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INTRA-FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND ADOLESCENT SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT. FINAL REPORT.

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DESCRIPTORS- FAMILY RELATIONSHIP, *PARENT CHILD RELATIONSHIP, FAMILY SCHOOL RELATIONSHIP, *STUDENT ADJUSTMENT, *SOCIALIZATION,

THE FINAL REPORTS OF TWO RESEARCH PROJECTS, INVESTIGATING THE METHODOLOGICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ASPECTS OF INTRA-FAMILY RELATIONS AS THEY RELATE TO FAMILY SOCIALIZATION EFFECTIVENESS, ARE PRESENTED. PART I IS DEVOTED TO FOUR TASKS--(1) THE PRESENTATION OF AN OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS IN GENERAL, AND THE FAMILY AND SCHOOL AS PARTICULAR SOCIALIZING AGENCIES, (2) AN EXPOSITION OF THE CONCEPT OF CONSENSUS, AS IT IS APPLICABLE TO THE FAMILY AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM, (3) A DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN INCLUDING PROCEDURES AND DATA WHICH HAVE BEEN DEVELOPED TO PROVIDE EMPIRICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR AN UNDERSTANDING OF INTRA-FAMILY RELATIONS AND ADOLESCENT SOCIALIZATION, AND (4) AN INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA. PART II CONTAINS MATERIAL ON FURTHER ASPECTS OF INTRA-FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT. ONE CHAPTER DEALS WITH AN ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS OF PROBLEMS AS SEEN BY THE FATHER, MOTHER, AND SON CONCERNING THE SON'S BEHAVIOR IN A NUMBER OF SOCIALIZATION ARENAS. ANOTHER, CHAPTER EIGHT, CONCERNS AN ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENTIAL UTILIZATION OF SOCIALIZATION TECHNIQUES FOR INFLUENCING THE BEHAVIOR OF THE SON, AS RELATED TO THE SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT CRITERION. CHAPTER NINE REPRESENTS A SEPERATE REPORT. ALTHOUGH THE CHAPTER UTILIZES DATA CONTAINED IN PRIOR CHAPTERS, THE ANALYTICAL DIMENSIONS WERE DEVELOPED LATER, AS A SEPARATE PROJECT. (AUTHOR/CG)

INTRA-FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

AND

ADOLESCENT SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT

by

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in collaboration with

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To the respondents and their families, however, goes our warmest appreciation. They allowed us to enter their homes, their family circles, to record our several hours' task of data collection. To them must be given the ultimate credit for any worthiness of outcome of this study.

Finally, our thanks to our colleagues, staff and families, who have borne with us through all the problems and delays, the small triumphs and all too brief insights.

William R. Larson

Barbara G. Myerhoff

INTRODUCTION

This volume is actually a dual instrument, in that it consists of final reports for two research projects. The larger study, reported first, incorporates the smaller, in that the sample, interview schedule and field procedures served also to provide data for the second.

The several chapters of the report contain materials relating to particular dimensions of the investigation, each reported in a kind of progression.

The first part of this investigation described in Chapters 1 through 7, is devoted to four tasks: first, the presentation of an overview of the socialization process in general, and the family and school as particular socializing agencies; second, an exposition of the concept of consensus, as it is applicable to the family as a social system. Of particular concern here will be the notion of the partition of consensus measures into three kinds: consensus between parents, consensus between parents and son, and an overall measure of total family consensus.

The third task will be the description of the research design, procedures and data which have been developed to provide empirical foundations for an understanding of intra-family relations and adolescent socialization. The final task is the interpretation and discussion of the data as applied to the conceptual framework.

The first of these tasks is taken up in Chapter 2, with a selective review of relevant concepts concerning consensus and socialization. An emphasis is placed upon the family as a social system, a set of interacting positions and incumbents, serving to induce conformity on the part of the child to behavior norms provided by the family and general societal milieu.

The second task mentioned above is dealt with in Chapter 3. Here a set of concepts is presented for the analysis of consensus of role expectations in the family. The means for operationalization of the concepts are described, together with the overall characteristics of the research design, the field procedures and respondent sample selection.

Chapter 4 presents a description of the process whereby the criterion measures of school adjustment were developed, as well as descriptive material on the sample.

Chapter 5 presents the analysis of data, relating the intra-family consensus measures to values and standards for each school adjustment criterion group.

Chapter 6 contains a discussion and analysis of data concerning importance ratings, as distinct from consensus. The importance data are contrasted with consensus data, to determine the more relevant issue for differential socialization.

Part Two of the report contains material on further aspects of intra-family relationships and school adjustment. Chapter 7 deals with an analysis of perceptions of problems as seen by the father,

mother and son concerning the son's behavior in a number of socialization arenas.

Chapter 8 concerns an analysis of differential utilization of socialization techniques for influencing the behavior of the son, as related to the school adjustment criterion.

Chapter 9 represents a separate report, inasmuch as it contains the results of analyses done under US Office of Education Contract S-044, entitled "Consistence, Continuity and Congruence in Adolescent Socialization". The data for this section are the same as the prior chapters, but the analytical dimensions were developed later than the material reported in the first eight chapters.

Chapter 10 serves as a summary and concluding statement, referring to the analyses presented throughout the report.

The several Appendices at the end of the volume contain various tables, forms and a codebook used in the field stages of the project.

PART I

THE ANALYSIS OF INTRA-FAMILY CONSENSUS

Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

This section of the report concerns the analysis of intra-family consensus on role prescriptions, and the relation of that consensus to the family's socialization of the adolescent boy. For the purposes of this work, the process of socialization may be thought of such that the prescribed behavior conforms to expectations and requirements for the child by family and society. In a general sense, these role prescriptions define the behavior believed by adult family members to represent the means to the achievement of some desired outcome. For the most part, the outcome expected is an acceptable degree of conformity by the adolescent to family, school and societal norms.

Agents of socialization are provided by all societies and social organizations for the purpose of communicating the role prescriptions deemed relevant for the behavior of the person to be socialized. The major socializing agents whose efforts most directly effect the American adolescent are the family, the peer group and the school. The family provides the major influences early in life, but the degree of overall control and effect on behavior wanes as the child enters playmate groups, the class room, and eventually other major social systems such as employment and marriage. Each of these social systems, from family to

occupational organization, also serves in either a formal or informal manner to enforce sets of role expectations bearing upon the individual.

The present concern with adolescence as a crucial period in the socialization process is based on the fact that at this point in the individual's life cycle it is expected that a major transition will take place. Socializing agents begin to relinquish responsibility for him; he is expected to make choices which will have great significance for his future, and he is held in part accountable for his behavior and attitudes. The adolescent to some extent is judged by the same standards held for adults, and his potential success or failure can be estimated with some precision for perhaps the first time in his life. Relinquishment of responsibility for the adolescent by the initial socializing agents is only partial at this stage. Family, school and community still figure prominently in his life - morally, legally, psychologically and economically - hence the family, the school and the community must be taken into account in considering adolescent success and failure. It is, therefore, to this transitional moment in the individual's life history that we turn our attention in this study of a portion of the socialization process.

The theoretical literature on adolescence and social development of the child is replete with references to the importance of the efforts and effects of the several socializing systems. Both those formal systems institutionalized within society, and those informal ones which provide less systematic influences upon the individual

are variously assigned the credit (or blame) for the eventual outcome. What is often left unclear, however, is the mechanism or mechanisms by means of which specific actions, conditions or relationships within or between socializing agents can be related to outcome attributes of the child. Until these intervening mechanisms can be understood, the overall process of socialization must remain in its present paradoxical state -- of obvious theoretical import, yet composed of inadequately operationalized concepts, with questionable or unknown relations to eventual behavior.

THE PROBLEM

The central problem addressed in this part of the report concerns the values and standards impinging upon the adolescent boy, and the degree to which intra-family consensus on those values and standards relates to the school and social adjustment of the boy. The question can be stated thus: What relationship occurs between differing degrees of intra-family consensus and differing levels of school and social adjustment?

Intra-family consensus has been chosen as the major conceptual focus for this part of the study since it appears to be one of the most relevant conditions in terms of influence upon the outcome of the socialization process.[1] If the parents are considered as providing role expectations for the developing child, the degree to which they are in agreement as to the behavior, characteristics and attributes desired for

the child is clearly important. Consensus among role definers will be taken as a variable, rather than as a given condition, following the extensive work of Gross, Mason and McEachern[2] who clearly demonstrated the need for empirical evaluation of this concept. As a criterion measure, several indices of school and social success will be utilized.

The desired goal of this part of the study is the development of further knowledge concerning the inter-relationships between a specific family organizational variable -- intra-family consensus on values and standards for the adolescent -- and external performance by the adolescent. Particular concern will be directed toward the determination of specific areas of expectation in which intra-family consensus might have increased association with the external performance criterion. A multivariate procedure for relating a number of consensus measures to the criterion will be used for this purpose.

The examination of the family as a socialization agency is by no means an innovatory research approach. Indeed, the general area of research on the family may probably be singled out as one of the most heavily explored portions of human behavior. In spite of the volume of research, however, systematic theory development by social scientists has been conspicuously absent. The family occupies a position of temporal primacy as a socializing agency, and therefore might be expected to have the most profound effect upon later behavior. It is the nature of this effect, however, which is so vaguely known. As Goode has indicated:

> No theorist has been able to state, let alone prove, any set of systematic propositions about the relations between the family and other institutions, no matter which is dependent.[3]

In the same vein, Goode points out that future sociological inquiry and conceptualization might best be directed not toward the Family as a separate area of sociological study, but as an interaction situation in which basic variables common to all interaction are studied. Following this position, this study does not attempt to develop the missing systematic propositions per se. This would not only be extremely ambitious given our present knowledge, but also might not represent the best conceptual procedure, if the variables of sociology rather than the special nature of the family are to be emphasized. In other words, this study should not be thought of as family research alone, but rather as an investigation of consensus on behavioral expectations within one socializing agency, and the relation of the degree of consensus to behavior of the adolescent in other agencies (in this case, the school and the legal system).

FOOTNOTES

1 A thorough discussion of socialization is given in: Irwin L. Child, "Socialization," in Handbook of Social Psychology, edited by Gardner Lindzey, Cambridge: Addison-Wesley, 1954.

2 Neal Gross, Ward Mason and Alexander McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis, New York: John Wiley, 1958, especially Chapter 2.

3 William Goode, "The Sociology of the Family," in Sociology Today, edited by Robert Merton, Leonard Broom and Leonard Cottrell, Jr., New York: Basic Books, 1959, p. 180.

BASIC CONCEPTS AND DESIGN

Chapter 2

The focus of this part of the study is on consensus as a part of the interaction process in the family, with particular concern for the relationship of consensus to socialization effectiveness. When dealing with consensus, or agreement, three specifications must be made if the concept is to be properly defined. First, one must specify the material on which the degree of agreement is sought; then indicate the social context in which agreement might be achieved; then note the positions between which agreement is a relevant issue. The importance of these specifications is especially great if one is attempting to relate a measure of consensus to some criterion, assumed to be causally linked with the consensus phenomena.[1,2]

For the present study, the material on which the degree of agreement is a concern represents values and standards used as role expectations for an adolescent boy. The social context for the agreement is the family as a socializing agency, and the positions are those of parents and the son, together with the sub-system relationships implied thereby.[3]

The present chapter will discuss these matters in some detail,

describing the socialization process in general, the operation of the family as a socializing agency, and the manner by which the implicit intra-family relations within sub-systems (between father-son, mother-son, and mother-father) generate a complex measurement for consensus.

SOCIALIZATION AS PROCESS

The socialization process has been heavily dealt with in the literature of the social sciences.[4] Socialization is generally conceptualized as the life-long, diffuse education of the individual by means of which he is transformed from a biological organism into an adult member of good standing in his society. It is the process whereby group values are "built" into the individual. Beginning at birth, the process extends to the end of life, with constant readjustments for the changing requirements of society, and to a lesser extent, of the individual.

A child is socialized not only to achieve the relatively simple tasks of bowel and bladder control, but also he is socialized to master more complex matters such as conformity to family rules, deportment and accomplishments in the school, and making an appropriate choice of marital partner. Socialization influences his economic behavior, his orientation toward illness, his perception of his place in the universe, his adjustment to the superannuation of aging, and his acceptance of eventual death. In all of these instances, the socialization process consists of the transmission of more or less specific normative content,

representing behavioral expectations held for the individual at each point in the sequence, paced to take account of level of development and previously accomplished goals. When an individual's behavior deviates from the range of defined behaviors which a group or society will tolerate in a given situation, sanctions are applied.

In the case of negative or undesired deviation, the socialization process may be deemed ineffective or faulty to the extent that deviance becomes chronic. In other words, successful socialization is assumed when an individual's behavior displays a more-or-less consistent relationship of conformity to prescriptions and expectations, set up by society in general, as well as to smaller sub-systems within the society. Conversely, if individual behavior is characterized by frequent failures to conform to prescriptions and expectations, the socialization process, (or more frequently, some specific socialization agency) is presumed to have fallen short of optimum performance.

THE FAMILY AS SOCIALIZATION AGENCY

It is the effectiveness of a particular socialization agency, the family, which is of concern here, even though this is clearly but a small portion of the entire spectrum of influences impinging on an individual. Broom and Selznick stated the rationale for focus on the family succinctly: "The family is the major agency through which socialization takes place. Within the family the parents try deliberately to mold children into

conformity with accepted cultural models."[5] It is also true, of course, that the family continues as a socializing agent far beyond the time when the individual ceases to be defined as a "child." The term "family of orientation," so often used in family research, aptly describes the relationship that continues to hold after an individual has left to form a family of his own, the "family of procreation."

The family comprises the first social system in which the individual must occupy a position and fulfill role expectations. As such, it can be expected to have a highly pervasive effect on the qualitative characteristics of interaction by the individual in other social systems later in life. As Parsons has pointed out, the child is never socialized only for and into his family of orientation, but also into social structures which extend beyond the family both spatially and temporally.[6] This implies that the family socialization process must be integrated with the processes conducted by other socializing agencies which come in contact with the child at later periods, if the overall effectiveness of the process is to be maintained. By means of the socializing influences of the family, the individual first begins to acquire values, attitudes, norms, knowledge and skills. Based both on the location of the family in the larger social milieu, and the individual within the family system, the learning process takes place at a tempo and with conditions appropriate to the individual's position and specific role expectations. The nature of the position and role elements becomes altered as the individual maintains conformity or not, and as he achieves what-

ever relevant criteria for differentiation of positions that are defined, such as age or occupation.[7]

SOCIALIZATION AS INTERACTION

When socialization processes are discussed, the interactive nature of the relationship is often understated. Many writers appear to be stating that socialization consists of a one-way influence, with the socializer inducing conformity, without significant interactive effect. What seems quite clear, however, is that when parents and other family adults are enacting their roles as socializing agents they are in their turn receiving socialization influences from the child.[8]

The interactive process begins even before the physical presence of the child is in the family. Every society contains complex sets of regulations, formal or informal, which exert control over young adults who have announced their expectancy of a child. With the announcement of expectancy, the parents become, willingly or otherwise, involved in a complex set of behaviors and expectations concerning the arrival of the child. The actual birth greatly intensifies the socialization of the parents. Indeed, it may be said that the birth of the child has a far greater effect on the behavior of the parents than upon that of the child.

With the birth of a child, the new parents must become socialized into the requirements of their new status. They must learn and demonstrate the socially upheld values of parenthood, to avoid societal and

group sanctions. As the child grows older, the parents continue to receive constant feedback from the effects of the child's behavior as perceived by themselves and others in the community. The results of this feedback are to reinforce some values and to modify others, as the child's behavior conforms or fails to conform to expectations and requirements for his position in the family and society. Parsons views this part of the process as contributing to the stabilization of the adult personalities in the society.[9] Strauss has referred to the interactive nature of socialization by calling the family a "socialization environment."[10]

The interactive nature of socialization extends beyond the limits of family, however, or any single socializing agency. In the complex process by means of which a human organism is transformed into a social being, a great number of groups and social institutions play a part. Throughout the process, different emphasis as well as different subject matter is handled by the several agencies involved, although considerable overlap also occurs.[11]

In the life of an adolescent, a number of agencies compete for influence -- the family, the school, the peer group, and the society in general. The research on which this report is based is intended to explore some of the interactive relations between family and school as socializing agencies for an adolescent boy.

THE ISSUE OF CONSENSUS

Interaction within any social system implies a reciprocation of

behavior from one actor to another. Both actor and his alter bring to the interaction situation idiosyncratic value and behavior elements based on prior experience. The fact that the experiences of two persons leading up to a given social act might be considerably different leads to potentially discrepant expectations, held by each participant, for self as well as other. Thus a full exposition of social interaction requires a concept to deal with the degree of similarity of the expectations or values by each of the actors involved. Although the culture of any society contains many more or less agreed-upon specifications for behavior, ranging from laws to popular stereotypes, day-to-day experience reveals many situations in which values and behavior expectations differ between persons who have been subjected to what might be presumed overtly to be quite similar socialization. The degree of agreement, or consensus which exists between people can thus be likely to be an important element in determining the nature of their interaction.

To consider consensus as a constant factor seems almost to ignore the obvious in social behavior, yet in their recent book, Gross, Mason, and McEachern have illustrated, in a tour-de-force, that most authors seem to have neglected the notion of variability in consensus.[12] The postulate of role consensus, as they term it, seems to be implicit in much of the work of sociologists, anthropologists and psychologists.[13] Role expectations seem to have generally been considered as culturally developed, generally agreed upon ways for carrying out the functions of the defined positions in a social system.

An implicit problem is involved with the acceptance of consensus on expectations for behavior as a given, having to do with failure of a system to achieve set goals. Gross et al. cite the following passage from Newcomb, illustrating this.

> Very few young men in any society have to use an encyclopedia to learn about either their future roles as husbands or those of their future wives. Their brides are similarly familiar, long before marriage, with most aspects of their roles as wives, as well as those of their husbands. If the marriage of any particular couple "fails," it is not likely to be because of the strangeness of their prescribed roles. It is apt to be, as Burgess and Cottrell have shown (1939), because the personality of one or both of them is such that special demands, not necessarily included in the prescribed role are made which the other spouse is unable or unwilling to meet.[14]

This statement clearly conveys the results of assuming consensus about role expectations. If the family suffers from disorganizing influences, it is presumed to be caused by "personality" differences, coupled with "inappropriate" expectations for the behavior of the other. As Gross et al. indicate, two points must be considered here: first, whether the marriage pair did in fact learn their roles through anticipatory socialization, and second, whether once having learned a set of expectations for marriage and family behavior, the substance of what the couple learned was similar. This latter point, of course, focuses our attention on consensus as a variable.

Taking the position that role expectations may or may not be held consensually by all members of a population of role definers has important implications for the study of socialization and socialization

agencies. Gross et al. conclude their chapter on Role Consensus with this statement:

> We have maintained that the phenomenon of role consensus requires both theoretical and empirical examination, and deserves exploration as a variable in propositions concerned with cultural organization, the functioning of social systems, and individual social behavior.[15]

The italicized lines suggest that the application of the concept of differential expectations to the socialization process would be fruitful. In this framework, one must ask about the degree of consensus between socializing agents. In other words, if the child is exposed to socialization practices and standards which attempt to induce conformity on his part, a relevant question concerns the degree to which the socializing agents themselves are consensual regarding the values they are advocated or behavior they are endeavoring to influence. If parents are not in agreement among themselves as to the values and standards to be conveyed to the child, what level of effectiveness can they hope to attain?

In their study of school superintendents, Gross et al. were primarily concerned with role conflict resolution. They did not concern themselves with measurement of the effectiveness of the school boards, superintendents or school systems. They did pose the question, however, of the impact that differential consensus might have on the functioning of social systems.[16] The remainder of this chapter deals with means for the measurement of consensus, and the development of a research design for evaluating the

relationship between consensus on expectations within families, and the effectiveness of the family socialization process itself, as measured by the son's conformity to school rules and requirements.

TYPES OF INTRA-FAMILY CONSENSUS

When discussing aspects of the internal activities of any group of persons, a basic question concerns the varieties of the phenomenon in question which might arise as a result of the nature of the structure of the group. This issue is especially relevant in considering the phenomenon of intra-group consensus. The term "microscopic consensus" has been used by Gross, et al. to deal with consensus among actors within the same social system. Their opposing term, "macroscopic consensus," refers to consensus among persons who hold similar positions, but not within the same social system. It is the microscopic aspect of consensus which is the concern of this report, since its goal is to relate specific family activities to the behavior of the son in another social system external to the family.

If a social group contains members who are undifferentiated in terms of status, the question of microconsensus becomes a simple matter of agreement among incumbents of a single position. If, on the other hand, the group structure is such that status differentiation does exist, then consensus can be thought of in more complex terms. One can deal with agreement among incumbents of each position, as well as agreement between the several positions within the group structure. Gross, et al.

made use of these considerations in their studies of school superintendents and school boards. Each social system in their study consisted of a school board plus a superintendent. The board members occupy a common position, while the superintendent occupies an "opposing" one or counter-position. Microconsensus measures are relevant both among the board members and between the members and the superintendent. Although Gross et al. had groups of varying sizes, their model of microconsensus is directly applicable to the family situation, in which two parents may be seen as occupying a single position (parent) and the son as occupying a different position (child). The fact that the groups used in the present study consisted of two relevant positions (parent and child) simplifies a number of considerations in the measurement of consensus.[18]

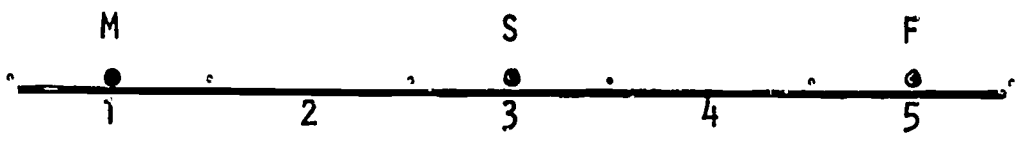
In their work with microconsensus, Gross, et al. have developed four measures, which they label V, V', M and D.[19] Of these, three are relevant to the present study: V, M and D. Each will be described conceptually here, with the actual computational details presented in Chapter 3.

The V score, as a measure of microconsensus, consists of the variance of responses to a single item by all respondents in a single position. This can be symbolized, for the j^{th} item as:

$$V_j = \frac{\sum(x_i)^2}{N} \qquad 2:1$$

where x_i represents deviation of the response from the i^{th} individual, around the mean of all N incumbants of the same position. Another score, V' has been defined by Gross et al.[20] for use in the case in which differential group size might have an effect on the item response variance. Since all groups in the present study are composed of three persons, the V' score does not apply. It differs from the V score only in that the denominator of the fraction contains the value N - 1.

When dealing with microconsensus between incumbents of two positions, additional complexities arise over the single position case. In considering the degree of agreement between two parents, the V score just described is appropriate. If one wishes to speak of the degree of agreement between the parents and the son, however, one must generate some summary or combinatory measure for the parents' responses, to be compared with that of the son. The nature of central tendency measures poses an objection here, however, as can be seen in the diagram below. If consensus between parents and son is defined as the difference between the mean of the parents' responses and the value of the son's response, it is possible, as an artifact, to derive an index showing perfect agreement, even though no scores are identical.



For example, if the Mother's response score is 1, and the Father's is 5, their mean score is 1 + 5 / 2, or 3. If the son's score is 3, the

resulting difference is zero, suggesting perfect agreement, even though no persons chose the same category of response. An operational solution to this difficulty has been provided by Gross, et al. Following their model, the measure of consensus between incumbents of two positions can be defined by the dispersion of the two parent's responses around the response of the son. This may be written for the j^{th} item:

$$M_j = \sum(P_{ijk} - S_{jk})^2 \qquad 2:2$$

where $\bar{P}_{ik}$ represents the response of the i^{th} parent and S_k represents the response of the son, in the k^{th} family. This form for the two-position consensus score is free of the difficulty mentioned previously, but has an additional flaw, in that with this definition, partitioning of the total variance of family response to an item will not be possible for further analyses. Because of this, the definition of between-position consensus used for this study will be, for the j^{th} item:

$$M_j = (\bar{P}_{jk} - S_{jk})^2 \qquad 2:3$$

where $\bar{P}_k$ is the mean of the two parents' responses, and S_k is the son's response, for the k^{th} family. This form follows the usage of Gross, et al.

An additional value D, can be defined as an overall measure of between position consensus, such that D is equal to the between position variance plus the within position variance, or M + V.[21] By beginning with a similar technique to that used in analysis of variance, the deviation of an individual's response may be partitioned into two components.[22] Specifically, with the scores defined thus far, it is possible to partition the deviation of a parent from the son's score. This may be shown, for any item,

$$\sum(P_{ik} - S_k) = \sum(P_{ik} - \overline{P}_k) + (\overline{P}_k - S_k) \qquad 2:4$$

where P_{ik} is the score for the i^{th} parent, $\overline{P}_k$ is the mean of scores for both parents, and S_k is the son's score, for the k^{th} family. In other words, the total within-family variation consists of the deviation of the parents' responses around their mean responses plus the deviation of the son's response around the parents' mean. If both sides of equation 2:4 are squared, the following results:

$$\sum(P_{ik} - S_k)^2 = \sum(P_{ik} - \overline{P}_k) + N(\overline{P}_k - S_k)^2 + 2(\overline{P}_k - S_k) \sum(P_{ik} - \overline{P}_k) \qquad 2:5$$

However, the last expression in equation 2:5, representing the deviations

of scores around their own mean, is equal to zero. The remaining expression is:

$$\sum(P_{ik} - S_k)^2 = \sum(P_{ik} - \overline{P}_k) + N(\overline{P}_k - S_k)^2 \qquad 2:6$$

By referring to the earlier equations, it is clear that by definition, the total family variation D is equal to the sum of the within (V) and the between (M) variation, for an entire family of N = 2 parents and one son.

The three aspects of intra-family consensus just defined form the basis for the research reported here. The operational procedures by means of which these concepts were utilized are described in the following chapter.

THE PROBLEM OF FAMILIAL CONSENSUS

Based on the foregoing discussion of socialization, intra-family interaction, and the concept of differential consensus among role definers, the specific problem treated in this part of the investigation emerges. Two major questions are involved: (1) if intra-family consensus is measured in terms of variances of item response, does the partitioning of total family consensus into V and M components yield scores with the same or different relationship to an effectiveness criterion? and (2) are there particular areas of expectations or values which bear a stronger relationship to the criterion than others?

The partitioning of the total family variance provides a score representing consensus between parents and another score for consensus

between the parents as a unit and the son. These two aspects of consensus can be seen to be quite different, in terms of their implication for intra-family interaction. The V score, measuring between-parent agreement, seems to be adequate to deal with a question as to the extent to which the parents share common expectations or values. The M score, dealing with the son's divergence from the parents, seems to be suited for examining the question as to whether the parents have been successful in transmitting to the son the values and expectations which, as socializers, they are trying to impart. The D score, defined as the over-all intra-family consensus measure, and consisting of the sum of V and M, does not show such a clear relation to the socialization process. The empirical examination of the present research will help evaluate its usefulness.

The second research question involved here concerns the nature of the content of the socialization values and standards being transmitted to the son. All the manifold functions performed for the individual by his family may not bear a similar degree of relationship to external criteria of socialization. Some aspects of intra-family interaction, in other words, may be irrelevant to the socialization process as it affects the youth's behavior in other social structures outside the family. The task, then, is to divide the "universe" of values and standards which parents might hold for the behavior of their son into segments, to determine whether consensus on some of the segments is more closely linked to socialization effectiveness than in other segments.

In the work of Gross et al. the expectations held by school superintendent and school board members for the behavior of the superintendent were divided into a number of areas, dealing with personal attributes of the superintendent, his participations, and his friendships.[23] The material for this study is likewise divided, on the basis of a scheme related to the aspects of the family which deal with the crucial process of differentiation of parents' influence. Categories of behavior judged to be of importance in the overall socialization process are also included. The details of this division will be considered in the following section.

DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH BEARING ON FAMILIAL CONSENSUS

In order to deal with the two-fold research problem described above, a multi-variate research design has been evolved. A criterion measure, dealing with adolescent school success, will be examined in juxtaposition with predictor variables of consensus.

In an earlier section of this report, it was mentioned that numerous social agencies and institutions participate in the socialization process as it impinges upon the adolescent. The family was identified as being of primary importance which wanes as the child grows up. Parsons has indicated that the family "produces" the individual, by means of the socialization process.[24] This concept carries the notion that the socialization carried out in the family has, as one of its goals, the "production" of a child whose behavior will be acceptable to social structures other than the family system, in this case school behavior is considered.

Contrasted with the criterion of school behavior are intra-family consensus measures in a number of areas. The same multiple organization influence in socialization mentioned above is pertinent here, also. The values and standards which parents set up as part of their socialization efforts deal heavily with behaviors that cross-cut several social spheres. Three major areas, Family, School and Society, have been used in this research. Within each of these areas, sub-parts have been identified, based in part on the work of Parsons, Bales and Zelditch.[25] The sub-areas have been labelled Expressive Activities, Instrumental Activities, Normative Activities, and Participative Activities.

These (the three areas of family, school and society on one hand and the four types of activities within these areas on the other) two axes logically generate twelve separate categories for classification of behavioral expectations. In the research described in this report, only 10 of the 12 logical categories will be considered, along with an additional, more general, area-free category, Aspirations. The resultant eleven categories can be diagrammed as follows:

Areas:	FAMILY	SCHOOL	SOCIETY	ASPIRATIONS
Types of Activities	Participative Normative Expressive	Instrumental Normative Expressive Participative	Instrumental Normative Expressive	(no type of activity)

The eleven categories for behavior expectation, when combined with the three measures of consensus, V, M, and D, result in a 33-cell table which contains the measures of intra-family consensus for any given family.

The criterion measure of school behavior, described in detail in the next chapter, consists of a three-fold classification of students, into categories called Aggressives, Well-adjusteds, and Under-achievers. The complete design of this research may be expressed as a 99-cell matrix, with each cell containing measures for n families. The entire design may be diagrammed as follows:

		SOC INS	SOC NOR	SOC EXP	SCH PAR	SCH EXP	SCH NOR	SCH INS	FAM PAR	FAM NOR	FAM EXP	ASP	N of Families
AGG	M												19
	F												19
	S												19
WA	M												48
	F												48
	S												48
UA	M												17
	F												17
	S												17

Total N = 252

The research questions under consideration, and the complex requirements of design, suggest that a multivariate procedure would be most suitable for the analysis of the data. The question concerning the relative merits of the three measures of intra-family consensus will be dealt with

by making three separate analyses. The relative contribution of consensus in any of the several sub-areas will be explored by means of multiple discriminant function, seeking the set or sets of eleven weights which maximize between-group variance while minimizing within-group variance. The details of the actual analysis, and the specification of the generalized, multivariate hypotheses under test will be presented in a later chapter.

FOOTNOTES

1 Neal Gross, Ward Mason and Alexander McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis, New York: John Wiley, 1958.

2 Henry Rieken, "Some Problems of Consensus Development," Rural Sociology, 1952, Vol. 17, p. 245-252.

3 Talcott Parsons and Robert Bales, Family, Socialization, and Interaction Process, Glencoe: Free Press, 1955.

4 Some general or review studies are:
Henry Rieken, "Socialization," in Handbook of Social Psychology, edited by Gardner Lindzey, New York: Addison-Wesley, 1954.

Robert Winch, Identification and Its Familial Determinants, New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1962.

Robert Sears, "Relation of Early Childhood Experiences to Aggression in Middle Childhood," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, Vol. 63, No. 3, p. 466-492.

Arnold Green, "The Middle-Class Male Child and Neurosis," American Sociological Review, 1964, Vol. 11, p. 31-41.

Walter Slocum and Carol Stone, "Family Culture Patterns and Delinquent-Type Behavior," Marriage and Family Living, 1963, Vol. 25, No. 2, p. 202-208.

Urie Bronfenbrenner, "The Changing American Child - A Speculative Analysis," Journal of Social Issues, 1961, Vol. 17, No. 1, p. 6-18.

5 Leonard Broom and Phillip Selznick, Sociology, New York: Harper and Row, 1963, p. 373.

6 Parsons, et al., op. cit., p. 35

7 Oscar W. Ritchie and Marvin Koller, Sociology of Childhood, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964, p. 17.

FOOTNOTES

(continued)

8 Broom and Selznick, op.cit., p. 93.

9 Parsons, et al., op.cit., p. 16.

10 Murray Straus, "Conjugal Power Structure and Adolescent Personality," Marriage and Family Living, 1962, Vol. 24, No. 1, p. 17-25.

11 Ritchie and Koller, op.cit., p. 42.

12 Gross, Mason and McEachern, op.cit., p. 21.

13 ibid., p. 21.

14 ibid., p. 35

15 ibid., p. 95, italics mine.

16 ibid., p. 42

17 ibid., p. 164

18 Some families had other children or adults living with them. However, only three persons were interviewed in each family, regardless of size.

19 Gross, Mason and McEachern, op.cit., p. 164.

20 ibid., p. 167

21 ibid., p. 170

22 ibid., p. 369

23 ibid., p. 329

24 Parsons, et al., op.cit., p. 16

25 ibid., expecially Chapters 5 and 6.

MEASUREMENT OF THE PREDICTOR VARIABLE: INTRA-FAMILY CONSENSUS

Chapter 3

The previous chapters have described this research and its antecedents in relatively abstract terms. This chapter will describe the steps in operationalizing the measures of intra-family consensus, as well as presenting the overall details of the field data-gathering procedures.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INTERVIEW SCHEME

The part of the interview utilized for analysis in this section of the report consists of a list of 110 statements, descriptive of objects, conditions, and relationships which the son might have, do or be.* The items were developed by Family Relations Project staff after examination of both scholarly and popular literature concerning the kinds of socialization goals which middle-class American parents were presumed to hold for their sons. In order to provide a systematic framework for the wide range of analyses handled, the items were generated in accord with the

*The second part of the interview is described in Part II of this report along with the data it yielded.

categoric scheme mentioned in the previous chapter. The item content concerned achievement of formal goals (instrumental activities); management of interpersonal affairs (expressive activities); conformity to rules (normative activities); and attendance within the several social systems involved (participative activities). These sub-categories were in turn proliferated on the basis of the three relevant areas, Family, School and Society, as described in the previous chapter. A more general set of items which we have called Aspirations dealt with personal and instrumental-adaptive attributes of the son, and concerned characteristics which parents might hope would be manifested by the son in the future. This category was deemed necessary because such future-oriented items could not be responded to within the framework provided for replies to items dealing directly with present behavior. Aspirations for future behavior, in other words, required different treatment than that used for prescriptions for present behavior.

Each item was presented to the respondents three times, with three different instructions. Each person rated, on a five point continuum, (1) the extent to which he felt the item was important, (2) the extent to which the behavior actually occured, and (3) the extent to which the behavior was viewed as creating a problem for someone in the family. These three response modes, Importance, Occurence and Problem, for the 110 items of the schedule, constituted the first half of the interview. For this section of the report only the data generated by the Importance

ratings is used.

The list of items as used is shown in Table 3:1, illustrating each of the groups in which the items were classified. Since a differential measure of Importance is pertinent here, the mean Importance rating for each set of items is also shown, separately for each of the three criterion groups. These data are considered in Chapter 4. The item list shown is that presented to the son in the interview. The parents' list differed only in grammatical form. As a prefix phrase to each item read "How important is it to you that ___"... For the parents' interviews, the prefix phrase should read "How important is it to you that your son___".

CONDUCT OF THE INTERVIEW

The interviewing process took place over a period of approximately one year. The interviewers were hired after extensive contacts with local colleges and universities. In selection, a primary concern was obtaining persons with some previous experience as interviewers, as well as professional committment to some social science or related profession. Of the total group interviewed, 18 were chosen... Some indication of the success of the selection process can be seen in the fact that all of the interviewers continued their work for the project through the completion of the task.

Since the choice of interviewers was based in part on professional aspirations related to the research, the corps of interviewers was capable of serving the project in manifold ways. Thus, tasks involving the editing

of interview items, the development of coding categories, pretesting documents, and final selection of items and format were distributed among the interviewer group. These tasks were incorporated into the overall training process which occupied approximately three months in the early stages of the project. Training techniques such as role-playing situations were utilized in order to acquaint both the interviewers and the researchers with problems likely to be encountered either by the interviewing procedures or the interviewing situation. The role-playing process also served as part of the pre-testing of each of the numerous documents used in the research project. Several revisions of documents were made to achieve the goals of clarity of meaning for each item and smoothness of operation in administering the items.

TABLE 3:1

SOCIETY INSTRUMENTAL

How important is it to you that___:

You prepare for a profession.

You get further in life than your parents have.

You prepare for a skilled trade.

You go out and get what you want.

You become well-educated.

You marry someone who will help you get ahead in the world.

You look out for yourself even if it means getting a friend in trouble.

You have the best of everything even if it means your parents must sacrifice.

You get and keep a job.

You make a lot of money someday.

SOCIETY NORMATIVE

How important is it to you that___:

You obey even those laws you think are unfair.

You don't try to get around the law even when you can get away with it.

You do not hang around with kids who are known to the police.

You do not drink until you are 21.

You follow curfew laws.

You observe the law even when it means giving up a good time.

You obey even those laws which most people ignore.

SOCIETY EXPRESSIVE

How important is it to you that___:

You get along well with boys.

You get along with authorities.

You do have a lot in common with other kids.

You are not rude to other adults.

You get along well with girls.

You have the things a boy needs to be popular.

SCHOOL PARTICIPATIVE

How important is it to you that___:

TABLE 3:1

(continued)

you get to school on time.

You attend a class even though you dislike the subject.

You participate actively in school social events.

You never miss a day of school.

You remain in school even if you want to quit.

You participate actively in school clubs.

You attend a class even if you dislike the teacher.

You participate actively in school athletic events, sports.

You attend school even if you feel too tired.

You attend school even if you are afraid of something or someone.

SCHOOL EXPRESSIVE

How important is it to you that ____:

You get along well with teachers.

You do not let other kids push you around.

You do not let teachers push you around.

You be a school leader.

SCHOOL NORMATIVE

How important is it to you that ____:

You obey even those school rules that most kids ignore.

You do not go off school grounds without permission.

TABLE 3:1

(continued)

You do not abuse school equipment.

You conform to school rules about dress.

You obey even those school rules which you think are unfair.

You do not cheat or copy someone else's work.

You do not read comic books or magazines in class.

You do not smoke at school.

You are not caught breaking school rules.

You do not fight on school grounds.

You do not hang around with kids who get in trouble in school.

SCHOOL INSTRUMENTAL

How important is it to you that___:

You show enthusiasm and interest in school work.

You do more than just enough work to stay in school.

You get really good grades in school.

You graduate from high school.

You prepare for college.

You have a good citizenship record.

You work hard even in school subjects you don't like or you are not good in.

TABLE 3:1

(continued)

FAMILY PARTICIPATIVE

How important is it to you that____:

You be home most evenings during the week.

You have dinner with the family nearly every night.

You spend holidays with the family.

You bring your friends home.

The whole family be in on family problems and tries to solve them together.

You talk things over with the family.

You do things with the family on weekends.

You have interests in common with your parents.

You like to do things with the family.

FAMILY NORMATIVE

How important is it to you that____:

You let the family know where you are going and who you are with.

You do not talk back to parents when they tell you to do something.

You come home at the time your parents tell you to.

You associate only with those kids your parents approve of.

You obey even those family rules you feel are unfair.

You keep your things neat and tidy.

You be completely truthful with your parents.

TABLE 3:1

(continued)

You do your home chores willingly.

You ask your parents' permission when you are supposed to.

You get your homework done before going out.

You have good table manners at home.

You keep yourself clean and tidy.

You get your fair share of family possessions.

You are not rude to your parents.

You obey your family's rules even if they are different than most.

You follow rules about taking care of family property.

You do not shout or raise your voice to your parents.

FAMILY EXPRESSIVE

How important is it to you that:

You get along with your brothers, sisters and other family members.

Your parents keep promises they make to you.

You be on good terms with your parent's friends.

There be very little quarreling in your home.

You show affection to your parents.

You show affection to other members of the family.

Your parents always give you an explanation for things they tell you to do.

Your parents show respect for you.

Your parents give advice and information to you.

TABLE 3:1

(continued)

You show your parents a lot of respect.

Your parents do not shout or raise their voices to you.

Your parents listen to your opinions.

Your parents practice what they preach to you.

You keep the promises you make to your parents.

You feel your parents are treating you fairly.

Your parents openly show affection for you.

ASPIRATIONS

How important is it to you that____:

You be satisfied with what comes your way in life.

You be a kind, considerate person.

You have a better time of things than your parents did.

You make your own decisions.

You make the most of your abilities.

You make a good impression on people.

You be able to get people to do what you want.

You feel you are every bit as good as anybody else.

You know your own limits.

You have a happy home life of your own someday.

You be a self-sufficient and independent person.

You be a really good athlete.

You have a big job someday.

During the latter part of the training period, the field staff mailed letters requesting the cooperation of parents and their sons in serving as interview subjects for the study. Following the letters, telephone contacts were made with several families each day, to establish specific appointment times when the interviewer team could meet with the family members. In all, 138 families were interviewed. Of these, 84 provided complete three-person interview sets which could be analysed for the purposes of this section of the report.[1] This reduced number of families was primarily brought about by the frequent unavailability of the father in many of the families, because of separation or divorce. The data from the two-person families are being dealt with elsewhere in the report. Since the consensus measures defined earlier require data from all three family members, the N must necessarily be reduced for the problem treated in this part of the report.

The three interviewers acted as a team, making their contact with the family and appearing at the home together, so as to remove any possibility of interaction between family members during the interview. Each interviewer was responsible for one of the persons to be interviewed, and stayed with that person as much as possible throughout the interview period. One of the interviewers was designated as team captain, and served as spokesman for the group when first approaching the family. The appendix contains the instructions to the interviewers, and the introductory statement which they were required to use. An identification with the University of Southern California was clearly established,

necessitated in part by local political issues prevailing at that time.

The data used in this section of the report were gathered during the first part of the interview. They consist of ratings of importance of 110 behaviorally descriptive items. The subjects were shown a response card prior to starting and the card remained in view throughout the task, so that the subjects could use pre-coded response categories. The rating continuum was shown with five adjectives, ranging from Very Important to Not At All Important. Subjects were instructed to reply with either an adjective or its numeric equivalent, 1 to 5. The responses were coded onto acetate plastic sheets, on which were printed grid patterns for quick and accurate marking.[2] Later phases of the interview, not dealt with here, required the rapid determination of the degree of disagreement among family members' responses, and the clear sheets allowed instant recognition of disagreed-upon items. Samples of the interview materials are shown in the Appendix.

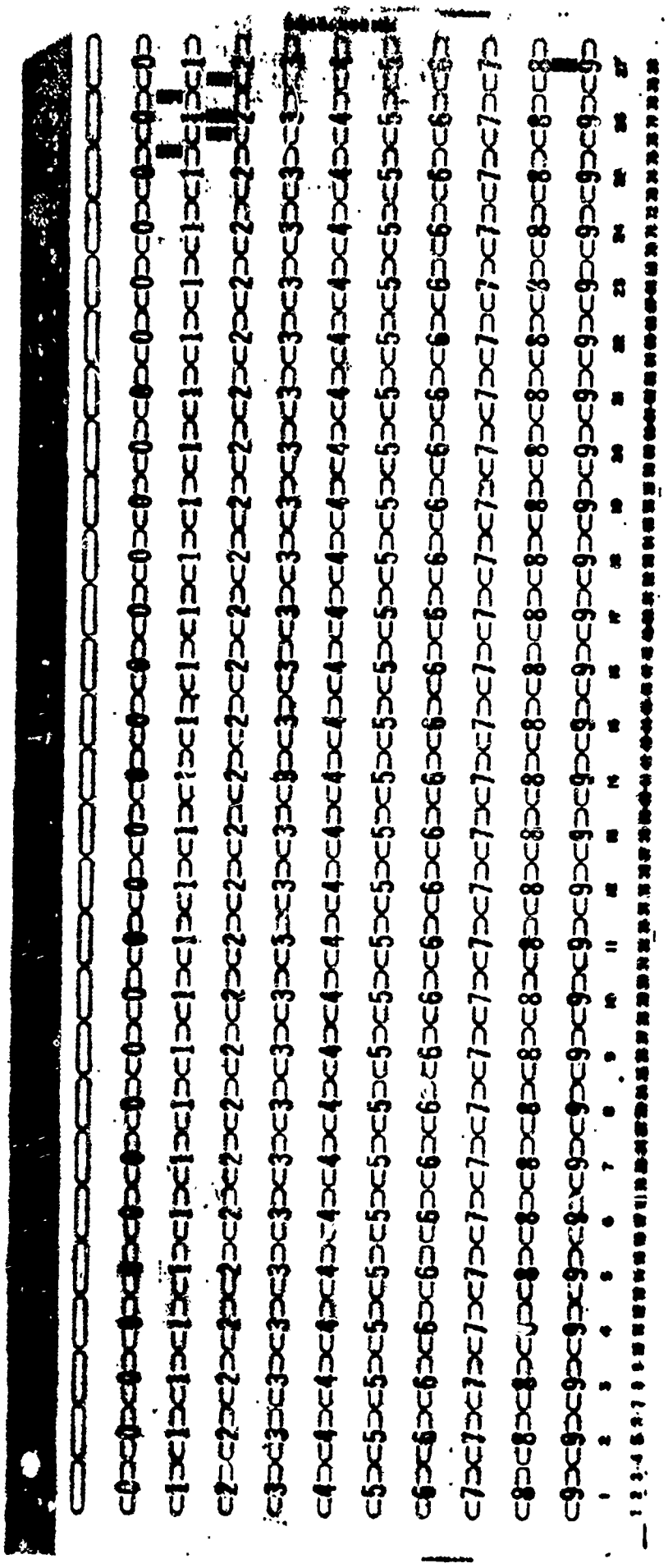
The section of the interview described here took approximately one and one half to two hours to complete. Each respondent was interviewed in a different part of the home, so that contamination of responses could not occur. Although in some homes this situation was awkward due to lack of space, adequate separation was almost always maintained by using bedrooms, kitchens, bathrooms, etc. Table 3:2 shows the mean length of time required for the total interview.

TABLE 3:2

Mean Length of Interview in Munutes, by Adjustment Group and Family Position

	AGG	MA	UA
Mothers	204.5	200.0	182.2
Fathers	206.6	196.3	178.1
Sons	192.6	184.5	182.4

When a large staff of interviewers is employed, and appointments are scheduled primarily in the evening, a considerable waste of daytime work may result. In the present project, this was overcome by making use of the daytime hours of the interviewers for coding of interview data in preparation for machine analysis. Since each family provided three interviews, and the 110 items were asked three times each, this resulted in 990 ratings. Without considering the remainder of the interview, this would require more key-punching machines than are generally available to any project. To overcome the machine shortage and provide full-time work for the interviewers, a method for coding the rating data was developed, making use of mark sense cards. The technique can be described most simply with an illustration.



An example of a typical card, pre-punched to indicate it is Card 01, for position 1 (mother), in family number 018.

For each person to be interviewed, thirteen cards were prepared in the office. The family case number, the position of the person being interviewed, and the card number were prepunched on the pack of cards. After completion of the interview, the responsible interviewer checked-out the pack of cards from the field supervisor, and coded the contents of the acetate sheet onto the mark sense cards. To further enable visual distinction between the packs, "father cards" were blue striped, "mother cards" were pink striped, and "son cards" were brown striped. By having all cards prepunched, and passed out under the control of the field supervisor, chances for error due to misnumbering were minimized. When the interviewers had finished the cards for a family, they were turned in to the field supervisor, who acknowledged their receipt on the master interview control forms maintained in the project office. The mark sense cards themselves were returned to the data processing room, where they were converted into punched cards on an IBM Type 514 reproducing punch. Full electronic as well as logical checks were used to insure that all data were converted as originally marked. If anomalies were discovered, the original document was consulted for reconciliation of the error. When all data cards had been punched and checked, the criterion category to which the son belonged was punched on all the cards for each family. For the interview as a whole, 103 cards per family were required to contain the data. When the cards were rechecked and found satisfactory, a master deck was made for filing. A

magnetic tape copy was utilized for actual analysis, to reduce computer running time.

DETERMINATION OF CONSENSUS MEASURES

In Chapter 2, three measures of intra-family consensus were presented. The V score is a measure of consensus between the two parents, and consists of the variance of their ratings on a given item. For the group of items in a scale or category, the overall V score is the sum of the parents' variance. Since there are eleven item-categories involved, the result is eleven separate V scores for each family.

The M, in turn, scores are measures of consensus between the two parents, taken as a unit, and the son. Again, the variance of ratings is used, following the formula shown in Chapter 2 (2:3). Eleven sub-scores result, allowing a determination of two-position consensus on all eleven item-categories.

The D scores for a family are derived by summing, for each of the eleven item-categories, the previously computed V and M scores. The calculations involved in these operations are very simple, but given the magniture of the project are highly time-consuming. To speed the process as well as to insure complete accuracy, a computer program was prepared by the author to compute the 33 scores for each family. In all, several dozen programs were written to handle certain parts of the analysis of the entire project, but the Consensus program is most relevant to mention here.

FOOTNOTES

1 The remaining cases will be included in the analyses for the second part of this report. The data for incomplete families do not lend themselves to analysis by the methods described here.

2 The author is indebted to Mr. Fred I. White, then of the Youth Studies Center, who suggested this procedure.

MEASUREMENT OF THE CRITERION VARIABLE: SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT

Chapter 4

This chapter deals with the background and procedures utilized in the development of the three groups of adolescent boys used as the sample for this study. The work described took place, for the most part, prior to the time when the author joined the staff of the Youth Studies Center. The design and conduct of the process described here was directed by Dr. Fred J. Shanley who kindly allowed the author to make use of his material.[1]

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

If, as commonly supposed, the family is the most significant socialization influence in the life of the child, surely the school must rank in second place. Receiving the child at an early stage in his development, the school as a social system continues to mold the individual for as long as two decades. The school provides the first intensive relations between the child and a non-family adult and perhaps the first view of the fallibility of parents and family. The school provides the child with his first, and perhaps most lasting exposure to the workings of formal organizations and status differentiation. The school

provides a clearly specified set of behaviors for achieving goals which are rationally and impersonally rather than emotionally determined. In all, the school must be said to represent a highly complex socialization situation, differing in important ways from the socialization procedures carried out in the family system. This more extensive socialization has been alluded to by Parsons, who has pointed out that the family does not offer sufficiently wide ranges of role participations for the developing child.[2] Movement from the family socialization process to that of other social systems is required by the need to learn, in a progressive fashion, more kinds of role behaviors and expectations than the family can manage to teach. By its provisions for interaction with other children as well as non-family adults, the school offers the actors and status relationships necessary for teaching the growing repertoire of roles which the successful adult is expected to play.

Earlier in the discussion, the point was made that the family has, as a major task in its socialization capacity, the responsibility for the "production" of a child whose behavior will be acceptable in other social systems outside the family. Specifically, with young children, a good share of the family's training activity is directed toward inducing behavior which the parent perceives as desirable for school situations. No doubt considerable generalization occurs in this training, so that many kinds of interactive situations are influenced. What seems important in this relationship, however, is that the school behaviors and activities of the child might be used as a criterion of the degree of success achieved by the family in their socialization efforts. This represents

a departure from much reported family research, in which personality characteristics of the child are usually used as criteria of socialization effectiveness.

For the present research, the relationship between family and school as adjacent points on the continuum of socialization suggested itself as a source of criterion measurements of socialization effectiveness. To accomplish this, some measures of the degree of success a child achieved in school are necessary, following the assumption that if the parents were successful as socializers, the likelihood of school success should be increased. In this kind of situation, however, a definition of "success" poses operational difficulties, in that many expectations are set up for adolescent school behavior, some dealing with formal behavior and some with personal relations. To cover a range of possibilities for success definition, a composite approach was developed for the present study. The formal requirements of academic achievement were taken into account in terms of grades, but conforming behavior and sociometric considerations were also involved. The remainder of this chapter describes the criterion groups and the means used in their identification.

DEVELOPMENT OF BEHAVIOR CATEGORIES

As the first step in determining those adolescents whose families seemed successful in their socialization tasks, several criteria of unacceptable school behavior were developed. A perennial problem in an approach like this is the avoidance of value judgments in determining "unacceptable" or "bad" behavior. To insure that the researchers' own

CHART 4:1

RATING FORM FOR AGGRESSIVE (ACTING-OUT) BEHAVIOR

Name _____ School _____ Grade _____

	TYPES OF AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR	FRE-QUENCY	INTENSITY L	M	H	UNRECORDED BEHAVIOR COMMENTS
	Defiance of authority, teachers, deans of boys, principals, counselors, etc.					
	Aggressor in fight on school grounds, intimidating others.					
	Destruction of school or student property.					
	Theft					
	Aggressive sexual behavior.					
	Truancy					
	Smoking in violation of school regulations.					
	Leaving school grounds in violation of regulations.					
	Disturbing class.					
	General rudeness, pushing others, unfair, refuses to take his turn.					
	Use of profanity.					
	Chronic lateness.					
	Wearing special clothing, e.g., black leather jacket.					
	Refusing to prepare for classes.					
	OTHERS: Specify					

feelings and perceptions were not providing a bias, the staff members of the school system involved in the study were asked to compile a list of school behaviors which they felt were unacceptable within their organization. The persons consulted in this step were principals, deans of boys, school psychologists, and Youth Studies Center representatives. The behaviors they designated were such things as "fighting-aggressor," "defiance of authority," "destruction of school property," etc. The form resulting from this determination is found in Chart 4:1.

After the behavioral criteria had been established, the next step was to determine which boys were actually involved. Three schools in a southern California city were participating at this point in the study, two junior high schools and the senior high school they served. The deans of boys from each of these schools provided names of boys in each school whose behaviors were identified in the first step. For each boy, an offense list was prepared, showing frequencies and seriousness of each category. The boys nominated by this process constituted the pool from which the group labelled Aggressives would be drawn, in a later step.

MEASUREMENT OF UNDER-ACHIEVEMENT

Apart from the degree of conformity to behavioral requirements of the type mentioned above, another major area of behavior is of concern to the school -- that of academic achievement. (Which of these questions is dominant in today's urban school system is a moot point, and must be left to others to decide.) To discover the boys exhibiting the most serious degree of discrepancy between school achievement and ability was the next

task. To accomplish this, grade point averages for academic subjects were contrasted with intelligence tests scores for a large group of boys, who had not been nominated in the Aggressive group. By making use of a bivariate scatter-plot of these scores, it was possible to select those boys who showed the most serious discrepancy between achievement and ability. The boys chosen were those who ranked lowest on grade point interval, within each IQ interval of five points. These boys, falling in the lowest decile on grade average for their IQ score group, became the group labelled Under-achievers.

In order to provide contrasts with the Aggressive and Under-achiever group identified, it was deemed desirable to develop criteria for a so-called Well-adjusted group of subjects. The members of this group were selected through the use of more complex criteria, described below:

TEACHER RATINGS

Because the teacher is in constant and significant interaction with the adolescent at school, the evaluations which he can provide often yields information which proves to be some of the most revealing and important obtainable. The teacher may often be the first, if not the only, college-trained person the child contacts. As an achiever of many middle-class goals himself, the teacher can serve as an excellent judge of the adolescent's conformity and likelihood of achievement. In developing the criterion groups for this study, data from the teacher seemed a requisite part of the overall scheme.

In order to provide a common basis on which the teachers might evaluate the students, three attributes were selected which bore on frequently mentioned characteristics of students: Ambition, Responsibility, and Emotional Maturity. A panel of teachers was selected by the dean of boys in each of the three schools. The teachers selected were those felt to be most experienced and knowledgeable concerning students and school behavior.

To accomplish the actual rating task, decks of cards were prepared, each containing the name of an eligible sample member, and space for the three ratings. Names of boys already selected in the Aggressive and Under-achieving groups were included here also. Pre-shuffling of the cards prevented the group membership from being revealed, and no information concerning any of the boys was given to the rating teachers. Printed instructions were given the teachers, requesting them to sort out those students they felt they knew well enough to rate. Having eliminated the unknowns, the teachers then proceeded with the rating task, using the form shown in Chart 4:2.

SOCIOMETRIC MEASURES

The influence of peer group relations has received widespread attention as a major socializing force. During the period of adolescence, particularly, the effects of adult influence seem to wane, and much of the adolescent's behavior is oriented toward conformity with behavioral expectations developed among his peers. Information concerning the perceptions of an individual by his peers should be very significant in

evaluating a level of school adjustment. Consequently, a sociometric questionaire was circulated to all students in the 8th, 9th and 10th grades in the three schools from which the sample was to be drawn. The questionaire dealt with friendship choices, social detachment, and school dislike.

CHART 4:2

RATING SCHEDULE

Description	Rating						
	Near to				Far	From	
I. Is responsible, dependable, conforms to school standards of behavior and teachers' goals; is conscientious and believes in honesty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
II. Is ambitious to succeed in most school activities; likes prestige and to be looked up to; is persistent -- i.e., voluntarily works at school tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
III. Is usually cheerful, emotionally mature, and composed. Is <u>not</u> moody, nervous or childish.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Each student was asked to indicate the names of the three boys in his school that he liked best of all, the three boys with whom he did not get along well, the three boys who were too shy to make friends, and the three boys who really dislike school. The choosers were free to nominate anyone in their school at that time, whether or not in their same grade.

To insure that fear of disclosure would not influence the results of the sociometric questionnaire, an elaborate protective technique was worked out. To each questionnaire, a separate identification slip was attached, on which the student's name, grade, school and sex were to be indicated. The slip was serial numbered, and the serial number matched the number of the questionnaire to which it was attached. After the forms were passed out in the schoolroom, the students were instructed to fill out the identification ship, tear it from the cover of the questionnaire and turn it in to the research assistant present. After all slips were collected, the nominations were made. The slips were conspicuously sealed in an envelope, and the questionnaires placed in a separate box, bearing a University of Southern California emblem. Later, at the Youth Studies Center, the slips and the questionnaires were rematched.

DETERMINATION OF THE WELL ADJUSTED GROUP

The methods for the determination of the Aggressive and Under-achieving groups has already been presented. The third group, labeled Well-adjusted, was selected on the basis of several simultaneous criteria,

making use of the teacher ratings, sociometric data and school grades.

The pool of eligible boys from which the Well-adjusted could be drawn was defined as the entire 8th, 9th, and 10th grades, minus the boys already identified as Aggressives or Under-achievers. The remainder was subjected to a three part criterion, as shown below:

1. Acceptance by peer group, measured in terms of sociometric nomination on two items:
   a. Nominated as a person "liked best of all".
      To be included in the Well-adjusted group, a student had to have two or more such nominations.
   b. Nominated as a person who "you don't get along with very well". Students receiving three or more nominations on this item were eliminated from consideration.
2. Teacher ratings on three scales representing three personality trait continua; dependability-responsibility, ambition-drive, and emotional maturity. Only students receiving a mean rating of 4.0 or more were considered for inclusion.
3. An overall grade average of "C" or above, in academic subjects.

By application of the several criteria described in this chapter, a total of 317 students were selected for study in the original Critical Factors Project. By school adjustment group there were 101 Aggressives, 131 Well-adjusteds and 87 Under-achievers, divided about evenly in the 8th, 9th and 10th grades of the junior and senior high schools. A great deal of data were gathered on the subjects, from a variety of sources.

In order to illustrate some of the differences between the three groups, and to serve as a validation for the criterion used in selection, Table 4:1 has been included here.[3]

THE PRESENT SAMPLE

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the Family Relations Project made use of the Critical Factors Project sample, reduced through attrition over the passage of time. The sample was generated according to the procedures described above during the 1959-60 school year, and the interviewing process described in Chapter 3 took place during 1962. By that time, a number of families had moved from the community, some boys had dropped out from school, and some had simply dropped from view. The effects of these attritional processes were such that a total group of 156 families could be located in 1962 by the field staff of the Family Relations Project. Of this group, 138 families agreed to be interviewed. Of those who agreed, 84 families yielded complete three-person interviews which could be analysed. The remaining families had one parent absent, or the son absent -- frequently he was in college, military service or in a correctional institution.

In a review article on family research, Brimm has made the point that more descriptive material should be provided for each study reported and so that other researchers can determine some bases for generality of their concerns. Following this suggestion, a number of descriptive variables are presented in the present study, particularly to indicate

TABLE 4:1

Results of Comparative Data Analysis
for Three Student Groups

Type of Data	Type of Student AGG	UA	WA	Signif. of Diff.[1] AGG WA	AGG UA	WA UA
1. Dropout Rate (April 1962)	33%	18%	4%	**	*	**
2. Police Contact Rate (April 1962)	66%	19%	3%	**	**	**
3. Grades (Mean) (1960-61)[2]						
Academic	7.75	7.53	4.02	**		**
Non-Academic	7.03	6.92	3.42	**		**
4. Attendance (Median) (1960-61)						
Unexcused absence (day)	5.7	2.0	.2	**	*	**
Periods Truant	6.0	1.3	.2	**		
Days Suspended	.7	.1	.01	**	*	
Frequency of Tardiness	8.5	.5	.06	**		*
5. Teacher Ratings (Mean) (1960-61)[3]						
Responsibility	4.85	3.90	1.78	**	**	**
Ambition	5.15	4.80	2.15	**		**
Emotional Maturity	4.88	4.35	2.11	**		**
6. Sociometric Nomination (Median) (1960-61)						
"Liked Best of All"	1.17	2.25	4.00	**	*	*
"Difficult to get along with"	2.50	.47	.33	**	*	*
"Dislikes School"	3.50	1.06	.21	**	**	**
7. Psychometric Data (1960-61) Calif. Psych. Inventory	15 of 18 scales differentiate AGG from WA, 10 of 18 scales differentiate AGG from UA at .05 level of significance.					

1 *significance at .05 leve; ** significance at .01 level.
2 High mean scores associated with low grades; range is 1-10.
3 High mean scores associated with poor ratings; range of rating is 1-7.

the general similarity of the three groups of respondents. Comparisons between criterion groups and family positions are shown in the following tables.

Only very slight differences in ages appear in Table 4:2. As would be expected from the technique of sample selection, the sons' mean ages are about equal. The age range for the parents as a combined group was 36-64. For the sons, the range was 15-19.

TABLE 4:2

Mean Age of Respondents,
By Adjustment Group and Family Position

	AGG	WA	WA
Mothers	45.2	45.2	43.5
Fathers	50.3	48.5	48.0
Sons	16.6	16.9	16.8

Since the level of education attained is so often correlated with types of values and standards accepted, an examination of that variable is necessary here. Tables 4:3 and 4:4 show the data on this question. Table 4:3 indicates a slight tendency for Aggressive parents to have

had somewhat more schooling than Well-adjusted parents, while the parents of Under-achievers have less. The differences are small, and when the ranges are examined, in Table 4:4, seem to be mere artifacts. In all, little difference exists between the three criterion groups in terms of the education of parents. The sons, naturally, are equivalent.

The frequency of remarriage is frequently offered as a rough index of family stability. Unless reasons for disrupting a marriage are explored carefully, however, the mere fact of multiple marriage would be of little utility. Table 4:5 shows the number of the present marriage by criterion group and family position. Little difference can be seen between the Well-adjusted and the Under-achiever groups. Second marriages are more common, proportionally, among the Aggressive families.

TABLE 4:3

Median Number of School Years Completed,
By Adjustment Group and Family Position

	AGG	WA	UA
Mothers	13.5	12.5	12.0
Fathers	14.0	13.0	12.0
Sons	11.0	11.0	11.0

TABLE 4:4

Ranges of Reported School Years Completed,
By Adjustment Group and Family Position

	AGG	WA	UA
Mothers	8 - 18	6 - 21	10 - 18
Fathers	5 - 20	6 - 22	8 - 21
Sons	10 - 13*	10 - 13*	10 - 12

* The two boys with a 13th year had begun junior college under a special program allowing the last year of high school and the first year of college to be completed simultaneously.

TABLE 4:5

Number of Present Marriage, By
Adjustment Group and Family Position

	AGG	WA	UA
Mothers	1st - 13 2nd - 6	1st - 38* 2nd - 8 3rd - 1	1st - 12 2nd - 4 4th - 1
Fathers	1st - 13 2nd - 6	1st - 41* 2nd - 2 3rd - 2	1st - 13 2nd - 2 3rd - 2

* One set of parents reported not being married, and two fathers declined to answer the question.

Data concerning claimed religious affiliation for the total sample combined are shown in Table 4:6. As can be seen, the majority of the sample profess Protestantism. Although the "None" category is small, its composition is of interest. Of the 27 persons who responsed "None" to the religious question, 59 percent (16) were sons, 27 percent (7) were fathers, and 14 percent (4) were mothers. Table 4:7 shows the responses to the religious affiliation question by criterion group and family position. Considerable more variation in religious affiliation occurs within the families of Aggressives, compared to the other two groups.

A frequently used indicator of socio-economic level is family income. Data concerning this was gathered from the fathers of 82 of the 84 families involved in this part of the study. The remaining two declined to give income information. Since so many families have more than one wage-earner, the interviewers were instructed to obtain the total family income, rather than father's salary alone. In addition, they obtained data on the nature and degree of the wife's employment. The data concerning median family income and proportion of time of the wife's employment (either full or part time) are shown in Table 4:8. Very little difference can be discerned between the three groups. On the basis of these data, as well as the preceding information on education, it would appear that no essential difference in social class indicators obtain between the criterion groups.

The high income and education level of the three groups, particularly the Aggressive families, suggests that the respondents represent a

TABLE 4:6

Claimed Religious Affiliation
For Entire Sample - Combined Percent of Response

Prot.	Cath.	Jew.	None	Other	NR
67.8	10.3	7.1	10.7	3.5	.3

TABLE 4:7

Claimed Religious Affiliation
By Adjustment Group and Family Position

		AGG					W A					U A				
		P	C	I	N	O	P	C	I	N	O	P	C	I	N	O
M	f	18		1			34	4	4	2	3	11	2	2	2	
	%	95		5			72	8	8	4	6	64	12	12	12	
F	f	15	2	1	1		35	4	3	4	1	9	5	1	2	
	%	79	10	5	5		74	8	6	8	2	53	29	6	12	
S	f	7	1		8	2	32	5	4	5	2	8	3	2	3	1
	%	39	6		44	11	67	10	8	10	4	47	18	12	18	6

TABLE 4:8

Median Family Income
And Percent of Wives' Employment

	AGG	WA	UA
Median Income	$ 9,444	$ 8,145	$ 8,052
Percent of Wives Employed	63%	52%	53%

predominantly middle-class sample. The range of income in each of the groups was from approximately $5,000 per year to over $20,000. For all three groups, the proportion of women working is quite high. This may be a function of the age of the parents, as well as representing the relative emancipation of wives whose child has grown to high school age. The higher employment of mothers of Aggressive boys is supportive of the notion that boys whose mothers are out of the home at work fail to receive proper supervision from parents. Without direct examination of this question in the interview, such a finding must be taken as a supposition, however.

In general, the degree of similarity between the three criterion groups on the variables of age, religious affiliation, education, income and marriage pattern is quite high. It would appear that these variables need not be considered when examining intra-family data developed in the later chapters. Had there been sizeable differences between criterion groups on these variables, the research task would have been much more complex, requiring some form of statistical control on the contaminants.

FOOTNOTES

1 Several previous Youth Studies Center publications deal with this project:

D. Welty Lefever, Fred J. Shanley and Georgia Adams, Preliminary Analysis of School Records and Behavioral Data for Matched Groups of Aggressive, Well-adjusted and Under-Achieving Boys, Los Angeles: Youth Studies Center, University of Southern California, 1961, (mimeo).

Fred J. Shanley, William R. Larson, H. L. Myerhoff, Roger Rice, D. Welty Lefever and Langdon Longstreth, Comparative Study of Factors Influencing the School Adjustment of Adolescents: A Preliminary Report, Los Angeles: Youth Studies Center, University of Southern California, 1964, (mimeo).

Fred J. Shanley, Jalil Alzobaie and D. Welty Lefever, Comparative Analysis of School Record and Behavioral Data for Aggressive, Well-adjusted and Underachieving Students, Los Angeles: Youth Studies Center, University of Southern California, 1964, (mimeo).

2 Talcott Parsons and Robert Bales, Family, Socialization and Interaction Process, Glencoe: The Free Press, 1955, p. 38.

3 This table is taken from Fred J. Shanley, Jalil Alzobaie and D. Welty Lefever, op.cit.

4 Orville Brimm, Jr., "The Parent-Child Relation as a Social System," Child Development, 1957, Vol. 28, No. 3, p. 343-364.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Chapter 5

The description of the present research given thus far has focussed upon two primary investigatory concerns. The first deals with a determination of which definition of intra-family consensus would best discriminate between the criterion groups, and the second question revolves around the eleven areas of inquiry used in the interview, related to the Instrumental, Expressive, Participative and Normative activities of the son, in the family, school and society. The task, quite clearly, is to determine whether disconsensus in these areas of inquiry relates equally, if at all, to the criterion of school adjustment. A related, composite task is to discover if similar patterns of relationships between predictors and criterion hold for each of the three consensus scores, V, M, and D.

The analysis technique selected to deal with the research questions concerned here is called multiple discriminant function. Although based on original work reported by Fisher in 1936,[1] the application of this procedure to more than two groups of subjects is a recent innovation. The extension of Fisher's discriminant function technique is due primarily to Bryan, who developed analytic procedures necessary for generalizing the process to any number of groups. The name multiple discriminant function

was proposed by Bryan for this extended technique.[2]

Discriminant function analysis can best be described as a procedure in which one seeks a set of numeric weights for a set of scores, such that the ratio of the sum of squares among groups to the sum of squares within groups is at a maximum. The process serves to develop a new set of scores, which is a linear function of the original scores. Following the Central Limit Theorem, this set is more likely to be normally distributed than the original values.[3] The multiple discriminant scores serve to estimate the position of a subject on a multivariate line that indicates the best separation between classes or groups, on the basis of the ratio of between-within group sums of squares. Unlike a bivariate regression situation, more than one set of weights may be calculated which provides significant discrimination between groups of subjects. To exhaust the predictive power of a set of variables, in terms of distinguishing between criterion groups, as many mutually orthogonal functions may be obtained as the lesser of two numbers: (Number of Groups - 1) or (Number of Predictor Variables).

In most instances, as in this study, the number of variables is purposefully set up to be greater than the number of groups, to provide for mathematical stability in the estimation of group differences. Since three criterion groups have been defined for the present work, Aggressives, Well-adjusteds and Under-achievers, and eleven predictor variables have been used, two uncorrelated discriminant functions can be obtained. A part of the application of the discriminant function procedure will be to

determine if the eleven-dimensional space necessary to describe the groups in terms of raw data can be reduced. The two discriminant functions can provide a two-dimensional system which can describe the original data with minimum loss. In this sense the discriminant functions can be thought of much as factors in a factor analysis.[4]

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS OF V

As described in Chapter 2, the V score is a measure of consensus between parents, and consists of the variance of their responses on Importance ratings for each of the 110 items of the interview schedule. Following the classification of items presented in Chapter 3, the item V scores for a family were summed, and then divided by the number of items in a set. The mean result was taken as one of 11 mean V scores describing a family. Each family in the study is classifiable by the school adjustment group in which the son was placed. Although the terms have some unfortunate connotations, for the sake of succinctness, hereafter families will be named by the adjustment group of the son. Families which have produced a son classified as Aggressive will be called Aggressive families, etc. It should be clear that in so doing, no implication regarding family process is intended.

As a preliminary to the findings of the discriminant analysis, Table A:1 through A:4 show the inter-correlations between the eleven scales or sets of items, for each of the criterion groups. The term scale will be used from here on to refer to the eleven sets of items,

although in actuality the items have not been subjected to any kind of scaling technique. Table A:5 shows the means and standard deviations for each group. Throughout the remainder of this report, tables with the prefix A will be found in the Appendix.

In order to evaluate the univariate relationships between scales and the criterion, F tests for the V scores on the eleven scales are included in Table 5:1. As can be seen, none of the eleven scales bears a significant univariate relationship to the criterion. With 2 and 81 degrees of freedom, an F of 3.11 is significant at the .05 level. Three scales can be evaluated against this F value: Society Expressive, School Normative, and School Instrumental. For the remaining scales, the variance ratio must be reversed, since the within-group mean square is greater than the between-group mean square. In these instances, F would have to exceed 19.48 to be significant at the .05 level.

The results of the univariate F tests show that V scores on the eleven scales do not provide any indications which would suggest a significant pattern of relationships to the criterion.

The findings of the multiple discriminant function analysis applied to the V scores for the three criterion groups are shown in Table 5:2. Since three groups were involved in the criterion, a maximum of two discriminant functions is possible.[6] The latent roots of the matrix containing the weighted ratios of between-group sum of squares to within-group sum of squares are shown as eigenvalues. The extent to which a discriminant function accounts for the discriminating power of the set of predictor variables is shown by the percent of the trace of the matrix.

TABLE 5:1

V Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Univariate F's

Scale	Sum of Squares		Mean Squares		F	P
	Within	Between	Within	Between		
SOC INS	806.20	2.86	9.95	1.43	6.96	-
SOC NOR	218.18	.64	2.69	.32	8.41	-
SOC EXP	215.15	13.50	2.66	6.75	2.54	-
SCH PAR	812.89	5.36	10.04	2.68	3.75	-
SCH EXP	355.93	8.20	5.63	4.10	1.37	-
SCH NOR	676.94	39.02	8.36	19.51	2.33	-
SCH INS	179.51	7.35	2.22	3.67	1.65	-
FAM PAR	796.28	2.72	9.83	1.36	7.23	-
FAM NOR	759.33	2.84	9.37	1.42	6.60	-
FAM EXP	624.70	4.56	7.71	2.28	3.38	-
ASP	637.30	5.57	7.87	2.78	2.83	-
df	81	2				

As shown in Table 5:2, the first discriminant function accounted for about 71 percent of the trace, while the second function accounted for the remainder.

Two normalized vectors are shown in the table. These values represent the coefficients of the discriminant functions, 1 and 2. For visual interpretation, these values are difficult to handle. Since one aim of this research is to determine the differential contribution of each of the eleven scales to the discrimination between criterion groups, it is necessary to examine these coefficients. By multiplying the normalized latent vectors by the diagonal elements of the matrix of pooled, within-groups deviation scores cross products matrix, scaled vectors result which directly illustrate the relative contribution of each scale. These vectors are shown in the right-most columns of Table 5:2.

To determine the degree to which the V scores have achieved a significant discrimination between the three criterion groups, a test of significance has been applied. Fisher's F is appropriate in this situation, to evaluate Wilk's Lambda. Wilk's Lambda is defined as follows:

$$\Lambda = \Pi \left[\frac{1}{(1+\lambda_i)} \right]$$

As the formula above indicates, the value of Lambda grows larger with <u>decreasing</u> significance. For the discriminant analysis of V scores, Wilk's Lambda has a value of .739.

TABLE 5:2

V Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Coefficients of the Discriminant Functions as Latent Vectors

Scale	Normalized Vectors 1	2	Scaled Vectors 1	2
SOC INS	-.13	.01	-3.61	.30
SOC NOR	-.05	.21	- .67	3.15
SOC EXP	.77	-.32	11.36	-4.63
SCH PAR	.18	-.01	5.07	- .30
SCH EXP	-.27	.34	-5.73	7.32
SCH NOR	-.28	-.32	-7.31	-8.34
SCH INS	-.33	.74	-4.36	9.90
FAM PAR	-.08	.03	-2.19	.79
FAM NOR	.03	.20	.75	5.57
FAM EXP	.26	-.20	6.58	-4.90
ASP	-.13	-.09	-3.33	-2.30

Eigenvalues	Percent of Trace
λ_1 = .2344616	71.12
λ_2 = .0951898	28.88

Trace = .32965 Sum of Eigenvalues = .32965

Wilk's Lambda = .73966 Fisher's F, with 22 and 142 df = 1.050

p > .25

Fisher's F for this analysis allows the evaluation of Wilk's Lambda for a generalized multivariate null hypothesis that the three groups do not differ on V scores. The determination of the two values for degrees of freedom in this situation is quite complex. They are calculated as follows:

For the greater mean square estimate:

Df = (Number of variables) · (Number of groups - 1)

For the lesser mean square:

$$df=(N-1) - \frac{NV-NG}{2} \qquad \frac{NV^2\ (NG-1) - 4}{NV^2\ (NG-1)^2 - 5} + 2 \qquad \frac{-NV(NG-1) - 2}{4}$$

Where N is the total number of subjects

NV is the number of variables

Nk is the number of groups

For the present problem, with eleven scales and three groups, the degrees of freedom from the two formuli are 22 and 142.

The value for Fisher's F obtained in the discriminant analysis of V scores is 1.05, as shown in Table 5:2. With the degrees of freedom in this situation, this value is not significant. In order to be significant at the .05 level, a value of 1.64 would have to be achieved.

A test of the significance of the separation has been developed by Rao,[7] making use of Chi-square approximations for estimating the significance of an eigenvalue. Table 5:3 shows the values of Chi-square for the eigenvalues of the V score matrix. Function 1 is not significant, with the p falling between the .20 and .10 level. The degrees of freedom for this test are calculated by the following formula:

df (1) = NV + NG - 2

df (2) = NV + NG - 4

Where NV is the number of variables

NG is the number of groups

From the discriminant function analysis of the V scores, measuring consensus between parents on the importance of a list of values, standards and behaviors for their son, the following conclusions seem relevant.

The separation of the three groups is such that the first discriminant function accounts for 71 percent of the total variability. However, significance tests of this separation indicate that the chances of drawing group differences as large or larger than those obtained here by taking three random samples for all eleven dimensional space are greater than five out of 100. A null hypothesis stating no difference thus cannot be rejected. It is concluded therefore, that V score, or inter-parent consensus, does not differentiate school adjustment groups, as defined in the present study.

TABLE 5:3

Discriminant Function Analysis

Chi-Square Approximations
Significance of the Discriminant Functions

V Scores

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	df	X^2	p	
1	.2345	12	16.22	<.20	>.10
2	.0951	10	6.99	<.70	

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS OF M

The second intra-family consensus score described in Chapter 2 was the M score, measuring the extent to which the son's item rating was divergent from the mean of the parents rating. In this case, as with the V score, M values were summed across sets of items within scales, and divided by scale size, to arrive at a mean on each of the eleven scales. The resulting eleven M scores per family were subjected to the same multiple discriminant function analysis just described for the V scores. Since the details are identical, they need not be repeated.

The intercorrelations between M scores for the three groups, together with the means and standard deviations of each scale are shown in Tables A6 through A10.

The univariate F tests for the M scores show a very different pattern from that of the V scores. As shown in Table 5:4, five of the eleven scales are significant at the .01 level and one at the .05 level. Thus six of the eleven scales significantly differentiate between the criterion groups. Of the four school scales, family normative and society normative are the notable ones.

When the multiple discriminant function analysis was performed for the M score data, multivariate signficance was discovered. As shown in Table 5:5, the eigenvalue representing the first latent root accounted for about 77 percent of the trace. Wilk's Lambda had a value of .569 and Fisher's F, with 22 and 142 degrees of freedom, was 2.10, showing the Lambda to be significant beyond the .01 level.

TABLE 5:4

M Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Univariate F's

Scale	Sum of Squares		Mean Squares		F	p
	Within	Between	Within	Between		
SOC INS	10244.20	736.28	126.47	388.14	2.91	-
SOC NOR	20051.54	4345.83	247.55	2172.91	8.78	<.01
SOC EXP	4528.41	230.64	55.91	115.32	2.06	-
SCH PAR	13952.39	3082.12	172.25	1541.06	8.95	<.01
SCH EXP	2439.43	629.80	30.11	319.90	10.62	<.01
SCH NOR	45454.85	8863.63	561.17	4431.81	7.90	<.01
SCH INS	8426.95	1214.36	104.04	607.18	5.84	<.01
FAM PAR	20163.89	1069.88	248.94	534.94	2.15	-
FAM NOR	32137.89	3165.91	396.76	1582.95	3.99	<.05
FAM EXP	17492.65	424.97	215.96	212.96	1.02	-
ASP	10564.33	763.23	130.42	381.61	2.93	-
df	81	2				

TABLE 5:5

M Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Coefficients of the Discriminant Functions as Latent Vectors

Scale	Normalized Vectors 1	2	Scaled Vectors 1	2
SOC INS	-.03	.52	-3.08	52.51
SOC NOR	.23	.09	33.09	13.13
SOC EXP	-.37	.43	-24.74	29.14
SCH PAR	.29	-.32	34.09	-37.83
SCH EXP	.82	.42	40.49	20.69
SCH NOR	.07	-.14	15.14	-30.41
SCH INS	-.12	.31	-11.26	28.75
FAM PAR	-.02	-.12	-2.78	-17.37
FAM NOR	-.14	-.31	-24.46	-55.22
FAM INS	.01	.07	1.88	9.81
ASP	.12	.15	12.39	15.51

Eigenvalues	Percent of Trace
λ_1 = .5186127	76.87
λ_2 = .1560504	23.13

Trace = .67466 Sum of Eigenvalues = .67466

Wilk's Lambda = .5696081 Fishers's F for 22 and 142 df = 2.10

The Rao test of the separation of groups is shown in Table 5:6. The value of Chi-square for Function One is so large as to be due to chance less than one percent of the time. Function Two is not significant.

TABLE 5:6

M Scores

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	df	X^2	p
1	.5186	12	32.17	< .01
2	.1560	10	11.16	> .30

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS OF D

The D score is a measure of total intra-family consensus. It is composed of the sum of V and M, following the rationaledescribed in Chapter 2. Considering the outcome of the discriminant analysis of the two component scores, V and M, it might be expected that the D score will provide a degree of separation of criterion groups somewhat between the V and M scores. This expectation was fulfilled, as the following tables demonstrate.

As with the previous analysis, intercorrelations among the eleven scales for each criterion group are provided, as well as means and standard deviations. Table A-11 through A-15 show these values. Table 5:7 shows the univariate F ratios, testing the degree to which the separate scales differentiate between the criterion groups. Six of the eleven scales show signficant F ratios, following the identical pattern to that found in the analysis of M scores.

TABLE 5:7

D Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Univariate F's

Scale	Sum of Squares		Mean Squares		F	p
	Within	Between	Within	Between		
SOC INS	10531.77	784.97	130.03	392.48	3.02	-
SOC NOR	20114.26	4450.19	248.32	2225.09	8.96	<.01
SOC EXP	4969.22	192.45	61.45	96.22	1.58	-
SCH PAR	14869.05	3290.89	183.57	1645.44	8.96	<.01
SCH EXP	3278.55	772.34	40.48	386.17	9.54	<.01
SCH NOR	48681.35	8283.97	601.00	4141.98	6.89	<.01
SCH INS	8862.74	1410.65	109.42	705.32	6.44	<.01
FAM PAR	19584.42	1175.09	241.78	587.54	2.43	-
FAM NOR	34010.38	3358.01	419.88	1679.00	4.00	<.05
FAM EXP	18131.91	438.58	223.85	219.29	1.02	-
ASP	12330.50	838.08	152.29	419.04	2.75	-
df	81	2				

TABLE 5:8

D Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Coefficients of the Discriminant Functions as Latent Vectors

Scale	Normalized Vectors 1	2	Scaled Vectors 1	2
SOC INS	-.08	.59	-8.44	60.49
SOC NOR	.27	.03	38.77	4.61
SOC EXP	-.44	.23	-30.73	15.96
SCH PAR	.29	-.44	35.50	-53.90
SCH EXP	.79	.39	45.15	22.17
SCH NOR	.05	.03	11.64	6.29
SCH INS	-.03	.21	-2.72	20.11
FAM PAR	-.03	-.11	-4.36	-15.29
FAM NOR	-.11	-.36	-21.03	-66.07
FAM INS	.03	.01	4.09	.68
ASP	.06	.26	6.43	28.98

Eigenvalues	Percent of Trace
λ_1 = .4997116	78.18
λ_2 = .1394270	21.81

Trace = .63914

Sum of Eigenvalues = .63914

Wilk's Lambda - .58520

Fisher's F with 22 and 142 df = 1.98

$p < .01$

The calculations resulting from the actual multiple discriminant function analysis are shown in Table 5:9. The eigenvalue for Function One accounts for 78 percent of the trace of the inverse of the pooled within-groups deviation scores sums of squares matrix, post-multiplied by the between groups deviation scores sums of square matrix.

Wilk's Lambda, a test of the separation of the criterion groups, is significant, as shown by the value of Fisher's F. The obtained F ratio, 1.98, is significant beyond the .01 level, with 22 and 142 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 5:9

D Scores

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	df	X^2	p
1	.4997	12	31.13	<.01
2	.1394	10	10.05	>.30

Rao's Chi-square test for the significance of the eigenvalues is shown in Table 5:9. As in the previous analysis of M scores, Function One is significant, while Function Two is not.

The foregoing separate discriminant analyses of the V, M, and D scores has resulted in the finding that the three scores relate quite differently to the criterion groups. The V scores do not allow a significant separation of the groups, while the M and D scores do. This finding serves as an answer to the first of the research questions posed in this study; namely, which measure of intra-family consensus is most useful? From the discussion in Chapter 2, it may be recalled that V scores measure consensus between parents, while M scores measure consensus between parents and son. The implications

of the present findings are quite clear, and suggest that the concept of intra-family consensus is more complex than a consideration of mere agreement or disagreement between parents. The fact that the M scores discriminate better than V scores indicates that mere parental disagreement is not sufficient as a basis for explaining parents' inadequacy to induce conformity on the part of the son. Rather intra-family disagreement is a function of all the actors in the system, as portrayed by the M scores.

Implicit in the research thus far has been another question, in addition to the selection of the best consensus score. This, of course, is the question as to whether any of the consensus measures would provide a discrimination between criterion groups. This question has been examined simultaneously with the matters mentioned above. The finding that intra-family consensus is related to school adjustment, in a multivariate sense, leads one to the second research question to be considered here, that of the determination of specific scales of items which contribute most to the criterion discrimination.

PATTERNS OF VECTOR WEIGHTS

The scaled vectors of the discriminant functions for the three measures of consensus have already been presented. Since the V scores did not provide significant separation of the criterion groups, they will not be discussed further. The D scores are a composite of V and M, so they may also be dropped, since the M scores are the most efficient for the ensuing analysis.

To provide a clearer visualization of their contribution, each of the eleven scaled vectors from Table 5:5 are shown below, in Table 5:10, "conventionalized" by relating each value to the largest in the vector. Bryan has shown that the values are independent of any linear transformation that might be performed, therefore this technique provides visual facility without altering the meaning of the values.[8]

TABLE 5:10

Conventionalized Scaled Vectors
of Discriminant Coefficients, M Scores

SOC INS	SOC NOR	SOC EXP	SCH PAR	SCH EXP	SCH NOR	SCH INS	FAM PAR	FAM NOR	FAM EXP	ASP	Function
-.08	.82	-.61	.84	1.00	.37	-.28	-.07	.60	.05	.30	1
.95	.24	.53	-.68	.37	-.55	.52	-.31	-1.00	.18	.28	2

The data from Table 5:10 provide the answer to the second research question under examination here, concerning the differential contributions of scales to the criterion separation. As the conventionalized vectors clearly show, there are considerable differences between the scales in terms of their relation to the criterion.

Three of the scales make a heavy contribution to the separation of criterion groups: School Expressive, School Participative and Society Normative. Two other scales, Society Expressive and Family Normative provide a moderate contribution to the separation. The coefficients for Function Two information is useful, however, when evaluating Function One coefficients. In choosing the relevant scales from Function One data, for instance, the

fact that the Family Normative and Society Expressive scales are polar reversals between the two sets of coefficients leads one to attend more closely to them than the .60 and -.61 values on Function One would normally indicate. As an arbitrary cutting point, a conventionalized vector element should approximate .75 in order to be selected as a heavy "contributor" to criterion group separation. One of the problems with the use of multiple discriminant function as an analysis technique is the determination of weights. An operationalized criterion such as used here enables at least a comparison of relative differences.

SUMMARY OF DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

The multiple discriminant analyses of V, M and D scores have shown clear differences between the types of intra-family consensus measured by those scores. The V scores, as measures of between-parent consensus, failed to provide a significant discrimination between the criterion groups. The M scores measuring consensus between parents and son yielded a strong separation, with two measures of significance, F ratio and Chi-square. The D score, as a composite of V and M, provided a somewhat less significant separation between the criterion groups, as might be expected. Due to its higher significance of separation, the M scores were chosen as the "best" consensus measure, answering one of the research questions under examination, as to which, if any, of the scores would show a relationship to the criterion of school adjustment. These findings suggest that agreement or disagreement between parents is not itself a sufficient basis for predicting "adjustment" of the son. That the M scores should provide the best separations of the

criterion groups supports the notion that the social system aspects of the family are important to the outcome of the socialization process. Agreement within a family, in other words, means agreement among all participants of an interaction, not merely among parents as the major definers of actions.

Having determined that degree of intra-family consensus does discriminate between the criterion adjustment groups used in this study, the next step is to examine the direction in which values of consensus are aligned with the criterion groups. To accomplish this, a representation of the groups in terms of the two dimensional space implied by the discriminant functions was necessary.

GROUP CENTROIDS IN REDUCED SPACE

To describe the original data for this study in multivariate terms would require a discussion of eleven-dimensional space. One of the purposes of using the multiple discriminant function has been to reduce the dimensionality, while retaining as much of the discriminating ability of the data as possible. It is possible to represent the criterion groups in two-dimensional space by determining group centroids, making use of the discriminant weights, the original means and dispersion matrices. Representation in two-dimensional space can allow for an easier interpretation of the findings of the discriminant analysis. The computational routine for calculations of group centroids is shown in the Appendix.

Table 5:11 shows the group centroids in two-dimensional space for the three criterion groups on V scores. The matrices of two-dimensional dispersion for V scores are shown in Table 5:12. A graphic portrayal of the group centroids is shown in Chart 5:1. Function One is measured along the horizontal axis, and Function Two on the vertical. As can be seen, Function One differentiates well between the Well-adjusted-Aggressive combination versus the Under-achievers. Function Two, on the other hand, differentiates between the Well-adjusted-Underachiever combination versus the Aggressives. Recalling that the overall discrimination was not significant for V scores, these data are still of interest, due to the centroid configuration they reveal.

In part, the basis of the non-significant group discrimination can be seen here, since each function serves to separate only two of the three groups. This is in itself a noteworthy finding, as it implies that the Well-adjusted and the Aggressive parent-consensus systems are similar to each other, but different from the Under-achiever parent-consensus.

The group centroid for M scores is shown in Table 5:12, and the plotting in Chart 5:2. The configuration here is quite different from that of the V score centroids. A more even separation of groups is evident, and the configuration to separation by Function One is of a different pattern. Speaking in terms of the significant Function One only, it can be seen that consensus is greater among Well-adjusted families and least among Aggressive. A moderate amount of consensus characterized the Under-achievers. Function Two separates the Well-adjusted and Aggressive groups but slightly, while the Under-achievers are divergent.

TABLE 5:11

V Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Group Centroids and Dispersion in Two-Dimensional Space

Group Centroids

	Function 1	Function 2
AGG	.237	1.086
WA	.228	-.069
UA	-1.283	.266

Dispersion in Two-Dimensional Space

	Function 1	Function 2
AGG	1.729	-1.352
	-1.352	3.023
WA	1.653	.505
	.505	2.193
UA	1.485	.036
	.036	2.076

TABLE 5:12

M Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Group Centroids and Dispersion in Two-Dimensional Space

Group Centroids

	Function 1	Function 2
AGG	18.658	2.410
WA	7.280	4.086
UA	12.963	11.403

Dispersion in Two-Dimensional Space

	Function 1	Function 2
AGG	91.222	.129
	.129	122.330
WA	25.378	-8.263
	-8.263	30.923
UA	45.079	24.126
	24.126	116.592

CHART 5:1

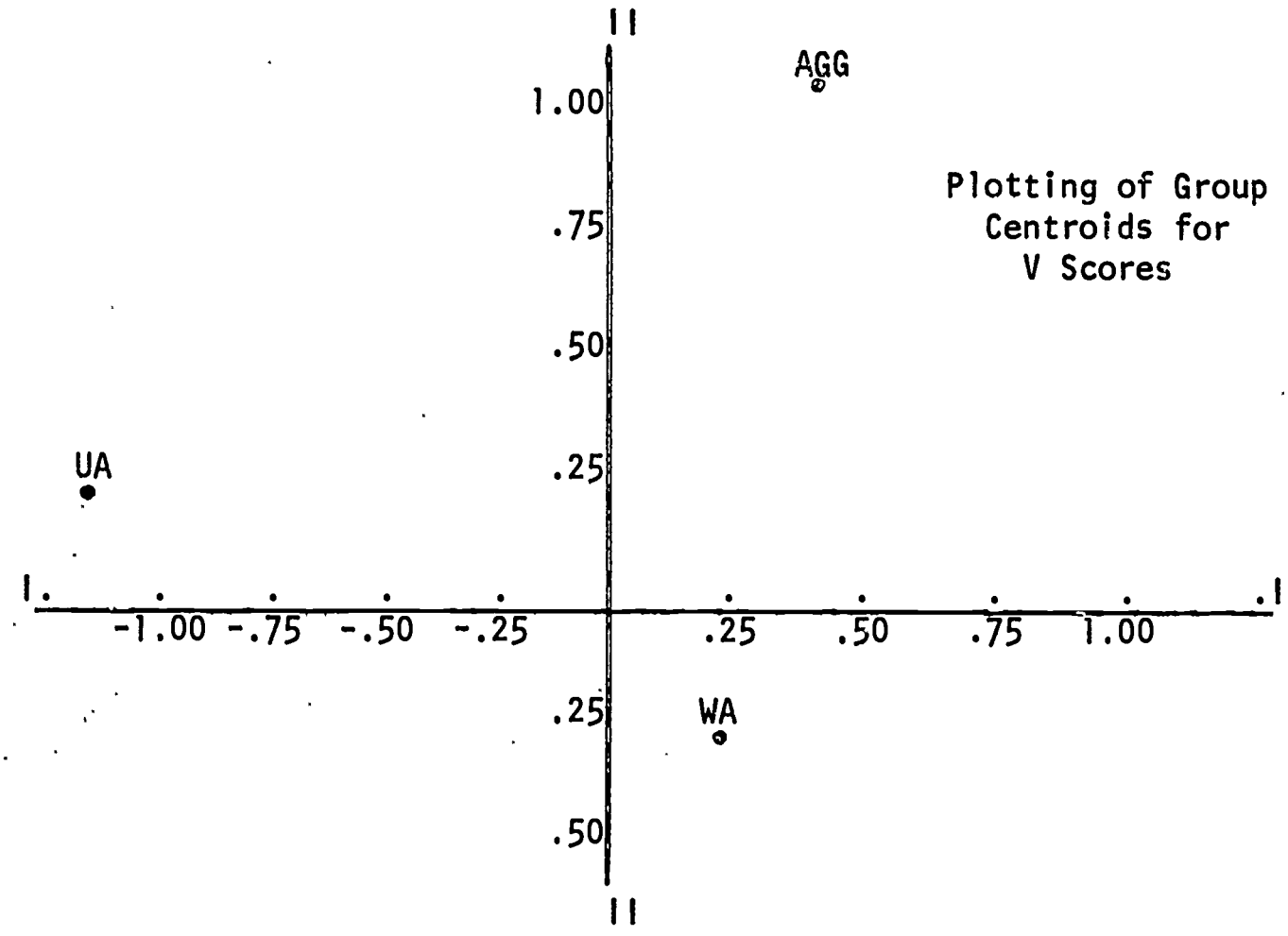


CHART 5:2

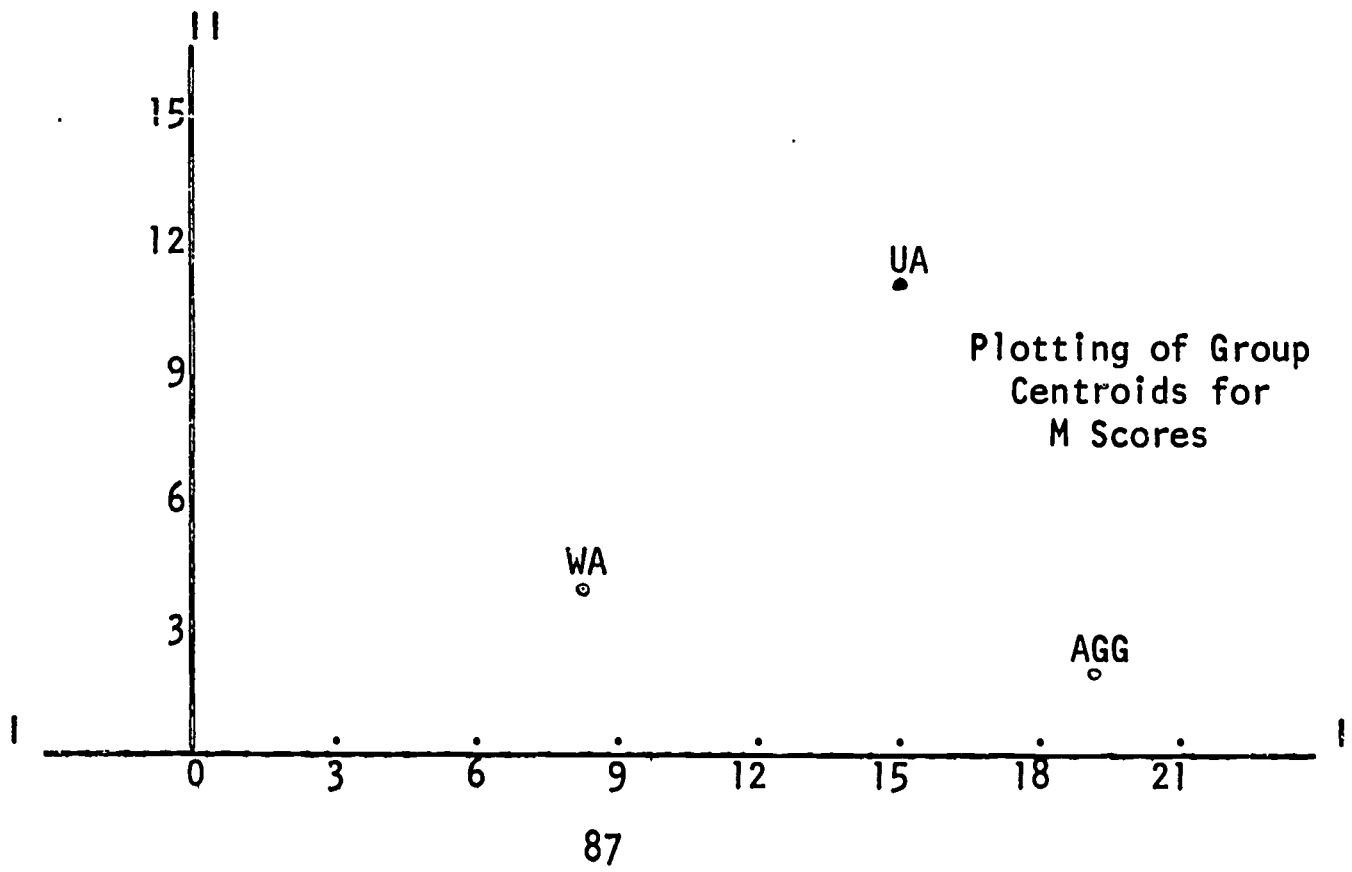


Table 5:13 shows the group centroids for D scores. The plot pattern in Chart 5:3 is essentially identical to that of the M scores, reflecting as before the effects of summing V and M to produce the D score.

Multiple Discriminant Function Analysis

CHART 5:3

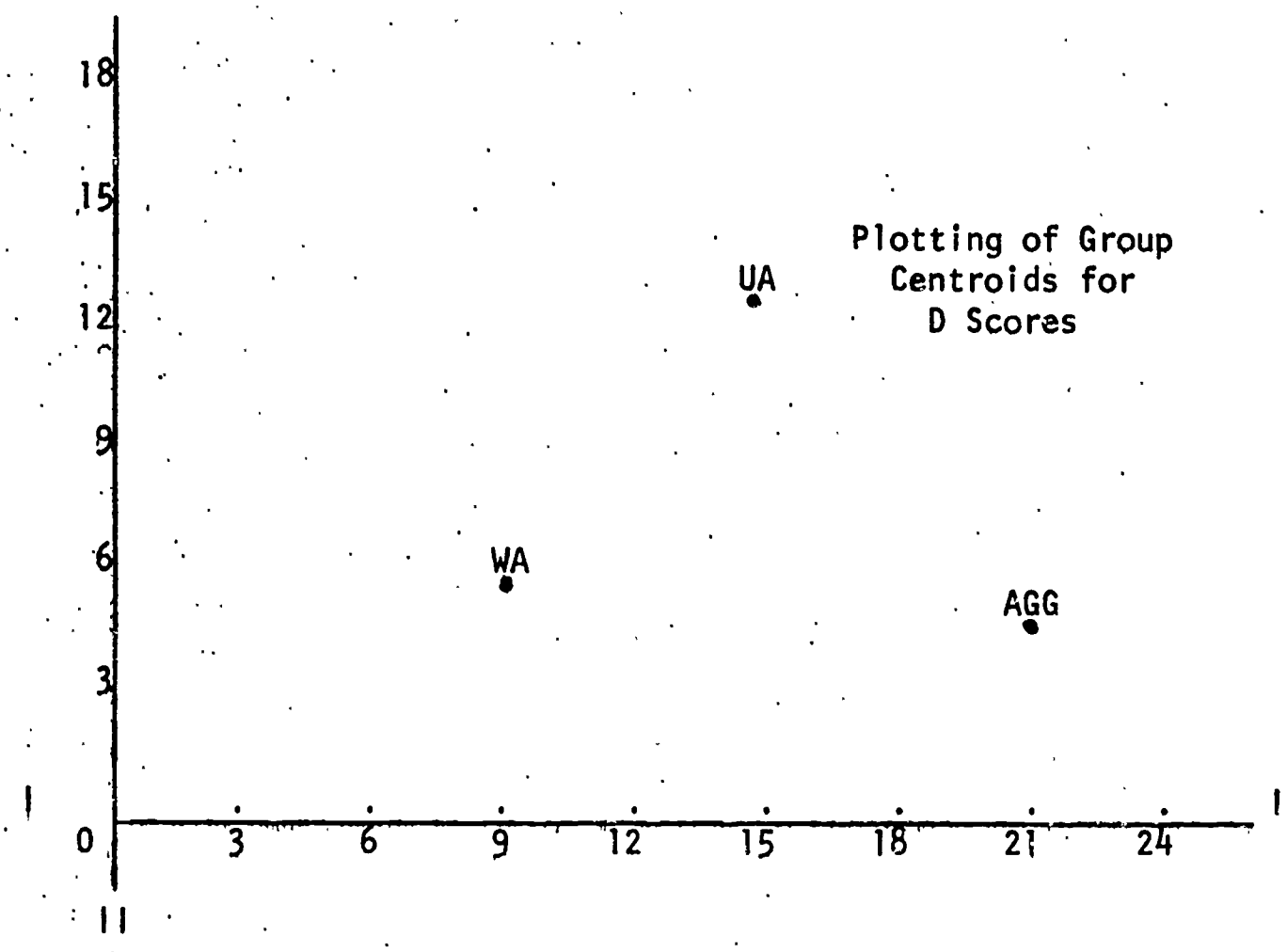


TABLE 5:13

D Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus on Importance

Group Centroids and Dispersion in 2-Space

Group Centroids

	Function 1	Function 2
AGG	20.285	4.474
WA	7.979	6.008
UA	13,806	13.679

Dispersion in 2-Space

	Function 1	Function 2
AGG	101.805	9.052
	9.052	140.178
WA	35.374	-9.335
	-9.335	44.680
UA	48.618	17.238
	17.238	124.832

FOOTNOTES

1 Ronald Fisher, "The Use of Multiple Measurements in Taxonomic Problems," Annuals of Eugenics, 1936, Vol. 7, p. 179-188.

2 Joseph Bryan, "A Method for the Exact Determination of the Characteristic Equation and Latent Vectors of a Matrix with Applications to the Discriminant Functions for More Than Two Groups," Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Graduate School of Education, (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1950).

Joseph Bryan, "The Generalized Discriminant Function: Mathematical Foundation and Computational Routine," Harvard Educational Review, 1951, Vol. 21, p. 90-95.

3 William Cooley and Paul Lohnes, Multivariate Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences, New York: John Wiley, 1962.

4 J. Rulon, "Distinctions Between Discriminants and Regression Analysis and a Geometric Interpretation of the Discriminant Function," Harvard Educational Review, 1951, Vol. 21, p. 80-90.

5 Cooley and Lohnes, op.cit.

6 Ibid.

7 C. R. Rao, Advanced Statistical Methods in Biometric Research, New York: John Wiley, 1952.

8 Bryan, op.cit.

CHAPTER 6

THE ISSUE OF IMPORTANCE RATING

IMPORTANCE AS AN ALTERNATIVE

The analyses reported thus far have dealt with intra-family consensus measures, and the relation of those scores, in eleven content areas, to a criterion of socialization effectiveness. Implicit in this kind of design is the notion that the transmission of behavioral expectations, examples and guides is negatively affected by the presence of dissensus in the family. The original research questions posed for this part of the study have been answered. The analysis to this point has indicated that significant differences do exist between group mean centroids of consensus on the eleven scales, measured by M scores. Between-position consensus significantly discriminates the criterion groups, and three scales in particular, School Expressive, School Participative and Society Normative, show high contributions to the discriminations.

Since the data for the consensus analysis have been variances of responses by parents and sons, an additional question can be raised concerning the extent to which mean importance ratings themselves, rather than degree of agreement on importance, are different for the three groups. Clearly, an alternative explanation for low socialization effectiveness can be couched in terms of degree of subscription to the values and standards for adolescent behavior. If parents see little importance attached to a set of values and standards, they are probably

less likely to utilize them as elements in their socialization of the child. If, simultaneously, the external criteria of socialization are determined even in part by adherence to these same values and standards, the result is a child categorized as "poorly socialized."

In terms of the present study, this relationship is especially clearcut, since school behavior is a great share of the criterion development, and school related behaviors both directly and indirectly occur frequently in the interview schedule. It is quite relevant to examine the question of importance ratings as an alternative to consensus. The remainder of this chapter will consist of an analysis of importance scores paralleling the techinques used with consensus scores.

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS OF IMPORTANCE

As outlined in the previous paragraphs, mean importance ratings on the eleven scales can be analysed in a manner similar to the consensus scores, making use of the same research questions. Here we may ask if differential assignment of importance occurs between the three criterion groups, and if a pattern of scores on the eleven content areas can be found which will enable a significant discrimination between the criterion groups. As before, we can also determine the scales which contribute the most to the discrimination.

In Tables A-16 to A-24, intercorrelations among V, M and D scores and Importance ratings are shown, for the three criterion groups. For the most part, correlation between the consensus scores and importance ratings is low or moderate. Consensus on Importance and importance rating seem to be two distinct measures. If the three criterion groups are examined

separately, somewhat different patterns appear, looking only at the three scales selected as heavy contributors to the discrimination in Chapter 5. (Society Normative, School Participative and School Expressive). Whereas the Well-adjusted group show only one significant correlation value out of 33, the Aggressives have 12 and the Under-achievers 18. These values are underlined in Tables A-17, A-20 and A-23. This finding suggests that the importance scores might provide clear discriminations between the criterion groups, through an analysis similar to that done for consensus scores in Chapter 5. The following sections describe the discriminant function analysis for importance ratings.

The multiple discriminant function analysis of importance ratings was conducted in a manner identical to that which has already been described. Table A-25 shows the means and standard deviations of importance ratings for the eleven scales. Tables A-26 through A-29 show the intercorrelations among scales on importance. The univariate F ratios for all scales are shown in Table 6:1. Of the eleven scales, eight show significance at the one percent or five percent level. One of the non-significant scales shown in Society Normative, which was notable in the consensus analysis. From these data, it seems clear that importance rating will provide a between-group discrimination of interest.

The actual multivariate analysis of importance ratings is shown in Table 6:2. Each of the two eigenvalues accounts for approximately the same percentage of the trace as in the consensus analysis. The value of the trace is much larger, however, indicating greater overall

TABLE 6:1

Importance Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Mean Ratings on Importance

Univariate F's

Scale	Sums of Squares		Mean Squares		F	p
	Within	Between	Within	Between		
SOC INS	14.81	.10	.182	.05	3.64	-
SOC NOR	12.35	.89	.152	.45	2.96	-
SOC EXP	10.20	.84	.126	.42	3.34	<.05
SCH PAR	14.26	1.97	.176	.98	5.57	<.01
SCH EXP	26.99	11.69	.333	5.84	17.54	<.01
SCH NOR	10.60	1.56	.131	.78	5.95	<.01
SCH INS	14.61	7.25	.180	3.62	20.11	<.01
FAM PAR	16.32	1.40	.201	.70	3.48	<.05
FAM NOR	9.05	.70	.112	.35	3.12	=.05
FAM EXP	5.29	.49	.065	.25	3.84	<.05
ASP	7.80	.27	.096	.14	1.45	-
df	81	2				

TABLE 6:2

Importance Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Mean Ratings on Importance

Coefficients of the Discriminant Functions, as Latent Vectors

Scale	Normalized Vectors 1	Normalized Vectors 2	Scaled Vectors 1	Scaled Vectors 2
SOC INS	-.25	-.30	-.95	-1.14
SOC NOR	.01	.22	.02	.79
SOC EXP	-.25	.08	-.79	.26
SCH PAR	-.05	.32	-.18	1.21
SCH EXP	.32	.20	1.67	1.06
SCH NOR	-.37	-.57	-1.22	-1.85
SCH INS	-.41	.54	-1.56	2.05
FAM PAR	-.01	.18	-.04	.74
FAM NOR	.16	-.15	.49	-.47
FAM EXP	.45	-.14	1.04	-.31
ASP	.49	-.17	1.36	-.46

Eigenvalues	Percent of Trace
λ_1 = .8178447	69.48
λ_2 = .3592302	30.52

Trace = 1.17707

Sum of Eigenvalues = 1.17707

Wilk's Lambda - .4047

Fisher's F for 22 and 142 df = 3.68

$p < .01$

variability in importance scores. As a measure of the effectiveness of group separation, the value of Wilk's Lambda is quite small, and the Fisher's F clearly shows its significance. The obtained F ratio, with 22 and 142 degrees of freedom, is 3.68, which is significant beyond the one percent level.

The Rao test for the significance of the discriminations provides a different result than the previous analyses with consensus scores. As shown in Table 6:3, both Function One and Two are significant.

TABLE 6:3

Chi-Square Approximations,
Significance of the Discriminant Functions,
Importance Ratings

Function	Eigenvalue	df	X^2	p
1	.8178	12	46.05	< .001
2	.3592	10	23.63	> .01

CONTRASTS OF LATENT VECTORS

If both discriminant functions are significant, it follows that some selection must be made between them so that conclusions which are comparable to the consensus analyses can be drawn. Since Function One accounts for more than twice the discriminating power than does Function Two, it would seem that its selection is indicated. For clear contrast between the scaled latent vectors of discriminant coefficients, however, Table 6:4 should be consulted. It shows the two latent

vectors "conventionalized" to indicate the relative contribution of each scale to the group separation, with each vector element represented as a proportion of the largest element.

TABLE 6:4

Conventionalized Scaled Vectors of
Discriminant Coefficients, Importance Ratings

SOC INS	SOC NOR	SOC EXP	SCH PAR	SCH EXP	SCH NOR	SCH INS	FAM PAR	FAM NOR	FAM EXP	ASP	Function
-.57	.01	-.47	-.11	1.00	-.73	-.93	-.02	.29	.62	.81	1
-.56	.38	.13	.59	.52	-.90	1.00	.36	-.23	-.15	-.22	2

In terms of Function One, three scales exceed the .75 cutting point established previously: School Expressive, School Instrumental and Aspirations. School Normative is near the cutting point, with a weight of -.73. The significant Function Two, accounting for 30 percent of the trace, shows a quite different pattern, with low-moderate values on nine of the eleven scales. School Normative and School Instrumental show the only high weights. What is of most interest in Table 6:4, however, is its contrast with the parallel information concerning M scores, as shown previously in Table 5:10. Table 6:5 shows the Function One weights for both analyses, for comparison.

The noteworthy scale weights on each function have been circled to make the contrasts more apparent. It is clear that with the exception of a single scale, School Expressive, the mean importance ratings and intra-family consensus as measured by M scores are distinct phenomena.

Had there been conspicuous overlap, meaningfulness of the consensus analysis could have been questioned, since the differentials between groups there might have been due to the underlying differences in overall ascribed importance.

TABLE 6:5

Conventionalized Scaled Vectors of the
Discriminant Function 1
M Scores and Importance Ratings

SOC INS	SOC NOR	SOC EXP	SCH PAR	SCH EXP	SCH NOR	SCH INS	FAM PAR	FAM NOR	FAM EXP	ASP	
-.57	.01	-.47	-.11	1.00	-.73	-.93	-.02	.29	.62	.81	Imp
-.08	.82	-.61	.84	1.00	.37	-.28	-.07	.60	.05	.30	M Scores

TWO DIMENSIONS OF IMPORTANCE

A plotting of the group centroids of importance ratings can aid in the interpretation of the discriminant analysis of those values. Since both orthogonal functions were significant, it is especially necessary to examine the centroids to determine if the two sets of weights separate the groups in meaningful ways. Table 6:6 shows the group centroid matrix, and Chart 6:1 shows the importance rating centroids plotted in two-dimensional space.

TABLE 6:6

Importance Scores

Discriminant Function Analysis:
Intra-Family Consensus Study

Group Centroids and Dispersions in 2-Space

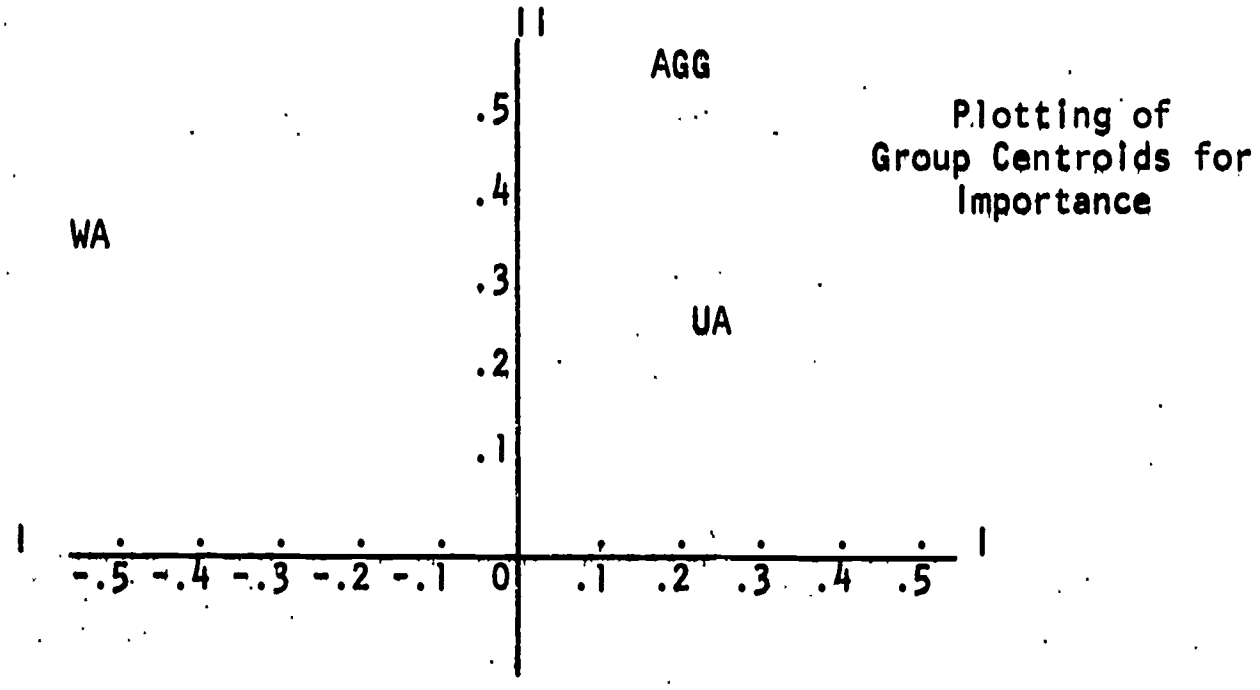
Group Centroids

	Function 1	2
AGG	.11986	.54900
WA	-.52538	.32979
UA	.12012	.24319

Dispersion in 2-Space

	Function 1	2
AGG	.0685	-.0130
	-.0130	.0302
WA	.1066	.0133
	.0133	.0454
UA	.0413	-.0244
	-.0244	.0542

CHART 6:1



The plotting of centroids above clearly shows striking differences between the groups, in terms of both Function One and Two. Measured on the Function One axis, the Aggressives and Under-achievers are about equal, while the Well-adjusted group lies far out. As represented in this two-dimensional space, the Well-adjusted have a significantly lower mean importance centroid than the other two groups. The original data on importance ratings were such that low values indicate high importance and vice versa. We can conclude, therefore, that the heavily weighted scales on Function One are those on which the Well-adjusted families ascribe greater importance than either the Aggressive or Under-achiever families.

An examination of Function Two reveals a pattern in which the Aggressive families are significantly differentiated from the Well-adjusted Under-achiever combination. Recalling again the direction of the original ratings, this means that the Aggressive families have ascribed lower importance than the other two groups on the scales represented by sizeable weights on Function Two.

Considering only the four highest weighted scales on Function One, an interesting relation of content to criterion can be discerned. The Well-adjusted families ascribe higher importance to the son's behavior in the three school areas, representing social-emotional relations, goal achievement and rule conformity (School Expressive, School Instrumental, and School Normative scales). As well, they ascribe high importance to qualities which they wish the son to possess in the future (Aspiration scale). These results support a position that the son has been socialized to achieve the very kinds of qualities and relationships that are necessary for effective integration into the school as a social system. In short, it appears that the Well-adjusted boy is a member of this category because he has been explicitly taught the values and standards for behavior which parallel the requirements of the school. His family socialization environment, in other words, is oriented toward providing the explicit bases for behaviors which are acceptable within the school milieu. If the family socialization process can be thought of as being adequate or inadequate for its production task, this would be the crucial area. The family which provides the son with a value base which is in harmony with requirements of the school will be aiding him in his conformity task.

A CHOICE OF CONCEPTS

At this point in the analysis of importance, it is obvious that the concept of differential subscription to values and standards for the son's behavior is valid for differentiating families whose sons have demonstrated different types of school adjustment. Statistically, the results here are

more striking than those in the analysis of intra-family consensus. However, the design of research requires a choice of concepts, and importance has been dealt with as a side issue to the original questions concerning consensus. Logically, it seems that the first question one would ask about intra-family communication of values, standards and behavior expectations concerns the consensus issue. Given knowledge of consensus, then, an analysis of mean importance rating is obvriously in order. Following this model, the question of differential importance rating will be left for further work beyond the scope of this part of the report.

PART II

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS OF PROBLEM PERCEPTION

INTRODUCTION

The material presented in the previous chapters of this report indicate that a complex relationship holds between intra-family consensus and school adjustment. In the analyses reported thus far, the emphasis has been upon ratings of importance of the content matter or issue of an item, as perceived by the two parents and the son. In this chapter, we deal with the relationship between the level of consensus on importance and the perception of problems encountered in the socialization process. We are concerned then, with the interplay of two attributes of the family organization - consensus and problem perception - and their relationship to the effectiveness of the organization in fulfilling its basic production task; in this case, the organization is the family and the product is the "well-socialized" child, whose behavior conforms to criterion requirements.

The three specific research questions treated in this chapter are: (1) how is the overall family consensus on role prescriptions for a child related to the successful socialization of that child, as measured by conformity of school behavior; (2) how is family perception of problems concerning these role prescriptions related to the successful socialization of a child? and (3) what, if any, is the relationship between family consensus on prescriptions for a child and the family's perception of problems regarding those prescriptions?

DATA AND PROCEDURES

In the previous chapters, consensus has been presented as a profile of values, on eleven scales related to the content divisions of the interview schedule. In this chapter, our concern is with an overall expression of consensus, such that a family can be classified or arrayed with other families in terms of degree of consensus.

The data for this chapter are the item ratings on Importance and Problems, as described earlier in Chapter 6.

During the interview, mothers, fathers and sons were requested to give two separate ratings on five-point scales for each item; first indicating the importance of the item to the respondent, and second, indicating the extent to which the respondent felt the item constituted a problem to anyone in the family. For example, parents were presented with the question: "How important is it to you that your son obey even those laws and rules which most people ignore?" then, "To what extent is this matter a problem to anyone in your family?" Sons were asked, "How important is it to you that you obey even those laws and rules which most people ignore?" and then, "To what extent is this a problem to anyone in your family?"

The data so gathered consisted of 220 separate ratings and were used to define, for each person, indices called Total Assigned Importance and Total Problem Score. The nature of the instrument was such that exactly comparable data were obtained from each person, and thus it was possible to compare the scores of mothers, fathers, and sons within each family. In addition to the individual Total Assigned Importance Scores and Total Problem Scores, Total Family Difference Scores were obtained for

both importance and problem scores. These scores were developed by combining, within a family, the inter-personal differences in the ratings on each item. This score is the reverse of a consensus measure. For any family, then, the larger the score, the greater the differences in ratings on importance or problems. In this chapter, the Total Family Difference Score for importance ratings is used as the measure of intrafamily dissensus on importance.

ANALYSIS

To pursue the research questions posed earlier, the data were subjected to analyses using a median test, intended to evaluate the distribution of each variable around the grand median of all scores. The null hypothesis in this type of test may be stated, "If no relationship exists, approximately half of each group will lie on each side of the grand median." Following the determination of the grand medians for each set of data, the tabulations of each group, Chi-Square was used to evaluate the degree to which the cell frequencies represent departures from what might be expected by chance. For these data then, each computation resulted in a 2 x 3 table, consisting of a cross-tabulation of the criterion groups (Aggressives, Well-Adjusteds, and Underachievers) relative to the grand median (i.e., above or below the median.

FINDINGS

Turning back to the three questions under consideration, the following results were obtained: first, concerning the relationship between family consensus on role prescriptions and successful socialization as

as indicated by school performance and adjustment, a positive relationship was found. The higher the family consensus, the greater the likelihood that the adolescent son was well-adjusted in school. The underachieving boys came from families with less consensus, and the aggressive group came from families with the least family consensus.

TABLE 7:1

Intrafamily Consensus in Relation to Son's School Success

	AGG	WA	UA	
Above Median	16	17	4	37
Below Median	0	27	9	36
	16	44	13	73

$X^2 = 20.25$, $p < .001$.

Second, the relationship was examined between family perception of problems concerning role prescriptions for the son and the son's school success. Here, it was found that high problem perception was positively related to poor performance and adjustment at school. Families of the aggressive boys perceived the most problems, the underachieving boys' families perceived fewer problems, while the families of the well-adjusted group perceived the fewest problems of all.

TABLE 7:2

Problem Perception in Relation
To Son's School Success

	AGG	WA	UA	
Above Median	15	77	25	117
Below Median	33	57	26	117
	48	134	51	234

$X^2 = 9.752$, $p < .01$.

These two sets of findings are in accord with notions about organization characteristics associated with effectiveness in general, and in particular, notions about family attributes which are desirable because associated with successful child-rearing. It is not surprising to find that "well-socialized" children come from families with less disagreement and fewer perceived problems. Why these two conditions are related to successful socialization is, of course, a more complicated issue, and the causal direction cannot be taken for granted. It is plausible to reason that family disorganization jeopardizes the effectiveness of a family's socialization efforts, hence preceding and causing the son's later difficulties. But it is just as reasonable to argue the converse, that the son's school difficulties cause family disruption, generate disagreements, and result in family problems. Only longitudinal studies can clarify these cause-effect ambiguities, and on the basis of the present study, it is possible only to indicate the close relationship between the effectiveness of socialization and certain features of family organization.

But satisfying as these findings may be, by virtue of their consistent direction and their support of common-sense observations, they may not be taken at face value. More detailed analyses of the data revealed that problem perception was related to family position in a variety of ways. The fathers of aggressive and underachieving boys, it was found, perceived many more family problems concerning the son than did fathers of well-adjusted boys. The mothers and sons, however, were not so differentiated, for among them problem perception was not related to school success.

TABLE 7:3

Family Position and Problem Perception

	Mother				Father				Son			
	AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA	
Above Median	5	25	9	39	5	29	6	39	8	21	10	39
Below Median	11	20	8	39	12	16	11	39	8	24	7	39
	16	45	17		16	45	17		16	45	17	
	$X^2 = 2.85$				$X^2 = 9.21$				$X^2 = 0.0$			

If, as Parsons[1] and Zelditch[2] suggest, fathers are instrumental leaders in the family and mothers are expressive leaders, it is likely that fathers would be more concerned about the son's performance outside the family and more attuned to future consequences of school failure. The mother, as

expressive leader, might be more interested in the son's emotional development and interpersonal relations; or, as a woman, she might be simply less sensitive than the father to the extrafamily problems faced by the growing boy. An alternative explanation may be that the mothers as a group are more protective of their sons than are fathers, and therefore are less willing to disclose their feelings concerning problems involving the sons' behavior. That the sons are not differentiated into the three groups on the basis of problem perception may be due to the fact that adolescents as a group share many problems which transcend and eclipse differences between them based on school-related problems.

Turning now to the third question concerning the relationship between these two organizational variables, it was found that there is no correlation between family consensus and perception of problems ($r = -.02$) as measured in the present study.

This finding is perhaps the most interesting of all, for it contradicts the theoretical position[3] and everyday notion that disagreement within an organization results in discomfort on the part of the members. The finding may be explained in several ways. For example, it may be the case that families are unaware of the extent of their disagreements, due to the lack of communication on these matters. Or, perhaps they are aware of their disagreements but unperturbed by them, because of little affective involvement in family life. On the other hand, families may be aware of their dissensual views, concerned about this state of affairs, but have accommodated to it - by agreeing to disagree, so to speak. Another type of accommodation would be the mutual identification of these as problems and

the establishment of a group effort to cope with them as well as possible. Such a course could give rise to high morale in any organization. In these latter instances, families might have very clear satisfactory communications about their dissensus and this would, in large part, account for their equanimity about it.

ANALYSIS BY SUB-SCALES

In Chapter 3 it will be recalled, the eleven scales imbedded in the primary interview schedule were described. At this point, we may examine the relationship between problem perception and school adjustment across all eleven scales. This will allow us to ascertain the extent to which differential seriousness of ascribed behavior problems in each scale area is related to the criterion of school adjustment.

For each item, the problem ratings were arranged so that a low numeric value indicated high problem value. By summing the ratings for an individual, then, within scales, eleven values could be determined per person, serving as a profile of perceived seriousness of problems in each of the eleven scale areas.

Since the analysis is between <u>individuals</u> rather than families, a larger number of subjects may be included than in the intra-family data presented thus far. Table 7:4 shows the N for each category of respondent.

TABLE 7:4

Sample Size, by Family Position and Adjustment Category

POSITION	AGG	WA	UA
Mothers	29	67	31
Fathers	19	50	20
Sons	23	65	28
Totals	71	182	79

Total Number Interviewed = 332

For each scale, the individuals' scores were arrayed by magnitude. A median test was applied, to evaluate the hypothesis that the distribution of adjustment category membership was unrelated to the median of scores. A 2 x 3 chi-square table was developed, for each family position, for each scale.

The resulting chi-square values allow us to examine the relationship of perceived seriousness of problems and criterion category membership. A significant chi-square value would indicate that the criterion groups are not randomly distributed around the grand median of problem scores, for a given scale and family position. Table 7:5 shows the results of this test.

TABLE 7:5

Chi-Square Values for Median Test
Perceived Problem Seriousness Score vs. Adjustment Category
By Family Position

Scale	Mother	Father	Son
SOC INS	10.424	23.314	1.984*
SOC NOR	12.015	10.889	6.693
SOC EXP	12.097	13.934	2.884*
SOC PAR	12.949	14.986	12.827
SCH EXP	42.210	28.361	34.331
SCH NOR	10.787	11.173	2.905*
SCH INS	18.625	16.953	3.511*
FAM PAR	3.467*	10.889	.325*
FAM NOR	15.140	11.178	1.368*
FAM EXP	35.999	27.123	25.619
ASP	19.693	21.135	2.905*

* Not significant at .05 level, 2 df.

From the results shown above, it is clear that with only eight exceptions out of thirty-three, significant relationships hold between school adjustment category and perception of problem seriousness. In twenty-six of the thirty three comparisons, the Well-adjusted group was opposed to the Aggressive and Underachievers, as shown in the

tables in the Appendix. From these data, the, we can clearly see that for all family positions, the perceived seriousness of problems is lower for persons from families with a Well-adjusted son.

It is interesting to note that seven of the eight non-significant contrasts occur for the son. (See Table 7:5) This suggests that the sons share more common perceptions of problem seriousness with each other, while the parents share among themselves. Such findings suggest a position of peer group homogeniety and inter-generational heterogeniety of perception.

As shown in Table 7:5, the six largest chi-square values all fall in School Expressive and Family Expressive areas, suggesting the greatest differences in problem perceptions lie in the sphere of interpersonal relationships within the family and the school.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS - PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL

The findings presented in this chapter may be viewed as offering support to W. I. Thomas's[4] admonition to the sociologist always to watch closely the actors' definition of their situation. Obviously, disagreement will have different meanings in different organizations, and families are no exception. Tolerance limits for dissensus may be expected to vary between families, and perception of problems to vary between parents and children and between men and women.

On these grounds, it is appropriate to question those studies of family interactions based on such methods as "revealed difference" techniques,[5] in which members are requested to resolve their disagreements

on particular matters. Experimental domestic problem-solving techniques such as these do not take into account the possibility that disagreements which were unrevealed prior to the interviews may not constitute genuine issues in the eyes of the participants. Such techniques may be introducing into an organization artificial "difficulties" which are a function of the investigator's presence, preconceptions and purposes.

The theoretical implications of this last finding seem especially worthy of comment. Psychologists have recently suggested the need for revision of the well-established assumption that an organism's natural condition is the absence of tension, and that the quest for a state of equilibrium motivates much behavior. Tension-reduction models - for example, cognitive dissonance theory and frustration-aggression explanations - have difficulty in accounting for such findings as those of McClelland[6] concerning expectations of affective chance, Harlow's[7] regarding exploratory behavior and curiosity, and the series of sensory deprivation experiments,[8] all of which point to the absence of stimulation as neither natural nor even necessarily desirable.

Here we may find analogies relevant to organization theories. The work of Heider,[9] Asch,[10] Newcomb,[11] and Homans,[12] among others, indicates the movements of groups toward a balanced condition. But this notion may prove to be in need of refinement. It may be that organizations, as well as organisms, are not necessarily most comfortable for the members without some degree of tension, provided perhaps by intermember dissensus. It may be that there are optimum degrees of

balance and discord for groups as for people. In other words, equilibrium might be better treated as a variable rather than as a uniformly desirable, natural, and final condition for groups. The question is an intriguing one, concerning which only speculations can be made at present. Certainly it serves to demonstrate the family as an organization which has formal as well as primary characteristics, and by so doing, emphasizing its similarities with other kinds of groups instead of viewing it as an entity unique unto itself.

FOOTNOTES

1 Talcott Parsons and Robert F. Bales, Family, Socialization and Interaction Process, Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1955.

2 Morris Zelditch, "Role Differentiation in the Nuclear Family," in Family, Socialization and Interaction Process, op. cit., pp.307-351.

3 Theodore M. Newcomb, "The Study of Consensus," in Sociology Today: Problems and Prospects, ed. by Robert K. Merton, et al., New York: Basic Books, 1959, pp.277-292.

4 W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, The Polish Peasant in America, New York: Alfred Knopf, 1927.

5 Fred L. Strodtbeck, "Husband-Wife Interaction Over Revealed Differences," American Sociological Review, 1951, Vol. 16, pp. 468-473.

6 Studies in Motivation, ed. by David C. McClelland, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955.

7 Harry F. Harlow, Margaret K. Harlow, and Donald R. Meyer, "Learning Motivated by a Manipulation Drive," Journal of Experimental Psychology, 1950, Vol. 40, pp. 228-234.

8 Sensory Deprivation, ed. by Philip Solomon, et al., A Symposium at the Harvard Medical School, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961.

9 F. Heider, "Attitudes and Cognitive Organization," Journal of Psychology, 1946, Vol. 21, pp. 107-112.

D. Cartwright and F. Harary, "Structural Balance: A Generalization of Heider's Theory," Psychological Review, 1956, Vol. 63, pp. 277-293.

10 S. E. Asch, "Effects of Group Pressure Upon the Modification and Distortion of Judgements," in Readings in Social Psychology, ed. by Eleanor E. Maccoby et al., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958, pp. 174-183.

11 Newcomb, op. cit.

12 George C. Homans, Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961.

CHAPTER 8

DIFFERENTIAL SOCIALIZATION TECHNIQUES

INTRODUCTION

The major concern of the present project is with adolescence as a crucial period in the socialization process. We base this concern on the fact that at this point in an individual's life cycle it is to be expected that a major transition will take place, Socializing agents begin to relinquish responsibility for him; he is expected to make choices which will have great significance for his future, and he is held, in part, accountable for his behavior and attitudes. The adolescent, to some extent, is judged by the same standards held for adults, and his success or failure can be estimated with some precision, for perhaps the first time in his life, by himself and others alike.

Relinquishment of responsibility for the adolescent by the socializing agents is only partial at this stage, and family, school and community still figure prominantly in his life - morally, legally, psychologically and economically - hence family, school and community must be taken into account in considering adolescent success or failure. It is toward this process by which the salient socializing agents set the definitions for behavior that this chapter is directed. Here we shall examine the techniques whereby the family as a socializing agent attempts to induce conformity in the behavior and attitudes of the adolescent. Using the interview schedule and data described previously,

we shall present fingings related to differential utilization of specific socialization procedures, as related to the criterion measure of school adjustment.

Throughout the analyses thus far, the family has been dealt with as a system of interrelated role actors. Two status levels are differentiated, parents and son, with the socialization task as major focus. In this process, the parents attempt to impart to their child the skills, values and knowledge which will make him willing and able to assume his expected place in subsequent life stages. In the perceptions of the parents, and perhaps also for others in the community, a failure anywhere along the line jeopardizes the childis chances for success in the remainder of his cumulative education process. It is the sequential and cumulative nature of socialization which makes correspondences between expectations held by the various socializing agent of such importance. Of equal importance to the expectations, however, are the procedures or techniques whereby the expectations are communicated and reinforced. In other words, the actions of the parents in attempting to induce the child to conform to certain required norms require as close scrutiny as the expectations themselves.

In earlier chapters of this report, we have seen that differential levels of agreement hold between parents and sons, depending on the area of activity, and the school adjustment category. Now we must examine the enforcement procedures, to determine how usage of certain techniques is related to school adjustment, and the degree of similarity of cross perception between parents as to their usage of methods or techniques to secure behavioral conformity in their son.

DATA AND PROCEDURES

The data for this chapter were gathered in what was termed Phase 2 of the interview. The Phase 1 material described thus far form the basis of this material, but additional steps were involved at the time of the interview to generate additional information for this analysis of socialization techniques.

As described in Chapter 3 of this report, the basic instrument consisted of 110 items describing objects, conditions and relationships which the son might have, do or be. Both parents and the son indicated their ratings of Importance, Occurrence, and Problem for each of the items, as incorporated in the eleven sub-scales. This need not be described again. The Phase 2 process, however, moved beyond this level of data, in the following manner.

At the conclusion of the first stage of interviewing, which lasted about 90 minutes, on the average, a short recess was declared, in order that the three interviewers could come together and compare the responses they received from the family members. The comparison process was greatly facilitated by means of the data recording sheets, which were printed on clear acetate, so that the responses of all three family members could be compared directly, without turning pages or manipulating the sheets. (cf. Chapter 3, page 40) The interviewer designated as team captain scanned the overlaid data sheets, determining which of the 110 items were problems, as indicated by any family member providing a 1 or 2 response on the Problem question. Simultaneously, a determination was made of those items on which any two or more family members disagreed in Importance

rating by more than adjacent categories on the five point scale. Item numbers were recorded for questions which were marked 1 or 2 on Problem rating or showed intra-family disagreement on importance. Frequencies of occurrence of these problems are shown in Table 8:1, by school adjustment.

TABLE 8:1

Frequency of Problem Perception,
By School Adjustment

	1-11	12-22	23-33	34-44	45-55	56-66	67-77	78-88	89-99	100-110	
AGG	0	0	0	10	36	82	84	41	26	0	279
WA	0	0	72	185	265	180	135	81	32	1	951
UA	0	0	12	18	59	73	60	29	13	0	264

The determination of problem items is an important step in the process of exploration into socialization techniques used by family members. In many previous studies, families are asked to indicate how they would handle hypothetical problems, and their procedures recorded as methods for inducing conformity to expectations. We felt in this study that is was necessary that each family be questioned with regard to <u>real</u> problem areas - those aspects of the son's behavior which did in fact and in perceptual process provide problems for the family members. In this way, although not all families would be making statements about the same items, or similar techniques, it would be possible to examine the differential kinds of problems perceived in families differentiated by the son's school adjustment.

In Table 8:2, frequency of problem perception is shown by sub-scale, for each criterion group. Correlations between the arrays are quite high, reflecting a similar pattern of problem nomination across scales, even though the raw frequency distribution in Table 8.1 indicates a much higher overall problem nomination for AGG families.

TABLE 8:2

Frequency of Problem Perception
By Sub-Scale and School Adjustment

	AGG	%	WA	%	UA	%
SOC INS	31	11.1	119	12.5	31	11.7
SOC NOR	23	8.2	52	5.5	24	9.1
SOC EXP	20	7.2	38	4.0	10	3.8
SCH PAR	21	7.5	82	8.6	26	9.8
SCH EXP	8	2.9	40	4.2	13	4.9
SCH NOR	17	6.1	75	7.9	21	8.0
SCH INS	16	5.7	64	6.7	20	7.6
FAM PAR	34	12.2	102	10.7	21	8.0
FAM NOR	35	12.5	120	12.6	33	12.5
FAM EXP	44	15.8	144	15.1	36	13.6
ASP	30	10.8	115	12.1	29	11.0
	279	(100)	951	(100)	264	(100)

Correlations: AGG-WA .89
AGG-UA .79
WA-UA .90

To accomplish the ends described above, the items to be utilized in the second portion of the interview were drawn from the body of items selected by the problem identification procedure described above. Each family yielded a number of problem items. The range of identified problem items was from 26 to 104, out of the 110 items in the schedule. It is interesting to note that the family with 104 problem items was that of a student body president of the high school, who was a member of the Well-adjusted group.

From the total number of problem items determined by the interviewer team captain, twenty were drawn by means of a table of random ordinal digits. This process was necessary because it was beyond the time capabilities of the interviewing procedure to incorpporate all the items for a given family. By using the random process, an unbiased selection could be used for further exploration of the socialization techniques used with each item or sub-scale.

After the determination of the twenty randomly chosen problem items was complete, the three-man interviewer team convened again and conducted the second phase of the interview. Here, as described above, the aim was to determine the kinds of techniques used in the family to induce conformity in the son's behavior to expectations of the parents. For each of the twenty items, four response modes were recorded, as follows:

For the parents -

1. What do you do about this problem?
2. What does your spouse do about it?
3. What should parents do about it?
4. What did your parents do about this when you were an adolescent?

For the son -

1. What does your mother do about this problem?
2. What does your father do?
3. What should parents do about this?
4. What will you do about this when you are a parent?

Responses to each of these sub-questions were coded on a special form, allowing the interviewers to record verbatim statements in each instance, or to probe for codeable responses. A portion of the form is shown in Appendix C, illustrating the manner in which the four response modes were recorded.

In order to allow processing of the raw data on socialization techniques used in the family, it was necessary to develop a coding scheme which would allow the many varied behavioral patterns to be incorporated into a categorical system for analysis. The coding system for this portion of the study was developed in conjunction with other members of the Youth Studies Center staff. A complete code book, showing the major and minor coding categories and their numeric codes, is presented in Appendix C.

An examination of the raw data for the task set in this chapter is clearly beyond the limits of practicality. With three family positions, three adjustment categories, 92 behavior codes, 110 items and four response modes, the resulting table of data would contain 364,320 cells! By reducing the scope of the behavioral codes to the eight major categories, we must still deal with a table of 7,920 cells for each response mode. It is clear, then, that although item-by-item contrasts might prove interesting, the size of the analytic task precludes this. This is not a drastic loss, in

another sense, as we are more concerned with strategies of socialization rather than specific techniques for specific circumstances. Strategies, for the purpose of this study, may be thought of as the "mix" of techniques used in the parents socializing process. These strategies may be examined by evaluating the distributions of usage for each of the eight major categories of the behavior codes, separately by school adjustment criterion group.

Our research question under examination here might be stated thusly: Within a given sub-scale, does the distribution of usage of socialization techniques, as coded in major categories, differ by school adjustment criterion group? Data relative to this question is shown in Table 8:3.

TABLE 8:3

Usage of Major Categories* of Socialization Techniques
By Sub-Scale and School Adjustment
(Percentage of Combined Parent Response)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Soc Ins	AGG	16	26	24	15	2	8	3	6
	WA	28	18	9	3	15	22	4	1
	UA	14	10	15	5	28	24	3	1
Soc Nor	AGG	11	21	31	26	3	1	4	3
	WA	32	12	21	13	18	4	0	0
	UA	28	14	15	10	12	8	10	3

* Refer to complete code in Appendix C for minor category breakdown with each major category. Percentage may not total 100.0% by rows exactly due to rounding.

TABLE 8:3 (CONTINUED)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Soc Exp	AGG	15	18	16	24	10	6	5	6
	WA	22	6	4	42	21	1	2	2
	UA	21	9	1	38	18	6	3	4
Sch Par	AGG	7	10	26	31	9	8	6	3
	WA	18	22	17	16	15	11	1	0
	UA	10	31	12	20	10	13	3	1
Sch Exp	AGG	8	16	22	14	12	8	12	8
	WA	25	3	8	5	31	20	4	4
	UA	11	7	11	3	40	18	4	6
Sch Nor	AGG	16	18	22	28	8	6	1	1
	WA	32	5	15	9	22	13	2	2
	UA	36	3	12	7	15	4	15	8
Sch Ins	AGG	12	18	31	26	2	1	6	4
	WA	26	15	29	8	12	10	0	0
	UA	30	22	18	3	4	14	6	3
Fam Par	AGG	18	15	21	18	10	6	8	4
	WA	31	2	26	1	21	12	5	2
	UA	14	18	16	4	20	21	6	1

TABLE 8:3 (CONTINUED)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Fam Nor	AGG	6	19	31	26	10	6	1	1
	WA	23	14	29	15	12	5	2	0
	UA	12	10	18	10	22	10	12	6
Fam Exp	AGG	26	19	18	6	10	7	8	6
	WA	10	5	3	3	42	37	0	0
	UA	10	4	6	1	38	41	0	0
Asp	AGG	15	18	17	12	18	14	4	2
	WA	19	10	5	6	33	21	3	3
	UA	21	25	10	1	26	3	10	4
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

The row frequencies in Table 8:3 represent the number of possible responses, computed as the number of parents in each row times 20, the number of items responded to in Phase 2 of the interview. Each cell entry represents frequency of mention of a major behavioral code, expressed as a percentage of the row total. Table 8:4 shows the accumulated usage of each category by the three school adjustment categories.

As indicated in Table 8:4, the WA parents utilized a preponderance of Code 1 (Structure, Explain and Teach), with additional heavy use of Code 5 (Personal-Familial) and Code 6 (Family Atmosphere, Environment, Family Communication). The UA parents show a modal usage of Code 6, with

considerable utilization of Codes 7 (Action Deferred or Delayed) and 8 (Action Not Designated, Nothing Done, Nothing Effective, Nothing Needs to be Done).

TABLE 8:4

Total Frequency of Usage of Major Code Categories Combined Sub-scales, by School Adjustment

Code	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
AGG	150	198	254	236	94	71	58	44
WA	266	122	166	121	242	156	23	14
UA	207	153	134	102	233	162	72	37

The AGG group, in contrast, uses Code 3 most heavily, with Code 4 (Use of Authority) close behind in frequency. The frequency of use for Codes 7 and 8 is notably higher for AGG than WA. In general, Table 8:4 shows the AGG parents using more direct techniques such as Authority and Rewards-Punishment, while the WA parents make more use of family interaction, indirect coercive procedures...The UA parents, as in other data cited earlier, tend to resemble the WA. A striking decline in direct Authority use shows here, however. There is also considerably more use of Codes 2 and 8 than with the WA group.

An examination of Table 8:3 reveals that, across sub-scales, noteworthy differences in techniques utilization are reported. In Chapter 5 of this report, contrasts of the two issues of the analysis, M scores on consensus and Importance Ratings were made. In that section, the three sub-scales most contributing to criterion group differences were School Expressive, School Participative and Societal Normative on M Scores, and

School Expressive, School Instrumental and Aspirational on Importance Ratings. Looking now at these same sub-scales, it can be seen that a somewhat similar pattern is retained, inasmuch as a considerable between-group difference in usage of techniques in these areas seems apparent. Combining the percentages of use on Codes 1 and 5 in the School Expressive sub-scale for WA and also for UA we see that these techniques account for more than half of the total for the sub-scale, while for the AGG the two codes account for only 20%. In contrast to the other two groups, the AGG parents' modal category is Code 3, (Rewards and Punishment) being used 22%. Codes 7 and 8, representing little or no action taken, total 20% in themselves. Since the School Expressive sub-scale concerns achievement of good interpersonal relations in the school environment, it would appear that the parents of the WA and also the UA try to influence their son's behavior by more subtle methods, not relying on authority procedures, but also not letting the matter go unattended.

Looking now at the data for the School Participative sub-scale in Table 8:3, we see that again the patterns differ considerably between the adjustment groups. Whereas the AGG parents again have Code 3 as the modal category, the other two groups stress Code 2 (Manipulations of the Situation). Many of the raw responses of WA parents in this category included mention of "using psychology" as a means for manipulating the goal, motivation standards of the son in order to encourage him in school attendance.

The third sub-scale noted as discriminating the groups in Part 1 of this report, Society-Normative, also shows sizable differences in usage by major code categories. This sub-scale, it will be remembered, deals with adherance to social rules and laws. The WA and UA parents tend to make use of less authoritarian methods than the AGG parents. Particularly low for the AGG parents is the use of Code 1, which includes the setting of examples and guidelines for social behavior. The AGG parents appear to stress an authoritarian approach, rather than one which allows the son to participate in an imitative model, using structures defined and illustrated by the parents' own behavior.

Two sub-scales that contributed most highly in differentiating the groups on Importance ratings, as reported in Part 1, are School Instrumental and Aspirations. On the first of these, the AGG parents make modal use of Codes 3 and 4. The WA and UA parents make sparse use of authority, as in Code 4, and involve Code 1 methods quite highly instead. It is interesting to note that in Code 3, (Rewards and Punishment), the UA parents report a low usage compared to the other groups. Since this sub-scale deals with achievement of school formal goals, such as grades, it would appear that the UA parents are not making use of almost "traditional" methods of inducing school achievement by setting rewards.

In overview, the data from Tables 8:3 and 8:4 indicate that considerable differences in application of socialization strategies exist between the three school adjustment groups. As cited in earlier

chapters, the WA and UA groups are not too dissimilar, although here a decrease in usage of goal setting and clarifing procedures can be seen for the UA group compared to the WA... Generally speaking, the AGG parents use much more in the way of authoritarian procedures than the other two groups. In addition, many of the AGG parents report little or no action is taken at all. The AGG parents do not seem to exploit the family organization as a socializing facility, with informal social control capabilities, but rather make use of procedures which attempt to elicit conforming behavior by means of direct "appeals" to conform, with use of direct methods such as punishment or other authoritarian techniques.

It would seem that dependence upon conformity inducement procedures that are oriented around the positional authority of the parent might be of low effectiveness in controlling behavior outside the family. The son is often not in direct contact with the parent, and is participating in social systems in which the parent does not or cannot be involved, as in the school or peer group. In these circumstances, the authoritarian parents' influence may be less than sufficient to maintain behavioral control in the face of competitive non-family influences. The parents who utilize the family organizational attributes, and the more subtle control mechanisms involved, may have a better chance of maintaining the external control. The data in this chapter do not allow difinitive statements in this matter, but clearly suggest that a fruitful line of further study would lie in an explication of these differential socialization perspectives.

As the data for this chapter were being organized for analysis, it became clear that additional work would be necessary to exploit the material to the fullest. The next chapter describes the ensuing conceptualization and analysis that resulted when additional funds were obtained through a small contract from the U.S. Office of Education.

CHAPTER 9

The material in this chapter constitutes a final report of a separate project, funded by the U. S. Office of Education (S-044), entitled "Consistency, Continuity and Congruence in Adolescent Socialization."

CHAPTER 9

CONTINUITY, CONSISTANCE AND CONGRUENCE

INTRODUCTION

The basic problem to which this chapter is addressed arose in the course of analyses of data described in previous chapters of this report.

These analyses together with an examination of relevent literature led the investigators to posit three potentially salient variables. The variables concern states of corresponding usage of socialization techniques by contemporary nuclear families and families extended in time in their handling of selected problems involving the son. Taken into account are states of correspondence: (1) between grandparents, parents and sons; (2) between mother and father; and (3) between the mother's upbringing or socialization history and the father's.

The first variable we have called Continuity, which is defined as the condition in which the grandparents, parents and son have employed (or, in the case of the son, anticipate employing) similar techniques in handling specific problems of socialization. The second, called Consistency, is defined as the condition in which the two parents employ similar techniques in handling specific problems. The third, Congruence, refers to similarities between the socialization histories or traditions of the two parents.

The relationship between each of these types of correspondence - temporal, inter-parental and historical - and the child's success in school, is the fundamental concern of this chapter. The extent to which these variables, considered separately and in combination, are associated with the acceptance of socially provided goals, is an issue pertinent to the objectives of all educational institutions - school and community, as well as the family.

Three specific tasks will be undertaken in the course of this investigation: first, operationalizing the three variables, using the data on 73 adolescent boys and their parents described earlier; second, ascertaining the relationship between these variables and the son's adjustment and achievement in school; and third, developing specific hypotheses concerning conditions of family correspondence which are related to successful socialization efforts.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

The degree of prior attention to these three variables is markedly uneven, in that what we here call Consistency has been heavily studied, Congruence almost completely overlooked, and Continuity usually considered over a period of only two generations, without assessing persisting family traditions for a more extended time span.

Inter-parental consistence has long been regarded as an essential ingredient to success in child training. Zelditch[1] and Parsons[2] have indicated the necessity for the parents to operate as a strong leadership coalition in the family, upholding and reinforcing

each other's authority. The desirability of consistence is largely taken for granted and the potential advantages of inconsistence seldom considered. Complete agreement between parents may result in the creation of an unassailable position which hampers the child's development of independence. Flugel[3] has suggested that the mother's greater protectiveness and possessiveness is often checked by the father, who subverts her authority as the children mature, and thus contributes to the self-liquidating requirement of the family. It may be that parental inconsistence has positive effects, if, for example, one parent is unreasonable about a particular issue, or at those periods in the child's development when it becomes appropriate for him to exercise initiative and judgment. One of the objectives of this investigation is an exploration of the beneficial as well as the detrimental effects of parental consistence in the rearing of children, as shown through relationship with school adjustment.

In another body of literature to which this study is related, it is held that family traditions are deteriorating in our society. Burgess and Locke[4], in their description of the transition of the American family from patriarchal and extended to demographic and nuclear, take this for granted. Dramatic outward changes in the form of American family life may disguise the persistence of family traditions over such a relatively short period of time as two generations. The findings of Aldous and Hill[5], in their study of three-generational continuity, suggest a certain imperviousness of family

patterns to external social trends. Much more is known about external pressures toward change such as child-rearing experts, social conditions, popular opinion, etc., than internal pressures toward continuity, one of which is undoubtedly the parents' own childhood experiences. The extent to which the parents recapitulated their own socialization histories in bringing up their children in the face of altered social environment is an issue with which the present investigation is directly concerned.

Davis[6] in his discussion of some of the intrinsic and extrinsic sources of conflict in parent-child relations, has also raised questions related to the continuity variable. He has emphasized the disruption of family traditions as a result of external factors such as rapid social change and technological advancement. Social mobility and parent-child membership in differing cultures, for example, are mentioned as external conditions which shatter intergenerational continuity by Green[7], Hansen[8], Herberg[9], and Eisenstadt[10]. Indeed, Mannheim[11] speaks of people in adjacent generations as members of different sub-cultures, so different are their experiences, in his opinion. Riesman[12] and Eisenstadt have seen some of these social conditions as resulting in a transference of the source of socializing influences from parents to peers, a situation which may give rise to widespread youthful deviance, particularly in the form of delinquency. This occurs, they suggest, because parents and their children come to share diminished common experiences, values and expectations. Hansen has commented that "What the father wishes to forget the grandfather

wishes to remember," implying that continuity may proceed in a pattern of alternating generations. Of course, such persistence of traditions would be invisible in the usual two generational studies of continuity. The investigation outlined here will shed light on all these issues: the patterns of cultural transmission from one generation to the next; the degree of continuity of child-training; and the kinds and extent of disruption which do in fact, occur.

A large portion of the information available on the continuity of socialization concentrates on the development of abberant and pathological behavior patterns. Kaufman, Peck and Tagiuri[13] have shown that extreme cases of role reversal leading to incest may take three generations to develop. Recently, many psychologists and psychoanalysts[14] among them Bell and Vogel, Henry and Warson, and Emch[15], have studied the processes whereby families select a particular child as a scapegoat who inherits problems which may go back to the parents' relationships with their parents.

The failure of the social sciences to take sufficient cognizance of the parents' relationships with their own parents has been called by Stringer and Pittman[16] "the unmeasured residual" in current research on parental attitudes and child behavior. The authors' indicate that the parent-grandparent relationship has an enormous effect on the parent-child relationship, and ask "In what ways and to what degrees do parents, the people in the middle, visit the sins of their parents upon their children and thus serve as (usually unwitting) relays for the transmission of surcharges from an older

generation to a younger?" Cass and Wessen[17] have recently remarked that "Idenfication with parental behaviors and attitudes as the main determinant of one's own later parental attitudes would produce the repetition from generation to generation of 'family attitudes' toward children - a pessimistic outlook in those families where the attitudes are such that they contribute little to society's well-being."

To what extent, then, are parental attitudes and skills "inherited"? Several studies, some even on animals, have suggested that in the absence of a history of maternal warmth, women have a very difficult time responding warmly to their own children. How much do parents recapitulate their own childhood experiences, how much do they make special efforts to provide what they lacked, how able are they to overcome the inadequacies of their own upbringing, passing on what is desirable and eliminating what is not? At the present the development and transmission of pathological and undesirable heritages is more clearly understood than the development and transmission of those which may be regarded as desirable and beneficial.[18] The present study will contribute to an understanding of the maintenance over time of positive as well as negative family heritages in child rearing practices.

The influence on marital adjustment of similarities and differences of individuals' backgrounds has long been of interest to social scientists. But to date, the question of whether "homogamy" or "complimentarity"[19] are pertinent to successful

child training as well as marital adjustment has been overlooked. If one of the parents has a history of punishment by frequent and strenuous beatings while the other was punished by more subtle expressions of disapproval, such discongruence might be expected to raise considerable difficulties in the couple's joint efforts in bringing up their own children. There is no reason to think that the effects of "mixed" backgrounds on marital success will be less pertinent than its effects on success in child-training.

SAMPLE AND PROCEDURES

The sample used here is the same as described earlier in this report. Since the analysis requires fully symetrical data, only families from which three complete interviews were obtained could be used. There were 84 of these, as described in Chapter 4. A few details of the data will be recapitulated here for purposes of review, and to emphasize the sources of specific information for this analysis.

Data were gathered for this study by means of the four-hour interviews with the boys, their mothers and fathers, as described previously.

In the first part of the interview, subjects were asked to respond to 110 items describing the son's behavior and attitudes in three social systems, the family, school and society. The items referred to four kinds of interactions in these systems, participative (the subject's presence or absence in the system), instrumental (goal-directed activities), expressive (interpersonal

activities) and normative (conformity and non-conformity to rules, laws and expectations). Concerning each item, the parents and sons were asked to make ratings on three five point scales: (1) the extent to which they felt the behavior referred to in the item was important; (2) the frequency with which the behavior occurred; and (3) the extent to which they felt the behavior constituted a serious problem to anyone in the family.

This procedure allowed for the location of two kinds of problems: (a) operational, defined as a large disagreement within the family on the importance of an item, and (b) perceptual, defined as a problem perceived as serious by one or more of the members of the family. Of the problems thus identified, twenty were selected at random and constituted the basis for the second half of the interview. This part of the interview was conducted with a detailed exploration of the family's method of handling these problems and constituted that portion of the data to be used in the present chapter.

Mothers, fathers and sons were asked: (1) how each parent dealt with the problems; (2) how they felt the problems should be dealt with ideally; and (3) in the case of the parents, how the grandparents had handled the problem and in the case of the son, how he anticipated handling it when he was a parent. The data thus gathered crossed two basic dimensions: time and family role positions.

As an example, let us assume that one of the items selected as a problem referred to the son doing his homework before going out. Both the mother and father were asked separately: (1) "What do you do about your son doing his homework before going out?" (2) "What does your spouse do about your son doing his homework before going out?" and (3) "What did your parents do about you doing your homework before going out when you were an adolescent?" Separately the son was asked: (1) "What does your mother do about you doing your homework before going out?" (2) "What does your father do about you doing your homework before going out?" and (3) "What do you think you will do about your son doing his homework before going out when you are a parent?"

The verbatim replies were coded into the following eight major categories as described more fully in Chapter 8: (1) Structuring, Explaining and Teaching; (2) Maniupulating the Situation; (3) Giving and Withholding (rewarding and punishing); (4) Using Primary or Formal Authority (displaying emotion or power); (5) Using Familial or Personal Attributes; (6) Using Aspects of Family Communication; (7) Deferring or Delaying Action; and (8) Making No Response.

The data thus gathered describe socialization techniques spanning three generations in time (grandparents - parents - son) and cutting across three contemporary family role positions (mother - father - son). These dimensions may be represented diagramatically:

POSITION

TIME	MOTHER	FATHER	SON
Generation I	My parents did ---	My parents did ---	
Generation II	I do --- My spouse does ---	I do --- My spouse does ---	My father does-- My mother does--
Generation III			As a parent I will do ---

At least three kinds of correspondence in socialization techniques are implicit in this scheme: (1) correspondence between the generations; (2) correspondence between the parents; and (3) correspondence between the parents' experiences with their own parents. We have called these three variables Continuity, Consistency and Congruence, respectively.

Continuity may be defined as a state of correspondence between the grandparents, parent and the son (distinguishing between mother and father). A technique is continuous when the grandparents, parent and son make the same or similar response to the same situation.

Consistency may be nominally defined as a state of correspondence between the mother and the father in their handling a specific problem. In short, the parents make the same or similar responses to the same situation.

Congruence may be defined as a state of correspondence between the experiences of each of the son's parents with his or her own parents. That is, when both the mother and father have had similar socialization histories or experiences.

The analysis of this information was in two steps: first, scores were calculated on the three variables for each family, indicating the extent of Consistency, Continuity and Congruence; and second, these scores were related to the son's achievement and adjustment group in school, which is the criterion variable employed in this investigation.

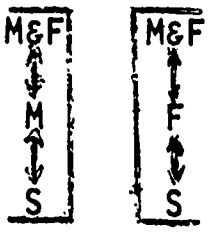
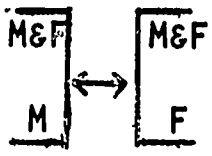
Consistency, Continuity and Congruence are operationally defined by the following procedures: Consistency is the number of instances in which the mother and father describe themselves as making the same or similar responses to the same stimuli (the family's problem in connection with the son). If, for example, the mother answers that in order to see to it that her son does not go out before doing his homework, she explains to him the importance of good grades and going to college, her reply is coded as falling into the first category, Structuring, Explaining and Teaching. If the father replies that he doesn't care whether or not his son does his homework and so does nothing about it, his reply is coded as falling into the last category, Making No Response. This situation does not constitute an instance of consistency, and so no score is given. If, however, the father replies that he tries to set an example for his son by taking care of his own work before enjoying himself, this would be an instance of consistency, because the reply would be coded as Structuring, Explaining and Teaching. Since his reply corresponds to the mother's, it would be scored as one increment of consistence. The complete codebook for these data is contained in the Appendix, and indicates how each response was categorized.

ANALYSIS

By summing the total number of consistency increments within each family, a total score was obtained. Sub-scores for consistency in problems pertaining to the areas of family, school and society and for behaviors which are participative, expressive, instrumental or normative behaviors also were obtained for finer analysis of the relationship between successful outcome, and area-specific and behavior-specific training techniques.

The same procedures were applied to Congruence and Continuity. Each instance of corresponding techniques used between members of different generations was counted as one increment of continuity and each instance of correspondence between techniques used by the mother's parents and techniques used by the father's parents was counted as an increment of congruence. These scores were also broken down by areas (family, school and society) and modes of behavior (participative, expressive, instrumental and normative), and related to the son's school adjustment and achievement.

A diagram of the relationships analyzed may be helpful (arrows represent lines of analysis):

GENERATION	CONSISTENCY	CONTINUITY	CONGRUENCE
Generation I Generation II Generation III	M ⟷ F		

As with previous chapters, our research question here concerns the nature and degree of differential between school adjustment criterion groups on sub-scale scores. As described above, the Consistence, Continuity and Congruence scores have been developed as frequencies of occurence of the operationally defined patterns of similarity of responses to each item.

TABLE 9:1

Mean Consistence (C_1), Continuity (C_2) and Congruence (C_3) Scores by Sub-Scale and School Adjustment

	AGG			WA			UA		
	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_1	C_2	C_3
SOC INS	3.2	3.1	4.2	4.3	4.7	5.4	4.1	4.5	3.9
SOC NOR	3.7	4.5	5.2	5.7	3.6	5.2	4.1	4.6	3.7
SOC EXP	1.1	4.5	4.3	2.1	3.7	3.0	2.9	2.1	2.6
SOC PAR	3.2	5.3	4.7	4.0	5.6	4.2	4.1	4.3	3.2
SCH EXP	1.1	2.4	2.7	2.2	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.0	1.4
SCH NOR	3.8	2.7	3.1	4.2	5.8	3.6	2.9	3.1	3.4
SCH INS	4.1	5.9	4.7	3.2	4.5	4.1	3.0	4.6	4.4
FAM PAR	4.2	2.8	5.2	6.4	6.9	6.7	5.1	4.1	5.4
FAM NOR	2.0	3.4	2.6	8.6	8.0	4.0	4.0	5.8	5.2
FAM EXP	3.3	3.7	3.8	6.3	8.1	8.8	3.5	3.7	2.4
ASP	3.1	3.9	4.4	5.5	5.0	4.1	6.0	4.2	5.3

Table 9:1 presents the mean scores on the three variables, for each sub-scale and the three criterion groups. Table 9:2 contains the correlations between the original scores on the three variables, with sub-scales combined but the criterion retained. In addition, the mean frequency of occurence, for each score, across all sub-scales per group is shown.

TABLE 9:2

Intercorrelations between Consistence (C_1), Continuity (C_2) and Congruence (C_3), by School Adjustment

AGG			WA			UA		
C_1	C_2	C_3	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_1	C_2	C_3
1.00	.19	.57	1.00	.79	.55	1.00	.53	.73
	1.00	.54		1.00	.67		1.00	.75
		1.00			1.00			1.00
	N=23			N=44			N=16	
Means.								
15.3	15.0	25.7	15.2	22.4	31.0	10.6	9.5	12.6

The most immediate indicator of difference between the groups, from Table 9:2, is the lower means for the AGG group. The value on C_1 (Consistence) is lower than the other two groups, indicating a lower degree of socializing procedure responses which were consistent between the two parents. The low

C_2 mean (Continuity) indicates that the AGG family reports many fewer techniques which represent a line of transmission from grandparents through parents to child. Comparing the WA and UA groups to these data, it can be seen that the WA families, particularly, utilize methods which demonstrate "traditions" of conformity inducement extending through the several generations. In these terms, the AGG family could be typified as a socializing agency which attempts to conduct its task with methods and techniques which are more or less isolated from the earlier experience of the primary agents, the parents. This might reflect a perception on the part of the parents that earlier methods have met with little success and new ones must be tried, or that the problem behaviors are new or unique are require new coping procedures.

A question can be raised as to the degree of relationships between the Consistence, Continuity and Congruence scores and the frequency of problem perceptions, as reported in Chapter 7. Table 9:3 show these data, which indicate a particularly interesting pattern. As is evident, the correlations for the WA and UA groups are quite high, from which one may conclude that as problem percpetions increase, the number of consistent, continuous and congruent socialization techniques used by a family also increases. With the AGG group, however, the correlations are virtually zero. From this we may conclude that the response of the AGG parents is distinct from that of the WA and UA parents. As increasing numbers of problems are perceived, they may not attempt to cope with the situation by utilizing previously used methods. Apparently they tend to select techniques

TABLE 9:3

Correlations between Consistence (C_1), Continuity (C_2) and Congruence (C_3), and Problem Perception by School Adjustment

AGG		WA		UA	
C_1 - P	.28	C_1 - P	.76	C_1 - P	.76
C_2 - P	-.14	C_2 - P	.81	C_2 - P	.80
C_3 - P	.13	C_3 - P	.70	C_3 - P	.72

on the basis other than past familiarity or application. This may result in what the adolescent interprets as inconsistent application of coercion or influence. Again, as with evidence presented in earlier chapters, the AGG families seem not to make use of organizational elements of the family, but rather to adopt more fragmented, possible temporary measures, which they themselves may view as having less than optimal likelihood of success. (Such as Codes 7 and 8 described in Chapter 8)

In general, examination of Table 9:1 suggests that the AGG families have fewer instances of C_1, C_2 and C_3 patterns than the WA and UA families. On the school-related sub-scales, the AGG parents generally fall below the others, with the UA parents in the middle. It is interesting to note that on the Normative sub-scales particularly the WA parents reveal considerably more C_1, C_2 and C_3 patterns than the other two.

FOOTNOTES

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FOOTNOTES

(Continued)

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CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY

The task of this investigation has been to present the findings of research concerning the methodological and conceptual aspects of intra-family relations as they relate to family socialization effectiveness. The previous chapters have dealt with the notion of intra-family consensus, problem perception, and differential utilization of socializing techniques, influencing the degree to which to socialization aims and practices within a family social system are effective. The outcome of the family's socialization practices has been measured by the use of composite criteria relating to social and personal behavior in school. The rationale for this derives from the notion that the family prepares the adolescent for interaction in the school and other social systems external to the family, and if the job is satisfactorily carried out, behavior should be visibly conforming to requirements of these external systems.

The procedures described here have resulted in a series of findings which seem to contribute to our general understanding of small socializing systems, and is not confined to family process alone. Earlier in Chapter 1 it was mentioned that one aim of this study was to examine a variable, consensus, which could be regarded as of general sociological import, transcending Family Sociology per se. This orientation has been maintained, and seems fruitful.

DIFFERENTIAL MEANINGS OF INTRA-FAMILY CONSENSUS

Microconsensus, as defined in Chapter 2, consists of agreement between persons operating within the same social system. When the system involves interacting positions which are not differentiated into status relations, the consensus model is that of a number of persons observing a single target, from the same location. Consensus in this instance involves the degree of similarity of perception or reporting by the observers. Few social organizations are so simple as to allow representation by this model, however. The family, although often suggested as an example of a simple social system, consists of numerous sub-systems of relations between at least two differentiated strata, parents and children.[1] The parent-child social system, then follows the model of two groups of persons, viewing a single target, from two locations. In this sense, one can speak of consensus within a status stratum, and also consensus between strata. Likewise, as depicted in Chapter 2, the total consensus measure for an interaction system is the sum of the within and between components.

The conceptualization of multiposition microconsensus in analysis of variance terms has been developed by Brooks, and reported in Gross et al.[2] The optimum utility of such work lies not in merely establishing a statistical algorithm, however. What can be even more useful is a model which would allow examination of the interplay of consensus held by a set of role actors and the transmission of role expectations between actors. The three-fold analysis of consensus by V, M and D scores has been carried out to approach this goal, and distinctly different results have been obtained for the three criterion groups.

A commonly offered model by means of which the parents are assumed to influence the behaviors or value system of the child is that of actor-imitator. Using this model, the child is seen as coming to view the parents' behavior as a definition of acceptable action, and through a process of imitation, he manifests behaviors which are acceptable. A variant of this relationship is the form in which not imitation but rather direct transmission of expectations concerning behavior is involved. However different the two models, the degree of consensus between parents is a crucial consideration. As Gross et al. have demonstrated, consensus has most often been taken as a constant rather than a variable.[3] If parents enacted their roles in such a way that imitation of either of them by the child would result in behavior acceptable to both, then the question of consensus would be irrelevant. It is quite clear, however, that family and social structure both mitigate against this. The divisions of activity by age, sex and other basic axes serves to prevent simple imitative relationships from resulting in child behaviors which are congruent with those of the adults.

What then can be said for the transmission model, in which the parents serve as explicit teachers rather than as sources for imitation? Here, the implications of variable degrees of consensus are striking. If the parents' provision of normative and evaluative information for the child is such that the two sets of information are not consensual, the actual content of the material communicated may be irrelevant, for conformity cannot be defined without a common standard. In short, socialization is unlikely to be optimally effective in situations where the parents present divergent or non-similar values and standards for behavior.

The preceding statement, taken as an hypothesis, has been tested in the analysis of V scores. The finding, as described in Chapter 5, was that V scores, measuring inter-parent consensus, are unrelated to the school criterion, either in a univariate or multivariate sense. This finding leads one to the position that either consensus is not a matter of concern to socialization effectiveness, or, single-position consensus is not sufficient to describe the dynamic interaction which might take place between members of two different positions in a social system. The latter supposition is dealt with by the analysis of M scores, which measure the degree of consensus between parents and the son. The foregoing analyses have shown that M scores are highly related to the socialization criterion. This indicates that it is not mere disagreement between parents which may bring about non-conforming behavior on the part of the son. Rather, the son's own position in the attribute-space defined by the values and expectations must be taken into account, relative to that of the parents. This finding has the effect of weakening the notion of imitation as a basic process in socialization. If imitation were highly influential in the process, it would follow that the distinction between V and M scores would not be so great as observed here.

Since this study has made use of adolescent boys and their parents, viewing adolescent behaviors, nothing can be said of the imitation process at earlier stages in socialization process. When verbal communication is restricted, as in infancy, imitation is quite likely to be of great importance. The present study does not deal with the overall process of socialization in this sense, nor was it intended to.

The analyses of V, M and D scores conducted thus far have demonstrated several findings concerning the concept of consensus as a variable. First, the results indicate that microconsensus between two positions within the family relates to the qualitative characteristics of the son's behavior, as defined by the school behavioral criteria in this study. This is in itself a major finding, supporting the work of Gross et al. as well as others who have explored consensus. An additional research question under examination here has been whether any of several areas of expectation for the son's behavior would show a heavier relationship to the criterion than others. The multiple discriminant coefficients presented in Chapter 5 have shown the scales or areas of expectations for behavior which contribute most to the separation of the criterion groups in eleven-dimensional space. Of the original eleven, three scales are particularly heavy contributors: Society Normative, School Participative and School Expressive. The items making up these scales are shown in Chapter 3, in Table 3:1. Family Normative and Society Expressive scales have weights close to the .75 cutting point. The remaining scales have very low weights, indicating that they contribute but slightly to the discrimination between the criterion groups.

The finding that the several scales of items contribute in a highly differential manner to the discrimination betwen criterion groups is of great interest. It gives clear evidence that areas of expectations exist in which the degree of intra-family consensus relates to the success of socialization. This is a much more significant finding than the mere

statement that consensus itself relates to socialization success. The division of interview items into the eleven scales was intended to allow for an exploratory view of this very situation, in order to contribute to further studies. A task beyond the present one would involve continued analyses of these data in such a way as to allow specific hypothesis-testing with each set of items, following a conceptual system making use of the expressive, instrumental, normative and participative dimensions. An analysis of that kind can contribute greatly toward a unification of family data with significant general sociological concepts.

SUBSCRIPTION AND AGREEMENT

A major emphasis in this part of the research has been the study of intra-family consensus on the importance of objects, conditions and relationships which the adolescent boy might have, do or be. An additional question has been raised, in Chapter 6, concerning the possibility that the consensus phenomena observed might be accounted for by the family members differing on the degree of ascribed importance itself. The issue resolves itself in two questions: (1) Does unsuccessful socialization arise from a process of poor transmission-imitation due to low intra-family consensus on expectations, values and standards? or (2) Does unsuccessful socialization arise from a process in which family-socializing agents subscribe to different expectations, values and standards than the judges of socialization effectiveness, the social organizations for whom the family is socializing the child?

The analysis of importance ratings reported in Chapter 6 has clearly shown the significance of the issue of differential subscription. A pattern of assignment of higher importance was revealed which indicated that, in general, the Aggressive families assess the interview items lower than the others, the Under-achievers in the middle, and the Well-adjusted families the highest. An additional finding, bearing on the meaningfulness of the consensus issue, is that the scales contributing most heavily to the criterion discrimination in the importance analysis are different, save one, than those contributing heavily in the consensus analysis. This suggests strongly that two distinct phenomena are being dealt with here, each of significance in explaining the socialization process. Differential <u>agreement</u> on values within families, and differential <u>subscription</u> to values between families both bear a relationship to the process of adolescent socialization, as defined here.

DIFFERERENTIAL PROBLEM PERCEPTION

Beyond the several issues of consensus and subscription, the aims of this project have included an examination of problem perception, and its relationship to school adjustment. The data presented in Chapter 7 took up this issue, relating frequency of problem items to measures of consensus and to family position.

The data indicated that the fathers of adolescents with school troubles (AGG and UA boys) were most sensitive to the problems, in terms of perceptions. The data of Table 7:3 indicated that the mothers and sons were much less differentiated by problem perception frequencies.

Analyses by sub-scale were also conducted with the problem perception data, revealing noteworthy relationships across the several scales and school adjustment categories. For all but eight of the thirty three contrasts, significant results were found, with the WA families reporting fewer problems than either AGG or UA. The sons' data yielded interesting results, in that it seems clear that the distinctions between the adolescents themselves is nowhere as great as between the parents. There is a suggestion of mutual support here, and a maintenance of perception of behavior through means of peer group support.

FURTHER RESEARCH TASKS

The accomplishments of this research would have been shallow indeed if they do not, in their turn, indicate additional research directions for the future. The several research questions dealt with here have been merely those most basic to a fuller understanding of a highly complex situation, that of family and school socialization. Indeed, the raising of the issues of consensus, importance, problem perception and socialization techniques seems to leave the field as complicated as before. What has been done, however, is to illustrate how a symmetric, systems oriented approach allows the generation of data which can be used to describe dynamic aspects of the family as a social organization, in which the actors define each other's behavior and the rules therefor. Some of the findings allow the extension of research on family socialization, juvenile deviance and school criteria along lines of standard sociological conceptualization. This was one of the goals originally set for the study.

The human family is a social organization which envelopes us all, throughout our lifetimes. Socialization, the process by means of which a human organism becomes and remains a social being, begins there. The many social problems identified in our society are often cited as growing from improper or inadequate family socialization. This study has been designed as an attempt to seek some means for explation of the relationships betwen family processes and social inadequacy and deviance, particularly in such external socialization agencies as the school. Many more studies will be needed before the causal nexus can be know sufficiently well to allow for programs directly aimed at the alleviation of personal and social ills.

APPENDIX A

In the following tables, decimal points have been omitted.
Diagonal entries have been omitted in symmetrical tables.

TABLE A1

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
V Scores, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	26	37	41	-13	19	24	18	53	19	-12
SOC NOR		-23	-25	-22	-02	-26	-18	-06	-04	-30
SOC EXP			-14	38	-34	16	18	-12	18	01
SCH PAR				00	54	29	45	61	17	42
SCH EXP					-24	29	60	-21	59	50
SCH NOR						25	43	50	28	26
SCH INS							44	38	36	37
FAM PAR								29	63	52
FAM NOR									-11	19
FAM EXP		n=19 families								35
ASP										

TABLE A2

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
V Scores, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	27	31	44	22	01	35	12	03	08	18
SOC NOR		33	67	-02	50	69	51	42	50	49
SOC EXP			58	68	24	51	25	32	08	26
SCH PAR				33	45	79	39	45	33	48
SCH EXP					-06	23	09	05	-09	02
SCH NOR						32	27	29	23	44
SCH INS							39	47	35	34
FAM PAR								62	71	27
FAM NOR									54	42
FAM EXP		n=48 families								36
ASP										

TABLE A3

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
V Scores, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	04	36	09	07	-03	10	12	08	16	23
SOC NOR		25	-24	26	-09	33	02	45	55	27
SOC EXP			-16	45	-01	52	16	12	13	47
SCH PAR				-20	04	-11	71	17	01	46
SCH EXP					32	10	03	05	22	18
SCH NOR						-06	18	55	39	23
FAM PAR							31	05	08	35
FAM NOR								40	25	63
FAM EXP		n=17 families							78	66
ASP										48

TABLE A4

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
Family Types Combined

SOC INS	24	32	39	05	02	28	14	19	11	12
SOC NOR		20	36	-05	30	41	30	29	41	26
SOC EXP			35	48	06	40	22	17	11	20
SCH PAR				13	35	52	45	43	26	41
SCH EXP					-03	24	24	04	14	19
SCH NOR						18	25	36	24	34
SCH INS							39	35	29	33
FAM PAR								48	62	40
FAM NOR									44	45
FAM EXP		n=84 families								35
ASP										

TABLE A5

Means and Standard Deviations
11 Scales, V Scores

Scale	AGG	WA	UA	TOTAL
SOC INS	5.55	5.11	5.12	5.21
SOC NOR	1.43	1.22	1.25	1.27
SOC EXP	2.32	2.06	1.12	1.94
SCH PAR	3.78	3.29	3.03	3.35
SCH EXP	2.87	2.10	2.46	2.35
SCH NOR	1.83	2.74	3.91	2.77
SCH INS	1.68	1.05	1.28	1.19
FAM PAR	3.92	3.47	3.56	3.60
FAM NOR	4.16	3.71	3.74	3.82
FAM EXP	3.92	3.94	3.35	3.82
ASP	3.61	3.56	4.22	3.70
Standard Deviations				
SOC INS	3.87	3.02	2.60	3.12
SOC NOR	1.61	1.78	1.18	1.62
SOC EXP	1.57	1.80	1.06	1.66
SCH PAR	3.31	3.34	2.39	3.14
SCH EXP	3.66	1.78	2.03	2.36
SCH NOR	1.84	3.08	3.25	2.94
SCH INS	1.56	1.44	1.54	1.50
FAM PAR	2.93	3.23	3.07	3.10
FAM NOR	3.38	2.70	3.64	3.03
FAM EXP	2.12	3.10	2.33	2.75
ASP	2.12	2.31	4.37	2.78
N =	19	48	17	84

TABLE A6

Intercorrelations Among Scales, M Scores, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	53	50	76	45	80	77	16	73	51	41
SOC NOR		32	49	21	75	46	39	61	41	-01
SOC EXP			41	40	27	23	-24	44	43	27
SCH PAR				41	79	64	21	70	50	18
SCH EXP					37	63	-02	28	08	24
SCH NOR						79	25	84	59	30
SCH INS							08	71	34	52
FAM PAR								14	02	-22
FAM NOR									69	50
FAM EXP		n=19 families								25
ASP										

TABLE A7

Intercorrelations Among Scales, M Scores, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	16	31	30	-14	36	20	28	34	29	05
SOC NOR		39	34	23	43	38	26	56	35	46
SOC EXP			52	32	65	34	40	61	52	26
SCH PAR				15	47	72	51	53	51	36
SCH EXP					24	04	12	42	25	39
SCH NOR						50	24	56	38	28
SCH INS							34	43	28	38
FAM PAR								49	63	34
FAM NOR									62	61
FAM EXP		n=48 families								49
ASP										

TABLE A8

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
M Scores, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	30	55	34	55	50	34	46	51	39	57
SOC NOR		32	62	03	79	60	75	64	-01	34
SOC EXP			53	60	46	06	35	30	-07	46
SCH PAR				16	73	61	54	63	03	65
SCH EXP					13	-14	12	07	-20	19
SCH NOR						55	57	70	01	42
SCH INS							63	77	15	61
FAM PAR								81	35	32
FAM NOR									27	39
FAM EXP		n=17 families								05
ASP										

TABLE A9

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
M Scores, Family Type Combined

SOC INS	38	46	49	35	58	51	29	53	35	33
SOC NOR		36	54	30	71	53	45	64	30	33
SOC EXP			46	49	45	25	20	45	33	37
SCH PAR				36	71	69	44	65	45	39
SCH EXP					38	40	12	32	13	34
SCH NOR						71	35	75	38	36
SCH INS							30	66	27	50
FAM PAR								45	45	21
FAM NOR									55	52
FAM EXP		n=84 families								34
ASP										

TABLE A10

Means and Standard Deviations
11 Scales, M Scores

Scale	AGG	WA	UA	Total
SOC INS	22.18	17.10	23.70	19.53
SOC NOR	33.80	15.97	22.13	21.25
SOC EXP	9.27	6.27	9.94	7.69
SCH PAR	27.14	12.10	15.91	16.27
SCH EXP	10.44	4.60	9.75	6.96
SCH NOR	46.09	20.58	28.26	27.90
SCH INS	15.31	6.02	10.33	9.00
FAM PAR	26.29	17.95	17.29	19.70
FAM NOR	38.42	23.42	24.91	27.11
FAM EXP	24.29	18.75	19.59	20.17
ASP	20.45	13.79	19.10	16.37
	Standard Deviations			
SOC INS	14.06	9.98	11.18	11.50
SOC NOR	22.61	11.10	17.78	17.11
SOC EXP	7.83	5.59	11.05	7.57
SCH PAR	17.95	11.96	9.42	14.32
SCH EXP	7.45	3.46	7.27	6.08
SCH NOR	35.78	18.37	20.22	25.58
SCH INS	17.12	6.49	8.56	10.77
FAM PAR	18.95	14.36	15.83	15.99
FAM NOR	28.83	15.46	19.27	20.62
FAM EXP	11.69	16.57	11.54	14.69
ASP	11.43	9.53	15.69	11.68
N=	19	48	17	84

TABLE A11

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
D Scores, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	56	51	73	64	77	81	16	70	51	49
SOC NOR		32	53	17	76	48	42	62	38	06
SOC EXP			44	47	23	21	-19	42	44	28
SCH PAR				45	78	66	25	71	46	21
SCH EXP					29	58	-04	21	23	20
SCH NOR						80	27	84	57	32
SCH INS							07	71	38	51
FAM PAR								13	01	-21
FAM NOR									66	52
FAM EXP		n=19 families								33
ASP										

TABLE A12

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
D Scores, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	26	38	37	-05	39	25	33	46	36	17
SOC NOR		47	38	31	43	42	25	57	32	47
SOC EXP			62	41	67	37	47	66	45	28
SCH PAR				27	52	72	55	54	47	40
SCH EXP					21	09	19	37	18	36
SCH NOR						51	28	57	34	29
SCH INS							35	45	27	42
FAM PAR								50	64	27
FAM NOR									59	57
FAM EXP		n=48 families								42
ASP										

TABLE A13

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
D Scores, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	32	60	51	53	51	32	55	55	45	59
SOC NOR		31	61	04	81	56	79	73	12	45
SOC EXP			55	60	45	08	39	33	-01	57
SCH PAR				17	78	60	57	66	09	71
SCH EXP					18	-10	17	11	-16	24
SCH NOR						48	63	74	00	53
SCH INS							58	71	12	64
FAM PAR								86	38	38
FAM NOR									26	45
FAM EXP		n=17 families								06
ASP										

TABLE A14

Intercorrelations Among Scales,
D Scores, Family Type Combined

SOC INS	43	49	53	40	58	54	33	57	40	40
SOC NOR		39	57	30	71	55	48	67	30	38
SOC EXP			52	53	45	25	28	47	31	43
SCH PAR				40	71	70	49	66	43	43
SCH EXP					34	37	16	30	14	35
SCH NOR						71	38	75	35	39
SCH INS							31	66	27	50
FAM PAR								47	46	21
FAM NOR									52	51
FAM EXP		n=84 families								31
ASP										

TABLE A15

Means and Standard Deviations
11 Scales, D Scores

Scale	AGG	WA	UA	Total
SOC INS	27.74	22.11	28.82	24.74
SOC NOR	35.24	17.18	23.38	22.52
SOC EXP	11.60	8.33	11.12	9.63
SCH PAR	30.92	15.40	18.94	19.62
SCH EXP	13.32	6.71	12.20	9.32
SCH NOR	47.92	23.32	32.18	30.68
SCH INS	17.00	6.97	11.62	10.18
FAM PAR	30.21	21.43	20.88	23.30
FAM NOR	42.58	27.13	28.65	30 93
FAM EXP	28.21	22.69	22.94	23.99
ASP	24.05	17.34	23.32	20.07
	Standard Deviations			
SOC INS	14.22	10.33	10.82	11.68
SOC NOR	22.28	11.32	17.96	17.20
SOC EXP	7.75	6.05	11.64	7.88
SCH PAR	17.69	12.71	10.11	14.79
SCH EXP	7.62	4.57	8.83	6.98
SCH NOR	36.71	19.15	21.19	26.20
SCH INS	17.41	6.74	8.92	11.12
FAM NOR	18.26	13.88	16.82	15.82
FAM EXP	29.79	15.68	20.12	21.22
FAM PAR	11.97	16.79	12.01	14.96
ASP	10.94	10.46	1 .72	12.60
N=	19	48	17	84

TABLE A16

Intercorrelations Among V Scores,
and Importance, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	36	22	00	18	28	09	15	16	17	21	21
SOC NOR	22	22	-01	00	37	-17	01	-11	06	13	27
SOC EXP	-10	-12	-34	-32	-12	-15	-06	-04	-26	-08	-21
SCH PAR	19	20	11	31	13	25	-08	18	12	07	-16
SCH EXP	-04	-18	-34	-24	-08	-21	-14	-19	-33	-30	-28
SCH NOR	62	72	70	86	51	75	50	67	73	72	52
SCH INS	04	11	-10	11	-32	29	53	10	13	-01	-10
FAM PAR	51	29	26	38	17	28	32	26	20	15	14
FAM NOR	42	33	35	45	12	46	26	46	27	20	34
FAM EXP	35	13	-05	17	24	07	22	22	07	18	18
ASP	-09	13	-08	10	-07	18	-05	32	05	-06	-22

TABLE A17

Intercorrelations Among M Scores
and Importance, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	40	41	39	59	09	49	64	51	67	44	47
SOC NOR	13	63	39	65	14	69	39	62	58	62	25
SOC EXP	25	27	26	37	-07	50	46	29	48	25	13
SCH PAR	23	28	44	49	-10	50	67	33	57	29	34
SCH EXP	22	16	18	29	05	21	28	13	45	19	22
SCH NOR	37	58	59	74	15	69	71	61	75	66	57
SCH INS	47	42	42	60	29	36	29	36	59	44	70
FAM PAR	-30	08	08	03	-18	07	-07	05	05	-03	-04
FAM NOR	38	46	55	68	02	57	76	52	71	47	61
FAM EXP	37	34	39	-16	42	58	37	40	22	37	22
ASP	62	40	34	36	30	13	38	20	41	31	58

TABLE A18

Intercorrelations Among D Scores
and Importance, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	50	47	39	64	17	51	67	55	71	49	52
SOC NOR	15	66	39	66	17	69	40	62	59	63	27
SOC EXP	23	25	19	31	-10	48	46	28	24	43	09
SCH PAR	27	32	47	55	-07	56	66	36	60	31	31
SCH EXP	20	07	02	16	01	11	21	04	29	04	09
SCH NOR	39	60	61	76	18	71	71	62	77	67	58
SCH INS	46	42	41	60	26	38	62	44	70	48	60
FAM PAR	-23	13	13	09	-16	12	-02	10	09	-01	-02
FAM NOR	41	49	57	71	03	60	77	54	74	49	61
FAM EXP	28	39	33	48	-11	42	61	40	41	25	39
ASP	64	44	34	39	30	17	39	26	44	31	57

TABLE A19

Intercorrelations Among V Scores
and Importance, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	26	-01	10	20	20	02	16	04	-09	05	18
SOC NOR	38	42	20	36	11	41	36	43	37	51	30
SOC EXP	32	03	08	16	-16	25	45	14	24	07	27
SCH PAR	43	28	18	44	06	47	53	46	39	36	45
SCH EXP	-06	-28	-19	-16	20	-10	20	-12	-15	-21	02
SCH NOR	41	34	32	44	12	63	43	47	60	43	52
SCH INS	28	16	00	24	-11	33	64	34	35	33	29
FAM PAR	27	41	12	42	07	34	27	57	40	44	30
FAM NOR	27	55	05	29	-04	44	36	49	62	43	37
FAM EXP	39	34	22	20	06	17	19	41	30	57	33
ASP	50	36	36	35	15	27	29	39	30	38	54

TABLE A20

Intercorrelations Among M Scores
and Importance, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	19	21	21	18	28	12	-24	12	03	24	06
SOC NOR	10	15	07	09	-05	06	07	-11	-03	-06	05
SOC EXP	17	12	-12	13	02	21	14	05	14	-15	05
SCH PAR	37	-03	01	19	04	07	17	00	00	-06	14
SCH EXP	-10	-20	-17	-03	-05	-08	15	-18	-11	-13	-21
SCH NOR	10	46	00	50	13	55	18	27	33	-02	19
SCH INS	24	14	-01	26	-02	17	24	01	01	-13	25
FAM PAR	16	-12	06	-08	13	-14	-10	-07	-03	-04	-06
FAM NOR	10	11	10	06	07	07	01	-08	03	-10	-08
FAM EXP	-03	-04	05	-05	09	-13	-18	-13	-04	07	-25
ASP	19	00	22	-02	17	-18	-08	-13	-06	06	06

TABLE A21

Intercorrelations Among D Scores
and Importance, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	26	20	23	23	33	13	-18	12	01	24	11
SOC NOR	16	21	10	15	-03	12	12	-04	03	02	10
SOC EXP	25	12	-09	17	-03	27	27	08	20	-12	12
SCH PAR	46	04	05	30	05	19	30	13	10	04	25
SCH NOR	-10	-26	-20	-08	-12	-10	19	-18	-14	-18	-15
SCH INS	16	50	06	55	14	63	24	34	41	05	27
FAM PAR	29	16	-01	30	-04	24	37	08	08	-05	31
FAM NOR	23	-03	09	02	15	-05	-04	06	06	06	01
FAM EXP	15	21	11	11	06	14	07	00	14	-03	-01
ASP	29	08	28	06	19	-01	-01	-03	01	14	18

TABLE A22

Intercorrelations Among V Scores
and Importance, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	13	00	24	09	08	06	27	13	02	-02	22
SOC NOR	39	28	22	20	-13	14	65	25	13	26	29
SOC EXP	26	21	37	03	04	14	36	29	17	30	32
SCH PAR	-03	09	15	12	04	21	00	18	14	14	09
SCH EXP	21	19	29	07	-02	13	33	24	24	22	25
SCH NOR	23	20	29	16	35	21	17	02	12	14	36
SCH INS	37	05	29	17	-09	26	41	45	34	37	45
FAM PAR	14	32	48	39	25	52	36	50	40	47	46
FAM NOR	43	55	48	44	38	40	57	38	23	46	65
FAM EXP	52	43	51	36	34	31	68	31	22	30	67
ASP	39	57	68	46	33	51	52	60	36	47	66

TABLE A23

Intercorrelations Among M Scores
and Importance, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	29	59	48	44	26	45	34	57	52	38	49
SOC NOR	22	68	65	76	64	61	49	62	49	58	66
SOC EXP	37	62	82	46	54	57	57	46	51	39	57
SCH PAR	20	55	73	73	48	57	44	71	58	41	52
SCH EXP	03	19	29	-01	11	14	02	12	12	15	14
SCH NOR	22	68	63	76	55	65	38	64	52	49	57
SCH INS	29	52	49	78	53	57	44	77	84	63	58
FAM PAR	12	68	59	69	61	56	38	61	52	59	50
FAM NOR	14	60	56	67	56	62	32	70	66	70	55
FAM EXP	12	17	03	13	-09	12	27	18	13	14	13
ASP	48	50	63	69	37	56	51	81	78	50	70

TABLE A24

Intercorrelations Among D Scores
and Importance, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	34	51	55	48	28	48	42	57	52	38	49
SOC NOR	25	69	66	76	62	61	52	62	49	58	66
SOC EXP	38	61	81	44	52	56	47	51	39	44	57
SCH PAR	18	53	71	71	45	58	41	71	58	41	52
SCH EXP	07	20	31	00	10	14	09	12	12	15	14
SCH NOR	25	68	65	75	57	65	39	64	52	49	57
SCH INS	34	51	52	78	50	60	49	77	84	63	58
FAM PAR	14	70	64	72	62	63	43	61	52	59	50
FAM NOR	21	69	63	72	60	66	41	70	66	70	55
FAM EXP	21	25	13	20	-02	18	39	18	13	14	13
ASP	52	58	72	72	41	63	58	81	78	50	70

TABLE A25

Means and Standard Deviations
11 Scales, Importance Rating

Scale	AGG	WA	UA	Total
SOC INS	2.18	2.12	2.20	2.15
SOC NOR	1.84	1.61	1.78	1.69
SOC EXP	1.75	1.56	1.46	1.57
SCH PAR	1.98	1.60	1.71	1.71
SCH EXP	1.96	1.62	1.05	1.56
SCH NOR	1.65	1.51	1.86	1.61
SCH INS	1.70	1.45	1.21	1.66
FAM PAR	2.25	1.93	2.09	2.03
FAM NOR	1.70	1.60	1.82	1.67
FAM EXP	1.58	1.46	1.35	1.47
ASP	1.82	1.71	1.82	1.76
		Standard Deviations		
SOC INS	.54	.40	.35	.42
SOC NOR	.38	.38	.40	.40
SOC EXP	.38	.32	.40	.36
SCH PAR	.45	.39	.45	.44
SCH EXP	.44	.68	.35	.68
SCH NOR	.29	.38	.40	.38
SCH INS	.41	.43	.42	.51
FAM PAR	.42	.44	.50	.46
FAM NOR	.31	.34	.35	.34
FAM EXP	.30	.26	.16	.26
ASP	.37	.28	.31	.31
N=	19	48	17	84

TABLE A26

Intercorrelations Among Scales
Importance, Aggressive Families

SOC INS	51	66	71	70	39	42	47	58	56	79
SOC NOR		69	80	48	78	48	74	72	85	59
SOC EXP			86	43	76	54	65	80	74	75
SCH PAR				53	84	64	81	89	85	76
SCH EXP					24	-03	32	31	56	59
SCH NOR						68	78	82	85	51
SCH INS							56	74	56	61
FAM PAR								86	82	66
FAM NOR									82	77
FAM EXP		n=17 families								70
ASP										

TABLE A27

Intercorrelations Among Scales
Importance, Well-adjusted Families

SOC INS	35	60	45	34	39	33	59	49	57	73
SOC NOR		28	57	18	74	32	70	70	44	52
SOC EXP			58	71	21	-17	52	31	73	41
SCH PAR				57	64	21	73	47	56	55
SCH EXP					08	-39	37	-01	51	15
SCH NOR						59	69	76	35	65
SCH INS							38	55	08	55
FAM PAR								78	69	63
FAM NOR									53	64
FAM EXP		n=48 families								45
ASP										

TABLE A28

Intercorrelations Among Scales
Importance, Underachiever Families

SOC INS	68	61	59	44	72	84	66	72	59	83
SOC NOR		85	86	78	90	73	72	78	80	80
SOC EXP			81	80	85	73	78	73	68	86
SCH PAR				73	87	72	88	84	68	79
SCH EXP					76	42	51	57	50	66
SCH NOR						72	85	86	83	82
SCH INS							77	72	69	87
FAM PAR								92	78	84
FAM NOR									79	82
FAM EXP		n=17 families								75
ASP										

TABLE A29

Intercorrelations Among Scales
Importance, Family Types Combined

SOC INS	45	59	53	33	43	39	55	54	54	76
SOC NOR		51	70	24	77	45	75	71	56	61
SOC EXP			72	64	40	11	62	47	73	58
SCH PAR				50	68	39	80	62	64	66
SCH EXP					01	-39	32	-01	56	21
SCH NOR						69	72	81	41	65
SCH INS							48	64	13	59
FAM PAR								81	69	69
FAM NOR									54	71
FAM EXP		n=84 families								53
ASP										

APPENDIX B

TABLE B1

Chi-Square Tables
Median Test of Problem Perception vs. School Adjustment
By Family Position

SOCIETY INSTRUMENTAL

	MOTHERS				FATHERS				SONS			
	AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA	
Above Median	8	42	14	64	2	36	7	45	9	36	13	58
Below Median	21	25	17	63	17	14	13	44	14	29	15	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 10.424$				$X^2 = 23.314$				$X^2 = 1.984$			

SOCIETY NORMATIVE

Above Median	8	43	13	64	6	33	6	45	7	39	12	58
Below Median	21	24	18	63	13	17	14	44	16	26	16	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 12.015$				$X^2 = 10.889$				$X^2 = 6.693$			

SOCIETY EXPRESSIVE

Above Median	7	42	15	64	5	34	6	45	8	36	14	58
Below Median	22	25	16	63	14	16	14	44	15	29	14	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 12.097$				$X^2 = 13.934$				$X^2 = 2.884$			

TABLE B1 (Continued)

SOCIETY PARTICIPATIVE

	MOTHERS				FATHERS				SONS			
	AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA	
Above Median	13	43	8	64	7	34	4	45	8	42	8	58
Below Median	16	24	23	63	12	16	16	44	15	23	20	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 12.949$				$X^2 = 14.986$				$X^2 = 12.827$			

SCHOOL EXPRESSIVE

Above Median	21	43	0	64	15	30	0	45	6	48	4	58
Below Median	8	24	31	63	4	20	20	44	17	17	24	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 42.210$				$X^2 = 28.361$				$X^2 = 34.331$			

SCHOOL NORMATIVE

Above Median	10	43	11	64	5	33	7	45	9	37	12	58
Below Median	19	24	20	63	14	17	13	44	14	28	16	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 10.787$				$X^2 = 11.173$				$X^2 = 2.905$			

SCHOOL INSTRUMENTAL

Above Median	5	37	22	64	2	33	10	45	9	31	18	58
Below Median	24	30	9	63	17	17	11	44	14	34	10	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 18.625$				$X^2 = 16.953$				$X^2 = 3.511$			

TABLE B1 (Continued)

FAMILY PARTICIPATIVE

	MOTHERS				FATHERS				SONS			
	AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA		AGG	WA	UA	
Above Median	12	39	13	64	6	33	6	45	11	34	13	58
Below Median	17	28	18	63	13	17	14	44	12	31	15	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 3.467$				$X^2 = 10.889$				$X^2 = .325$			

FAMILY NORMATIVE

Above Median	7	44	13	64	5	33	7	45	9	34	15	58
Below Median	22	23	18	63	14	17	13	44	14	31	13	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 15.140$				$X^2 = 11.173$				$X^2 = 1.368$			

FAMILY EXPRESSIVE

Above Median	11	43	0	64	14	31	0	45	6	46	6	58
Below Median	9	24	31	63	5	19	20	44	17	19	22	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 35.999$				$X^2 = 27.123$				$X^2 = 25.619$			

FAMILY ASPIRATIONS

Above Median	7	46	11	64	5	36	4	45	9	37	12	58
Below Median	22	21	20	63	14	14	16	44	14	28	16	58
	29	67	31		19	50	20		23	65	28	
	$X^2 = 19.693$				$X^2 = 21.135$				$X^2 = 2.905$			

APPENDIX C

FAMILY RELATIONS CODE BOOK

FACE SHEET AND PHASE II DATA

SECOND EDITION

William R, Larson, Project Director

Barbara G. Myerhoff, Field Director

Phyllis Brown, Chief Coder

Sue Smith, Project Secretary

Youth Studies Center

University of Southern California

Codes to word by .....

"This world in itself is not reasonable, that is all that can be said. But what is absurd is the confrontation of this irrational and the wild longing for clarity whose call echoes in the human heart."

Albert Camus

INDEX

1 EDITORIAL COMMENT

Please keep in mind that coding open-ended responses is inevitably difficult, ambiguous and tedious; that is to say you're not the only one who's uncomfortable. No matter how thoroughly you understand the process or how conscientious you are, from time to time you will have doubts as to the proper assignation of a response to a suitable category. This is in the nature of the task; there is rarely a absolutely correct choice. You must make judgments continually and endure the fact that you will rarely be certain about your choices. I think you will find it helps to make these judgments with care but without very close analysis; by trying to be absolutely certain you have chosen the best category, you may find more and more possibilities arising and end up like the centipede who was never able to walk again after he was asked how he ever managed to control 100 legs at once. Occasionally, especially at first, there will be instances of such ambiguity that a response seems uncodable, and provision has been made for a head coder to handle these cases. It will also help if you make sure you are thoroughly familiar with the entire code book, rules and response categories. You will recall that many interviewees were uncomfortable trying to describe their feelings in terms of pre-coded categories, but as coders you had no difficulty in dealing with their replies. Now it's your turn to be uncomfortable while coding open-ended responses that caused interviewees less difficulty. Inevitably, either the coder or the interviewee has to take responsibility for systematizing replies, and in this study at least, both coder and interviewee got a turn.

II PHASE II CODING

A. MECHANICS OF CODING

1 Phase II interviews may be checked out by the project secretary to coders, not more than five at a time, except in special circumstances. Be sure you never code your own interviews and that you never have more than one member of a family in a batch. Face sheets will be coded separately and at a later time.

2 In filling out the coding sheets, be sure the identification data called for in the extreme right hand corner is complete. Please use pencil (not necessarily IBM) and make numbers as dark and legible as possible. Cells with slashes are to be used to accomodate the X over-punch which always occurs in the units digit. Put the X in the upper half of the cell over the number with which it belongs.

3 Do not put two cases or positions on one coding sheet; leave the rest of the sheet blank when you have completed a case or position.

4 When you have completed a case, check it in to the project secretary along with the coding sheets (five per case), if you have no questions about it. Please do not keep data out over 10 days without notifying the project secretary.

5 In case of questions, leave the interview response sheet and a note stating the question in the head coder's envelope; she will answer your question by phone or by leaving a note and the case in your envelope. When your question is thus answered, complete the case and turn the material in to the project secretary. Be sure to check your envelopes regularly, preferably a couple of times each week.

B. CODING CONVENTIONS: RULES

1 No code has been provided for R and P (reward and punishment); these were used too infrequently to be of any use.

2 The first technique mentioned is to be coded in the cells provided on the coding sheet for first technique, unless there is some indication that another technique should be coded as the first (i.e. if the interviewee indicates what the first technique really is by some means other than mentioning it first).

3 The last technique mentioned is to be coded in the space provided for most effective, unless there is some indication that a technique not mentioned last is the most effective (i.e. use of asterisk, underlining, parentheses etc.). Individual interviewers often used idiosyncratic abbreviations and symbols to indicate which technique was most effective; be attentive to the use of these symbols and in cases of doubt refer the matter to the head coder who will check with the interviewer.

4 When there is only one technique mentioned or where the same technique is both first and effective, code that technique in the effective space, and leave spaces for the first technique blank.

5 Always code with the 110 items before you and refer to them frequently in order to make sure you properly understand the reply.

6 Technique content categories are arranged from the most specific to the most general. Where ever it is possible to use a specific rather than general reply, do so. Categories 30 through 46X should be used primarily when general, unelaborated replies have been given.

7 If interviewee says "same", code responses listed in immediately preceding reply; be sure to use identical codes and interpretation.

8 Be very careful in using zero's as opposed to blanks; these are defined at the top of each page of the technique content categories. The same definitions apply to coding interpretations.

9 Values are evalutive (emotional) standards; held to be important and justifiable. Preferences are choices based on values but less strongly felt, or rationally supported (i.e. involving individual tastes and habits). Code "alternative value" on the basis of this definition.

C. CODING CONVENTIONS: INFERENCES

1 In coding techniques, do not make inferences about what the interviewee seemed to be saying; code only what is actually recorded. Select a code which reproduces the interviewee's words as closely as possible.

2 In coding interpretations, it will be necessary to make inferences. Code an interpretation for each set of replies on the basis of the reply rather than what is written in the "interpretation" blank. Code "face value" unless there is clearly a more appropriate interpretation category.

3 When a technique is listed as an interpretation or an interpretation as a technique, code according to what the reply really is rather than on the basis of where it is listed.

4 First and effective techniques may be compounded and provision has been made for them to be coded in immediately adjacent cells, except in the final reply set (My parents did or I will do). Here the father's and mother's first technique may be coded or parents' (in general) first and effective techniques may be coded if no distinction has been made between father's and mother's responses. You may code either separate father and mother responses or parents in general, but not both. "I will do" (son's response) will always be coded in the last four cells and will consist of only first and effective techniques with no provision for compounds. If compounds are given for son's reply, code only the first part of the first and the first part of the last technique and ignore the rest.

5 You will frequently have to make inferences as to whether you have a true compound or merely a list of separate responses. If there is a connecting word or phrase between two techniques (i.e. but, while, at the same time, without, etc.), the technique should be treated as compound. If there is any indication that two distinct techniques were done simultaneously, code them as compound.

There may be occasions when using a compound will make for a more meaningful code, for example, by combining an attitude and a technique. It is acceptable to treat such responses as compound. The main guideline to be followed in making such decisions is the necessity of avoiding making mere lists into compounds. In deciding what comprises a compound, look for indications of a clear relationship between the techniques given. Without such indications, treat techniques as separate and code accordingly.

Do not use compounds as a means of coding as much information as possible . Keep in mind that we cannot use all the information gathered and it is preferable to loose data rather than distort meaning.

C. CODING CONVENTIONS: INFERENCES - CONTINUED

6 Introductory statements are frequently made by interviewees which are not properly techniques but merely ways of leading up to an answer. If the interviewee says "same" but goes on to give techniques, ignore "same" and code the responses which follow.

7 When the interviewee has described a feeling or an attitude rather than a technique, code the feeling or attitude only when nothing else is given. This material is to be coded in the cells provided for first technique. If, however, the feeling or attitude is followed by a technique, ignore the feeling or attitude and code the technique, as first or effective, according to where it belongs. Those categories which may be considered attitudes are so labelled. This rule does not apply to those cases in which the attitude and technique appear to be clearly related, in which case they are to be treated as compounds (cf. inference #5).

8 When the interviewee specifies an alternative value, code "alternative value" in the interpretation cell and code the technique which is a response to the alternative value in the appropriate cells. When the interviewee has given both an alternative value and a technique used with respect to the alternative value, and has given a technique with respect to the original item as well, use the following procedure:

First: code the response(s) to the original item, using a face value interpretation in the cells provided for first technique.

Second: code alternative value (technique 03, not interpretation code) in the cells provided for effective technique and code the response to the alternative value in the effective compound cells.

This will allow us to distinguish between responses to the original item and responses to alternative values. Keep in mind that we are more interested in how the interviewee responded to the original item than we are in the response to the substituted values.

9 Be careful about the interviewer's use of viewpoint; occasionally what is written as "same as they did" from the interviewer's point of view, should be read as "same as I did" from the parents' point of view.

10 In using negative codes (X) interpret categories as meaning that the negative behavior was either done not at all or that it was done to an insufficient or inadequate degree, even when this is not written out in the response category. Positive and negative categories are not always directly parallel; please be attentive to the differences between them.

11 Because several techniques are the same as some of the interpretations, it is possible to code redundantly. This may be avoided by using a face value interpretation and coding the reply as the technique (even though the technique may be listed as or may actually be an interpretation).

CODING SHEET*

FAMILY RELATIONS PROJECT - PHASE II CODING SHEET

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22

ITEM NO.	INTERPRETATION	1ST TECH.	COMP. TECH.	EFFECT. TECH.	COMP. TECH.	INTERPRETATION	1ST TECH	COMP. TECH	EFFECT. TECH.	COMP. TECH
		I DO or MOTHER DOES					SPOUSE DOES OR FATHER DOES			

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18

- MAY 1963

CASE NO. CODER NO.

POSITION M F S INTERVIEWER NO.

4	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39

P. H.	INTERPRETATION	1ST TECH	COMP. TECH.	EFFECT. TECH	COMP. TECH.	INTERPRETATION	1ST TECH MOTHER	1ST TECH FATHER	1ST PARENTS OR I WILL	EFFECT. PARENTS OR I WILL
		PARENTS SHOULD					MY PARENTS DID OR I WILL DO			

19	20	21		23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39

* Example of Portion of Coding Sheet used on the Family Relations Project (each form on legal size paper, covered four items).

Each and every technique coded will be preceded by an interpretation code. Blanks will appear only when there is no technique given.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodable; illegible; inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e. no spouse in the home).

INTERPRETATIONS - CONTENT CODES

1 Under-subscription to norm: norm held to be unimportant i.e. "I don't care what he does." or "It doesn't really matter."

2 Average subscription to norm: face value interpretation
i.e. "Son may have to express anger occasionally."
"We sacrifice within reason."
"We don't expect perfection."

3 Over-subscription to norm: extreme emphasis, super-importance attributed to norm.
i.e. "Our son must obey laws regardless of the circumstances."
"Our son must never do such a thing; we wouldn't ever permit it."

N.B. Most interpretations will be face value; code over or under-subscription only if there is a clear and pronounced stress on the importance or lack of importance of the norm.

4 Denial of problem: norm is minimized, held to be inapplicable or irrelevant.
i.e. "Our son would never think of leaving school."
"Our son couldn't have a better life than mine."
"Such things never happen in our family."

5 Qualification: equivocation; refusal to generalize; emphasis on particulars.
i.e. "Every child is different."
"That depends on the family."
"That's up to the school."

6 Specification of alternative value or norm: emphasis on one dimension of norm, technique is but a means to another end; indication of a more real or important value (not merely suggesting a preference).
i.e. "You can't buy popularity."
"Loyalty is more important than self-protection."
"Parents should always stand behind their child."
"Above all he should learn to take responsibility for what he does."

7 No action or technique necessary: things will happen passively or spontaneously.
i.e. "Things like that take care of themselves."
"We just wait for son to grow out of that."
"We don't have to do anything because son's early training took care of that."
"We feel that's up to the son; his business."

8 Hypothetical or conjectural: norm held inapplicable but reply is still given.
i.e. "If that ever happened I would probably..."

TECHNIQUES - CONTENT CODES

STRUCTURE, EXPLAIN, TEACH

01 Explain; talk about things; show son the importance of something; point out advantages and disadvantages; give advice; reason with son.

01X Do not explain; talk about things; show son the importance of something, point out advantages or disadvantages, give advice or reason with son.

02 Structure and define; set limits and standards; let son know what's expected of him; where he stands, what he can expect from parents; make right and wrong, good and bad clear to him; division of labor; allocation of rights, duties and responsibilities.

02X Do not structure and define; set no limits and standards; do not let son know what's expected of him; where he stands, what he can expect from parents; make right and wrong, good and bad clear to son; divide labor or allocate duties or responsibilities.

03 Suggest an alternative value; teach a value or norm considered by respondent to be higher or more important than that referred to in the item; emphasize one dimension of the norm (i.e. technique is but a means to another end).

03X Do not suggest an alternative value; do not teach a value or norm considered by respondent to be higher or more important than that referred to in the item; emphasize one dimension of the norm (i.e. technique is but a means to another end).

04 Demonstrate; set or provide an example; parent shows or explains to son how he feels or how he felt when he was young or what he did or would do; helps or works with son, shows son how to do something (not merely having fun together but demonstrating something considered important and necessary by the parent).

04X Do not demonstrate; do not set or provide an example; parent does not show or explain to son how he feels or how he felt when he was young or what he did or would do; does not help or work with son or show son how to do something.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodable; illegible; inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e. no spouse in the home).

MANIPULATION OF THE SITUATION

05 Change the situation; interfere, intervene or make alterations in son's environment; change by direct, active means employed by the parent as opposed to indirect change effected through or involving someone outside the family (i.e. remove son from school or neighborhood; see someone about the son; have a talk with his teacher; break up fights with siblings, give him his own room, etc.).

05X Do not change the situation; do not interfere, intervene or alter son's environment (i.e. do not remove son from school, neighborhood; do not see someone about the son, don't have a talk with his teacher or break up fights with siblings or give him his own room, etc.).

06 Change the situation; make alterations in the son's environment by involving a person or agency outside the family (i.e. send him to a psychotherapist, tell him to talk to his teacher; hire a lawyer or tutor, etc.).

06X Do not change the situation; do not alter the son's environment by referring him to a person or agency outside the family (i.e. do not send him to a psychotherapist, don't tell him to talk to his teacher; don't hire a lawyer or tutor, etc.).

07 Draw into other activities; distract; provide or try to involve son in more desirable interests or people; stimulate and arouse his interests, make a situation attractive to him, etc.

07X Do not draw into other activities; distract; do not provide or try to involve son in more desirable interests or people; do not stimulate and arouse his interests, do not make a situation attractive to him, etc.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodable; illegible; inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e. no spouse in the home).

GIVING AND WITHHOLDING - REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS

08 Grant extra privileges; give extras (unelaborated).

08X Take away privileges; restrict and confine (unelaborated).

09 Grant additional freedom of space or time; extra time out of the house, up late, grant extra use of family possessions.

09X Restrict freedom of space or time; confinement to house or room, in early, limit use of family possessions, assign extra work or chores.

10 Give gift of morey or goods (bribe).

10X Take away money or goods (do not give money or goods).

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodable; illegible; inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e. no spouse in the home).

USE OF AUTHORITY - DISPLAY OF EMOTION OR POWER - (PRIMARY AND FORMAL AUTHORITY)

11 Praise, encourage, express approval or pleasure.

11X Scold, discourage, verbal expression of anger (yelling) displeasure, disapproval, worry or anxiety.

12 Do not warn, caution or threaten son (intended to scare son).

12X Warn, caution or threaten son (intended to scare son).

13 Direct expression of affection, verbal or physical.

13X Direct physical (non-verbal) display of anger (i.e. striking, corporal punishment).

14 Do not physically or psychologically abuse son; do not express hostility or dislike.

14X Physically or psychologically abuse son; express hostility or dislike.

15 Do not shame or embarrass son.

15X Shame or embarrass son, make him look or feel foolish.

16 Do not force son to do something; urge but do not insist.

16X Insist son do something; give an order; make a demand; enforce a rule, lay down the law (using parental authority).

17 Do not insist on parental authority; don't maintain firm control of situation; democratic and equalitarian about family affairs.

17X Insist on or state parental authority; maintain firm control; undemocratic (i.e. "We're the parents", "I'm in charge here", "Elders know best").

USE OF AUTHORITY - DISPLAY OF EMOTION OR POWER - (PRIMARY AND FORMAL AUTHORITY) - CONTINUED

18 Gradual relinquishment of parental control; encourage son to grow up, become independent and self-reliant.

18X No gradual relinquishment of parental control; do not encourage son to grow up, become independent or self-reliant.

19 Do not nag, don't remind repeatedly; tell over and over; do not keep on the son.

19X Nag, repeatedly remind, tell over and over; keep on the son.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodable; illegible; inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e. no spouse in the home).

PERSONAL - FAMILIAL ATTRIBUTES

20 Follow through (on promises and/or threats) be consistent; persistent; dependable; reliable.

20X Do not follow through (on promises and/or threats) be inconsistent; non-persistent; erratic, undependable; unreliable.

21 Flexible; easy going; tolerant; understanding; permissive; lenient, don't hold grudges; forget and forgive; be reasonable.

21X Firm; rigid; demanding; intolerant; not permissive or understanding; strict; hold grudges; unreasonable.

22 Considerate; fair; honest; truthful (Golden Rule).

22X Inconsiderate; unfair; dishonest; untruthful.

23 Concern with and respect for individual privacy; not probing when unwelcome; knowing when to leave son alone.

23X Lack of respect for individual privacy; probing when unwelcome; not knowing when to leave son alone.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodeable; illegible; inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e., no spouse in the home).

FAMILY ATMOSPHERE - ENVIRONMENT - FAMILY COMMUNICATION

24 Avoidance of quarreling or arguing; avoidance of yelling.

24X Quarreling or arguing (to be distinguished from individual members' expressions of verbal anger).

25 Family works at problems together; family has conferences; makes decisions and plans together; talks things over together; tries to find compromises.

25X Family does not work at problems together; family does not have conferences; or make decisions together; does not talk things over together or try to find compromises.

26 Parents kept informed as to son's activities, friends, whereabouts; check up on him; keep tabs on him.

26X Parents not kept informed as to son's activities, friends, whereabouts; do not check up on him or keep tabs on him.

27 Provision of a psychologically secure and supportive environment; creates an atmosphere of warmth, trust; family stands behind son; gives him reinforcement and backing; try to make him feel he is accepted; shows interest, pride in son and his activities; listens to him; cares about his opinions and feelings.

27X No provision of a psychologically secure and supportive environment; no atmosphere of warmth, lack of trust; family does not stand behind son or give him reinforcement and backing; don't try to make him feel he is accepted or show interest and pride in son's activities; do not listen to him or care about his opinions and feelings.

FAMILY ATMOSPHERE - ENVIRONMENT - FAMILY COMMUNICATION - CONTINUED

28 Provision of adequate physical and social environment, social advantages; good breeding; goods and services; give son a place where he can study; nice clothes; transportation; get him up on time, etc.

28X No provision or inadequate provision of physical and social environment; social advantages; goods and services; good breeding; place to study; nice clothes; transportation, etc.

29 Do things together as a family (refers to any all members of family), family fun; outings; recreation rather than problem oriented.

29X Do not do things together as a family; no family fun; outings; activities.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodeable; illegible, inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e., no spouse in the home)

NOTE: Categories 30 through 46X are general categories, to be used only when more specific codes cannot be found.

ACTION DEFERRED OR DELAYED

30 Refer matter to son; it's his responsibility; his business; leave it up to him; let him handle it; he should know right and wrong by now, leave it up to his conscience.

30X Refer matter to spouse; one parent handles it; it's spouse's responsibility; let spouse handle it.

31 Investigate further before acting or deciding; get more information; find out why; look into things; try to find out what son feels or thinks. (distinct from "keep informed" in being oriented to a specific situation)

31X Do not investigate further before acting or deciding; don't find out why; look into things; do not try to find out what son feels or thinks.

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodeable; illegible, inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e., no spouse in the home)

ACTION NOT DESIGNATED, NOTHING DONE, NOTHING EFFECTIVE, NOTHING NEED BE DONE

32 Don't know what I'd do; don't remember what I did (Attitude).

32X Don't know what to do about it; nothing much a parent can do (Attitude).

33 Don't do anthing because nothing need be done; no action is required or appropriate; taken care of by early training; behavior should be or should not be done without reward or punishment or necessity of parental action.

33X Don't do anything but recognition expressed or implied that action may be appropriate (suggestion that respondent feels impotent or frustrated).

34 Does care; it concerned (unelaborated).

34X Doesn't care; isn't concerned; situation doesn't matter, isn't worried or anxious (unelaborated) (Attitude).

35 Let some other person or agency handle it (not son or spouse, i.e., school, police).

35X Do not let some other person or agency handle it (not son or spouse, i.e., school, police)

Use zero codes where some information has been recorded but cannot be used; uncodeable; illegibile, inscrutable; refusal to reply indicated on response sheet.

Use blanks where there is no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e., no spouse in the home).

UNELABORATED AND GENERAL STATEMENTS

36 Reward (unelaborated).

36X Punish (unelaborated).

37 Punish and/or reward (unelaborated).

37X Does not punish and/or reward (unelaborated).

38 Asks son questions or tells son (unelaborated).

38X Does not ask son questions or tell son (unelaborated).

39 Do everything possible, take every precaution, do everything a parent can do but nothing works. (unelaborated).

40 Do the behavior referred to in the item (i.e., I do sacrifice, I do keep promises) (unelaborated).

40X Do not do the behavior referred to in the item (i.e., I don't sacrifice; I don't keep promises) (unelaborated).

41 I try, make an effort, help, do what's possible, do the best that can be done, do the behavior within reason (unelaborated).

41X Don't try, do not make an effort, or help, do not do what's possible, don't do the best that can be done or do the behavior within reason (unelaborated).

42 Qualification, equivocation; refusal to generalize; "it depends on _____". give or do what's right, appropriate, deserved (Attitude).

UNELABORATED AND GENERAL STATEMENTS - CONTINUED

43 Ignore it (unelaborated).

43X Don't ignore it (unelaborated).

44 Never came up; no problem (unelaborated)(Attitude).

45 Do or say nothing about it (unelaborated)(Attitude).

46 Overdo it; overwhelm; do it to an excessive degree.

46X Do not overdo; don't overwhelm; not to an excessive degree.

III FACE SHEET CODING

A. MECHANICS OF CODING

1 Face sheet data is to be coded directly onto IBM mark sense cards. IBM cards and face sheets may be checked out by the project secretary.

2 All face sheet IBM cards are pre-punched with data phase number (3), position number (M, F, S), IBM card number and interviewer number. As you receive each deck of cards, be sure to check all the identification codes to see that you have the correct deck. A face sheet deck consists of three cards.

3 In coding face sheets, be sure to use IBM pencils, make heavy and precise marks in appropriate columns.

4 Check face sheets and IBM cards in to the project secretary within ten days of the check out date.

5 In case of questions, deposit IBM card, face sheet and a note stating the problem in the head coder's envelope. She will contact you by phone or by a note in your envelope and return the cards and face sheet to your envelope so that you may complete the coding which can then be turned in to the project secretary.

B. CODING CONVENTIONS: RULES

1 In case of no information, question not asked, inapplicable (i.e., spouse not in the home), use blanks, unless otherwise indicated.

2 In cases where information has been recorded but cannot be used, is uncodeable, illegible or where interviewee refused to reply, use zero. Zeros may also be used as indicated in the content categories.

There is one exception to this rule:
In coding the age difference between ego and siblings (Toman data - card two: columns 2, 3; 5, 6; 8, 9; 11, 12; 14, 15; 17, 18; 20, 21; 23, 24; 26, 27; card three; columns 2, 3), blanks are to be used where zeros would otherwise be correct. This is because in this section zeros are used to indicate which child is ego (code of 00). In this instance zero is an arithmetic number rather than a coding symbol.

In all other cases, use zeros and blanks as indicated.

3 When coding age differences proceed as follows:
Six months or over, code as one year; less than six months, code as 0.

4 Provision has only been made for coding ten children in a family. Ignore all children born after the tenth child unless ego is such a child. In that case, do not code data on the oldest child but begin with the second oldest.

5 In cases where two occupations are given in different categories, code the occupation which occurs as the highest of the two (the lowest ordinal number)

6 In cases in which two incomes are given, code the higher of the two.

7 Code race as Caucasian if there is no information recorded on this matter.

8 In cases where two attitudes are given, code the lowest of the two (highest ordinal number)

C. FACE SHEET CONTENT CATEGORIES

COLUMN	CONTENT CATEGORIES
1,2,3	Total interview time in minutes.
4,5	Year of birth.
6,7	Last grade completed in school (M.A. = 18th grade) (Ph.D. = 21st grade)
8	Occupation

1. Professional Workers - accountants, architects, engineers lawyers, scientists, doctors, professors.

2. Technical, Administrative and Managerial - (except farm) - actors, artists, athletes, designers, dieticians, librarians, nurses, recreation and social workers, teachers, religious workers, technicians, buyers, purchasing agents, inspectors, credit men, officials, managers, proprietors.

3. Clerical, Sales and Skilled Workers - attendants, bank tellers, bookkeepers, typists, cashiers, insurance work, receptionists, real estate agents, carpenters, foremen, electricians, machinists, repairment, firemen, police, mechanics, tailors, members of armed forces.

4. Semi-Skilled Workers - apprentices, assemblers, bus drivers, painters, taxi cab drivers, laundry and dry cleaning operatives, attendants, barbers, bartenders, hairdressers, midwives, practical nurses, laundresses, baby sitters, waiters.

5. Unskilled Workers - fishermen, helpers, laborers, elevator operators, janitors, sailors, warehousemen, porters, gardeners.

6. Farm Laborer and Foremen - farm laborers, wage-workers.

7. Housewife - full time.

8. Student

9. Unemployed - (does not apply to student; refers to housewife who usually works or other laborers).

C. FACE SHEET CONTENT CATEGORIES - CONTINUED

9 — Occupational Status (combine with column 8 to indicate nature of the work)

1. Full time worker
2. Part time worker
3. Student; full time (if there is no indication that a student is employed, assume he is a full time student).
4. Student; part time worker.
0. Other, not applicable; neither worker nor student (i.e., housewife, retired, etc.)

10,11 — Family Income - code number of interval (code response of mother, father and/or son where given)

12 — Race

1. Caucasian
2. Negro
3. Mexican and Puerto Rican
4. Oriental
5. Other

13 — Number of present marriage - If not presently married, code as zero. If married, code accordingly. Leave blank if there is no information on marriage. If there is more than one code applicable, code only the most recent disposition. If inapplicable, leave blank.

14 — Disposition of previous marriage

1. Divorced
2. Widowed
3. Other

15,16 — Country of birth (Mother, Father, Son)

01 U.S.A. and possessions
02 England (also other dominions of British Empire)
04 Central Europe (France, Austria, Switzerland, Yugoslavia, Slavic)
05 Southern Europe (Spain, Italy, Greece)
06 Far East (China, Japan)
07 Mexico (Central American, West Indies, Puerto Rico)
08 South America
09 Middle East (Turkey, Syria, Israel, Lebanon, Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Jordan, etc.)
10 Africa
11 South East Asia (India, Thai, etc)
12 Russia, and the Steppes
13 Canada

C. FACE SHEET CONTENT CATEGORIES - CONTINUED

17,18 Country of parent's mother's birth (son's grandmother): same as above (automatically zero coded for son)

19,20 Country of parent's father's birth (son's grandfather): same as above (automatically zero coded for son)

If a country is given for one of the parents but not the other, code the country given as that of both parents.

21 Religion
1. Protestant
2. Catholic
3. Jewish
4. None
5. Other

22 Exterior of House: 1 - 5 (Code 0 if no information is given).

23 Interior of House: 1 - 5

24 Neighborhood: 1 - 5

25 Attitude
1. Cooperative
2. Satisfactory
3. Reluctant

26,27 BLANK

END OF CARD ONE AND END OF FIRST PAGE OF FACE SHEET.

Interview Began _____
Interview Ended _____

Respondent M F S
Interviewer _____
Case _____

INTERVIEW FACE SHEET

Birthdate: _____ M _____ F _____ S

Last Grade Completed at School: _____ M _____ F _____ S

Occupation: _____ M _____ F _____ S

Total Family Income: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Race: (not asked) C N M O (M) C N M O (F) C N M O (S)

Number of Present Marriage: _____ M _____ F

Disposition of Previous Marriage: Div. Wid. Other (M) Div. Wid. Other (F)

Where were you born: (city, country)

_____ M _____ F _____ S

Where were your parents born; (parents only)

_____ M _____ F

Do you have a religious preference?

P C J N Other _____ (M) P C J N Other _____ (F) P C J N Other _____ (S)

1 2 3 4 5 Exterior House (M) 1 2 3 4 5 Interior House (F) 1 2 3 4 5 Neighborhood (S)

Attitude; C S R (M) C S R (F) C S R (S)

CARD ONE

HOW IMPORTANT TO YOU IS IT THAT ...

1	2	3	4	5
very important	moderately important	somewhat important	moderately unimportant	unimportant

YES = 1 NO = 5

HOW OFTEN DOES IT HAPPEN?					HOW LIKELY IS IT TO HAPPEN?				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never	very likely	somewhat likely	50-50	somewhat unlikely	very unlikely

DOES THIS TROUBLE YOU OR ANYONE IN YOUR FAMILY?				HOW MUCH?	WAS THERE EVER A PROBLEM?
1	2	3	4	5	6
very much	moderately	somewhat	not very much	not at all	past problem

SAMPLE PAGE INTERVIEWER'S BOOK
DATA FOR CHAPTER 8 & 9

ITEM # | Interpretation:

Mother Does:

Father Does:

Parents Should Do:

I Will As A Parent:

ITEM # | Interpretation:

Mother Does:

Father Does:

Parents Should Do:

I Will As A Parent:

Case # _____ Interviewer_____ M F S

INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS

Memorize the underlined parts verbatim: the rest may be varied in accord with the needs of the particular situation. Five points must be covered:

1. Who you are and where from
2. What we are doing
3. How it will be done
4. Not a test
5. Confidentiality

Good evening: Are you Mrs. Jones? I'm from the Youth Studies Center. I believe we have an appointment for an interview this evening. (If necessary: may I come in?) I would like to introduce Miss X, Mr. Y and I am Mr. Z. We are from the Youth Studies Center of the University of Southern California.

This evening's interview is the last phase of a three year study of adolescent boys in Santa Monica High School which is being conducted by the Youth Studies Center of the University of Southern California. We have already gathered much information from approximately 300 boys in Santa Monica concerning their feelings about school. We have asked 200 families of these boys to participate in the final stage of our study in order to help us gain a fuller understanding of some of the ways in which events and characteristics of a boy's

family life effect his feelings about and behavior in school. Tonight we will be asking you about some of the things which you do with Johnny, and what you want for him.

This interview is not a test of any kind. It is a scientific study of patterns of family activities that influence a boy's school career. There are no right or wrong answers. We just want your honest, thoughtful opinions and cooperation. Your participation in our study will assist us in our attempt to learn more about the difficulties faced by the adolescent boy growing up in America.

Naturally your answers are confidential. They will not be discussed with each other and in writing up our report, your name will be replaced by a number to assure you complete privacy.

Are there any questions? Please feel free to ask about anything that isn't clear. This evening Miss X will be interviewing you Mr. Jones, Mr. Y will be interviewing you Mrs. Jones and I will be interviewing you Johnny. The interview will last about two and a half hours. In between the first two parts there is a 15 minute break during which the three of us will meet to pick 20 of the questions at random which we will ask you about in more detail during the second part of the interview.

We would like to interview each of you separately, although at the same time. We would appreciate it if you could find each of us a private place in the house.