological age correlations. Those items showing appropriate statistical properties were used in the final form. Reliability data from independent observers range from .75 to .79 (Levine, Elzey, Lewis, 1979).

Procedures

During, January 1986, all two parent families of children attending two university sponsored preschools were notified of the

study through a letter and verbal exchanges. This was followed by a request asking parents to sign up for an appointment at their child's school to come in and fill out the questionnaires. For those parents who would not come to school, copies of the questionnaire with a letter explaining the research project were sent to them. Included in the letter were instructions requesting the parents to fill out the forms individually and without collaboration. Of the 90 parents who were requested to participate, 74 pairs of parents returned completed questionnaires. During this same time frame sociometric instruments were administered to the children. In addition, teachers administered the social competency scale. All tests were scored by the researcher.

The data collected on the children yielded four criterion variables: friendship ratings, positive and negative peer nominations, and teacher ratings. The predictor variables included scores measured from the FES, BAPC, PAC, and SES. The differences between relationships among fathers' and mothers' perceptions of the social climate of the family, adult psychosocial competence, and parental acceptance, and the social competence of children were examined. Further, socioeconomic status of the family and measures of children's social competence were explored.

Data Reduction and Transformation

Upon completion of the data collection, the parents' and children's measurements were matched and ordered by subject number. A coding sheet was developed for recording the subjects and all items and measures collected. The values for all of the scales, sociometric

data, and ages were transferred to this coding sheet. From the sheets the data were transferred to a complete data file. Computer printouts were used to check the accuracy of the data against the code sheets. Programs from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Brent, 1975) and SPSS-X (SPSS, Inc., 1983) were used to conduct the analyses for the study.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

Overview of Statistical Analyses

A variety of statistical tools were used to analyze the data.
First, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the areas of family
social climate, adult competence, parental acceptance, and
socioeconomic status reported by fathers and mothers. Similarly,
descriptive statistics on children's measures of the friendship rating
scale, positive and negative peer nominations, and social competence
scale were calculated.

Second, a series of paired t-tests were run to examine
differences between fathers' and mothers' scores on the FES subscales,
BAPC, and PAS. In addition, t-tests were run on boys' and girls'
scores on the friendship rating scale, positive and negative peer
nominations, and social competence scale.

Lastly, a series of correlations and regressions were run to
analyze the relationships between parental perceptions of the family,
self, child, SES, and social competence in child-peer relations.
Separate regressions were performed on fathers' and mothers' variables
on each of the criterion variables for the total sample of children,
and boys and girls.

Descriptive Statistics on Parent Measures

Six predictor variable scores were derived from the three

subscales of the Family Environment Scale (FES) (cohesion,

expressiveness, and conflict), Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial

Competence (BAPC), Parental Acceptance Scale (PAS), and Socioeconomic

Status (SES) for fathers and mothers.

The cohesion subscale of the FES for both fathers' and mothers'

scores ranged from 16-68 out of a possible range of 1-68 points.

Fathers' mean score was 56.89 with a standard deviation of 12.69,

while mothers' mean score was 57.94 with a standard deviation of

10.60. A paired t-test yielded no significant difference ($p < .05$)

between the scores (see Table 3).

Table 3. Means, standard deviations, and t-tests of fathers' and
mothers' measures.

Measure	Fathers (N=74)		Mothers (N=74)		
	M	SD	M	SD	t
Cohesion	56.89	12.69	57.95	10.60	-.77
Expressiveness	54.47	10.52	55.24	11.73	-.54
Conflict	48.07	12.15	46.46	10.93	1.21
BAPC	31.23	7.37	29.16	5.97	2.18*
PAS	142.89	14.43	144.42	11.23	-.91

Note: BAPC = Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence;
PAS = Parental Acceptance Scale
*$p < .05$

The expressiveness subscale of the FES ranged from 28-73 for

fathers and 21-73 for mothers out of a possible range of 15-73 points.

Fathers' mean score ($M = 54.47$) and standard deviation ($SD = 10.52$)

were slightly lower than mothers' mean score (M = 55.24) and standard deviation (SD = 11.73). However, a paired t-test yielded no significant difference (p < .05) between the scores (see Table 3).

The conflict subscale of the FES for both fathers and mothers ranged from 32-70 out of a possible range of 32-81 points. Fathers' mean score (M = 48.7) and standard deviation (SD = 12.15) were slightly higher than mothers' mean score (M = 46.46) and standard deviation (SD = 10.93). Again, a paired t-test yielded no significant difference (p < .05) between the scores (see Table 3).

The BAPC scores for fathers ranged from 10-41 for fathers and for mothers 15-40 for mothers out of a total possible 45 points. Fathers' mean score (M = 31.23) and standard deviation (SD = 7.37) were slightly higher than mothers' mean score (M = 29.16) and standard deviation (SD = 5.97). A paired t-test showed there was a significant difference (p < .05) between the means. This difference indicated that fathers viewed themselves as being slightly more competent in such areas as coping, autonomy, trust, organization, and implementation than mothers (see Table 3).

The PAS scores ranged from 115-182 for fathers and 115-165 for mothers out of a possible range of 40-200 points. Fathers' mean score was 142.89 with a standard deviation of 14.43 and mothers' mean score was 144.42 with a standard deviation of 11.23. A paired t-test yielded no significant difference (p < .05) between the scores (see Table 3).

Lastly, Socioeconomic Status (SES) was calculated on the total sample of parents. SES scores ranged from 20 to 66 points out of a

range of 8-66 points. The mean was 53.85 with a standard deviation of 10.71 (see Table 2).

Descriptive Statistics on Children's Measures

Four criterion variable scores were derived from the friendship rating scale, positive and negative peer nominations, and teacher ratings of children's social competence.

The friendship ratings for boys ranged from 1.17 to 3.88 on a 5 point scale with a mean of 2.89 and standard deviation of .70. Girls' scores ranged from 1.43 to 3.89 on a 5 point scale with a mean of 3.09 and standard deviation of .56. A t-test yielded no significant difference ($p < .05$) between boys' and girls' scores (see Table 4).

Table 4. Means, standard deviations, and t-tests of social competence measures for boys and girls.

Test	Boys (N=38)		Girls (N=36)		
	M	SD	M	SD	t
Friendship Rating Scale	2.89	.70	3.09	.56	-1.37
Positive Peer Nominations	.54	.39	.62	.49	-.80
Negative Peer Nominations	-.52	.43	-.54	.38	.18
Teacher Ratings	90.18	15.76	93.83	15.16	-1.01

The positive peer nominations for boys ranged from 0 to .54 with a standard deviation of .39. Girls' scores ranged from 0 to 1.67 on a scale of 0-2 points with a mean of .62 and standard deviation of .49. A paired t-test yielded no significant difference ($p < .05$) between boys' and girls' scpres (see Table 4).

The negative peer nominations for boys ranged from 0 to -2 on a scale from 0 to -2 points with a mean of -.52 and standard deviation of .43. Girls' scores ranged from 0 to -1.86 on a scale from 0 to -2 with a mean of -.54 and standard deviation of .38. A t-test yielded no significant difference ($p < .05$) between boys' and girls' scores (see Table 4).

Finally, teacher ratings of social competence for boys ranged from 53-117 out of a possible 120 points with a mean of 90.18 and standard deviation of 15.76. Girls' scores ranged from 52 to 114 out of a possible 120 points with a mean of 93.83 and standard deviation of 15.16. A t-test yielded no significant difference ($p < .05$) between boys' and girls' scores (see Table 4).

Correlations Between Variables for the Total Sample

Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were calculated to examine the relationships between fathers' and mothers' scores on the FES subscales, BAPC, PAS, SES, and children's social competence scores.

Interrelations Between the Parent Variables

First, the interrelations between the parent variables were
examined. Several related intercorrelations were noted between
fathers' and mothers' scores on the FES subscales, BAPC, and PAS.

Several expected relationships were demonstrated between fathers'
and mothers' measures on the family environment subscales of cohesion,
expressiveness, and conflict. Fathers' cohesion was positively
related to mothers' cohesion ($p < .001$), positively related to
fathers' and mothers' expressiveness ($p < .001$; $p < .001$), and
negatively related to fathers' conflict ($p < 001$). Mothers' cohesion
was positively related to related to fathers' and mothers'
expressiveness ($p < .05$; $p < .001$) and negatively related to fathers'
conflict ($p < .01$). Fathers' cohesion was positively related to
fathers' BAPC ($p < .001$) and fathers PAS ($p < .01$). Mothers' cohesion
was positively related to mothers' BAPC ($p < .01$) (see Table 5).

Likewise, several correlations were evident between fathers' and
mothers' scores on the expressiveness and conflict subscales and BAPC
and PAS measures. Fathers' expressiveness was positively related to
mothers' expressiveness ($p < .001$), negatively related to fathers' and
mothers' conflict ($p < .001$; $p , .05$), and positively related to
fathers' BAPC ($p < .05$) and fathers' PAS ($p < .01$). Mothers'
expressiveness was negatively related to fathers' and mothers'
conflict ($p < .001$; $p < .01$). Fathers' conflict was positively
related to mothers' conflict ($p < .001$) (see Table 5).

Table 5. Correlations between fathers' and mothers' variables for the total, boys' and girls sample.

Parent Measures	Fathers					Mothers					Parents
	Cohesion	Expressiveness	Conflict	BAPC	PAS	Cohesion	Expressiveness	Conflict	BAPC	PAS	SES
Total Sample											
Fathers											
Cohesion	---										
Expressiveness	.526***	---									
Conflict	-.370***	-.393***	---								
BAPC	.408***	.276*	-.176								
PAS	.313***	.337***	-.125	.312**							
Mothers											
Cohesion	.504***	.245*	-.322**	.188	.108	---					
Expressiveness	.507***	.405***	-.379***	.168	.216	.485***	---				
Conflict	-.093	-.221*	.516***	.046	-.083	-.069	-.299**	---			
BAPC	.101	.112	-.076	.263*	.247*	.326**	.169	.007	---		
PAS	-.013	.106	.016	.257*	.393***	.059	.141	.135	.401***	---	
Parents											
SES	-.086	-.086	.057	.021	.032	.150	.116	.058	.133	.064	---
Boy's Sample											
Fathers											
Cohesion	---										
Expressiveness	.403*	---									
Conflict	-.333*	-.442***	---								
BAPC	.221	.150	-.068	---							
PAS	.145	.151	-.020	.335*							
Mothers											
Cohesion	.422**	.165	-.441**	.079	-.022	---					
Expressiveness	.331*	.165	-.442**	-.233	-.162	.486***	---				
Conflict	-.115	-.334*	.516***	.137	.007	-.025	-.333*	---			
BAPC	.193	.218	-.253	.416**	.164	.463**	.114	-.064	---		
PAS	-.042	.155	-.010	.435**	.450**	.098	-.040	.157	.331*	---	
Parents											
SES	.120	-.154	-.185	.199	-.039	.392*	.275	-.041	-.004	.050	---
Girl's Sample											
Fathers											
Cohesion	---										
Expressiveness	.610***	---									
Conflict	-.450**	-.357**	---								
BAPC	.536***	.379*	-.254	---							
PAS	.457**	.529***	-.266	.316	---						
Mothers											
Cohesion	.659***	.409**	-.187	.345*	.321*	---					
Expressiveness	.634***	.576***	-.358**	.421**	.553***	.530***	---				
Conflict	-.097	-.207	.364*	-.025	-.223	-.187	-.299	---			
BAPC	.118	.069	.158	.146	.475**	.196	.317	.138	---		
PAS	.023	.067	.048	.119	.340*	.006	.310	.048	.569***	---	
Parents											
SES	.045	-.044	.241	-.087	.459***	-.148	-.001	.141	.315	.081	---

NOTE: BAPC = Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence; PAS = Parental Acceptance Scale; SES = Socioeconomic Status

*$p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

Lastly, relationships between fathers' and mothers' BAPC and PAS were noted. Fathers' BAPC was positively related to mothers' BAPC ($p < .05$) and fathers' and mothers' PAS ($p < .01$). Mothers' BAPC was positively related to fathers' and mothers' PAS ($p < .05$; $p < .001$). Fathers' PAS was posibively related to mothers' PAS ($p < .001$) (see Table 5).

There were no correlations between SES and any of the parent or child variables for the total sample.

Interrelations Between the Child Variables

The second procedure involved examining the interrelations between the child variables. An examination of the interrelations of the four social competence measures for the total sample indicated several relationships. Children's friendship ratings were positively related to positive peer nominations, negatively related to negative peer nominations ($p < .001$; $p < .001$) and positively related to teacher ratings of social competence ($p < .05$). Children's positive peer nominations were negatively related to negative peer nominations ($p < .05$) and positively related to teacher ratings of social competence ($p < .001$) (see Table 6).

Relationships Between the Parent and Child Variables

The last and most important procedure involved examining the relationships between fathers' and mothers' measures on the FES subscales, BAPC, PAS, and children's social competence scores. Both

Table 6. Correlations between children's social competence measures on the total, boys, and girls sample.

	Friendship Ratings	Positive Peer Nominations	Negative Peer Nominations	Teacher Ratings
		Total Sample		
Friendship Rating	---			
Positive Peer Nominations	.540***	---	---	
Negative Peer Nominations	-.561***	-.230*	---	
Teacher Ratings	.211*	.420***	.062	---
		Boys		
Friendship Ratings	---			
Positive Peer Nominations	.600***	---		
Negative Peer Nominations	-.670***	-.330*	---	
Teacher Ratings	.231	.353	.027	---
		Girls		
Friendship Ratings	---			
Positive Peer Nominations	.493**	---		
Negative Peer Nominations	-.436**	-.149	---	---
Teacher Ratings	.175	.472**	.111	---

*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

fathers' and mothers' cohesion were positively related to teacher ratings of children's social competence (p < .01; p < .01). Mothers' cohesion and expressiveness were negatively related to children's negative peer nominations (p < .01; p < .01). Fathers' conflict was positively related to children's negative peer nominations (p < .01). In addition, both fathers' and mothers' BAPC were positively related

to children's positive peer nominations ($p < .001$; $p < .01$), and

friendship ratings ($p < .01$; $p < .01$). Fathers' BAPC was positively

related to teacher ratings of social competence ($p < .001$). Both

fathers' and mothers' PAS were positively related to children's

negative peer nominations ($p < .01$; $p < .01$) (see Table 7).

Table 7. Correlations between parental variables and children's
social competence ratings.

Parent Measure	Friendship Ratings	Positive Peer Nominations	Negative Peer Nominations	Teacher Ratings
Fathers				
Cohesion	-.007	.036	-.081	.320**
Expressiveness	-.060	-.004	.052	.174
Conflict	.138	-.071	.320**	-.143
BAPC	.320**	.467***	.069	.419***
PAS	-.015	-.045	-.309**	-.060
Mothers				
Cohesion	-.096	.057	-.320**	.356**
Expressiveness	-.128	.090	-.256*	.133
Conflict	.105	-.033	.073	.021
BAPC	.349**	.319**	.083	.130
PAS	.150	.144	-.363**	.037
Parents				
SES	.070	-.024	.063	.050

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$
***$p < .001$

Correlations Within Families With Boys

To determine more specific relationships between fathers',

mothers', and children's variables, separate correlation matrices for

boys and girls were computed and compared. Further, separate

relationships between the parent, child, and parent and child variables were examined.

Interrelations Between the Parent Variables

Interrelationships between fathers' and mothers' FES subscales, BAPC, PAS, and SES were first examined. As expected, several relationships between the FES subscales of cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict were demonstrated. Fathers' cohesion was related to mothers' cohesion ($p < .01$), fathers' and mothers' expressiveness ($p < .05$; $p < .05$), and negatively related to fathers' conflict ($p < .05$). Mothers' cohesion was positively related to mothers' expressiveness ($p < .001$), negatively related to fathers' conflict ($p < .01$), and positively related to SES ($p < .05$). Fathers' and mothers' expressiveness were negatively related to fathers' conflict ($p < .001$; $p < .01$) and mothers' conflict ($p < .05$; $p < .05$). Finally, fathers' and mothers' conflict were positively related to each other ($p < .001$) (see Table 5).

In addition, fathers' BAPC was positively related to mothers' BAPC ($p < .01$) and fathers' and mothers' PAS ($p < .05$; $p < .01$). Mothers' BAPC was positively related to mothers' PAS and mothers' cohesion ($p < .05$; $p < .01$). Fathers' and mothers' PAS were positively related to each other ($p < .01$) (see Table 5).

Interrelations Between the Child Variables

Correlations between the boys' four social competence measures were similar to that of the total sample. Boys' friendship ratings

were positively related to positive peer nominations (p < .001) and negatively related to negative peer nominations (p <.001). Boys' positive peer nominations were negatively related to negative peer nominations (p < .05) and positively related to teacher ratings (p < .05) (see Table 6).

Relationships Between the Parent and Child Variables

Many similar results were noted between fathers' and mothers' FES subscale scores and boy's social competence scores. Fathers' and mothers' cohesion were positively related to teacher ratings (p < .05; p < .01) while mothers' cohesion was negatively related to negative peer nominations (p < .05). Mothers' expressiveness was negatively related to negative peer nominations (p < .05). Fathers' conflict was positively related to negative peer nominations (p < .05) (see Table 7).

Both fathers' and mothers' BAPC were positively related to positive peer nominations (p < .05; p < .05) and teacher ratings (p < .05; p < .05) (see Table 8).

Table 8. Correlations between parental variables and boys' social competence ratings.

Parent Measure	Friendship Ratings	Positive Peer Nominations	Negative Peer Nominations	Teacher Ratings
Fathers				
Cohesion	-.132	.034	-.127	.488**
Expressiveness	.030	.071	.184	.173
Conflict	.208	-.093	.435**	-.084
BAPC	.271	.488**	-.227	.469**
PAS	.123	.006	-.426**	.032
Mothers				
Cohesion	.188	-.065	-.430**	.526***
Expressiveness	-.249	-.164	-.402**	.094
Conflict	.132	-.046	.033	.125
BAPC	.169	.436**	.084	.462**
PAS	.265	.206	-.523***	.044
Parents				
SES	-.030	.059	-.199	.277

*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

Correlations Within Families With Girls

Interrelations Between the Parent Variables

Again as expected, several correlations between fathers' and mothers' cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict were demonstrated. Fathers' cohesion was positively related to mothers' cohesion (p < .001), fathers' and mothers' expressiveness (p < .01; p < .001), and negatively related to fathers' conflict (p < .01). In addition, mothers' cohesion was positively related to fathers' and mothers' expressiveness (p < .01; p < .001). Fathers' expressiveness was positively related to mothers' expressiveness (p < .001) and

negatively related to fathers' conflict ($p < .01$). Mothers' expressiveness was negatively related to fathers' conflict ($p < .01$). Fathers' and mothers' conflict were positively related to each other ($p < .05$) (see Table 5).

Further, fathers' BAPC was positively related to fathers' and mothers' cohesion ($p < .001$; $p < .05$) as well as fathers' and mothers' expressiveness ($p < .05$; $p < .01$). Mothers' BAPC was positively related to fathers' and mothers' PAC ($p < .01$; $p < .001$). Fathers' PAS was positively related to mothers' PAS ($p < .05$), fathers' and mothers' cohesion ($p < .01$; $p < .05$) as well as fathers' and mothers' expressiveness ($p < .001$; $p < .001$) (see Table 5).

Interrelations Between the Child Variables

Fewer intercorrelations between the girls' four social competence measures were demonstrated as compared to the total and boys' sample. Girls' friendship ratings were positively related to positive and negative peer nominations ($p < .01$) and negatively related to negative peer nominations ($p < .01$). Girls' positive peer nominations were positively related to teacher ratings ($p < .01$) (see Table 6).

Relationships Between the Parent and Child Variables

An examination of fathers' and mothers' cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict and girls' measures of social competence yielded fewer significant correlations as compared to the sample of boys. Mothers' cohesion was positively related to girls' positive peer nominations ($p < .05$). Mothers' expressiveness was negatively related to girls'

negative peer nominations ($p < .05$), while fathers' conflict was positively related to girls' negative peer nominations ($p < .05$) (see Table 9).

Table 9. Correlations between parental variables and girls' social competence ratings.

Parent Measure	Friendship Ratings	Positive Peer Nominations	Negative Peer Nominations	Teacher Ratings
Fathers				
Cohesion	.169	.061	-.049	.120
Expressiveness	.137	-.045	-.093	.208
Conflict	.088	-.043	.451**	-.188
BAPC	.081	.453**	-.151	.421**
PAS	.087	.172	.073	-.143
Mothers				
Cohesion	.118	.236	-.105	.014
Expressiveness	.026	.280	-.429**	.202
Conflict	.100	-.009	.121	-.083
BAPC	.054	.137	.104	.218
PAS	-.017	.088	.072	.120
Parents				
SES	.201	-.067	.308	-.223

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$
***$p < .001$

Similarly, an examination of fathers' and mothers' BAPC and PAS on measures of social competence in girls revealed fewer significant correlations as compared to boys. Fathers' BAPC was positively related to girls' positive peer nominations ($p < .05$) and girls' teacher ratings of social competence ($p < .05$). No other correlations for mothers' BAPC or fathers' and mothers' PAC were noted (see Table 9).

Multiple Regression Analyses

Lastly, several multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine which parental variables were significant predictors of children's measures of social competence. Separate regression models were used to analyse the relationships among fathers' and mothers' variables on the total, boys, and girls sample on each of the four criterion measures.

Fathers and Mothers with Total Sample of Children

For the friendship rating scale no parental variables entered into the model. Of the four criterion variables, this was the only one in which the F was undefined.

For children's positive peer nominations, fathers' BAPC was accepted into the equation ($p < .001$) which accounted for approximately 13% of the variance. The regression coefficient was .0218. The correlation coefficient was .367 ($p < .001$) which was the highest correlation between any predictor variable and this variable (see Table 10).

Table 10. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to
children's positive peer nominations.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Fathers' Psychosocial Competence	.37	11.23***

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.37
R^2	.13
Adjusted R	.12
F	11.2***

***p < .001

Both mothers' PAS and mothers' expressiveness were accepted into the equation for children's negative peer nominations (p < .01). The regression coefficients were -.001 and -.010 respectively. These two variables combined accounted for approximately 16% of the variance. The correlation coefficients were -.263 and -.256 respectively, both of which were significant (see Table 11).

Table 11. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to children's negative peer nominations.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Mothers' Acceptance	-.30	7.66**
Mothers' Expressiveness	-.30	7.34**

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.39
R^2	.16
Adjusted R	.13
F	6.57**

**$p < .01$

Lastly, for teacher ratings of social competence, fathers' BAPC and mothers' cohesion were accepted into the equation ($p < .01$). Regression coefficients were .5902 and .2944 respectively. These two variables combined accounted for 14% of the variance. The correlation coefficients for these variables were .319 and .256 which were both significant (see Table 12).

Fathers and Mothers With Boys

For boys' friendship rating both mothers' BAPC and mothers' cohesion were accepted into the equation ($p < .05$) and accounted for approximately 12% of the variance. Regression coefficients were .0373 and .0189 respectively. Correlation coefficients were .169 and .188 respectively (see Table 13).

Table 12. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to teacher ratings of social competence.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Fathers' Psychosocial Competence	.28	6.29*
Mothers' Cohesion	.20	3.24**

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.37
R^2	.14
Adjusted R	.12
F	5.82**

*p < .05
**p < .01

Table 13. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to boys' friendship ratings.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Mothers' Psychosocial Competence	.32	3.25*
Mothers' Cohesion	.34	3.54*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.34
R^2	.12
Adjusted R^2	.07
F	2.32*

*p < .05

Fathers' BAPC was predictive of boys' positive peer nominations (p < .01) and accounted for 15% of the variance. The regression

coefficient was .0240 and the correlation coefficient was .388 (see Table 14).

Table 14. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to boys' positive peer nominations.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Fathers' Psychosocial Competence	.39	6.39**

Overall Model Statistics	
Multiple R	.39
R^2	.15
Adjusted R^2	.13
F	6.39**

**p < .01

For boys' negative peer nominations, both mothers' PAS and mothers' cohesion were accepted into the equation (p < .01) and accounted for 28% of the variance. Regression coefficients were -.0169 and -.011 respectively (see Table 15).

Lastly, mothers' cohesion, fathers' BAPC, and mothers' PAS were predictive of teacher ratings of boys' social competence (p < .001) and together accounted for approximately 35% of the variance. Regression coefficients were .5291, 1.146, and .3891 respectively (see Table 16).

Table 15.   Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to
            boys' negative peer nominations.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Mothers' Acceptance	−.45	9.93**
Mothers' Cohesion	−.32	4.93*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.53
R^2	.28
Adjusted R^2	.24
F	6.81**

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

Table 16.   Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to
            teacher ratings of boys' social competence.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Mothers' Cohesion	.42	9.08**
Fathers' Psychosocial Competence	.45	8.83**
Mothers' Acceptance	.28	3.40*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.60
R^2	.35
Adjusted R^2	.30
F	6.26***

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$
***$p < .001$

Fathers and Mothers With Girls

The last analyses involved regressing fathers' and mothers' variables on each of the four social competence measures for the sample of girls. Multiple regression analysis of parents with girls resulted in acceptance of fathers' expressiveness and fathers' cohesion on the friendship rating scale ($p < .05$). The regression coefficients for these equations were .019 and .016 respectively. These two variables accounted for 12% of the variance (see Table 17).

Table 17. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to girls' friendship ratings.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Fathers' Expressiveness	.38	3.44*
Fathers' Cohesion	.40	3.82*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.35
R^2	.12
Adjusted R^2	.07
F	2.26*

*$p < .05$

Two parent variables were accepted into the equation for girls' positive peer nominations ($p < .05$). These included fathers' BAPC and mothers' expressiveness. Regression coefficients were .0185 and .0129 respectively, and these two variables combined accounted for approximately 24% of the variance (see Table 18).

Table 18. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to
           girls' positive peer nominations.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Fathers' Psychosocial Competence	.32	3.55*
Mothers' Expressiveness	.35	3.16*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.49
R^2	.24
Adjusted R^2	.17
F	3.33*

*$p < .05$

For girls' negative peer nominations only fathers' conflict was accepted into the equation ($p < .05$). The regression coefficient was .0106. This variable accounted for 12% of the variance (see Table 19).

Lastly, three parent variables were accepted into the equation for teacher ratings of girls' social competence. Mothers' PAS, mothers' BAPC, and fathers' BAPC were predictive of this measure ($p < .05$). The regression coefficients for these variables were .4673, .5623, and 1.277 respectively. These three variables combined accounted for approximately 23% of the variance (see Table 20).

Table 19. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to girls' negative peer nominations.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Fathers' Conflict	.35	4.77*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.35
R^2	.12
Adjusted R^2	.10
F	4.77*

*$p < .05$

Table 20. Multiple regression analysis of parental perceptions to teacher ratings of girls' social competence.

Predictor Variable	Beta	F
Mothers' Acceptance	.34	3.32*
Fathers' Psychosocial Competence	.31	4.07*
Mothers' Psychosocial Competence	.46	5.87*

Overall Model Statistics

Multiple R	.48
R^2	.23
Adjusted R^2	.16
F	3.21*

*$p < .05$

Chapter V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this study was to examine the predictive capacity of parental perceptions of the family environment (i.e., cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict), psychosocial competence, acceptance of children, and SES with respect to measures of children's social competence. In addition, analyses were conducted to determine the predictive relationships among father-mother-son and father-mother-daughter systems. The results of these analyses are summarized and discussed in this section.

Discussion of the Results

Family Environment

The analysis of the family social environment (cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict) indicated that fathers' and mothers' viewed their family very similarly. These results indicated that there were no gender differences in perceptions of the family overall.

As expected, specific interrelations among the family social environment measures were demonstrated. In general, fathers' cohesion and expressiveness were positively related to each other and negatively related to conflict. Mothers' cohesion and expressiveness were positively related to each other, while mothers' expressiveness was negatively related to conflict. These results indicated that fathers' and mothers' perceptions of the family relationship were in

general harmonious. Parents who viewed their family as cohesive (degree of commitment, help, and support family members provide one another), were more expressive (family members were encouraged to act openly and express their feelings) and reported less conflict among family members. Although there may be differences among members of any one family, the majority of these families can be characterized as non-distressed. These findings are consistent with Moos and Moos' (1984) research on the intercorrelations of these subscales for normal as opposed to distressed families.

For the total sample, results of this study suggested that fathers' and mothers' cohesion were positively related to children's social competence ratings by teachers. Parents who were committed to the family, and provided help and support for one another had children who were rated as more socially competent by their teachers. These children were viewed as more competent in such areas as sharing, helping others, initiating and giving directions in activities, and accepting limits.

The finding is congruent with Baumrind's (1972) results which indicated that parents who used explanations and reasons, recognized and supported the rights of others, and enforced family standards had children who were rated as more socially competent by the researchers.

Further, these findings were more apparent for boys than girls. For example, when examining sex differences, fathers' and mothers' cohesion were related to teacher ratings of boys' social competence but not to the girls' ratings. Baumrind (1971, 1972, 1973) indicated that boys of authoritative parents were more friendly and cooperative,

while girls were characterized as being more domineering toward peers. It may be that boys from cohesive families respond more positively in the classroom with peers than girls (as opposed to responding aggressively or disorderly) and are thus viewed as slightly more socially competent by their teachers than girls.

Both mothers' cohesion and expressiveness were negatively related to children's negative peer nominations. These findings were consistent for boys, although only mothers' expressiveness was negatively related to girls' negative peer nominations. Mothers' who viewed the family as cohesive and encouraged expressiveness in members had children who were least likely to be rejected as a playmate by their peers. Fowler (1980) noted that mothers' perceptions of a less cohesive family were associated with aggression and hostility, which are common reasons for peer rejection. Conversely, mothers' who encourage cohesiveness and expressiveness in family members most likely discourage aggression and hostility. This may account for less peer rejection among these children.

Fathers' conflict was positively related to children's negative peer nominations. These findings were consistent for boys and girls. Fathers who perceived aggression and conflict among family members had children who were more likely to be rejected as a playmate by peers. Fathers who perceived conflict within the family also perceived members as being less cohesive and expressive. Baumrind (1971, 1973, 1977) noted that authoritarian parents (characterized as more likely to shape and control behavior, discourage verbal exchanges and value authority) were associated with less self-reliance and more

angry and defiant behaviors in children. It seems that children
initially learn ways of interacting within the family which are in
turn generalized to other situations, such as peer interactions.
Children who are aggressive with peers are more likely to be rejected
by peers in general (Asher, Oden, & Gottman, 1977). These findings
are consistent with Patterson's (1975, 1976) studies which indicate
that non-supportive family environments contribute to disruptive
behaviors in children.

It is interesting to note that various indices of parents'
cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict were related to children's
negative peer nominations and teacher ratings of social competence,
but not to children's friendship ratings or positive peer nominations.
It appears that how children perceive best friends or acceptance of
children is unaffected by parents' perception of the social climate of
the family. In contrast, children seem to be more sensitive to the
negative behaviors of children which most likely resulted in higher
negative peer nomination scores. In addition, boys and girls whose
fathers and mothers perceive a cohesive family environment received
higher social competence ratings from their teachers. The preceeding
evidence provides partial support for the first five hypotheses.

Among the three FES subscale variables on fathers and mothers,
several different prediction patterns of the total, boys', and girls'
sample were demonstrated. Mothers' expressiveness was predictive of
children's negative peer nominations (after mothers' PAS). The
negative regression coefficient indicated that mothers' who perceived
high expressiveness within the family had children who were least

likely to be rejected by their peers. This outcome is consistent with the findings of Fowler (1980).

Mothers' cohesiveness was predictive of children's social competence ratings by teachers (after fathers' BAPC). Fowler (1980) noted that signs of developmental delay, attention span, behavioral problems, speech-language problems, and shyness-anxiety were associated with mothers' perceptions of a less cohesive family environment. In contrast, children perceived as more competent in several areas of social functioning in the school were predictive of mothers' perception of a cohesive family environment. It appears that mothers' perception of the cohesiveness of the environment plays an important role in several behavioral and developmental areas of young children.

Mothers' cohesiveness was predictive of boys' friendship ratings (after mothers' BAPC), boys' negative peer nominations (after mothers' PAS) and boys' social competence rating by teachers. While the latter two predictions were consistent with the total outcome, mothers' perceptions of a cohesive family was also predictive of social acceptance among boys. Boys' overall level of acceptability among boy peers and their teachers' ratings were predicted by mothers' view of the family system as being committed to and supportive of one another. These predictions demonstrate important links between the family system and boys' peer system and are consistent with studies by Hartup (1979).

An examination of the regression models for girls' social competence measures indicated that their predictive variables were

different from the total sample and boys' sample. This indicates that although certain variables are predictive of the total sample, upon closer examination of the sex of the child, different FES subscale measures were predictive of boys' and girls' measures of social competence.

Both fathers' perceptions of cohesiveness and expressiveness were predictive of girls' social acceptance among their peer-group. The girls' level of acceptability among girl peers was predicted by fathers' perceptions of family members who were committed to and supportive of one another, and who were encouraged to express themselves. Although no studies to date are currently available which would support these findings it appears that the fathers' influence plays an important role in girl peer relations.

Girls' positive peer nominations were predicted by mothers' expressiveness, while girls' negative peer nominations were predicted by fathers' conflict. Popularity among girl peer-groups were predicted by mothers' perceptions of expressive family members. Rejection by peers was influenced by fathers' perceptions of conflict among family members. It appears that fathers and mothers play an important and influential yet different roles in how their daughters are judged by their peers. The preceeding evidence provides partial support for the first four hypotheses.

Adult Psychosocial Competence

The analysis of fathers' and mothers' perceptions of themselves as psychosocially competent individuals (BAPC) indicated that fathers

viewed themselves slightly more competent than mothers. Although the statistical difference was significant, the mean difference of fathers' and mothers' scores (M = 31.23; M = 29.14 respectively) was relatively small in magnitude. The intercorrelations among these two variables were positive.

For the total sample of children, both fathers' and mothers' BAPC were positively related to children's friendship ratings and positive peer nominations. In addition, fathers' BAPC was positively related to teacher ratings of social competence. Fathers' and mothers' who view themselves as competent individuals had children who were more likely to be chosen as a high priority playmate and were more accepted and liked by their peers. It may be that parents who feel good about themselves have children who feel good about themselves which in turn might be reflected in the social interactions of their peers. The parent system and child-peer system seem to be connected in positive ways which is supported by several research studies (Krantz, Webb, & Andrews, 1984; MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Vandell, 1977).

Some differences in the relationships between fathers' and mothers' BAPC and the sex of the child were noted. Both fathers' and mothers' BAPC were positively related to boys' positive peer nominations and teacher ratings of boys' social competence. Fathers' BAPC was positively related to girls' positive peer nominations and social competence ratings by teachers, while mothers' BAPC was not related to any of the girls' indices of social competence. These findings confirm earlier studies (Hoffman, 1961; MacDonald & Parke,

1984; Sherman & Farian, 1974) concerning sex differences between parent and child relationships.

Of greater importance are the outcomes which demonstrate differences between fathers' and mothers' BAPC related to positive peer nominations and teacher ratings for boys and girls. For boys, the extent to which fathers and mothers viewed themselves as socially competent was a significant correlate of peer popularity and teacher ratings of social competence. Possibly, these boys have learned certain strategies and ways of interacting which helped them in their social interactions with peers and teachers.

In contrast, for girls, only paternal BAPC was related to peer popularity and teacher social competence ratings. Possibly, the fathers' influence on girls was slightly more important than the mothers'. Girls in turn may be learning certain strategies from their fathers which are important to their social interactions.

In general, these findings extend previous reports (Hoffman, 1961; Krantz, Webb, & Andrews, 1984; MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Sherman & Farina, 1974) of father and mother differences on social competence, popularity, and teacher social competence ratings. These outcomes provide partial support for hypotheses 5 and 6.

An examination of the regression models for the predictive value of fathers' and mothers' BAPC on the total, boys', and girls' measures of social competence yielded fairly consistent results. For the total sample of children, as well as for boys and girls, fathers' BAPC was predictive of positive peer nominations and social competence ratings by teachers. Possibly, the fathers' view of themselves as socially

competent individuals plays an important role in popularity among children and teacher social competence ratings. Both boys and girls may be learning important strategies from their fathers which are beneficial in their social interactions with peers and other adults. Further, fathers who feel competent about themselves may in turn be encouraging and reinforcing these behaviors in their children.

The findings of this research extend prior studies (Clarke-Stewart, 1978; Hoffman, 1961; Lamb, 1977a, 1977b; Parke, 1980) of father and mother differences which influence child behaviors. The outcomes of this study provide partial support for hypotheses 5 and 6.

Parental Acceptance

The analysis of fathers' and mothers' perceptions of parental acceptance of their children indicated that there was no statistical difference in scores. These results demonstrated that fathers' and mothers' perceived similar degrees of acceptance of their children. Further, the intercorrelations among fathers' and mothers' PAS were moderate.

For the total sample of children and for boys, both fathers' and mothers' acceptance of their children were negatively related to children's peer rejection. This indicated that those parents who were most accepting of their children in general, and boys in particular had children who were least likely to be rejected by their peers. It is of interest to note however, that these children were not more likely to be chose as a best friend (positive peer nominations) or chosen as likeable among peers (friendship rating scale). In

addition, there were no significant correlations between parental acceptance of girls and measures of social competence of girls' peer relations.

These results suggest that parents who are accepting of children, especially boys, might have somewhat of an effect on how these children are viewed by their peers. The positive outcome on these children is that they are viewed less negatively by peers than those children of less accepting parents. Possibly, boys of accepting parents are less coercive and more compliant which would account for less rejection by peers. In general, these ideas extend upon and are supported by the research of Moore and Bulbullan (1976) and Patterson (1976).

In contrast, results of this study do not support the research of Winder and Rau (1962) who noted that boys who received high sociometric ratings had parents who were supportive of them and Elkinds (1958) who indicated that parental satisfaction was related to higher sociometric scores of children.

These discrepencies might be explained in part by the use of the various questions and scales which measured a variety of parental attitudes and beliefs. Winder and Rau (1962) and Elkinds (1958) were measuring more specific behaviors of parents and their relationships to children's social competence. In contrast, the Parental Acceptance Scale (Porter, 1954) measures a more global construct of the feelings parents have and the action they take in relationship to their child. Future research might look at more specific relationships of parental behaviors and measures of social competence in children rather than

focusing on the more global construct of parental acceptance. In general, hypotheses 7 and 8 were not supported.

An examination of the regression model indicated that mothers' acceptance of children was predictive of lower negative peer nominations for the total sample and for the sample of boys. This indicated that of all the criterion variables tested, mothers' acceptance of her children, especially boys, was the most important contributing factor to low peer rejection scores. By delineating the sex effects of parents, this study extends and refines the results of past studies (Baumrind, 1972; Cole et al., 1982).

These results suggest that mothers' acceptance is related to her children, and particularly the son's ability to interact with peers in a less negative manner. Conversely, non-acceptance of children, and especially sons by mothers is related to higher peer rejection among children. Although results are correlational, other studies (Baumrind, 1971, 1973) indicate that certain types of parenting seems to be more detrimental to boys than girls. For example, Baumrind (1971, 1973) noted that sons of authoritarian parents were less independent and self-reliant and more angry and defiant. In a later study, Baumrind (1977) noted that 8-9 year old boys of authoritarian parents were more withdrawn from social contact than girls.

Because many children spend a majority of their time with their mothers it seems possible that they, and especially sons, are more affected by mothers' acceptance and non-acceptance. This is consistent with the research by Glueck and Glueck (1950) which indicated a strong relationship among non-accepting parents and

aggressive behavior in young boys. This in turn might explain the importance of maternal acceptance on boys' low peer nomination scores. In this case, it appears that the mother-son system is related to the son-peer system in important ways.

In addition, mothers' acceptance was predictive of boys' and girls' social competence ratings by teachers. It appears that mothers who are accepting of their children have children who are perceived as competent in a variety of interpersonal areas by their teachers. Children of accepting parents have been described as exhibiting several positive characteristics such as instrumental competence (Baumrind, 1972), prosocial behavior (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977), problem-solving abilities (Mondell & Tyler, 1981), and showing more consideration of classmates (Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967). It may be possible that these children are showing slightly more competent abilities in a variety of areas which their teachers are sensitive to. In general, hypotheses 7 and 8 were not supported.

Demographics

The relationships between socioeconomic status and measures of children's social competence for the total, boys', and girls' sample were non-significant. These findings both support and extend the results of a recent study by Amato and Ochiltree (1986), which reported non-significant results between family structural resources (income, education, and occupation) and social competence in children in grades 3, 4, 10, and 11.

The influence of parents' SES has been examined in relation to various behaviors of importance to parents (e.g., independence, respect, and curiosity) (Hess, 1970) and academic abilities in children (Bradley, Caldwell, & Elardo, 1977; Majoribanks, 1977), yet few studies to date have focused on other forms of competence. Although various relationships have been noted in the past, it appears that the family resources of income and occupation as measured by Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index were unimportant to the measures of children's social competence.

It appears that with younger children, the socioeconomic status of the family has no influence on children's perceptions of who they like most or least or who they view as friends. While SES is associated with some forms of competence (such as academic), other forms of social competence (such as positive and negative peer nominations) are more strongly associated with interpersonal relations among family members. The results of this study support hypothesis 9.

Social Competence in Children

Each of the social competence measures used in this study provides a somewhat different index of the social status of the child. The friendship rating scale is a measure of the child's attitude toward each of the group members or the overall level of acceptability or likeability among peers. Positive peer nominations is a measure of perceived popularity or best friend among peers. A high score is an indication of a high priority playmate. Negative peer nominations is a measure of low priority playmate or rejection by peers. The teacher

ratings of social competence is a measure of the adequacy of young

children's interpersonal behavior and the degree to which they assume

social responsibility. It was the purpose of this section to analyze

the relationships between these measures of social competence.

For the total sample of children, friendship ratings were

positively related to positive peer nominations and teacher ratings

and negatively related to negative peer nominations. These results

indicate that children who were accepted or liked among peers

(friendship rating scale) were also perceived as a best friend

(positive peer nominations). These measures have been found to be

related by Asher and Hymel (1981) although they do indicate important

differences. The results further indicate that those children who

were most accepted by their peers were least likely to receive

negative peer nominations which seems consistent with what the

constructs are measuring. Finally, those children who were most

accepted by their peers were also rated high by their teachers on

their interpersonal behavior and ability to assume social

responsibility. Apparently these children have acquired the necessary

social skills which contribute to their positive interactions with

peers and the high teacher ratings of social competence.

Consistent with the preceding results, positive peer nominations

were negatively related to negative peer nominations and positively

related to teacher ratings of social competence. Although positive

and negative peer nominations are not considered to be unidimensional

constructs (Asher & Hymel, 1981) these results do indicate that those

children who are perceived as a best friend are least likely to be

rejected by their peers. However, the correlation between these variables was low (r = -.230, p = < .05) which is consistent with the results of several studies (Gottman, 1977; Hymel & Asher, 1977; Roff et al., 1972) which noted, no to moderate correlations.

Separate examinations of the boys' and girls' correlations of social competence indicate that those results found significant were also consistent with the total sample. For boys, friendship ratings were positively related to positive peer nominations and negatively related to negative peer nominations. Further, boys' positive peer nominations were negatively related to negative peer nominations and positively related to teacher ratings of social competence. For girls, friendship ratings were positively related to positive peer nominations and negatively related to negative peer nominations. Finally, positive peer nominations were positively related to teacher ratings of social competence.

Sex Differences of Parent and Child

The purpose of this section was to summarize the findings of the relationships between the sex of the parent and the sex of the child with respect to those outcomes which were consistent and those that were different. First, some similarities in father-child and mother-child and child-peer interactions were noted. In general, fathers' perceptions of psychosocial competence were predictive of both boys' and girls' positive peer nominations and teacher ratings. Mothers' parental acceptance was predictive of teacher ratings for both boys and girls. These data support the hypothesis that both goys' and

girls' interactions with their peers and teachers are positively
influenced by fathers who view themselves as competent individuals.
In addition, mothers who report high acceptance of their children,
have children who are viewed as socially competent in the classroom by
their teachers.

In general, most of parent-child and child-peer relationships
varied with the sex of the parent and child. Several differences in
father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, mother-daughter, and child-
peer interactions were noted. For boys, mothers' psychosocial
competence and cohesion were predictive of friendship ratings. Lower
negative peer nominations in boys were predicted by higher maternal
acceptance and cohesion, while teacher ratings of boys were predicted
by mothers' cohesion. These data might suggest that mothers more than
fathers influence sons' social competence ratings by peers and
teachers.

In contrast, girls' friendship ratings were predicted by fathers'
cohesion and expressiveness. Both fathers' parental acceptance and
mothers' expressiveness were predictive of girls' positive peer
nominations, while fathers' conflict was predictive of girls' negative
peer nominations. Mothers' psychosocial competence was predictive of
girls' teachers ratings. These data might suggest that fathers' and
mothers' influence girls' social-competence, and vary according to the
specific measure of social competence.

Although many differences in parent-child and child-peer
relationships were discovered, these findings in general confirm
earlier studies (Baumrind, 1967; Frankel & Rollins, 1983) concerning

the nature of sex differences in parent-child relationships and to a lesser extent child-peer interactions. In addition, these findings extend prior studies (MacDonald & Parke, 1984) that demonstrated differences in fathers' and mothers' interactions with children and the child's interactions with peers.

Theoretical and Research Implications

The primary purposes of this study were threefold: (a) to investigate the relationships between parental perceptions of the social climate of the family environment, adult psychosocial competence, acceptance of children, SES, and social competence in children's peer relations, (b) to investigate the relationships between the sex of the parents and children in regards to these variables, and (c) to examine the interrelations among the sets of parent variables and the child variables.

In summary, results of this study provide partial support linking the adult system and adult-child system to the child-peer system. It seems that certain family behaviors and relations set the stage for child-peer interaction, which in turn might influence how children are perceived by their peers and teachers.

The outcome of this study lends support to the theoretical orientation of the single process model (Hartup, 1979) where children are believed to learn social competencies while interacting with various family members, which are then extended and elaborated upon in child-peer relations. These correlational and predictive data are consistent with this theory, in that children's relations with their

parents influences them in ways which in turn might influence how children interact with and are viewed by others, namely peers and teachers. Family relations possibly provide the child with models which helps set the stage for child-peer interactions.

This study represents only a limited means through which parents might influence child-peer relations. It does, however, support and extend upon previous studies which show that the family and peer system are linked in several ways. Results of this study can be used in combination with related studies to guide the direction of future research.

In order to increase generalizations of the findings of this study, an examination of fathers' and mothers' influences might be extended to families from broad socioeconomic and educational levels. How parents influence child-peer relations across different ages also deserves attention.

Other studies exploring the relationships between the parent and child-peer systems might focus on families of a variety of ethnic backgrounds and single-parent households. It appears that to date, a majority of the system approach studies focus on white middle-class families. We need to extend our knowledge beyond this group of individuals in order to develop a more realistic picture of parental influences on children's relationships.

Because the family and peer system are linked in a variety of ways, the importance of additional family behaviors, attitudes, and practices on children's peer relations deserves merit. This might involve examining parental expectations of peer relations,

opportunities parents provide for peer-interactions, and parents'
knowledge of the importance of learning social skills early in life.

Implications for Practitioners

The major focus of this study was the examination of the
relationship between dimensions of parental perceptions of the family,
self, and child, and social competence in children's peer relations.
These findings have significance for families, child and family
specialists, educators, counselors, family therapists, and other
professionals concerned with the quality of and intervention in family
life. The following implications have been identified as important
considerations for practitioners.

Utilizing parent-child-peer knowledge from a systems perspective
in intervention programs. Several relationships between the
perceptions of parents and children's social competence were noted in
this study. The present study supports the idea that the parents'
view of a positive family environment is related to their children's
positive interactions with peers. Conversely, parents' view of an
unfavorable family environment is related to their children's negative
interactions with peers. In turn, children judged socially
incompetent early in life have been described as high risk in areas of
school achievement (Ullman, 1975), becoming a productive member of
society (Rolf, Sells, & Golden, 1972) academic achievement
(McCandless, 1967), and mental health (Pritchard & Graham, 1966).
Traditionally, the focus of intervention has been on the child with an
emphasis on skills training (Allen, et al., 1964; McFall & Twentyman,

1973). However, by focusing on the child, researchers and practitioners may be excluding important contributing elements of the child's problems, namely the family system.

Counselors, therapists and other professionals, then can assist in the development of social competence by focusing on the dynamics of the parent and child system. Professionals who deal with parent-child conflict can encourage both parental satisfaction and child satisfaction by focusing on the conflicts reported by both, when appropriate. An examination of both the parent-child and child-peer systems is necessary in order to determine the extent and relationship of the problem. By focusing exclusively on the child's lack of social competence, professionals may be overlooking a contributing factor to children's inadequate social interaction. It seems that an important place to impact the social development of the child is early in the child's life in the family environment.

Utilizing parent-child-peer knowledge from a systems perspective in parent-education programs. With rapid and continual changes in the American society, information pertaining to parenting and the socialization of children have become more complex. As a result, family life educators continue to focus on the importance of disseminating such information to parents of children of all ages. There is a pervasive assumption that accurate and developmentally appropriate information is an important element in raising children. In fact, relationships have been found between a lack of knowledge regarding principles of child development and unrealistic expectations of children's behavior, harsh punishment, and child abuse (Bamford,

1981; Earhart, 1980; Showers & Johnson, 1985). Further, a survey by Bullock (1986) of 200 adults comprised of both parents and non-parents indicated that 100% responded "yes" to the question, "Is knowledge of child development principles important to you?" Yet the respondents mean score on a test of child development knowledge was 29 out of a possible 42 points or approximately 69%.

As new knowledge of the relationships between parent, children, and related systems is acquired, it seems important that this information be shared with those that it was conducted on. Likewise, it seems important that those in the field go beyond an intervention approach and begin to focus on a preventitive approach. By sharing knowledge with parents as it becomes available, then researchers are meeting this goal. Earhart (1980) supports this approach by proposing that all high school students be required to take courses which will prepare them to be effective and informed parents. If parents have the opportunity to learn about the child as a member of a social system they will understand the importance of their influence on the child and the child-peer system and visa versa.

Utilizing parent-child-peer knowledge from a systems perspective in educational settings. Minimal attention has been given to the relationships between parental perceptions of the family and teacher perceptions of young children's social competence. While an emphasis on the parent-child system has produced a wealth of insights, the knowledge of the relationships among parent-child-teacher systems is rare. Perhaps this is because parents have been regarded as the most important factor and influence in a young child's life.

From a systems perspective, the influence of other people, such as friends, teachers, and school on children has been emphasized (Bronfenbrenner, 1973; Feiring & Lewis, 1978). Because approximately 39% of all prekindergarden children attend some type of preschool (Department of Census, 1982) there is much that teachers can do to enhance and facilitate young children's social competence.

The present study supports the notion that various aspects of parental cohesion, psychosocial competence, and acceptance of children are related to teacher ratings of social competence in children. Educators for example can work on identifying and implementing educational curricula with an emphasis on social skills such as sharing, helping others, initiating and giving directions in activities, and accepting limits. This in turn may facilitate the parents' perceptions of feeling more self-competent and accepting toward their child.

<center>Limitations of the Study</center>

Some methodological considerations have been identified that may have influenced the findings of the present study. These factors, discussed below, pertain to the sampling, instrumentation, and design of the study.

1. <u>Data Collection Desireability</u>. The first limitation involves a portion of the data collection method. Survey information from parents which depends upon self-reported information is often challenged for accuracy. Although the validity of survey information is sometimes questioned, behavioral observations on the sample of

parents in this study would be too costly and time consuming. On the other hand, parental attitudes are much easier to assess and have been shown to be related to parental behaviors (Baumrind, 1966; Brody, 1966; Pumroy, 1966). A related concern involves the way in which the parental survey information was collected. A majority of the parents made appointments and came to the schools to fill out the forms. For those parents who would not or could not come in, forms were sent home and the respondents were asked to fill out the surveys individually and without collaboration from their spouse.

2. <u>Method of Sampling</u>. A second limitation relates to the method of sampling subjects. Because the parents and children studied were involved in one of two university laboratory schools, the sample was not random. Of the 90 parents who were requested to fill out the surveys, only 74 pairs responded which contributes to a selection bias. This subject selection process may limit generalizations to parents who are willing to participate in studies.

3. <u>Nature of the Sample</u>. A third concern of this study involves limitations related to the parent population studied. The population of parents was limited to geographic locations of the Northwest in cities of populations under 40,000. Further, respondents were more educated than the general population. These factors bias the study and limit generalizability of the results.

4. <u>Size of the Sample</u>. Another concern focuses on the design of the study, specifically, the size of the sample. To ensure reliability of regression statistics, a large (30 subjects per independent variable) and representative sample as possible should be

used (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973). Due to the small sample size, the precise statistical estimate may be questioned. Future recommendations would include conducting a similar study with fewer variables or increasing the sample size.

5. <u>Correlational</u> <u>Nature</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>Data</u> <u>Analysis</u>. A final limitation of this study concerns the issue of causality. While several of the parent-child variables were related, it is clear, due to the design of the study, that the direction of effect remains unspecified. It might be possible that socially competent and skillful children influence the way parents perceive the social climate of the family, themselves, and their children. Earlier studies (e.g., Vandell, 1977) however, have suggested that parents do contribute to their children's social skills which they then use in child-peer interactions. Studies which focus on experimental research of parental influences on child-peer relations are necessary to determine causality.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive capacity of parental perceptions of the family environment (cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, psychosocial competence, acceptance of children, and SES) on social competence in children's peer relations. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the relationships between the predictor and outcome variables in father-mother-child, father-mother-son, and father-mother-daughter relationships.

Results varied between the fathers' and mothers' variables and the total, boys', and girls' sample. For the total sample of children, positive peer nominations were predictive of fathers' psychosocial competence (13% of variance), lower negative peer nominations were predictive of mothers' acceptance and expressiveness (16% of variance), and teacher ratings were predictive of fathers' psychosocial competence and mothers' cohesion (12% of variance). No support was found for the predictive relationships between the parental perception variables and friendship ratings in children.

For the sample of boys, friendship ratings were predictive of mothers' psychosocial competence and cohesion (12% of variance); positive peer nominations were predictive of fathers' psychosocial competence (15% of variance); lower negative peer nominations were predictive of mothers' acceptance and cohesion (28% of variance); and teacher ratings were predictive of mothers' cohesion and acceptance, and fathers' psychosocial competence (35% of variance).

For the sample of girls, friendship ratings were predictive of fathers' expressiveness and cohesion (12% of variance); positive peer nominations were predictive of fathers' psychosocial competence and acceptance, and mothers' expressiveness (24% of variance); negative peer nominations were predictive of fathers' conflict (12% of variance); and teacher ratings were predictive of mothers' acceptance and psychosocial competence, and fathers' psychosocial competence (23% of variance). No relationships between parents' SES and any of the children's social competence measures were noted.

Chapter VI

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Demographics and General Information

1. Sex: M___ F___   2. Year of birth ___   3. Year of marriage ___

4. Living with spouse at present time. Yes ___   No ___

5. Married more than once. Yes ___   No ___

6. If married more than once, was previous marriage ended because
   of: ___ death ___ divorce ___ other (Please state) _____
   _____

7. Draw a circle around the number of years of schooling you have
   completed.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8   1 2 3 4   1 2 3 4   1 2 3 4
   Grade School   High School   College   Post Graduate

8. Religious Affiliation:
   ___ Protestant   ___ Jewish   ___ None
   ___ Catholic   ___ Other _____

9. Was your childhood and adolescence,   10. Present family income
   for the most part, spent in: (annual):

   __open country or village under 1,000   __under $4,000
   __a town of 1,000 to 5,000   __4,000 to 7,000
   __a city of 5,000 to 10,000   __7,000 to 10,000
   __a city of 10,000 to 50,000   __10,000 to 13,000
   __a city of 50,000 to 100,000   __13,000 to 16,000
   __a city of 100,000 to 250,000   __16,000 to 25,000
   __a city of 250,000 or over   __25,000 or over

11. Husband's occupation (Be specific such as Dairy Farmer, Drug
    Store Clerk, College Professor, Automobile Mechanic, etc.) _____
    _____

12. Wife's occupation _____

13. Ages of children (to nearest birthday)
    Ages of boys ___; ___; ___; ___;
    Ages of girls ___; ___; ___; ___;

14. Is this child your: (circle 1) Own; step; or adopted child

Appendix B

Family Environment Scale

1. Family members really help and support one another.

2. Family members often keep their feelings to themselves.

3. We fight a lot in our family.

4. We don't do things on our own very often in our family.

5. We feel it is important to be the best at whatever you do.

6. We often talk about political and social problems.

7. We spend most weekends and evenings at home.

8. Family members attend church, synagogue, or Sunday School fairly often.

9. Activities in our family are pretty carefully planned.

10. Family members are rarely ordered around.

11. We often seem to be killing time at home.

12. We say anything we want to around home.

13. Family members rarely become openly angry.

14. In our family, we are strongly encouraged to be independent.

15. Getting ahead in life is very important in our family.

16. We rarely go to lectures, plays or concerts.

17. Friends often come over for dinner or to visit.

18. We don't say prayers in our family.

19. We are generally very neat and orderly.

20. There are very few rules to follow in our family.

21. We put a lot of energy into what we do at home.

22. It's hard to "blow off steam" at home without upsetting somebody.

23. Family members sometimes get so angry they throw things.

24. We think things out for ourselves in our family.

25. How much money a person makes is not very important to us.

26. Learning about new and different things is very important in our family.

27. Nobody in our family is active in sports, Little League, bowling, etc.

28. We often talk about the religious meaning of Christmas, Passover, or other holidays.

29. It's often hard to find things when you need them in our household.

30. There is one family member who makes most of the decisions.

31. There is a feeling of togetherness in our family.

32. We tell each other about our personal problems.

33. Family members hardly ever lose their tempers.

34. We come and go as we want to in our family.

35. We believe in competition and "may the best man win."

36. We are not that interested in cultural activities.

37. We often go to movies, sports events, camping, etc.

38. We don't believe in heaven or hell.

39. Being on time is very important in our family.

40. There are set ways of doing things at home.

41. We rarely volunteer when something has to be done at home.

42. If we feel like doing something on the spur of the moment we often just pick up and go.

43. Family members often criticize each other.

44. There is very little privacy in our family.

45. We always strive to do things just a little better the next time.

46. We rarely have intellectual discussions.

47. Everyone in our family has a hobby or two.

48. Family members have strict ideas about what is right and wrong.

49. People change their minds often in our family.

50. There is a strong emphasis on following rules in our family.

51. Family members really back each other up.

52. Someone usually gets upset if you complain in our family.

53. Family members sometimes hit each other.

54. Family members almost always rely on themselves when a problem comes up.

55. Family members rarely worry about job promotions, school grades, etc.

56. Someone in our family plays a musical instrument.

57. Family members are not very involved in recreational activities outside work or school.

58. We believe there are some things you just have to take on faith.

59. Family members make sure their rooms are neat.

60. Everyone has an equal say in family decisions.

61. There is very little group spirit in our family.

62. Money and paying bills is openly talked about in our family.

63. If there's a disagreement in our family, we try hard to smooth things over and keep the peace.

64. Family members strongly encourage each other to stand up for their rights.

65. In our family, we don't try that hard to succeed.

66. Family members often go to the library.

67. Family members sometimes attend courses or take lessons for some hobby or interest (outside of school).

68. In our family each person has different ideas about what is right and wrong.

69. Each person's duties are clearly defined in our family.

70. We can do whatever we want to in our family.

71. We really get along well with each other.

72. We are usually careful about what we say to each other.

73. Family members often try to one-up or out do each other.

74. It's hard to be by yourself without hurting someone's feelings in our household.

75. "Work before play" is the rule in our family.

76. Watching T.V. is more important than reading in our family.

77. Family members go out a lot.

78. The Bible is a very important book in our home.

79. Money is not handled very carefully in our family.

80. Rules are pretty inflexible in our household.

81. There is plenty of time and attention for everyone in our family.

82. There are a lot of spontaneous discussions in our family.

83. In our family, we believe you don't ever get anywhere by raising your voice.

84. We are not really encouraged to speak up for ourselves in our family.

85. Family members are often compared with others as to how well they are doing at work or school.

86. Family members really like music, art and literature.

87. Our main form of entertainment is watching T.V. or listening to the radio.

88. Family members believe that if you sin you will be punished.

89. Dishes are usually done immediately after eating.

90. You can't get away with much in our family.

Appendix C

Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale

Reproduced by permission from Forrest B. Tyler, Department of Psychology, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland.

1. a. I am very involved in trying to answer questions about who I am or want to be.

   b. I am interested in questions about who I am or want to be, but I don't consciously think about them often.

2. a. Managing to obtain my goals in life without getting upset is important but I don't focus on it a great deal.

   b. Managing to obtain my goals in life without getting upset is something to which I give considerable attention.

3. a. When I have to part with friends because I am going to move or make a change in my life, I hate to leave my old friends but can usually enjoy finding new friends.

   b. When I have to part with friends because I am going to move or make a change in my life, I usually get very upset over leaving my old friends and nervous when I think of making new friendships.

4. a. I usually make a real effort to keep up close friendships.

   b. I like close friendships but I usually don't put a great deal of effort into making them work.

5. a. I master new tasks when they happen to come my way, but I don't usually enjoy it all that much.

   b. I tend to look for new tasks, and enjoy the challenge of mastering them.

6. a. I look for possibilities that will help me improve my career goals.

   b. I put forth some efforts to improve my career goals if I can, but I don't go much out of my way to look for anything special.

7. a. Pressure situations in my work sometimes make me upset.

    b. When I meet pressure situations in my work, I hang loose.

8. a. I don't give much conscious thought to planning my life in terms of what I can handle.

    b. I generally organize my life in terms of what I think I can handle.

9. a. I systematically follow a schedule of self-improvement.

    b. I find self-improvement is difficult to work at regularly.

10. a. Trying to make sense out of life generally makes me upset.

    b. Trying to make sense out of life doesn't particularly upset me.

11. a. I try to maintain a clear picture of my inner and outer strengths and limitations as a person; I figure I need to.

    b. I seldom review my inner and outer strengths and limitations as a person; it doesn't seem necessary.

12. a. I frequently rely on events and other people to direct my course.

    b. I generally follow my own course as a person.

13. a. I expect difficulties to pop up as I carry through on a job or assignment, so I go ahead without being particularly bothered.

    b. I expect difficulties to pop up as I carry through on a job or assignment, so I go ahead but it still bothers me quite a bit when they do.

14. a. I choose friendships that will not tie me down too much, and not get me all "tied up" inside.

    b. I tend to let friendships happen and don't concern myself much with them getting me tied down or "uptight."

15. a. I plan to seek out new friendships and to develop my capabilities for being a good friend.

    b. I hope to have new friendships and to develop my capabilities for being a good friend, but I probably won't work regularly at it.

16. a. If I can't seem to get along with people, I don't see any
       need to worry about it.

    b. If I can't seem to get along with people, I try to find out
       why, so I can do better in the future.

17. a. When something I do for fun works out okay, I sometimes can't
       enjoy it as much as I'd like to because I get too excited.

    b. When something I do for fun works out okay, I am able to
       relax and make the most of it.

18. a. In new situations, I look for the kinds of personal
       relationships that I want.

    b. In new situations, I usually let other people indicate what
       friendship possibilities they would like with me.

19. a. I value my independence; however, I often prefer to go along
       with others.

    b. I try to keep my independence as much as possible, even when
       I'm with other people.

20. a. As each new experience or phase of my life ends, I tend to
       move on to the next without looking back or much thought for
       the future.

    b. As each new experience or phase of my life ends, I try to
       reassess where I am and what I want out of life.

21. a. When I'm involved in something and begin to have setbacks, I
       may drop it unless it really matters to me to finish it.

    b. When I take on something I stick with it until it's finished.

22. a. When I do something really difficult, I generally don't feel
       it's work all the effort and don't get much satisfaction out
       of it.

    b. I think it's fun to do really difficult things, even though I
       don't always get as much satisfaction out of it.

23. a. I follow my own course and ideas about love.

    b. Following my own course and ideas about love doesn't seem
       particularly important.

24. a. When I have a personal problem, I sometimes get upset before
         I reach a decision.

     b. When I have a personal problem, I usually work it out without
         getting very upset.

25. a. Life's victories and defeats offer me a time to re-evaluate
         myself, but sometimes, I still worry about the success of my
         future efforts.

     b. Life's victories and defeats offer me a time to re-evaluate
         myself, and I tend to take a look at myself fairly calmly.

26. a. I like being alive and I'm involved in living life to the
         fullest by putting something into it.

     b. Being alive is nice, but I'll probably get more out of life
         by taking it as it comes.

27. a. I often tell friends I'll do something, but then get worried
         that I won't carry through on it as well as I should.

     b. I often tell friends I'll do something, and I usually carry
         through on it without worrying about it.

28. a. Thinking about the work I have to do helps me to get it done
         without getting upset.

     b. I have to be careful not to think about all the work I have
         to do or I'll get worried and not get as much done.

29. a. I figure my life will be what I make of it, but even so I
         generally prefer to let things come to me first.

     b. I figure my life will be what I make of it, so I generally go
         out to meet life and make the most of it.

30. a. Although I like to meet new people, when I plan activities, I
         don't usually think about whether these activities will give
         me chances to meet new and different people.

     b. I often plan my activities so that there is a good chance of
         meeting new and different people.

31. a. When I've had a personal problem, I find that pulling it
         together, and putting it behind me is fairly easy.

     b. When I've had a personal problem, I find pulling it together
         and putting it behind me is fairly difficult.

32. a. I take it on myself to look around and search for the possibilities I can follow.

   b. I tend to let the world's possibilities come to me.

33. a. When I set out to accomplish a task and don't make it, I don't see that much is really gained by going over it again, so I usually don't.

   b. When I set out to accomplish a task, and don't make it, I take time out to re-evaluate my strengths and limitations and adjust my goals accordingly.

34. a. I usually arrange to set personal goals in my own way.

   b. Other people can generally help me when I think about personal goals so I usually seek their help.

35. a. When a friendship ends, I tend to look to other people to tell me what happened and whether I need to change.

   b. When a friendship ends, I usually look at it to see what happened and whether I need to change.

36. a. When I plan something for myself and carry through on it I feel good about myself and I try to express this good feeling in some way.

   b. When I plan something for myself and carry through on it, I feel sort of good about myself, but expressing the feeling isn't so important.

37. a. I tend to anticipate difficulties and problems in job situations so I can try to keep things moving smoothly.

   b. I try to see job situations through and keep things moving but I don't usually go out of my way to look for problems.

38. a. When I have a blow up with someone close to me, I feel it's both people's fault so I don't see much use in putting myself through the wringer.

   b. When I have a blow up with someone close to me, I figure it's up to me to take a close look at myself and how I relate to people.

39. a. To me the important part of any job or task is handling it my own way, as long as it is done correctly.

   b. To me most jobs and tasks are just work and it doesn't matter much whether I do it my way or someone else's.

40. a. I generally approach work and other tasks so that I can get them done without becoming worried or getting upset in the process.

    b. In my work and other tasks I get them done but in the process I tend to get involved to the extent that I am worried or upset.

41. a. In looking for work possibilities, it's important to me to find something in which I can be as independent as possible.

    b. In looking for work possibilities I don't particularly feel that I have to work independently.

42. a. I usually plan social activities easily and without getting upset.

    b. While planning for social activities, I tend to worry that things won't go "just right."

43. a. Once I take on a job or assignment, it doesn't really matter a great deal whether I carry through with it in my way.

    b. When I take on a job or assignment, it's important to me to carry through on it in my way.

44. a. I try to get things to come out, but I'm not always very creative about it.

    b. I tend to be somewhat creative about getting things to come out okay.

45. a. Carrying through on commitments -- to myself, other people and on tasks -- is part of life and I generally do it without worrying about it.

    b. Carrying through on commitments -- to myself, other people and on tasks -- is part of life but I tend to get uptight about seeing them through.

46. a. I plan to make the most of my life so I have thought out rather carefully what I want and I plan my life and carry out my plans as I go along.

    b. I hope to make the most of my life but I usually don't go out of my way to make plans or follow them closely.

47. a. When I have displeased others or myself, I figure it's up to me to put things back together.

    b. When I have displeased others or myself, I don't think it matters who puts things back together just so it gets done.

48. a. Many situations may yield new possibilities for personal growth, but I usually settle for what comes my way.

    b. In most situations I usually seek out people to get information that will help me in my development as a person.

49. a. When everything is going great, I enjoy it but I don't usually go out of my way to make a big deal of it.

    b. When everything is going great, I do all I can to make the most of the occasion and really enjoy it.

50. a. I generally think it's my responsibility to look for what I want in life.

    b. I want a good life for myself, but I think other people also have some responsibility for that.

51. a. I generally prefer to live my life as I go.

    b. I usually think ahead ond organize my thoughts or ideas about future situations.

52. a. When I don't do as well as I expect at something, I pick out some other job without coming apart inside very badly.

    b. When I don't do as well as I expect at something, my disappointment sometimes makes it more difficult to figure out what else to do.

53. a. People usually make me nervous.

    b. I feel completely comfortable around people.

54. a. I'm not much for planning but I do like new tasks, new people, and new experiences when I encounter them.

    b. I enjoy new tasks, new people, and new experiences, so I'm planning my life to give me those things.

55. a. I generally don't get a real sense of satisfaction from doing a project unless I put some of my ideas into it.

    b. I generally feel good when I finish a project even if I have not put any of my ideas into it.

56. a. I look forward to opportunities to think about "who I am" or "who I want to be."

    b. When I think about "who I am" or "who I want to be," I get mixed up inside.

57. a. As long as my life is going along all right it doesn't really matter much whether I'm making all of the decisions.

   b. I get a real sense of satisfaction when I make my own decisions about my own life.

58. a. I look forward to the challenges of work, keep on top of it without getting upset, and enjoy mastering it. I fully expect to be busy most of my life and to enjoy it.

   b. My work has not done much for me, but make me worry and doubt my capabilities. I expect to work most of my life, but I don't particularly look forward to it.

Appendix D

Parental Acceptance Scale

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INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR CHILD

Many parents say that their feeling of affection toward or for their child varies with his behavior and with circumstances. Will you please read each item carefully and place a check in the column which most nearly describes the degree of feeling of affection which you have for your child in that situation.

Check One Column For Each Item Below	Degree of Feeling of Affection				
	Much more then usual	A little more than usual	The same	A little less than usual	Much less than usual
1. When he is obedient					
2. When he is with me					
3. When he misbehaves in front of special guests					
4. When he expresses unsolicited affection. "You're the nicest mommy (daddy) in the whole world."					
5. When he is away from me					
6. When he shows off in public					
7. When he behaves according to my highest expectations					
8. When he expresses angry and hateful things to me					
9. When he does things I have hoped he would not do					
10. When we are doing things together					

Listed below are several statements describing things which children do and say. Following each statement are five responses which suggest ways of feeling of courses of action.

Read each statement carefully and then place a circle around the letter of the one response which most nearly describes the feeling you usually have or the course of action you most generally take when your child says or does these things.

It is possible that you may find a few statements which describe a type of behavior which you have not yet experienced with your child. In such cases, mark the response which most nearly describes how you think you would feel or what you think you would do.

Be sure that you answer every statement and mark only one response for each statement.

11. When my child is shouting and dancing with excitement at a time when I want peace and quiet, it:

   a. Makes me feel annoyed
   b. Makes me want to know more about what excites him
   c. Makes me feel like punishing him
   d. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
   e. Makes me feel like telling him to stop

12. When my child misbehaves while others in the group he is with are behaving well, I:

   a. See to it that he behaves as the others
   b. Tell him it is important to behave well when he is in a group
   c. Let him alone if he isn't disturbing the others too much
   d. Ask him to tell me what he would like to do
   e. Help him find some activity that he can enjoy and at the same time not disturb the group.

13. When my child is unable to do something which I think is important for him, it:

   a. Makes me want to help him find success in the things he can do
   b. Makes me feel disappointed in him
   c. Makes me wish he could do it
   d. Makes me realize that he can't do everything
   e. Makes me want to know more about the things he can do

14. When my child seems to be more fond of someone else (teacher, friend, relative) than me, it:

   a. Makes me realize that he is growing up
   b. Pleases me to see his interest widening to other people
   c. Makes me feel resentful
   d. Makes me feel that he doesn't appreciate what I have done for him
   e. Makes me wish he liked me more

15. When my child is faced with two or more choices and has to choose only one, I:

   a. Tell him which choice to make and why
   b. Think it through with him
   c. Point out the advantages and disadvantages of each, but let him decide for himself
   d. Tell him that I am sure he can make a wise choice and help him foresee the consequences
   e. Make the decision for him

16. When my child makes decisions without consulting me, I:

   a. Punish him for not consulting me
   b. Encourage him to make his own decisions if he can foresee the consequences
   c. Allow him to make many of his own decisions
   d. Suggest that we talk it over before he makes his decision
   e. Tell him he must consult me first before making a decision

17. When my child kicks, hits or knocks his things about, it:

   a. Makes me feel like telling him to stop
   b. Makes me feel like punishing him
   c. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
   d. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
   e. Makes me feel annoyed

18. When my child is not interested in some of the usual activities of his age group, it:

   a. Makes me realize that each child is different
   b. Makes me wish he were interested in the same activities
   c. Makes me feel disappointed in him
   d. Makes me want to help him find ways to make the most of his interests
   e. Makes me want to know more about the activities in which he is interested

19. When my child acts silly and giggly, I:

   a. Tell him I know how he feels
   b. Pay no attention to him
   c. Tell him he shouldn't act that way
   d. Make him quit
   e. Tell him it is all right to feel that way, but help him find other ways of expressing himself

20. When my child prefers to do things with his friends rather than
    with his family, I:

    a. Encourage him to do things with his friends
    b. Accept this as part of growing up
    c. Plan special activities so that he will want to be with his
       family
    d. Try to minimize his association with his friends
    e. Make him stay with his family

21. When my child disagrees with me about something which I think is
    important, it:

    a. Makes me feel like punishing him
    b. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
    c. Makes me feel like persuading him that I am right
    d. Makes me realize he has ideas of his own
    e. Makes me feel annoyed

22. When my child misbehaves while others in the group he is with
    are behaving well, it:

    a. Makes me realize that he does not always behave as others in
       his group
    b. Makes me feel embarrassed
    c. Makes me want to help him find the best ways to express his
       feelings
    d. Makes me wish he would behave like the others
    e. Makes me want to know more about his feelings

23. When my child is shouting and dancing with excitement at a time
    when I want peace and quiet, I:

    a. Give him something quiet to do
    b. Tell him that I wish he would stop
    c. Make him be quiet
    d. Let him tell me about what excites him
    e. Send him somewhere else

24. When my child seems to be more fond of someone else (teacher,
    friend, relative) than me, I:

    a. Try to minimize his association with that person
    b. Let him have such associations when I think he is ready for
       them
    c. Do some special things for him to remind him of how nice I am
    d. Point out the weaknesses and faults of that other person
    e. Encourage him to create and maintain such associations

25. When my child says angry and hateful things about me to my face, it:

    a. Makes me feel annoyed
    b. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
    c. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
    d. Makes me feel like punishing him
    e. Makes me feel like telling him not to talk that way to me

26. When my child shows a deep interest in something I don't think is important, it:

    a. Makes me realize he has interests of his own
    b. Makes me want to help him find ways to make the most of this interest
    c. Makes me feel disappointed in him
    d. Makes me want to know more about his interests
    e. Makes me wish he were more interested in the things I think are important for him

27. When my child is unable to do some things as well as others in his group, I:

    a. Tell him he must try to do as well as the others
    b. Encourage him to keep trying
    c. Tell him that no one can do everything well
    d. Call his attention to the things he does well
    e. Help him make the most of the activities which he can do

28. When my child wants to do something which I am sure will lead to disappointment for him, I:

    a. Occasionally let him carry such an activity to its conclusion
    b. Don't let him do it
    c. Advise him not to do it
    d. Help him with it in order to ease the disappointment
    e. Point out what is likely to happen

29. When my child acts silly and giggly, it:

    a. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
    b. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
    c. Makes me feel like punishing him
    d. Makes me feel like telling him to stop
    e. Makes me feel annoyed

30. When my child is faced with two or more choices and has to choose only one, it:

    a. Makes me feel that I should tell him which choice to make and why
    b. Makes me feel that I should point out the advantages and disadvantages
    c. Makes me hope that I have prepared him to choose wisely
    d. Makes me want to encourage him to hake his own choice
    e. Makes me want to make the decision for him

31. When my child is unable to do something which I think is important for him, I:

    a. Tell him he must do better
    b. Help him make the most of the things which he can do
    c. Ask him to tell me more about the things which he can do
    d. Tell him that no one can do everything
    e. Encourage him to keep trying

32. When my child disagrees with me about something which I think is important, I:

    a. Tell him he shouldn't disagree with me
    b. Make him quit
    c. Listen to his side of the problem and change my mind if I am wrong
    d. Tell him maybe we can do it his way another time
    e. Explain that I am doing what is best for him

33. When my child is unable to do some things as well as others in his group, it:

    a. Makes me realize that he can't be best in everything
    b. Makes me wish he could do well
    c. Makes me feel embarrassed
    d. Makes me want to help him find success in the things he can do
    e. Makes me want to know more about the things he can do well

34. When my child makes decisions without consulting me, it:

    a. Makes me hope that I have prepared him adequately to make his decisions
    b. Makes me wish he would consult with me
    c. Makes me feel disturbed
    d. Makes me want to restrict his freedom
    e. Pleases me to see that as he grows he needs me less

35. When my child says angry and hateful things about me to my face, I:

    a. Tell him it's all right to feel that way, but help him find other ways of expressing himself
    b. Tell him I know how he feels
    c. Pay no attention to him
    d. Tell him he shouldn't say such things to me
    e. Make him quit

36. When my child kicks, hits, and knocks things about, I:

    a. Make him quit
    b. Tell him it's all right to feel that way, but help him find other ways of expressing himself
    c. Tell him he shouldn't do such things
    d. Tell him I know how he feels
    e. Pay no attention to him

37. When my child prefers to do things with friends rather than with his family, it:

    a. Makes me wish he would spend more time with us
    b. Makes me feel resentful
    c. Pleases me to see his interests widening to other people
    d. Makes me feel he doesn't appreciate us
    e. Makes me realize that he is growing up

38. When my child wants to do something which I am sure will lead to disappointment for him, it:

    a. Makes me hope that I have prepared him to meet disappointment
    b. Makes me wish he didn't have to meet unpleasant experiences
    c. Makes me want to keep him from doing it
    d. Makes me realize that occasionally such experiences will be good for him
    e. Makes me want to postpone these experiences

39. When my child is not interested in some of the usual activities in his age group, I:

    a. Try to help him realize that it is important to be interested in the same things as others in his group
    b. Call his attention to the activities in which he is interested
    c. Tell him it is all right if he isn't interested in the same things
    d. See to it that he does the same things as others in his group
    e. Help him find ways of making the most of his interests

40. When my child shows a deep interest in something I don't think is important, I:

   a. Let him go ahead with his interest
   b. Ask him to tell me more about this interest
   c. Help him find ways to make the most of this interest
   d. Do everything I can to discourage his interest in it
   e. Try to interest him in more worthwhile things

Appendix E

California Preschool Social Competency Scale

1. IDENTIFICATION

1. Can state first name only.
2. Can state full name.
3. Can state full name and age as of last birthday.
4. Can state name, age, and address.

2. USING NAMES OF OTHERS

1. Uses no proper names in interacting with those around him.
2. Uses the names of no more than five children or adults.
3. Uses the names of from five to ten children.
4. Uses the names of virtually all children and adults.

3. GREETING NEW CHILD

When a new child joins the group--

1. He inadvertently physically overpowers child in greeting him (i.e., hugs, bumps, pulls).
2. He makes a limited and brief physical contact (i.e., pats, pokes, rubs) with child and some verbal contact.
3. He usually makes verbal contact and sometimes touches child.
4. He nearly always makes verbal contact with child without physical contact.

4. SAFE USE OF EQUIPMENT

1. He proceeds with activity, ignoring hazards involving height, weight, and distance (climbing on unstable equipment, stacking boxes too high, jumping onto off-balanced structures).
2. He proceeds with hazardous activity, sometimes seeking help and sometimes getting into difficulty.
3. He proceeds with hazardous activity but frequently seeks help when he is in difficulty.

4. He corrects hazards or seeks help before proceeding with activity.

5. REPORTING ACCIDENTS

When he has an accident (e.g., spilling, breaking)--

1. He does not report accidents.
2. He sometimes reports accidents.
3. He frequently reports accidents.
4. He nearly always reports accidents.

6. CONTINUING IN ACTIVITIES

1. He wanders from activity to activity with no sustained participation.
2. He continues in his own activity but is easily diverted when he notices activities of others.
3. He continues in his own activity and leaves it only when he is interrupted by others.
4. He continues in his own activity in spite of interruptions.

7. PERFORMING TASKS

1. He usually has to be asked two or three times before he will begin a task.
2. He usually begins task the first time he is asked but dawdles and has to be reminded.
3. He begins task the first time he is asked but is slow in completing task.
4. He begins task first time he is asked and is prompt in completing task.

8. FOLLOWING VERBAL INSTRUCTIONS

He can follow verbal instructions--

1. When they are accompanied by demonstration.
2. Without a demonstration, if one specific instruction is involved.
3. Without a demonstration, when it involves two specific instructions.
4. Without a demonstration, when it involves three or more instructions.

9. FOLLOW NEW INSTRUCTIONS

1. He carries out one familiar instruction.
2. He carries out one new instruction the first time it is given.

3. He follows new instructions given one at a time, as well as familiar ones.

4. He follows several new instructions given at a time, as well as familiar ones.

10. REMEMBERING INSTRUCTIONS

1. He nearly always needs to have instructions or demonstration repeated before he can perform the activity on his own.
2. He frequently requires repetition, a reminder, or affirmation that he is proceeding correctly.
3. He occasionally needs repetition of instruction for part of the activity before completing the activity.
4. He performs the activity without requiring repetition of instructions.

11. MAKING EXPLANATION TO OTHER CHILDREN

When attempting to explain to another child how to do something (put things together, play a game, etc.)--

1. He is unable to do so.
2. He gives an incomplete explanation.
3. He gives a complete but general explanation.
4. He gives a complete explanation with specific details.

12. COMMUNICATING WANTS

1. He seldom verbalizes his wants; acts out by point, pulling, crying, etc.
2. He sometimes verbalizes but usually combines actions with words.
3. He usually verbalizes but sometimes acts out his wants.
4. He nearly always verbalizes his wants.

13. BORROWING

1. He takes objects when in use by others without asking permission.
2. He somestimes askes permission to use other's objects.
3. He frequently asks permission to use other's objects.
4. He nearly always asks permission to use other's objects.

14. RETURNING PROPERTY

When he has borrowed something--

1. He seldom attempts to return the property to its owner.
2. He occasionally attempts to return the property to its owner.
3. He frequently attempts to return the property to its owner.
4. He nearly always returns the property to its owner.

15. SHARING

1. He does not share equipment or toys.
2. He shares but only after adult intervention.
3. He occasionally shares willingly with other children.
4. He frequently shares willingly with other children.

16. HELPING OTHERS

When another is having difficulty (such as using equipment, dressing)--

1. He never helps the other child.
2. He helps another child only when they are playing together.
3. He sometimes stops his own play to help another child.
4. He frequently stops his own play to help another child.

17. PLAYING WITH OTHERS

1. He usually plays by himself.
2. He plays with others but limits play to one or two children.
3. He occasionally plays with a larger group (three or more children).
4. He usually plays with a larger group (three or more children).

18. INITIATING INVOLVEMENT

When other children are involved in an activity which permits the inclusion of additional children--

1. He seldom initiates getting involved in the activity.
2. He sometimes initiates getting involved in the activity.
3. He frequently initiates getting involved in the activity.
4. He nearly always initiates getting involved in the activity.

19. INITIATING GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. He nearly always initiates activities which are solely for his own play.
2. He initiates his own activity and allows one child to join him.
3. He sometimes initiates activities which include two or more children.
4. He frequently initiates activities which are of a group nature.

20. GIVING DIRECTION TO PLAY

When playing with others--

1. He typically follows the lead of others.
2. He sometimes makes suggestions for the direction of the play.
3. He frequently makes suggestions for the direction of the play.
4. He nearly always makes suggestions for the direction of the play.

21. TAKING TURNS

1. He frequently interrupts or pushes others to get ahead of them in an activity taking turns.
2. He attempts to take turn ahead of time but does not push or quarrel in order to do so.
3. He waits for turn, but teases or pushes those ahead of him.
4. He waits for turn or waits to be called on.

22. REACTION TO FRUSTRATION

When he does not get what he wants or things are not going well--

1. He has a tantrum (screams, kicks, throws, etc.)
2. He finds a substitute activity without seeking help in solving the problem.
3. He seeks help from others in solving problems without making an attempt to solve it himself.
4. He seeks help from others in solving the problem after making an effort to solve it himself.

23. DEPENDENCE UPON ADULTS

He will continue in an activity on his own without having an adult participate with him or encourage him--

1. Hardly ever.
2. Sometimes.
3. Frequently.
4. Nearly always.

24. ACCEPTING LIMITS

When an adult sets limits on the child's activity (play space, use of material, type of activity) he accepts the limits--

1. Hardly ever.
2. Sometimes.
3. Frequently.
4. Nearly always.

25. EFFECTING TRANSITIONS

In changing from one activity to another--

1. He requires personal contact by adult (i.e., holding hands, leading).
2. He will not move toward new activity until the physical arrangements have been completed.
3. He moves toward new activity when the teacher announces the activity.
4. He moves toward new activity without physical or verbal cues.

26. CHANGES IN ROUTINE

The child accepts changes in routine (daily schedule, room arrangements, adults) without resistance or becoming upset--

1. Hardly ever.
2. Sometimes.
3. Frequently.
4. Nearly always.

27. REASSURANCE IN PUBLIC PLACES

When taken to public places he must be given physical or verbal reassurance--

1. Nearly always.
2. Frequently.
3. Sometimes.
4. Hardly ever.

28. RESPONSE TO UNFAMILIAR ADULTS

1. He avoids or withdraws from any contact with unfamiliar adults.
2. He, when initially approached by unfamiliar adults, avoids contact, but if approached again, is responsive.
3. He responds to overtures by unfamiliar adults but does not initiate contact.
4. He readily moves toward unfamiliar adults.

29. UNFAMILIAR SITUATIONS

1. He restricts himself to activities in which he has previously engaged.
2. He joins in an activity which is new for him only if other children are engaged in it.
3. He joins with other children in an activity which is new to everyone.
4. He engages in an activity which is new for him even through other children are not involved.

30. SEEKING HELP

When he is involved in an activity in which he needs help--

1. He leaves the activity without seeking help.
2. He continues in the activity but only if help is offered.
3. He persists in the activity and finally seeks help.
4. He seeks help from others after making a brief attempt.