

CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

- I- Studies on Empathy
- II- Studies on Family Communication
and Family Relationships
- III- Studies on Dogmatism as related to
Interpersonal Communication.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In his book "Readings in the Psychology of Parent-Child Relations" Gene R. Medinnus (1967) summarises the problems involved in this type of research while reviewing the studies made so far in the field of parent-child relations. He says :

" Most research in the parent-child area operates on the assumption that there is a direct and discernible relation between parent variables (behavior, attitudes, personality) and child behavior and personality variables. But for several reasons this may well be an oversimplification. First, the causes of child behavior are complex, involving influences exerted by parent, siblings, peers, and others of psychological significance in the child's environment. It is not surprising that almost no research has considered all of these variables simultaneously. And even if such a study were attempted, it probably would be doomed to failure because it may not be a

combination of these variables or even a weighted combination that is important ; but perhaps the salience, in a psychological sense, of a single variable is most influential in affecting the child.

Second, parents and children influence each other in a mutual, two-way fashion although much of the research is based on a "one-tail" theory, as Bell (1964) has termed it. The infant helps to shape his environment just as he is shaped by it.

Research in the area of interpersonal communication between parents and children is relatively little. Most of the studies made so far have been on interpersonal relationships in general. Those made on interpersonal communication are more from the point of view either of social psychology, clinical or counselling psychology. The studies on parent-child relationships are innumerable, most of them being conducted using Rating Scales or investigating children's perception of family relationships. There is a lack of studies where methods used to measure interpersonal communication in the counselling situation have been applied to research conducted on family relationships.

The present review may be studied in 3 sections :-

- 1) Studies on Empathy as related to Interpersonal Communication.
- 2) Studies on Family Communication and family Relationships, the emphasis being on the parent-child relationship.
- 3) Studies on Dogmatisim as related to interpersonal communication.

I) STUDIES ON EMPATHY AS RELATED TO INTERPERSONAL
COMMUNICATION

Empathy refers to the ability to take on another's role and thus become aware of his feelings, as well as his motives - his attitudes, values and beliefs. Eugene A. Weinstein describes empathy as an ability "to assess accurately the other's definition of the situation."

The proper reading of others' feelings and emotions calls for a considerable degree of sensitivity, even when the others are members of our own culture. In a recent review of research on interpersonal perception skills, Eugene A. Weinstein (1969) notes that empathy requires both intelligence and cue sensitivity. Intelligence is necessary, because the would be empathizer must employ a high degree of cognitive skill in "mapping" the meanings of the target person's behavior. We must also be able to run through a large number of perspectives in rapid order to understand the target person. Cue sensitivity refers to the individual's ability to ignore irrelevant stimuli in an interpersonal situation and to focus on aspects of behavior that may provide promising clues to the target person's disposition and perceptions - the way he is "internally structuring reality." This calls for a high degree of "recognition and discrimination of subtle differences in meaning between individuals and for the same individual in differing situations. Persons rating high on empathic ability monitor indications of feelings and moods, as well as words, and hence

are alert to vocal inflections, gestures, posture and other cues that might indicate a discrepancy between what is being said and what the target person "really means".

Harrison Gough (1968) says that an impressionistic resume of California Psychological Inventory scores of individuals displaying the greatest accuracy in interpersonal perception suggests that they seem to show normality, adaptability, resourcefulness, reserve and a moderate degree of self-doubt. As one might expect, such persons would also score low on authoritarianism, as measured by the F Scale.

Today's emphasis on the empathic concept reflects the convergence of 2 streams of scientific thought. The first stems from a theoretical concern with problems of socialisation and personality development on the part of sociologists like Cooley, Angell and Mead, and psychologists like Freud, McDougall and Sullivan. All these theorists gave central emphasis to the recognition by the individual of other people's feelings towards him and the eventual incorporation of these attitudes, into his own self-image. The process of sensing or responding to other people's thoughts and feelings is often referred to in this theoretical tradition as empathy.

The 2nd stream of thought is more exclusively psychological ; it is concerned with the general problem of one person's ability to understand another. It is these 2 lines of thought which have converged in the work of Cottrell and Dymond.

In their research the psychologist's interest in measurement was combined with a theoretical rationale which made this problem of central importance for the study of social relations. It was argued that the ability to "emphathise" or "take the role of the other" was essential to a wide range of basic processes, knowledges and skills in the area of social behavior and development. Cottrell asserted that empathic ability is basic "in such phenomena as the development of a conception of self, in acquiring a role, in the emergence of insight, in communication, in the integration of a group, in the internalisation of social norms." (1950)

Dymond proposed that the analysis of empathic ability will lead to a better understanding of such diverse questions as "how the self emerges and the child becomes socialized, how individual behavior can be predicted more efficiently, the reasons groups become or fail to be integrated." (1949) She suggested further that empathic ability is required for success in a variety of occupations including "clinical work, psychiatric work, interviewing, social work, arbitration and so forth."

Most of the studies made on empathy are nothing but studies of "predictive accuracy". Taft (1955) classifies the research results under 5 headings.

- 1) Perception of emotional expression in photographs, drawings, models and moving pictures.
- 2) Rating and ranking traits.

- 3) Personality descriptions
- 4) Personality matchings
- 5) Prediction of behavior and life history data.

Another group of studies has been classified on the basis of whether they require analytic or non-analytic judgements.

Burner and Tagiuri also give considerable attention to differences in the interpretation of accuracy and its correlations with other variables.

These 2 reviews concur in supporting a single generalized ability to judge other people.

In the course of exploratory work we develop the notion of 2 contrasting types of ability in social perception.

- 1) Sensitivity to the generalized other involves an awareness of the social norm or the typical response of a large class or group. This is tapped in the prediction studies.
- 2) Sensitivity to individual differences or interpersonal sensitivity is the ability to recognise how one person differs from another in his behavior, feelings or motives.

These 2 abilities are useful in different walks of life and an individual may possess more of one and less of another.

Dymond's pioneering study of "empathic ability" (1949) has set the pattern for much subsequent research. She asked her

judges (all of them college students) to predict the rating responses of each one of seven classmates on a series of personality traits. The ratings and predictions for each trait were expressed on a 5 point scale. The accuracy score consisted of the sum of the absolute differences between his predictions and the actual responses made by the fellow members of his group. The smaller the score, the smaller the error and indicates good performance and the judge's ability in interpersonal sensitivity.

In a critique of Dymond's study, Lindgren and Robinson (1953) repeated the same procedure with minor revisions, but added a "normative empathy" score based on the difference between the judge's estimate and the average response of 100 college students. The correlation between this "normative empathy" score and the original empathy score was .74. They conclude : "This raises the question whether the test measures the tendency of individuals to respond to an interpersonal situation in terms of cultural norms rather than empathic promptings. It is suggested that both factors may operate.

A study made by Victor B. Cline and James M. Richards, Jr. confirm the above. There is a general ability to perceive others accurately which consists of 2 parts : sensitivity to the generalised other and interpersonal sensitivity.

The nature of communication among persons influences the nature of their role taking. The more empathic 2 people are with one another, the more "effecient" their communication.

That is, the more 2 people are able to take each other's role accurately (to tune in to one another) the fewer the communicative units that are required to transmit information or meaning between them.

Variation in empathy is due to more than differential distribution of particular innate gifts. Persons who share the values and norms of a common culture are able to use information that is particular to that culture. People who have undergone the same experiences or who have been socialized within the same categories should have a greater degree of empathy with one another than with others.

Some of the above propositions were empirically tested by Goodman and Ofshe by measuring the communication efficiency of married couples, engaged couples and strangers in family - related and general words. A study by Eugene Weinstein et al. (1972) attempts to gather additional support for certain specific hypotheses about the relationships of shared cultures to role taking and the efficiency of communication.

- 1) Friendship pairs show greater communication efficiency than pairs of strangers.
- 2) In areas relevant to a particular religion, pairs who share that religious identity communicate more efficiently than pairs who do not.
- 3) This greater communicative efficiency is due to the use of cues related to the common religious experience.

A form of television game "Password" was used to provide a measure of communication efficiency. It was administered to 32 pairs of female subjects drawn from classes of Introductory Sociology. Of these 16 pairs were friends and 16 were strangers ; within each of these groups 8 pairs were Jews and 8 pairs were Catholics. Hypothesis (1) was not supported by the data. (2) Hypotheses (2) and (3) were confirmed.

A study on "Identification and Empathy in relation to Self-Dissatisfaction and Adjustment" was undertaken by Doris Lockwood and Bernard Guernay Jr. (1962) to explore the interrelations of empathy, identification and dissatisfaction. The following hypotheses were proposed :

- 1) The greater the empathy of the same-sexed parent with the child, the better will be the child's total adjustment, emotional adjustment, home adjustment, social adjustment and lack of self-dissatisfaction.
- 2) The stronger the child's identification with the same-sexed parent, the better will be the child's total adjustment, emotional adjustment, home adjustment, social adjustment and lack of self-dissatisfaction.
- 3) The greater the parents' empathy for his child, the more the child will identify with that parent.
- 4) The more dissatisfied a child is with himself, the poorer will be his total adjustment, emotional adjustment, home adjustment and social adjustment.

Two instruments, the Interpersonal Check List and the Bell's Adjustment Inventory were used. The subjects were 40 high school students (20 males and 20 females). Of these 40 children 13 boys and their fathers and 15 girls and their mothers participated in the second part of the study.

The results indicated that empathy as operationally defined in this experiment was not correlated with either male or female adjustment as measured by the Bell Adjustment Inventory or with self-dissatisfaction as measured by the ICL. Because of these findings, which were contrary to widely held views, it was felt that the procedures used in elimination of "projection" were not appropriate. All that can be said is that from the present data it appears that some unknown expressed personality trait of the father seems to facilitate his son's adjustment and his son's identification with him.

Another striking feature of the results is that although female correlations were not significant for many of the variables, male correlations were. This may^{be} due to sampling errors or to the possibility that daughter-father relationships at this age are more pertinent than daughter-mother relationships.

Empathy is viewed as a neutral process. It may lead to positive feelings and closer social relationships, as when it results in sympathy but this is not necessarily the case.

Insight may also be thought of as a product of the empathic process. Insight into oneself seems to require the

ability to stand off and look at oneself from the point of view of others. Insight into others also appears to be dependent upon the ability to take the role of others. More and more clinicians are coming to accept this position particularly those of the Rogers school of client-centered therapy. In a quotation from Raskin, Rogers states :

" As time has gone by we have come to put increasing stress on the 'client-centeredness' of the relationship because it is more effective the more completely the counselor concentrates upon trying to understand the client as the client sees himself."

"The experiencing with the client, the living of his attitudes is not in terms of an emotional involvement or emotional identification on the counselor's part, but an empathic identification where the counselor is perceiving the hopes and fears of the client through immersion in an empathic process."

Proceeding from the aforementioned definition of empathy (as the ability to transpose oneself into the thinking, feeling, and acting of another), it is obvious that there is a good deal of individual variation in this ability. Some people appear to be very sensitive to cues as to how others are feeling and reacting while others appear to be grossly unaware of the thoughts and feelings of others. This faculty of being able to see things from the other person's point of view, seems to assure more effective communication and understanding. For this reason it appears to be a most challenging and important area for

investigation. Hence the author of this study Rosalind Dymond (1950) thought of constructing and standardizing a test to measure empathy.

The rating test for empathy had 4 parts. In part 1 the subject was required to rate himself on a 5 point scale on each of 6 traits. On part 2 he was asked to rate another individual on the same 6 traits. In part 3 he was asked to predict how the other will rate himself on the same 6 traits and in part 4 he must predict how the other will predict him (the subject) on these 6 items. In this way a measure of one subject's point of view of the other can be derived by calculating how closely his predictions of the other's ratings on part 4 and part 3 coincide with the other's actual ratings of himself and the subject (on his part 1 and part 2) and viceversa.

The sample for this exploratory study was a highly homogeneous one in that they were all students of a social psychology class. There were 80 students : 41 males and 39 females.

The deviation scores of the entire sample ranged from 40 to 125 points ; a difference of 85 points. The females were slightly better predictors than the males. It was also found that females were more easily predicted than males. This led to the hypothesis that the empathic ability might be reciprocal in nature, so that it is easier to empathize with a person who has high empathy than one whose empathy is low.

To investigate the relation of insight to empathy Allport's criterion of insight was used, "the relation of what he thinks he has to what others think he has." An insight index was derived from the Rating Test by comparing a subject's own judgements about himself to the judgements that others made about him. Having a self-conception which agreed well with the conception that others had of one seemed to be highly related to the ability to take the role of the other (empathy) as measured by this test.

This study showed not only interpersonal variations but also intrapersonal variations in ability which appeared to be due to several factors ; the particular other being rated, his empathy with the subject, the motivation of the subject and the subject's familiarity with the role of the other.

In order to gain some insight into the personality and life history factors behind these differences in ability a small group of extremely high and extremely low scorers were selected for further study. They were given 4 tests : WAIS, TAT, Rorschach and the California Ethnocentrism Test.

The combined results of the tests together with the subjects' own self-analyses, gave a picture of those whose empathy is high as outgoing, optimistic, warm, emotional people who have a strong interest in others. They are flexible people whose emotional relations with others, particularly their early family relations have been sufficiently satisfying so that they

find investing emotionally in others rewarding. While they are emotional people their emotionality is well controlled and richly enjoyed.

Those low in empathy are rather rigid, introverted, people who are subject to outbursts of uncontrolled emotionality. They seem unable to deal with concrete material and interpersonal relations successfully. Their early family relationships seem to have been disturbed and unsatisfying. The fact that they are so inwardly oriented and rigid in their structure makes it impossible for them to empathise with others successfully.

Olesker and Balter (1972) studying the relationship between sex and empathy, found results indicating that effectiveness is enhanced when a client has a counselor of the same rather than the opposite sex. A study by Gary D. Breisinger re-examined the above finding, sampling 21 female and 21 male graduate students majoring in counselor education. Contrary to Olesker and Balter's findings, the results show that for the graduate student subjects there was no significant difference in empathic ability whether judging members of the same or the other sex.

The study found no significant difference in the empathic ability of one sex over the other. There is a possible relationship between educational level and empathy. Bullmer (1972) emphasised that empathy is a skill that can be greatly influenced by degree of training.

Review of previous research suggests that there are elements within the therapeutic relationship which cut across theoretical boundaries. Three of these elements (a) genuineness (b) communication of non-possessive warmth, and (c) communication of accurate empathy have been defined operationally and investigated (Truax and Carkhuff 1966 ; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler and Truax 1967 Barrett-Lennard, 1962). The evidence suggests that therapeutic outcome is related to these 3 conditions for neurotic and schizophrenic adults. In addition there is evidence that suggests that the less dogmatic a person is, he is more likely to provide these 3 conditions in the helping relationship. A study by Dean L. Stoffer (1968) attempts to extend and clarify the evidence concerning the 3 therapeutic conditions in a relationship involving untrained volunteers working with elementary school children who were experiencing behavioral and academic difficulty.

The Ss were 35 students and 35 adult helpers and the children they helped. Children's behavior was examined before and after treatment for achievement, behavior problems, motivation. Helpers were rated by 3 Judges on three scales developed by Truax, Barret-Lennard's relationship Inventory and the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale.

Helper Dogmatism scores were not significantly related to any of the rated or perceived levels of therapeutic conditions nor to any of the outcome indexes. Use of multiple correlations added relatively little to the best single predictor of therapeutic outcome. None of the 5 multiple correlations reached the .05 level of significance.

The evidence presented in this study provides considerable support for the hypotheses that non-possessive warmth and accurate empathy, both rated and perceived are important elements of the helping relationship for elementary school children who are experiencing academic and behavioral problems.

II) STUDIES ON FAMILY COMMUNICATION AND FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

During recent years there has been an increasing awareness of the importance of communication in human relations and growing evidence of communication failures in troubled families and marriages. Ard states that most workers in the social science professions would agree that communication difficulties are basic in many family problems. Nevertheless most of the research in family communication patterns has been concerned with communication processes in families with schizophrenic children. Notable exceptions include Navran's correlation study of marital adjustment and husband-wife communication patterns, and Bienvenu's work in developing an Adolescent and Marital Communication Inventory.

Satir proposes that adolescent disturbances reflect dysfunctional marriages and that there is a relationship between disturbed families, dysfunctional communication and low self-esteem. Two circular processes appear to be operating in dysfunctional families. First, children learn inadequate communication patterns from their parents which contribute to low self-esteem. Such children tend to avoid interpersonal relationships and intimacy,

they are generally dependent, submissive and easily influenced by others and often feel anxious, threatened and lonely. They perceive their parents as being uninterested in them. Furthermore, whether or not an observer rates the family communication patterns as functional or dysfunctional is not the determining factor in an individual's reaction to his environment. The individual's attitudes and behaviour depend upon his response to his perceptions of his family and researchers must take this factor into account.

Several researchers emphasize that it is inappropriate to elicit information about one's perceptions of his family or his parents as a unit. An individual may have quite different feelings and attitudes regarding each family member, and an adolescent's perceptions of his interaction with his mother and father should be sampled separately. Furthermore, sex is a variable that must be considered influential in determining one's response to others as well as in eliciting responses from others.

A study was designed by Roberta Matteson (1974) on communication processes in 4 areas :

- 1) To investigate the relationship between adolescent self-esteem and adolescent-parent communication. If there is a relationship between low self-esteem and dysfunctional communication, one would expect adolescents with low self-esteem to rate their communication with their parents as less satisfactory than would adolescents with high self-esteem.

- 2) To investigate the relationship between adolescent-parent communication and husband-wife communication.
- 3) To investigate the relationship between marital communication and spouses' happiness and satisfaction with their marriage.
- 4) A child's perceptions of his interactions with his parents upon which he bases much of his behaviour and attitudes may or may not be accurate as far as the parents' actually expressed thoughts and feelings regarding the child are concerned. It was hypothesized that adolescents with low self-esteem are much more dissatisfied with the way their parents communicate with them than are adolescents with high self-esteem. It was also hypothesized that the evaluations of parent-adolescent communication made by the adolescents with low self-esteem would be incongruent, while the evaluations of adolescents of high self-esteem and those of their parents being congruent.

111 subjects, 14 and 15 years of age were administered the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and 2 questionnaires, modified from Bienvenu's Adolescent Communication Inventory, eliciting adolescent's perceptions of their communication with both parents. The 10 males and 10 females with the highest self-esteem scores and the 10 males and 10 females with the lowest scores were identified to form the 2 groups. Parents of these students completed questionnaires concerning parent-adolescent communication and marital communication.

The 5 hypotheses tested were strongly supported.

Adolescents with low self-esteem viewed communication with their parents as less facilitative than did adolescents with high self-esteem. Parents of adolescents with low self-esteem perceived their marriages as less satisfying than did parents in the high self-esteem group. There was lack of congruence between the perceptions of adolescents with low self-esteem and those of their parents ; both mothers and fathers in the low self-esteem group viewed parent-adolescent communication as more facilitative than did the adolescents themselves.

The results of this study offer strong support for the notion that high adolescent self-esteem was associated with facilitative parental and marital communication and marital adjustment satisfying to both parents. These findings emphasize the importance of helping people develop interpersonal skills which can be used to encourage positive growth and self-esteem.

An interpersonal approach to the study of individual differences in susceptibility to social influence has been suggested in a study by H.S. Eswara (1974) as a better alternative than the traditional trait approach, which treats differences in susceptibility to social influence as a reflection of a general trait of persuasibility. The underlying assumptions of the interpersonal approach proposed in this study include :

- 1) Individuals behave differently in different situations, rather than consistently across all situations ;

- 2) Situational variations in individual reactions to social stimuli are a function of tendencies learned in previous interactive situations ;
- 3) The consistency of behaviour among individuals across situations is due to the structural similarities among these various situations.

Attitude change was used as a measure of social influence. An experimental attitude change situation is conceptualized as involving an individual with a certain attitude toward a concept receiving a message from a source with whom he has a defined relationship, and the content of the message is at variance with the beliefs held by the individual toward the concept in question. The learned orientations in the family communication situations (McLeod, Chafee and Eswara, 1966) determine the nature of relationships between the elements of the social influence paradigm : the individual, the source and the concept.

Family communication, involving parent/child interactions, is assumed to lead to the learning of "norms" about the direction, content and resolution of communication on concepts, which stabilize over time and across topics. These structural relations learned within the family are assumed to provide a framework for future "transactions" outside the family.

Family communication behaviour is conceptualized as consisting of two dimensions : socio/orientation and concept/orientation. The former relations emphasize relations and

respect for figures of authority. The latter relations emphasize personal expression and cognitive understanding of concepts. Different communication practices underlie these two relations : socio/oriented communication stresses keeping away from trouble, avoiding controversy, giving in on arguments and inhibiting anger ; concept/oriented communication exposes the child to controversy, allows and encourages his expression of ideas (including challenging others), and encourages him to understand concepts. Parents may emphasize in their relations with their children neither type of communicatory behavior, one type only, or both types. Laissez/ faire consensual families emphasize neither of the two relations, while protective families stress only socio/oriented relations and pluralistic families stress only concept/oriented relations.

It is assumed that these orientations learned in the family interaction situations develop different sets of norms, emphasize the achieving of different goals, and lead to acquiring skills or tactics for attaining such goals. Further, it is assumed that the goals and means learned in the family communication situations lead persons to orient to different aspects of social influence situations, i.e. individuals become sensitized to source or content characteristics of the social influence paradigm. Specifically, it is proposed that the orientations thus developed differently determine the importance of source attractiveness and the amount of information in the process of social influence.

The social influence process is characterised by suggesting 3 alternative modes of responding to social influence attempts :

- 1) by refuting the arguments of the persuasive messages ;
- 2) by withdrawing attention from the messages ; and
- 3) by yielding to the arguments of the message.

Although it is possible that all three processes may be operating simultaneously in a given situation, it is likely that an individual chooses to respond in a particular way more often than others as a function of his learned orientations and the demands of a given situation.

In order to test some of the suggested relations between learned orientations in the family communication situations and the elements of a social influence paradigm, an experiment, involving manipulations of the attraction of the source and level of information in the messages, was carried out. It was hypothesized that there would be a divergent interaction between levels of socio/orientation and levels of attraction of source, and a divergent interaction between levels of concept/orientation and levels of information in the messages in producing attitude change in response to persuasive communications. From these dimensional predictions hypotheses were advanced as to the amount of attitude change among four family communication types under varying conditions of source attractions and levels of information. Specifically, protectives and consensuals, being high on the socio-orientation dimension, were expected to change their attitudes more under conditions of high source attraction than under conditions of low source attraction. On the other hand, pluralistics and consensuals,

being high on the concept/orientation dimension, were expected to change their attitudes more under conditions of high information than under low information.

Two studies were conducted to test the above hypotheses. 204 high school students attending a journalism workshop served as subjects of the first study. A family communication typology was developed, based on the responses of the subject to two 10/items questionnaire intended to give a description of the socio/and concept/communication of fathers and mothers. In a factorial design involving repeated measures on one of the factors, subjects belonging to the four family types were randomly assigned to two conditions of source attraction (high and low), and each subject served under both high and low information conditions.

Source attraction, represented by the component of liking for the source of the communications, was manipulated by giving differential instructions to the subjects and studying their preferences and those of the source of the communication, to see how well they would like each other and get along with each other if they would happen to come together. Information defined as logical arguments and factual evidence aimed at maximizing cognitive understanding and minimizing cognitive uncertainty, was manipulated by varying the number of arguments and the amount of evidence in the messages. In a before/after design, attitude change toward health truism was measured under the above experimental conditions among the four family communication types.

A four/factor analysis of variance, socio/ x concept / orientation x source attraction x level of information with attitude change as the dependent variable failed to show the hypothesized interactions between socio/orientation and source attraction, and between concept/orientation and level of information. Further analyses indicated that the level of information makes little or no difference for those high on socio/orientation, while high information produces more attitude change than low information for those low on socio/orientation.

A mirrorimage of the above trend is reflected with concept/orientation, although the overall interaction of concept/orientation with level of information is not significant. Level of information does not affect the amount of attitude change for those low on concept/orientation, but for those high on concept/orientation, high information condition produces more attitude change than low information condition. In short, the impact of information on producing attitude change is the greatest among pluralistics, who are high on concept/and low on socio/orientation.

All the family communication types except protectives changed their attitudes more when the source of the message was an attractive one than when the source is unattractive. This finding was in direct contradiction to our theorizing. The failure to demonstrate a relationship between family communication dimensions and source attraction was interpreted in terms of the nature of the experimental situation, which presumably failed to bring into action the underlying dynamics operating in a face-to-

face interpersonal situation. On the other hand, the obtained relationship between socio/orientation and level of information was attributed to the possible depressing effects of high socio/emphasis on the cognitive functioning of the children, and relevant evidence was brought to bear from the works of Bernstein (1961, 1964 a, 1964 b) and Hess and Shipman (1965), emerging from conceptualizations similar to family communication theory.

A second experiment, similar to the first one except for omitting the source attraction manipulations, was proposed to test the consistency of findings bearing on the relationship of socio/orientation and levels of information. 106 children of 11th grade classes in two Madison public schools served as the subjects. Again, a family communication typology was based on the responses of the subjects to a questionnaire intended to describe parental practices of socio/and concept/oriented communication. Using a before-after attitude change design, each subject was tested under high and low information conditions on two types of issues : political truisms and controversial topics. Thus, each subject responded to four messages.

Two separate analyses involving attitude change were performed : one on political truisms and the other on controversial issues. Analysis of variance in both cases failed to show any of the main effects of family communication dimensions or their interactions with information levels. Nevertheless, subsequent analysis with tests showed that the findings with political

truisms were strikingly similar to those obtained in the first study with health truisms. Specifically, there was no effect of information on attitude change among subjects high on socio/orientation, but attitude change was greater under high information than under low information conditions among those low on socio/orientation. Similarly, there was no effect of information on subjects low on concept/orientation, but the level of information made a significant difference in the amount of attitude conditions among those low on socio/orientation. The tendency to respond to information among low socio/oriented and high concept/oriented subjects results in the maximum impact of information among pluralistics.

The findings obtained with truisms in both studies failed to generalize to controversial topics, although the findings in the latter case were in the same direction as those of truisms. The failure to generalize the effect of information on attitude change with controversial issues is explained in terms of salience^{of} topics to subjects. Since the so-called truisms are not likely to generate much controversy even in pluralistic homes, any argument or evidence against a truism is novel to the pluralistic child ; thus, the more information presented the greater will be the change on these issues by pluralistics. But on controversial issues, the pluralistic child has already gathered enough arguments and counterarguments, i.e. he has been immunized ; therefore, high information does not add much to the fund of information the child already has.

One conclusion is that the maximum impact of information on attitude change is found among pluralistics, who combine the low socio- and high concept -emphasis in their family communication training. This suggests the importance of the socio-dimension in specifying the relationship between the concept-dimension and levels of information. The importance of socio-orientation can be explained in terms of both developmental factors and situational factors. From the developmental point of view, the presence of socio-orientation may have certain restraining effects on the growth of cognitive skills needed for efficient information processing. Situational factors include avoidance tendencies among the socio-oriented in situations involving controversy and withdrawal from the situation.

The major limitations of the study were the use of an interpersonal problem, thereby preventing the operation of many of the dynamics involved in a face-to-face situation. Problems involved in measurement of family communication and the analysis of change over time were discussed, and some suggestions made for an alternative way of measuring family communication practices.

Over the past decade the use of non professionals in dealing with mental health problems has greatly increased. These non professionals include volunteers, teachers and parents. Hawkins (1972) suggested that the number of children with behavior problems is so large that only mandatory parent training programmes in public schools can hope to reverse the trend. Also there is evidence that persons who wish to effect behavior change must

frequently move into the natural environment of the subject (Paul 1969 ; Thorp & Wetzel 1969 ; Tramontana 1971). Ross (1972) wrote : "If behavior is to be modified, the modification must take place when and where the behavior manifests itself. This is rarely the therapist's consulting room and as a consequence, behaviour therapists working with children find themselves working through the adults who are in a position to be present when the target behavior takes place and who have control over the contingencies of reinforcement."

Patterson, Littman and Hinsey (1964) conclude that it is the contingencies in the child's social environment that are most responsible for the child's adjustment. They suggested that retraining a child's parents may frequently be desirable and often absolutely necessary.

There is agreement that parents should be trained. However, the type of training they should receive is still a point of contention. Nonbehavioral approaches include teaching parents skills such as insight (Mac Namara 1963) and communication techniques (Gordon 1961) or behavior modification techniques. Parent training in the last technique is a young field with 2/3rds of the research done since 1968.

Counselors, human relations specialists, and therapists are much concerned with improving the effectiveness of interpersonal communications. Zimmer and his associates conducted a study in this area. Using factor-analytic techniques with

counselor verbal behavior as the dependent variable, Zimmer has suggested that such constructs as "unconditional positive regard" and "empathetic understanding" are not one dimensional. Instead it appears that they are comprised of several linguistically distinct components, each of which is operationally definable and potentially teachable.

A study by Crowley and Ivey (1976) attempts to specify, through factor analysis, the dimensions of effective communication and to lend credibility to the identified behavioral components through Analysis of Variance. It was completed in 3 stages. • The 1st stage involved factor analysis and was followed in the second stage by a comparison of the multiple rater evaluations of the first and 3rd session statements. The 3rd stage employed Analysis of Variance and focused on the suggested dimensions of effective communication.

The central finding of this study is that direct, mutual communication is most easily identified in trainees who employ self and/or partner references in the context of words connoting emotional affect. While dyadic communication is undoubtedly more complex, the evidence suggests that these components may be necessary but not sufficient conditions for the meaningful interpersonal interaction implicit in such terms as direct, mutual communication, authenticity, interpersonal openness, mutual recall, and Level 5 facilitative communication.

Auerback (1968) defined the goals of parent counseling as

- a) helping parents to become more familiar with basic concepts of child growth and development ;
- b) helping them clarify their own role and that of their children
- c) increasing parental understanding of the complexities of everyday situations to enable them to make better management decisions.

Carkhuff and Bierman (1970) draw some conclusions in the context of parent counseling. They stated that parents must be directly trained in ways of interacting with their children in order to effect actual behavioral changes. They added that one must work specifically on a particular problem in order to change it.

There are 2 basic counseling models. One emphasises feelings, while the other emphasises behavior as the primary starting point. The first, known as reflective counseling, emphasises parental awareness, understanding and acceptance of child's feelings. The second is geared toward teaching parents to manipulate their responses to the child in order to affect the child's subsequent behavior.

It is a generally held belief among psychologists and other mental health specialists that family relationships characterised by warmth, mutual respect and affection are associated with the development of good psychological adjustment.

Such warm family relationships probably provide the child with strong models of behavior which, when imitated by the child, lead to positive reinforcement. Brown, Morrison and Couch (1947) the authors of this study have obtained measures of the strength of affectional relationships within a number of specific families and correlated this measure with an index of character reputation. Although the correlations between the measures are low, they are in a positive direction and statistically significant.

The Ss are 16 year olds and 10 year olds. Hypothesis that character development is determined by affectional family relationships.

Ten different areas of family interaction thought to be revealing of affectional family relationships were outlined and questions framed around each area.

- 1) Common participation in work and play
- 2) Degree of Approval-Disapproval (towards children)
- 3) Regularity in the Home
- 4) Confidence shared
- 5) Sharing in Family Decisions
- 6) Child's Acceptance of the standards of the Home
- 7) Trust and Faith in child by Parents
- 8) Parental Attitude toward peer activities
- 9) Interparental relations
- 10) Signs of Tension.

Each area had 5 questions answered on a 5 point scale. The answers were given weights from 5 to 1 according to their contribution to healthy character development. This contribution was determined by the judgments of a group of instructors and advanced students of a clinical study of 10 year olds.

The estimate of character was obtained by ratings of teachers, peers and youth group leaders on 5 traits using the Guess Who Technique.

Results :

- 1) There is a substantial correlation between affectional family relationships and character reputation scores as determined by these instruments.
- 2) The area of family relationships which seems to be most closely associated with character development is "Sharing in Family Decisions", "Interparental Relations" and Parental Attitude towards peer activities.

Interpersonal family experiences are recognised as important influences on the child's psychological development and considerable empirical research has been generated from the interpersonal model. Two major streams of research seem evident : (a) relating objectively described parental behaviors and attitudes to child response and (b) studying the child's perception of parents from a phenomenological point of view. A number of studies indicated that some significant portion of the variance

of child behavior is related to observer-reported parental management and rearing practices. Other studies showed that some portion of the variance of child behavior is also related to the child's phenomenological perception of persons and situations.

It is fairly obvious that a subject's behavior is related both to the objective stimulating conditions and to the stimulus as experienced. To the extent that these agree perfect prediction would result from knowledge of either factor. However, subject factors make it extremely unlikely that the objective and phenomenological stimulus will be identical. Among other variables, the subject's level of cognitive development, his cognitive style and his defensive repertory will produce a discrepancy between the phenomenological and objective stimulus.

Several hypotheses frequently encountered in these studies are evaluated.

- 1) Children perceive both parents favourably but perceive mothers as more loving and fathers as more punitive, with indication that either parent may be perceived as controlling.
- 2) Boys perceive parents as less loving and more demanding and punitive than do girls.
- 3-a) The perception of control and punishment as vested in the father relative to the mother is differentiated during development.

- 3-b) The influence of age and sex on perceived acceptance is complex, often inconsistent, and seems to require further research.

That mothers are classified as accepting received general support from Harris and Tseng (1957) and from Du Valle (1937) who reported that more positive attitudes were expressed about mothers than fathers. Mothers were rated as more affectionate (Anderson 1940) ; receiving more blind love (Maltzer 1943) ; more loving, less ignoring and neglecting ; and higher in democracy, trust and amiability.

Hawkes et al. (1957) found that children report fathers as less indulgent ; Kagan et al. (1961) found that fathers are reported as more powerful. However, Anderson (1940) found that children report mothers as more dominant, and Morgan and Gaier (1956) stated that children consider mothers as powerful.

Boys perceive parents as less accepting and loving, more psychologically controlling and demanding and more punitive than do girls.

With both parents considered as a unity, Elias (1952) showed greater feelings of "homelessness" in boys and Hayward (1935) indicated greater judgment of family incompatibility by boys. With respect to reported maternal behavior, boys see mothers as less accepting and fathers too, in that they are seen as lower in love, affection and nurturance.

In the following study Peck (1958) factor analyses 10 family variables in an attempt to discover patterns of relationships between dimensions of family interaction and personality ratings of adolescents. From the analyses, 4 family and 6 personality trait clusters emerge. The intercorrelations of the traits provide an empirically grounded description of some of the relationships between family experience and adolescent personality characteristics.

34 adolescents were selected as a representative cross-section of all children born in Prairie City in 1933. They were interviewed and diversely tested each year from age 10 to age 18.

Independent ratings were made on the families and on the children, by 2 separate research staff, following intensive individual case studies. The family ratings were intercorrelated and factor analysed yielding 4 dimensions of family interaction : Consistency, Democracy, Mutual Trust and Approval, and Parental Severity. The personality ratings similarly analyzed, yielded six dimensions of personality : Ego strength, Superego strength, Willing social conformity, spontaneity, friendliness and a hostility-guilt complex.

Scores for each child were then computed on each personality dimension and these were correlated with the corresponding families scores on each family dimension. The intercorrelations were analyzed to discover general patterns of relationship between family experience and personality.

There proved to be a significant pattern of relationship between family experience and personality.

In general in so far as the findings of this study bear on the concepts of present day theory about personality development, they tend to corroborate that theory. These adolescents' personality characteristics proved to be significantly related to the emotional relationships and disciplinary patterns which they experienced in living with their parents.

A group of 132 college students took a personality test and also filled out a lengthy autobiographical questionnaire. From the data it appeared that the characteristics of the parents as such were not significant but that their practices with regard to the child were more so. However, there seemed to be something more than the specific parental practices and characteristics listed. This something more might be called "good family morale". The child is a product of the total family situation including its emotional overtones ; no single stimulus will shape the entire personality or even a particular trait.

The best attempt to measure family morale and relate it to specific personality traits of adolescents seems to be that of Stott (1939, 1941). He administered to some 1,800 Nebraska adolescents a questionnaire covering parent-child relationships and a personality inventory. The family life questionnaire was intercorrelated and subjected to factor analysis, from which 3 patterns emerged : a group of families characterised

by mutual confidence, affection and companionability between parents and children ; a family discord pattern ; and a nervous tension pattern. Special analysis was made of the first 2 factors. The results were as expected. Children coming from homes where the good morale pattern predominated were better adjusted, more independent, and more satisfactorily related to their parents than were the average of the group. Those coming from homes where the second pattern was manifest were in general poorly adjusted.

In an investigation by Donald Peterson et. al. (1959) the families of both problem and nonproblem children have been examined. The study has two specific purposes. The first is to assess the differences between parental attitudes in two groups of families, one in which the children display certain adjustment problems, and another in which they do not. The second is to establish, within the group of families where the children have problems, differential attitudinal patterns associated with two major dimensions of child behavior difficulty.

The subjects consisted of 31 children of ages 6 to 12 in the Clinic group and 29 children in the Nonclinic group. On the basis of interviews with mothers and fathers, using the Fels Parent Behavior Rating Scales, ratings pertinent to seven parent attitude factors were made. During the interviews with parents, information was also obtained about the nature of the problem which each child displayed. A rating schedule derived from Himmelweit's analysis of Ackerson's data on problem children was employed. Attitudes of parents in the Clinic group were

then compared with those in the Nonclinic group, separately for mothers and for fathers, and correlations were computed between the measures of parent attitude and indirect but independent evaluations of child problem behavior. The following results emerged :

- 1) Contrary to general assumption and our original expectation, the attitudes of fathers were found to be at least as intimately related to attitudes of mothers to the occurrence and form of maladjustive tendencies among children.
- 2) Both mothers and fathers of children who displayed adjustment difficulties were judged to be less well adjusted and sociable, less democratic and to experience more disciplinary contention than the parents of children with no manifest problems.
- 3) In addition, Clinic fathers were regarded as more prone to offer suggestions, and tended toward extremes along a dimension of activity and organization in the conduct of their affairs.
- 4) Personality problems among children in the Clinic group were found to be relatively independent of maternal attitudes, but appeared to be related to autocratic attitudes and lack of parental concern among fathers.

Conduct problems were associated with general maladjustment among mothers in the Clinic group, and with evident permissiveness and disciplinary ineffectuality on the part of fathers.

Probably the most significant finding to emerge from this study is that the attitudes of fathers are at least as intimately related as maternal attitudes to the occurrence and form of behavior problems in children. The popular choice of mothers as a focus of research attention and the general clinical tendency to offer psychotherapy to the mothers rather than the fathers of disturbed children are usually rationalized by noting that mothers generally spend more time with their children than fathers do, and by speculating that mother-child relationships are more intimate affairs than those between fathers and children. Whatever the validity of these assumptions, only the final effect is of fundamental concern, and we now have seen that the emphasis in this effect is not as one-sided as it has previously appeared.

The extent to which the present results were affected by sex disparity among children is difficult to assess. Surely the presence of twice as many boys as girls in the Clinic sample could have a bearing on any findings related to relative influence of the two parents on child behavior, and we may only have demonstrated that fathers play a more vital role in influencing the behavior of boys than has previously been assumed. Even this, however, would be a result worth noting, and while there is an obvious need to find out whether the present results can be repeated in a study involving more nearly equal representation

of boys and girls, the necessity for examining parental influence remains as vital as before.

The emotional interrelations within the family are of the utmost importance in affecting a child's development. A series of questions answered by 500 college girls gives a view of the variation that one can normally expect. 64 % felt that mother loved her dearly, 54 % that father loved her dearly. 75 % expressed great love for mother and 59 % expressed great love for the father. 25 % expressed no conflicts with mother, and 39 % expressed no conflicts with father. 41 % expressed few conflicts with mother and 33 % expressed few conflicts with father. The degree of friction and rejection is not excessive. (A. Ellis, 1950)

The relationship between adolescents and their parents is more likely to be good than poor. Among nearly 2000 high school pupils who were queried about home conditions, nearly 2/3rds had no criticisms. Possibly they were too immature, too cowed or too stupid to give any, but it seems more probable that they were happy and well adjusted in their home life. Those who had criticisms - 32 % boys and 39 % girls, complained that their parents gave too many instructions, nagged them, were stingy about money etc. The parents on the other hand, complained that their adolescent children were disobedient, impertinent, lazy and untidy. (L.H. Stott, 1940).

Students of child behavior generally believe that a child builds attachments to his parents as a result of their

ministrations to him, and that he builds favourable attachments to other children in terms of pleasant and reinforcing experiences had with them. Data accumulated by a sentence completion test given to some 3000 children from the third grade through high school yield some interesting observations on this general picture of social development. (Dale B. Harris and Sing Chu Tseng, 1957).

From a series of 32 sentences first developed by Wilson, some 10 sentences were selected by an empirical procedure for inclusion in a battery of instruments to assess general adjustment. These sentences were scored by the simple expedient of evaluating the completions in terms of the positive, negative, or neutral affect of the response. Four sentences evoked attitudes toward parents and toward other children. These sentences were "Most boys", "Most girls", "My father", and "My mother"

This method of analysis makes no particular "projective" assumptions about hidden affect in sentence completions. Rather, the manifest affect as conveyed by the vernacular is taken as the basis for inferring "positive," "negative," or "neutral" attitudes.

When we infer attitudes from sentence completions, we find no evidence for hostility to parents in early or mid-adolescence. Such feeling, if it occurs in many young people, either does not find expression in sentence completions or is so variously placed in the teen years and of such short duration that it cannot appear in cross-sectional data.

More girls than boys report equally favourable attitudes toward both parents at all ages except the 12th grade, but the differences are not striking.

The findings of this study agree in general with results of other studies. Using a combination of the picture-story method, questions about preferential treatment at home, and a direct question about whom the child liked best at home, Simpson (1935) concluded that between ages 5 and 9, boys and girls alike show a decreasing preference for their fathers, with a very slight increase in the percentage favoring mothers. There was a pronounced increase up to age nine in the proportion of children stating that they "prefer both" which may be compared with the decreasing proportion reporting positive attitudes to both parents in the present study. Anderson (1936) in the White House Conference report of 1936 showed that by the mothers' report a majority of children expressed no preference between their parents, and that of those who did, the larger group favoured the mother. The percentages for these attitudes changed very little with age. Meltzer, Stogdill and Mott found mothers more likely than fathers to be designated the favorite at all ages. None of these studies showed any trend comparable to the upswing in positive attitude toward parents during mid-adolescence which appears, particularly for boys, in the present study. These data offer a picture of increasing objectivity in later childhood, in part expressed by the increased proportion of children (particularly for boys) who use neutral expressions in their sentence completions, both toward peers and parents.

One of the basic tenets of developmental psychology is the thesis that the early familial environment of the child, especially the pervading parental attitude or emotional tone of the parent-child relationship is a fundamental factor influencing the development of personality. Much research has been effected for the purpose of isolating the particular attitudes that affect the child and the qualities of personality that are the result of the specific attitudes determined. Often, however, this research has been inadequate or contradictory.

A study by Serot and Teevan proposes the following hypotheses.

- 1) A child's perception of his parent-child relationship is correlated to his adjustment.
- 2) There is little agreement between parental perception of the parent-child relationship and the child's perception of the same.
- 3) Parental perception of the parent-child relationship, therefore does not correlate with the offspring's adjustment.

The sample consisted of 102 boys and girls, 9 and 10 years of age and their parents. The California Test of Personality was used to measure the children's adjustment. The Swanson Child-Parent Relationship Scales was used to measure perception of the parent-child relationship. The parents' scale contained the

same questions but they were reworded so that each item asked the parent for his perception of the relationship.

Results : The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient between the children's CPRS and their scores on the personal adjustment part of the CTP was $-.77$; the Social Adjustment Scale of the CTP correlated $-.84$ with the CPRS ; the correlation of the CPRS with the Total Adjustment Score was $-.80$. A negative correlation means that a low score on the CTP (poor adjustment) correlates with a high score on the CPRS (perception of the parent-child relationship as far from ideal). Thus there is a significant support for the 1st hypothesis : the well adjusted child perceives his parent-child relationship as relatively happy and close to the theoretical ideal.

The major implications of the results focus on the child's perception of his home life. Previous experiments have tried to relate parental attitudes directly to the nature of child adjustment. The child's perception of these attitudes is of extreme importance to him, for it is directly related to his adjustment.

There is a generation gap between the average parent of today and his adolescent young, but it is neither as wide nor as totally new as we have been led to believe nor is it qualitatively very similar to popular stereotypes. In recent representative national surveys, of younger and older adolescents and their parents, approximately two out of three young people

and seven out of ten parents expressed the view that a gap exists, but it has been exaggerated. (D. Yankelovich 1969). Only about one young person in four, and a like percentage of parents, felt that there was no gap. Intensive investigations of more limited samples have yielded similar findings.

There is little evidence to support popular notions that a state of hot or cold war exists between today's average parents and adolescents, that the average adolescent disapproves of the way he has been reared, that he views his parents as unhappy, frustrated people who have sold out their basic values to the Establishment, and that he is uncomfortable in their presence and unable to communicate with them. When asked to describe their present relationships with their parents, a majority of both younger and older adolescents (57 %) stated that they got along fine with their parents and enjoyed their company. Approximately one in three said that they were fond of their parents but had trouble communicating with them. Only a very small minority (4%) stated that they did not enjoy spending time with their parents. (D. Yankelovich 1969 ; Generations Apart. New York)

Interestingly, among the third who felt they had trouble communicating, only 18 % expressed the view that it was their parents' fault ; 6 % said it was their own fault ; and an overwhelming majority (74 %) said it was "both our faults." Furthermore, when asked if they felt that their upbringing had been "too strict", too permissive, or about right", over 80 % felt that it had been about right. (L. Harris. Life 1971.)

Asked if their parents' way of life had brought them "personal fulfilment, material comfort, both, or not much of either," only 14 % of adolescents felt that it had brought them neither ; 15 % said it had brought them personal fulfilment, and 10 % material comfort ; and 1 % felt that it had brought them both. (D. Yankelovich)

When subjects were asked if they thought that their values and ideals differed markedly from those of their parents, most said that they did not. About three-fourths of adolescents stated that they accepted and agreed with their parents' values and ideals ; most stated that such differences as existed were either moderate or slight.

There is a rather surprising degree of agreement among both parents and their young, particularly in such areas as respect for traditional values and basic confidence in "our whole social system", despite problems and anxieties. There are important differences between generations in their attitudes towards sex, education, war, foreign policy, social justice, religion, the use of drugs, and social and political activism as well as in such obvious areas as personal tastes in dress, music, art, and social customs.

In still other areas, such as "the need for at least moderate reform" of social institutions, there is considerable inter-generational agreement, primarily because adults themselves are not uncritical of these institutions.

When adults were asked what they disliked about today's adolescents as a group, the most frequently mentioned complaints involved a lack of respect for authority, undisciplined behavior, lack of ambition or motivation, overindulgence and overpermissiveness by parents and others, lack of responsibility, lack of manners, lack of dialogue with elders. Similarly, when young people were asked about their parents' generation, the most cited complaints were that they were too set in their ways and that there was a lack of communication. Furthermore, as Keniston and others have shown, in a number of instances, adolescents may come into conflict with the values of some adult authority figures in their society precisely because those values conflict with values the young person has acquired from, and shares with his parents.

There is a widespread tendency to overlook the possibility that parents and adolescents may be able to differ in some of their values and modes of behavior, and still remain capable of mutual understanding and respect.

To assess the expectations of adolescents, Wheeler (1960 p. 248) asked 17 to 18 year olds living in Australia, to write an essay on the following topic : "By this time you probably know a good deal about how not to bring up teenage children. So that you won't some day repeat the errors of your parents, write yourself a cautionary letter for us, say in 1975 or 1980." In analyzing the essays of 112 boys and 66 girls, Wheeler found that both sexes were ambivalent about how they would fulfill the parental role. In the area of friendships ,

the young people felt that parents should scrutinize their friends carefully but not interfere with their choices. Parents should encourage boys and girls to invite their friends, especially of the opposite sex, into their homes, but not intrude after they arrived. They hoped very much that they would be the kind of parents in whom their adolescent children could readily confide their emotional problems. They would refrain from teasing their child about certain of their friends and would avoid exposing them to embarrassment or humiliation in front of their friends. On the subject of late hours, the youths varied in their responses ; some felt that parents should rely on the good sense of the adolescent, and others argued for a definite, fixed hour to be home. Young people tended not to understand why their parents became anxious. Many of the adolescents hoped that as parents, they would encourage their own children to participate in sporting activities, to have hobbies, to learn correct manners and etiquette, good speech, music and the arts - in general, they wanted their children to develop confidence about new social situations. Several youths felt that sex education was needed in the home, and they recognized the benefit of parental help and advice, including answering questions. Some were afraid that as parents, they would embarrass and make it difficult for their children to broach the subject of sex rather than promote a natural and healthy attitude toward it. The youths also believed that parents should keep pace with the changing world. Tolerance and understanding were prized attributes, for clearly such traits would mitigate the possibility of conflict between peers and family.

The adolescents decidedly did not want to be old-fashioned or inconsistent, arbitrary parents.

Elkind (1968) interpreted parent-adolescent conflict as a stage in the process of self-differentiation. He held that the nature of the conflict varies as a function of the age of the adolescent and the maturity, of the parents.

Elkind's theory of interpersonal relations, based on implicit and temporal contracts, accountability, competence and commitment clauses, highlights how tensions between responsibility and freedom or control and autonomy are significant sources of intergenerational conflict.

Why are well-meaning parents often insensitive to an adolescent's need to grow up? Two groups of reasons may be the answer :

- 1) Parental cultural impoverishments ;
- 2) Parental personality constrictions.

1) Parental cultural impoverishments reflect the parents' inability to anticipate future events or their tendencies to enter into ill-advised or unduly restrictive contracts with adolescents. Baumrind (1968 a) pointed out that before the 1960's most parents could readily believe that by maintaining order within their family they were also upholding a higher order defined by religious teachings, cultural traditions and national patterns. But how can parents who develop irreverence toward

such mores, raise their children to act responsibly toward the institutions that uphold them? During the 1960's many youths moved towards an expressive value system and away from the instrumental activism of their parents. Uneasiness over the durability of traditional social values may thus be related to efforts to be authoritarian and insist that the adolescent hew the line.

2) Parental personality constrictions reflect the parents' inability to cope with the adolescents growing need for freedom due to their own personality needs. According to Asu et al. who compared the practices of Chinese and American parents, once the American child becomes independent, parents have few honored places in the scheme of things ; consequently they try to maintain their control as long as they can. Because American parents have a psychological need to hold onto the adolescent their control tends to be heavy. Other researchers have said that parents tend to be overcontrolling of unresolved conflicts in their own development.

As Scherz (1967) observed, the middle years of adolescence frequently coincide with the middle years of the parents. While the adolescent is struggling to establish his sex-role identity, master vocational skills, develop long-range goals, succeed in heterosexual relations, experiment with a life style different from his parents and generally learn new roles for himself both inside and outside the family, his parents are struggling with changes in their sex life, career status and family relations due to the adolescent's impending physical separation. The

parents' conflict over their own responsibility often engenders self-doubt and loss of self-esteem, which makes them less able to respond to the adolescent's need for independence.

According to sex-role identification theory, children model themselves after their parents. In general it is assumed that adolescent sons and daughters would prefer the values and life styles of their parents. Evidence shows that parents and adolescents agree rather extensively on basic values and that the differences between them often pertain to specific situations and are transitory. Wright (1962 p. 232) showed that boys and girls in secondary schools rated their parents as closer to their ideals than they themselves. Houdek (1966) administered a brief questionnaire to 3382 boys and girls and found that about 40 % denied having experienced any frustration in communicating with their parents.

A study made by W.W. Meisner (1974) was the result of a 217 item questionnaire given to 1278 high school boys attending 9 schools. The subjects were selected randomly according to classes in their respective schools and they represented the medium range in academic achievement in their schools.

The questionnaire responses suggest that certain differences exist between the perception of fathers and mothers and these differences may be meaningful for understanding the interactions between adolescents and their parents. The differential parental characteristics can be listed as follows :

<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>
Colder and more indifferent	More friendly and interested
More old fashioned	More nervous
Less understanding	More understanding
More unreasonable	More reasonable.

In general the attitudes towards parents were positive. As regards parent child interaction the pattern shifts in both positive and negative dimensions. In the area of communication, 33 % of the boys claim that they do not discuss difficulties and personal problems with their fathers. Almost 39 % feel that their fathers understand their problems, while the rest of the subjects are divided between those who feel their fathers do not understand them and those who are still undecided.

The results of this study imply that there is a pattern of increasing alienation from parental influence and control that can be traced through the critical years of adolescence. There is also a relationship between identifiable perceptions of parental figures and patterns of interaction between the adolescent and his parents and there is a determinable shift in these perceptions reflected in shifting patterns of interaction.

III) STUDIES ON DOGMATISM AS RELATED TO INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Rokeach (1954) defined dogmatism as "(a) a relatively closed cognitive organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality, (b) organized around a central set of beliefs about absolute authority which, in turn, (c) provides a framework for patterns of intolerance towards others (p. 195)". Since Rokeach's (1960) major publication, the concept of dogmatism and the Dogmatism Scale (DS) have been used widely in diverse studies.

Several researchers have focused on the relationship of dogmatism to personality patterns and malfunctioning. Plant, Telford, and Thomas (1965) compared HDs and LDs on the Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values and five scales of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), - Sociability, Self-control, Achievement via Independence, Intellectual Efficiency, and Responsibility. Although subjects could not be differentiated by their value measures, HDs were found to differ significantly on each of the CPI scales. The HDs were psychologically immature and characterized as being impulsive, defensive, and stereotyped in their thinking, responsible and more likely to succeed in an academic setting. Korn and Giddan (1964), utilizing three different scales from the CPI, concluded that the more dogmatic an individual is, the less tolerant, flexible and secure he is.

Vacchiano, Strauss, and Schiffman (1968) demonstrated that three diverse personality instruments (Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire,

and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale) yielded clusters of scales which seemed to identify the "dogmatic personality." Dogmatism was found to be related positively to need for Succorance and negatively to needs for Change and Intraception. Similarly, there was a positive relationship between dogmatism and conformity, restraint and conservatism on the 16 PF.

The personality scales employed in these studies tend to form a logical personality profile which substantiates the formulation of a dogmatic belief structure and extends this concept into the realm of personality functioning.

If dogmatism represents a generalized pattern of personality functioning, the interpersonal behaviour of the HD should be affected. Research has borne this out in interpersonal perception (ratings of others), group interaction and identification. A positive relationship has been found between dogmatism and ratings of subjects' interpersonal sensitivity (Burke 1966). Saltzman (1967) reported that the degree to which a person is perceived as being empathic and positive in his regard for others is a function of his level of dogmatism. Brumbaugh, Hoedt, and Beisel (1966) reported the only contradictory evidence when they failed to find a significant relationship between dogmatism and judging interpersonal needs of others. This finding, might, as suggested by the authors, be due to the biased nature, of their sample since ratings were done by student teachers and their supervisors, and assignment to groups was based on the subject matter taught.

Zagona and Aurcher (1964, 1965 b) observed differences between the HD and the LD in interpersonal interactions in an unstructured classroom situation. The HDs were concerned with the problem of leader selection and group structure, and when challenged by authority, became insecure, wavered in their convictions, and evidenced signs of reduced group cohesion. Similarly, in a dyadic bargaining situation, the HDs were found to be more resistant to change than the LDs and less willing to defect from a given position since they viewed compromise as defeat (Druckman, 1967).

Several investigators have explored the parent-child relationships which foster dogmatism. Anderson (1962) suggested that the significant relationship between dogmatism in children and socioeconomic status "makes plausible the inference that child rearing practices are basic determinants of dogmatism (p. 135)." Bolmeier (1966) found that maladjustment in high school students (as measured by the Minnesota Counseling Inventory) was significantly related to the high dogmatism of their parents. Rebhun (1967) administered the DS and eight scales of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument to college students and found a positive relationship between parental attitudes and the individual's dogmatism, suggesting that "closed-minded people tend to hold parental attitudes which encourage their offspring not to intrude upon their belief-disbelief system and thus promote a similar dogmatic approach in these children (p. 260)."

Although it is generally held that the personality of the individual is a major factor in his ability to empathize, there have been relatively few investigations of this relationship. Jacob Jacoby (1971) has conducted an experiment in which graduate students were organised into small groups and worked for 10 weeks on group research projects relevant to their field of study. The students had been tested on a form of Rokeach's dogmatism scale. Dogmatism is characterised by rigidity and is positively correlated with authoritarianism. Persons scoring high on the scale are less perceptive of environmental detail, more conventional, more stereotyped, and more emotionally controlled than are persons scoring low on the scale. When the students were asked to rate one another on dogmatism at the end of the 10 week period, those who were open-minded tended to be more accurate perceivers of others' dogmatism than were those who were close-minded. Open-minded subjects tended to be more empathic than closed-minded subjects.

Dogmatism was found to be related positively to the need for succorance and negatively to the need for change and intraception. Similarly, there was a positive relationship between dogmatism and conformity, restraint and conservatism.

A positive relationship has been found between dogmatism and ratings of subjects' interpersonal sensitivity (Burke 1966). Saltzman (1967) reported that the degree to which a person is being perceived as being empathetic and positive in his regard for others is a function of his level of dogmatism.

Bolmeier (1961) found that maladjustment in high school students was significantly related to the high dogmatism of their parents.

The original Berkeley studies led to a number of hypotheses regarding authoritarianism and non-authoritarianism. Quantitative investigations of parental antecedents of authoritarianism - equalitarianism have been generally supportive of the foregoing formulations. Authoritarian scores have been found to correlate positively with a scale measuring Traditional Family Ideology. Authoritarian - Equalitarian traits in parents lead to the establishment of characteristic types of family structures and the utilization of particular disciplinary techniques.

The F Scale and the Traditional Family Ideology Scale were administered to 108 college students and their parents. It was found that husband and wife pairs correlate significantly with one another in their scores on the 2 tests, the F Scale scores and the TFI scores of male college students are each a positive function of the scores obtained by their fathers on these 2 scales, and there is a significant relationship between authoritarianism in mothers and in their offspring of both sexes. The low magnitude of the various relationships indicates that the major portion of the variance in both authoritarianism and traditional family ideology is a function of factors other than parental standing on these 2 variables. Sex differences were found in antecedents of authoritarianism.

While the culture imposes certain requirements on the parents, the manner of carrying out these functions differs widely in different families. The studies available indicate that most parents exercise more rigid authority than psychologists consider advisable for good personality development in the offspring.

Stogdill (1931) reports his study as follows : The chief characteristics of parental attitudes as distinguished from those of the mental hygienist group are :

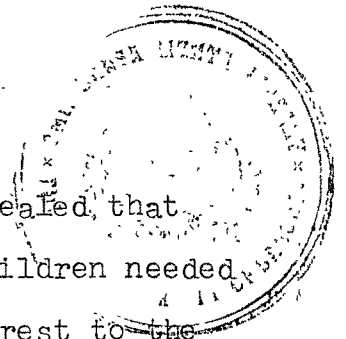
- a) greater insistence on observance of moral taboos ;
- b) greater insistence on parental authority ;
- c) greater insistence on adherence to group standards and social customs ;
- d) relative indifference to the effect that such insistence may have upon the child's emotional and mental adjustment to life.

This study gives neat confirmation of the general thesis that the parents' treatment of the child is largely determined by his own personality traits. He comments that college students who "resent having been punished" by their parents and those who feel that their parents were "too moralistic" favor more freedom for children.

Major Findings :

The major findings of the studies reviewed may be briefly stated as follows :

- a) The Studies on "Empathy" show that much of the research on interpersonal communication has been focused mainly on the dimension of empathy. New theories of counseling have pointed out the need for giving our attention to other variables that enter the interpersonal relationship.
- b) Much research has already been done in the field of Parent-child relations, even from the point of view of parent-child communication. The influence of parental and family communication on the child's personality and adjustment have also been investigated using interesting research tools. These studies provided the investigator with a good starting point and also with much research data to support the present study.
- c) A number of studies included in the present review have been on adolescent-parent relationship and on parental perception by children. These present the American adolescent's view point and can be compared with that of the Indian adolescent.
- d) The studies on "Dogmatism" are proof that a rigid personality, open-mindedness vs. close-mindedness are significant factors in the study of interpersonal communication. They also bring out other personality correlates that are associated with interpersonal communication.



The review of these research studies revealed that interpersonal communication between parents and children needed further clarification since it was a field of interest to the family, more especially in India where parents are becoming more and more aware of its importance. Although it is an accepted theoretical fact that parental communication affects child personality and adjustment, nevertheless it remains to be seen how the interpersonal communication pattern, as it exists in different cultures today, for example in India, affects the adolescent's personality and adjustment and to what degree.

-- XXX --