THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FORMATION OF THE MARITAL DYAD AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SELF IN A PRESCHOOL CHILD

Katherine Norman Godlewski

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A clinical research dissertation submitted to the Institute for Clinical Social Work in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Clinical Social Work

by

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We hereby approve the Clinical Research Dissertation

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To my father, who engendered in me
a love for learning.
To my mother, who always facilitated
the process.

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ABSTRACT

The main hypothesis of this dissertation is that the formation of the marital dyad, retrospectively reported, is related to the development of a self in a preschool child. This study has demonstrated that a structured, clinical understanding of the formation and function of the marital dyad as selfobjects has important implications in terms of the development of a self in the preschool child.

Seven categories of selfobject relationships were developed by the researcher. These categories were divided into two groups: Group A (Categories 1-3) consisted of variations of positive selfobject relationships; and Group B (Categories 4-7) consisted of variations of negative and/or deficient selfobject relationships. The self psychology of Heinz Kohut was used for the theoretical framework.

The family population of a Montessori preschool was chosen for study. Sixteen intact families in first marriages volunteered for this cross-sectional study. Interviews with all family members participating were conducted and audiotaped in the families' homes. Interviews consisted of the drawing of family portraits, real and ideal; completion by parents of the Interpersonal Check List (ICL); responses to Virginia Satir's question, "How, of all the people in the world, did the two of you get together?"; and questions regarding the parents' perceptions of their children at the children's current, teenage, and adult years. Clinical observations of family interactions, evaluated in terms of Kohut's self psychology concepts, were also recorded.

Three raters scored the answers to Satir's marital dyad question. The researcher's selfobject variables were used to compare the ICL scores of Group A and Group B parents. Also, three teachers at the preschool, working independently of each other and of the parents, completed an ICL on all experimental subjects. The teachers' scores, which were used as objective ratings, were then compared with those of the parents to determine if there were any significant differences in the perceptions of the experimental subjects by the parents in the two groups.

Statistically and clinically, there were significant findings and trends which substantiated that Group A parents perceived the experimental subjects as selfobjects and also perceived their spouses and children more positively than did Group B parents. The results also indicated that the Group A parents' perceptions were more congruent with the teachers' ratings.

The study suggests that the categories utilized in exploring the formation of the marital dyad in terms of selfobject functions could provide a broad, relatively simple tool in making clinical assessments for screening, evaluation, diagnosis, and treatment.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Children can scarcely be fashioned
to meet with our likes and purpose.
Just as God did give us them, so must
we hold them and love them.
Nurture and teach them to fullness and
leave them to be what they are.

Goethe

THE CENTRAL RESEARCH QUESTION

The concept of the self and its formation constitute the major theme of this project. The central research question is: Is there a relationship between the formation of the marital dyad and the development of a self in a preschool child? In this dissertation, formation of the marital dyad will refer to the spouses' initial perceptions of and responses to each other. It is understood that the marital dyad responses being studied are retrospective and reflective of the current relationship.

Questions to be explored are: Are there any observable qualities of a child's self associated with the relationship between the parents? Are the perceptions the parents have of the child related to the marital dyad?

THE MAIN HYPOTHESIS

The main hypothesis is that the development of a self is enhanced if the parents relate as "positive self selfobjects" or "positive complementary selfobjects" with a minimum of emphasis on deficiencies. The hypothesis postulates that if the parents relate as positive self selfobjects, they will be more empathic with each other and the children. (Empathy is seen as a positive value important in growth and development.) A

more positive consistency will be present in the parental interaction, "enhancing the establishment of the child's cohesive grandiose-exhibitionistic self, via his relations to the empathically responding merging-mirroring-approving selfobject parent and of the child's cohesive idealized parent-imago via his relations to the empathically responding selfobject parent who permits and indeed enjoys the child's idealization of him/her and merger with him/ her" (Kohut, 1977, p. 185). The child will be seen as a positive self selfobject.

COROLLARY HYPOTHESIS AND SUBQUESTIONS

A second and corollary hypothesis is that if the parents relate to each other as negative self selfobjects or out of a need to compensate for deficiencies, it is more difficult for a child to develop a cohesive self. More inconsistency will be present in the parental interaction, resulting in a problem in the parents' mirroring approval of the child and in allowing the child to merge with the parent as the idealized selfobject.

Subquestions to be considered are: If the parents relate as negative self selfobjects, will the child develop a negative self? If the parents successfully compensate for deficiencies, will the child's development of a self be the same as a child's whose parents relate as positive self selfobjects or complementary selves? If the parental relationship is not successful in compensating for deficiencies, the child might be in the position of being used by the parent (or parents) to balance his/her deficiencies, which could lead to the child's being seen as an extension of parental self, idealized unrealistically or becoming the negative self selfobject.

SETTING AND PURPOSE

The setting of a preschool was chosen for study because a preschool or day-care center is probably one of the first community experiences for the young child. A child's image of himself/herself may be strongly influenced by the perceptions the teachers have of him/her. Knowledge of the paradigm of the psychology of the self could offer teachers more understanding of their significance in a child's development.

Young families are making major choices of occupation, residence, style of living, and allocation of family roles. Parents are attempting to define their place in adulthood and in their community. Individual personal drives and societal requirements are intermeshed. It is a period of growth, increased self-understanding, and responsibility. Recognizing that the early years with small children are particularly stressful, young families are more often open and interested in learning new skills and styles of parenting, and need community support in their efforts (Levinson, 1978, p. 23).

Historically, social work has been concerned with the functioning of the individual and family in society. Great emphasis has been placed on the psychosocial environment necessary for healthy growth, development, functioning, and utilizing community resources. With the new theoretical models of the psychology of the self, clinical social work offers an added dimension in understanding the development of the self. If techniques and measurements could be developed to identify some of the operational factors in the formation of a healthy self within the family system, then education, consultation, and early intervention addressing these factors could be significant in positively influencing, reinforcing, or modifying them.

THE CONCEPT OF SELF

The self, although a term in common usage, is a concept confused by a multiplicity of definitions, as well as substitutions of related terms such as ego identity and self-concept. The concept of self has long been a subject of interest in the fields of psychology, social psychology, sociology, and psychoanalysis, and each specialty has attempted to define its scope.

As early as 1890, William James wrote "The Consciousness of Self," in which he referred to the self as "a constellation of attitudes having reference to 'I,' 'Me,' or 'Mine' experiences," or the self "designates all the things which have the power to produce in a stream of consciousness excitement of a certain secular sort" (James, 1890, p. 292).

Others have described the self thus:

"That which is designated in common speech by the pronouns of the first person singular, 'I,' 'Me,' 'My,' 'Mine,' and 'Myself'" (Cooley, 1912, p. 152).

"A reflective 'I,' the self as subject and object" (Mead, 1934, p. 68).

"Made up of reflected appraisals" (Sullivan, 1947, p. 10).

"One's own person--in contradistinction to the object" (Hartmann, 1950, p. 127).

"Individual identity and continuity of personal character" (Erikson, 1956, p. 57).

"Representations physical and mental equated with images of inner pictures of the persons" (Jacobson, 1964, pp. 49-50).

Sullivan brought the term "self" into prominence and coined the term "significant other." He formulated the interpersonal theory of psychiatry, which subsequently influenced the family systems theory as formulated by

Jackson and the personality theory of Leary's.

The study of self psychology is of major signficance today largely because of the theoretical formulations of Heinz Kohut. The definitions of concepts formulated by Kohut have been selected for this study because of their applicability in conceptualizing the relationship of the marital dyad and the development of a self in a child. The concept of the bipolar self with its idealized parent-imago and the grandiose-exhibitionistic self, in the view of this writer, acknowledges a family system. Aspects of both theoretical frameworks--psychology of the self and family systems --have been integrated. The formation of the family system is described in terms of Kohutian concepts. The definitions follow.

EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

Self Definitions

Self, as defined by Kohut, "refers to the core of personality made up of various constituents in the interplay with the child's earliest selfobjects" (Ornstein, 1978, Vol. 1, pp. 471-472).

Self, a structure which "crystallizes in the interplay of inherited and environmental factors. It aims toward the realization of its own specific program of action--a program that is determined by the specific intrinsic pattern of its constituent ambitions, goals, skills, and talents, and by the tensions that arise between these constituents. In other words: the patterns of ambitions, skills, and goals, the tensions between them, the program of action that they create, and the activities that strive towards the realization of this program are all experienced as continuous in space and time--they are the self, an independent center of initiative, an independent recipient of impressions" (Kohut and Wolf, 1978, p. 414).

Bipolar self is "made up three constituents: (1) one pole from which emanates the basic strivings for power and success; (2) another pole that harbors the basic idealized goals; and (3) an intermediate area of basic talents and skills that are activated by the tension arc that establishes itself between ambitions and ideals" (Kohut and Wolf, 1978, p. 414).

Cohesive self results when the selfobjects (and their functions) have been sufficiently transformed into psychological structures so they can function to a certain extent ... independently in conformity with self-generated patterns of initiative (ambitions) and inner guidance (ideals).

Selfobject is an object, a person, experienced either as part of the self and/or in service of the self who performs functions for the self. The important psychological functions are to affirm, approve, admire, value, and regulate tension (mirroring selfobject), and to be an idealized object to emulate as well as a powerful object who offers strength (idealized parent-imago). Parents are the original selfobjects.

Category Definitions

Positive self and positive selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self as positive and the selfobject spouse as having similar qualities and values which are enhanced because of the reflection and validation of the selfobject. Example: "We share the same values and that strengthens them in both of us."

Positive complementary self and positive complementary selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self as positive and the selfobject spouse as having a positive self to balance qualities the self does not

have. Example: "We work well together. I'm serious and he/she has a sense of humor."

Positive/negative self and positive/negative selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self and the selfobject spouse as having the same qualities, positive and negative. Example: "We are hard workers but spendthrifts."

Negative self and negative selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self and the selfobject spouse as having the same negative qualities. Example: "We are stubborn."

Positive self and negative selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self as positive and the selfobject spouse as negative. The spouse carries the negative qualities of the relationship. Example: "I work hard; he/she is lazy."

Negative self and positive selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self as negative and the spouse as positive. The spouse carries the positive qualities of the relationship. Example: "I'm irritable; he/she is affable."

Deficient self and deficient selfobject spouse refers to the perception of the self as incomplete. Example: "I can't function without a relationship; he/she can't either."

Self Psychology Definitions

Empathy is a temporary merging with another person while maintaining one's sense of separateness and identity, that is, "vicarious introspection" (Kohut).

Merger is an empathic identification with the object.

Mirroring is the verbal and nonverbal recognition, appreciation, and reflecting back of the feelings being communicated.

Optimal frustration (Montessori) refers to allowing the child to meet his/her own needs and perform own functions to the upper limits of his/her capacity.

Optimal frustration results "when a tolerable phase appropriate loss of some discrete function that the object carried out for the child is experienced" (Tolpin, 1971, p. 317).

Significant other is an important person or persons, such as parents, siblings, friends, or classmates.

Tension regulation is the empathic soothing and/or modulation of the anxiety of the object.

Transmuting internalizations refers to the process of internalizing the functions of the selfobject.

CHAPTER II

THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter briefly reviews the interactionists' theories of the development of the self; the psychology of the self as developed by Kohut; theories and research relating to the selection of mates; research relating to the selection of mates using the Interpersonal Check List (ICL), the instrument used in this research, including research validating the use of the ICL as a measure of personality; family research; and parental influence on preschool child development.

INTERACTIONISTS' THEORIES

American writers have long perceived a subtle interaction between society and individuals (Pitts, 1961, p. 821). James, in his "Consciousness of the Self," divided the self into two parts: the self as knower (the "I") and the self as known (the "me"), illustrating how the individual develops a sense of self through participation in social interaction and yet acknowledges that the sense of self requires the feeling of separation from others (1890, p. 194). James M. Baldwin stated, "The real self is the bipolar self, the societal self, the socius" (1897, p. i). This is the first use of the term "bipolar self." However, the concept differs from that of Kohut.

Cooley's "looking-glass self" theorizes that individuals see themselves as they believe others see them. This theory is frequently interpreted as referring to direct reflections; however, according to Cooley's principles, "the looking-glass self" is the imagination of one's appearance to the other person and the imagination of his/her judgment of that

appearance. He stated: "A thing that moves us to pride or shame is not the mere mechanical reflection of ourselves, but an imputed sentiment--the imagined effect of this reflection upon another mind" (Cooley, 1912, p. 194). It is thus not others' attitudes toward us, but our perceptions of their attitudes which are significant.

Symbolic interactionists number among their principal figures W. I. Thomas (1927), John Dewey (1930), and Mead (1934), all of the University of Chicago. Even James (1890), and more currently, Erving Goffman (1961) can be added to the list. All share a common emphasis on the inner psychological system of the self: one's enduring sense of personal identity as is essential to the understanding of human social behavior (Grey, 1970, p. 5).

Mead described his observations in the language of interpersonal interactions rather than intrapsychic processes and referred to mental phenomena as "symbolic" or "verbal" operations. His contributions were seminal to the development of the concept of the self. He recognized the difference between the self as subject and the self as object. He noted that the social process of communication requires the individual to "take the role as the other object." According to Mead, the self "emerges as he comes to respond to himself from the standpoint of others. The individual experiences himself as such not directly but only indirectly from the particular standpoints of the other individual members in the same group or from the generalized standpoint of the social group as a whole to which he belongs" (1934, p. 138). Mead stressed that conceptual validation of one's self-concept is needed, noting that the very sense of one's self arises through the process of adopting the attitudes of others

(p. 64). "We are more or less unconsciously seeing ourselves as others see us," Mead stated (p. 68).

A current theorist, Morris Rosenberg, noted that "if the process of communication obliges the individual to become an object of himself--by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward himself, it is reasonable to think that others' evaluations will affect the individual's self-evaluation" (1979, p. 64). Amending Mead's statement, Rosenberg wrote, "We are more or less unconsciously seeing ourselves as we think others who are important to us and whose opinions we trust see us" (p. 97). Thus, there is a correlation between our perceptions of others' attitudes toward us and our attitudes toward ourselves.

Sullivan's theoretical formulations were greatly influenced by Mead, Adolph Meyer, and Sigmund Freud. Sullivan acknowledged that behind all phases of psychiatry are the discoveries of Freud. He also cited the social psychology of Mead and the psychobiology of Meyer. Sullivan commented on Mead's contributions in the development of social psychology, particularly regarding the development of the self. Mead's concept of self is close to what Sullivan described as the self-system: the reflected appraisal of others and the learning of roles which one undertakes to live (Sullivan, 1953, p. 17). Sullivan was most impressed by Mead's point concerning the capacity of the human organism to play the parts of others. Sullivan cited T. V. Smith's comments on Mead's formulations: "The capacity of the human organism to play the parts of others, inadequately described as imitation, is the basic condition of the genesis of the self. In playing the parts of others, we react to our own playing as well. When the organism comes to respond to its own role assumption as a response to others, it becomes the self. From roles assumed successively

and simultaneously, there arises gradually a sort of generalized 'other' whose role may be assumed. One's response to this generalized role is his individual self" (Smith, 1950, pp. 241-242). Sullivan notes that one can see a certain convergence of thought in the social psychology of Mead and the psychobiology of Meyer concerning the evolution of the self.

Psychobiology is defined as "the study of man at the highest embodiment of mentally integrated life." Psychobiology is a more or less conscious integration which makes use of symbols and meanings. The individual chooses his or her interpersonal material. The person as an object is subject capacity (Sullivan, 1953, p. 16).

Sullivan brought the term "self" into prominence. He also coined the term "significant other" and related it to parents. However, Mead is sometimes credited with the latter term because he often used the terms "significant symbol," "particular others," and "generalized others." Sullivan developed the theory of interpersonal relations out of these formulations. He held that "given a biological substrate, the human is the product of interaction with other human beings, that is, out of the personal and social forces acting on from the day of birth, that the personality emerges" (Thompson, 1950, p. 211). Sullivan regarded psychiatry "as much the same sphere which is studied by social psychology because scientific psychiatry has to be defined as the study of interpersonal relations" (Sullivan, 1947, p. 5).

Harry Guntrip described Sullivan as the father of the American interpersonal relations theory. Calling the theory "American object relations," Guntrip stated: "Sullivan's recognition of the subjectivity of experiencing as the true concern of psychodynamic studies and his definition of this as interpersonal relations marks the emergence in the clearest

possible way of object relational thinking disentangled from biology." Sullivan rejected "instinct" as an adequate concept of human psychology and introduced his version of object relations as early as 1925 (Guntrip, 1973, p. 43). Thus, it could be said that Sullivan's interest in the interpersonal aspects of ego functioning anticipated the current theoretical interest in object relations (Blanck and Blanck, 1980, p. 8).

Sullivan postulated several theorems which he felt were necessary for the development of the individual. Two of his theorems related to the interpersonal process he called empathy: (1) "The observed activity arising from the tension of the needs induces tension in the mothering one, which tension is experienced as tenderness and as a compulsion to activities toward the relief of the infant's needs" and (2) "The tension of anxiety when present in the mothering one induces anxiety in the infant" (Sullivan, 1953, pp. 40-41). Sullivan coined the word "empathy" from "emotion" and "sympathy" (Corsini, 1977, p. 167).

Sullivan believed that people had two decisive goals: the pursuit of satisfaction and the pursuit of security (Sullivan, 1956). "In the pursuit of satisfaction," Robert W. Beavers wrote of Sullivan, "he recognized those biological factors which Freud emphasized, but he focused equally on the individual's need for interpersonal environment in order to maintain personal security. The self-system, then, arises and is maintained by the continuous interaction between the individual and the need of others" (Beavers, 1977, p. 244).

Sullivan's theories were compared by Guntrip to those of W. Ronald D. Fairbairn of the English Object Relations School (Guntrip, 1973). Some current psychoanalytic writers have stressed the similarity of the theories of Fairbairn and Kohut. Michael Robbins described Fairbairn as

postulating the theory in which the self and its object relations of the primary unit develop as a result of the reciprocal relation between object and "dynamic structures," which usually means the parents. Both Kohut and Fairbairn de-emphasized the role of the pleasure principle and the importance of libido and aggression in normal functioning. (Self and its object relations are the primary unit of the theories of English object relations and self psychology. The "nascent self" is considered to be the first psychic self.) Kohut and Fairbairn felt that self-development commences with the state of merger and primary identification with parental objects. Both attach importance to the pre-object relationship in early development and primitive psychopathology (Robbins, 1980, p. 477).

However, it is not the purpose of this research to study the similarities and/or differences in the theories. These are mentioned in order to highlight common threads in the concepts of Sullivan, Fairbairn, and Kohut.

The strands of knowledge generated by James, Mead, and Goffman have yet to be satisfactorily integrated with those contributed by Freud, Sullivan, and Kohut. Kohut was trained at the University of Chicago, the school where Cooley and Mead taught. Some of Kohut's theoretical formulations are similar to theirs.

How can one know the self? Daniel Offer, Eric Ostrov, and Kenneth Howard suggested the developmental approach. They stated that scientists study the self to some extent in a Goffmanesque world, that is, the self they study is the presented self. Offer and his colleagues commented, "The Meadian self and the Kohutian self can perhaps be assimilated into a framework in which one is primarily a social self and the other is primarily a psychological self. The social self is usually how we describe

ourselves to ourselves, and roughly corresponds to how we are described by others. It depends on conscious perceptions that are easily correctable. The psychological self is a nonaccessible, often unconscious part of self that cannot be directly observed. The psychological self can be studied by the outsider who utilizes inference and has the cooperation of the person observed. The empathic approach makes it possible for one person to gain access to the psychic structure and feelings of another. Empathy can be understood as depending on verbal and nonverbal cues that the observer can identify or less cognitively experience as corresponding to a feeling state that he the observer has experienced" (Offer et al., 1980, pp. 197-199).

DEVELOPMENTAL CONCEPTS OF KOHUT

It is important to clarify that the concept of the self and its definitions by Kohut have evolved through years. In his work The Analysis of the Self (1971) Kohut defined self "as a content of the mental apparatus--it is a structure within the mind--it has continuity in time, i.e., it is enduring--the self has, furthermore, also a psychic location. The self, then, quite analogous to the representation of objects, is a content of the mental apparatus but is not one of its constituents, i.e., not one of the agencies of the mind (p. XV).

Kohut further elaborated that the concepts of identity and self are different. In a letter to Jürgen Vom Scheidt in 1975 he wrote, "I see the concepts of self and identity as clearly different. The self is a depth-psychological concept that refers to the core of the personality made up of various constituents in the interplay with the child's earliest selfobjects. It contains (1) basic layers of the personality from which

emanate the strivings for power and success; further (2) its central idealized goal; and then, in addition (3) the basic talents and skills that mediate between ambitions and ideals--all attached to the sense of being a unit in time and space, a recipient of impressions and an initiator of actions. Identity, on the other hand, is the point of convergence between a developed self (as it is constituted in late adolescence and childhood) and the socio-cultural position of the individual" (Ornstein, 1979, Vol. 1, pp. 471-472).

Kohut made the point that definitions can be extrapolated from more complex statements concerning the genesis, the structure, and the dynamics of the self. He wrote, "I speak of our perception of the self as a sense of abiding sameness within the framework of reality that imposes on us the limits of time, change, and ultimate transience, and I come to the conclusion that even the constituents of self (ambition, ideals, skills, and talents) may change without a loss of 'our sense of abiding sameness,' i.e., without a loss of our self, and I suggest that it is not the content of the constituents of the nuclear self that defines our self but the nature of the tension gradient between them, the unchanging specificity of the self's expressive creative tensions that point toward the future" (Kohut, 1977, p. 182).

Kohut and Ernest Wolf, in their article "The Disorders of the Self and Their Treatment: An Outline," define the self as "a structure which crystallizes in the interplay of inherited and environmental factors. It aims toward the realization of its own specific program of action--a program that is determined by the specific intrinsic pattern of its constituent ambitions, goals, skills, and talents, and by the tensions that arise between these constituents. In other words, the patterns of

ambitions, skills, and goals, the tensions between them, the program of action that they create, and the activities that strive toward the realization of this program are all experienced as continuous in space and time. They are the self, independent center of initiative, and independent recipient of impressions" (1978, p. 414).

Further defining the self as "the core of our personality," Kohut and Wolf wrote: "It has various constituents which we acquire in the interplay with those persons in our earliest childhood environment whom we experience as selfobjects. A firm self, resulting from optimal interactions between a child and his selfobjects is made up of three major constituents: (1) one pole from which emanates the basic strivings for power and success; (2) another pole that harbors the basic idealized goals; and (3) an intermediate area of basic talents and skills that are activated by the tension arc that establishes itself between ambitions and ideals" (1978, p. 414). This defines the bipolar self.

Kohut, who proposed several developmental lines, theorized that there is a line of object love and bifurcated bipolar line of self love. The bipolar line relates to two areas of development: "the establishment of the child's cohesive grandiose-exhibitionistic self (via his relation to the empathically responding merging-mirroring-approving selfobject), on the one hand, and to the establishment of the child's cohesive idealized parent-imago (via his relation to the emphatically responding selfobject parent who permits and indeed enjoys the child's idealization of him and merger with him), on the other" (Kohut, 1977, p. 185).

Elinor Grayer described the developmental tasks assigned to the bipolar lines, as follows:

Line of the Grandiose Self: The developmental task assigned to this line is that of enabling a child to modify his or her early grandiosity into a cohesive sense of self, to develop pride and self-confidence independently of another admiring person and to develop healthy ambitions. Given the developmental process which accomplishes this, the child first merges with the mother, and by this merger feels omnipotent. Next, the child begins to draw strength and a feeling of value by experiencing the mother as a twin, an alter ego. A statement describing this stage is, "I am like you, and you are wonderful; therefore, I am too." Finally, with increasing separation from mother, the child experiences mother mirroring back his or her own feelings and is able thereby to gain validation--a validated sense of what is real and what is acceptable and what is not. This process enables the child to gain confidence in his or her own judgment.

These three phases correspond to the child's increasing sense of separateness from mother. They comprise the three phases of development along the line of the grandiose self: the merger phase, the twinship or alter ego phase, and the mirroring phase. Healthy development along this line results in self-confidence, self-esteem, and the development of healthy ambitions. The pathology that results from inadequate parenting along this line usually manifests itself in individuals who demand endless reassurance from others, and behave as if other people exist only to satisfy their needs.

Line of the Idealized Parent-Imago (Parent or the Omnipotent Object): This line is separate from and parallel to the development of the grandiose self; development proceeds concurrently. There are two major parental functions to this line: the protective function and the idealizing function. The former concerns the internalization of the ability to soothe or modulate oneself at times of stress or anxiety. This happens, for example, when mother soothes the child who has fallen and scraped a knee. The child experiences the mother's calmness and security and uses them for reassurance and safety. As in the grandiose self, the child has temporarily merged with mother's assurance and uses it to gain a sense of wholeness. Repeated episodes allow the child to gain the experience of internalizing the mother's calmness and eventually to furnish it to him or herself.

The idealizing function concerns the child's need to idealize the parent, to attribute to him or her power and perfection so that the child can feel a participant in the adult's power. The child, in effect, borrows from the parent those attributes which he or she has endowed the parent and in doing so, establishes a sense of wholeness. Gradually, with maturation and with the experience given

> by the normal disappointments of life, the child begins to de-idealize the adult, and to recognize that he or she can now experience for him or herself those functions once sought from the idealized figure. The functions of the adult are internalized. The loss of the idealization of the selfobject is transmuted into the child's ability to perform these functions for him or herself. The task of this line of development, therefore, is the development of the capacity to modulate one's stimulation--to regulate one's tension--and to develop an ego ideal.
>
> When development proceeds well, the narcissistic lines of development are transformed into self-confidence, self-esteem, and the capacity to balance one's ideals and ambitions in order to accomplish life's tasks and goals.
>
> (Grayer, 1981, pp. 125-126)

The concept of the developmental line was introduced by Anna Freud (1965). Her concept recognized that "development is a process which involves an interaction from innately given sequences and accidentally impinging environmental events" (pp. 64-68). Erik Erikson (1950), Donald Winnicott (1960), and Margaret Mahler (1975) also postulated developmental lines.

According to Offer et al., Kohut's developmental theory should be susceptible to scientific investigation so that reliability and validity of questions concerning empathy take on special relevance (1980, p. 200). One tenet that Kohut's theory shares with traditional psychoanalytic theories of development is that experiences in infancy have a strong effect on subsequent feelings in adulthood. Psychoanalytic theory, introduced in the 1920s and 1930s, placed the child in a social matrix. Parental actions became the central determinant of the child's development. Particular aspects of parental behavior, such as the quality of affected posture toward the child, have a powerful influence on the development of the self (Offer, 1980, pp. 197-199).

Jerome Kagan et al. (1978) stated that "a conception of what we want

children to become inevitably influences the categories we use to describe them, and the valuative attributes we assign to infants are occasionally the opposite of the valued traits we wish adults to obtain." To illustrate his point, Kagan noted that historical shifts in ascribed traits have revealed secular changes in the local ego ideal:

> During the 1930s, when control of all aggression was the civilized goal to grow toward, Melanie Klein wrote of the unrestrained primitive aggression of the infant....Since the Second World War, nonviolent forms of aggression lost some of their negative value, and that trait has been dropped from the infant's vita....
>
> When a reasonable conformity to benevolent authority was the ideal, young children were described as willful. As the roll of events began to taint all moral imperatives given by elders...some felt it necessary to promote a more personalized conscience to a higher position. Children who conformed to the requests and commands of benevolent adults out of fear of punishment or reprisal, were reclassified as immature....When control of sexual impulse was the European ideal...Freud described the young child as an uncharted libidinous surface. Now that access to sexual passions has become a new criterion for maturity, few care about infant sexuality...
>
> The West values autonomy; the self is supposed to resist becoming completely dependent upon another and to grow toward individuation. Erik Erikson writes of the gradual attainment of an ego identity, Margaret Mahler of a firm body boundary, and Roy Schafer of a sense of separation of self from others. ...Because they see development as progression toward these related ideals, theorists have assumed that the infant has minimally differentiated psychological functions--that the infant is a being without autonomy....Modern theorists also project onto the infant and young child...anxiety over the loss of a loving and caretaking adult.
>
> (Kagan, pp. 11-13)

Kagan stressed that it is a serious error to study infants by using comparative categories whose meaning is derived from contrasting descriptions of adulthood. "However," wrote Kagan, "from America's birth to the present time, the majority believe that the correct pattern of experiences at home and school would guarantee a harmonious society. With infant

malleability, the parents project onto the infant their hopes for the future" (p. 12).

There is a general agreement among Erikson (1950), Winnicott (1960), Mahler (1975), Kagan (1978), and Wolf (1980) that competent, empathic caretakers facilitate psychic development. Mahler and her colleagues stressed the importance of the mother to satisfy the basic bodily needs and to do so with regularity and constancy, the principal elements in the process of internalization (Cohler, 1980, p. 95). Although Winnicott spoke of the "good enough" mother who is empathic with the child's needs (1960, p. 591), Kohut further elaborated on the significance of empathy in the child's development. Highlighting the soothing qualities of empathic actions, perceived subjectively by the child, he stated, "The child that is to survive psychologically is born into an empathic-responsive human milieu (of selfobjects). . . . When the child's psychological balance is disturbed, the child's tensions are, under normal circumstances, empathically perceived and responded to by the selfobject. The self-object equipped with a mature psychological organization that can realistically assess the child's needs and what is to be done about them will include the child into its own psychological organization and remedy the child's homeostatic imbalance through actions" (1977, p. 85).

Kohut emphasized that the first of these two steps, the empathic response, is of far greater psychological significance, especially with regard to the child's ability to build psychological structures via transmuting internalizations. He considered this two-step sequence, if optimally experienced during childhood, one of the pillars of mental health throughout life.

When does the self exist? Kohut postulated that while a baby does

not have a self, he/she is fused with an environment that does experience him/her as already possessing a self (Kohut, 1977, pp. 99-100). Wolf has elaborated that caretakers imagine the baby to be a person, addressing him/her in a way that acknowledges selfhood. Initially there is no actual self but a virtual self imprinted on the infant by the parent. Around the second year, there is an emergence of a self and it becomes possible to talk about an actual selfobject relation (1980, p. 119).

Others have written about the process of acquiring a self. Marian Tolpin, in her article "On the Beginnings of a Cohesive Self" (1971), described the application of the concept of transmuting internalizations, that is, internalizing the functions of the selfobject, in her exploration of transitional object and signal anxiety. Her conclusions were that "the phase-specific developmental task of the separation-individuation phase--the acquisition of the psychological structure that is the foundation for a cohesive self and for true psychic separation--is accomplished by the process that Kohut has designated as transmuting internalization" (p. 346). Gerald Stechler and Samuel Kaplan (1980) observed a process similar to what Kohut described as transmuting internalizations (p. 100).

Bertram Cohler (1980) contended that the process of development, as suggested by Kohut (1971-1977) and Tolpin (1971), is a psychological focus which is in contrast to the interpersonal formulations on the child's developing sense of self as presented by interactionists Cooley, Mead, and Sullivan (p. 97).

This writer agrees with Wolf's definition of the interaction between self and selfobjects which seem to describe a family system. "They are conceptualized in terms of continuous and reciprocal influences. The feedback processes between the self and its selfobject milieu result in

continuous modification of both" (Wolf, 1980, p. 122). Here, Wolf's writings have common threads of the theoretical framework of the family system as described by Murray Bowen (1978). Wolf stated that in the developmental line of selfobject relations, from birth to the emergence of the self, the primary need is for selfobject relations that lend organization to the emerging self. The next stage, according to Wolf, is strengthening and securing the self's boundaries. "The self is also forever precariously balanced between the entropic yearning for union (or merger) on one hand, and the negentropic striving for differentiation, separateness and boundaries on the other" (1980, p. 126).

Bowen referred to two opposing basic life forces. One is a thrust toward individuality and the differentiation of the "separate self," and the other, movement toward emotional closeness (1978, p. 424). Bowen theorized that the differentiation of self takes place in a triangle, that is, between parents and child. Wolf wrote, "The boundaries are strengthened within the context of the selfobject relationships by drawing on the aid of the confirming selfobject as an ally while simultaneously confronting the selfobject as an antagonist against whom self-assertion mobilizes healthy aggression that promotes the cohesive strength of the self" (pp. 125-126). These roles are interchangeable among the parental selfobjects.

Bowen further theorized that if the differentiation of self has not been effected in the family of origin, patterns will be repeated. He regarded defining the self and working toward individuation as essentially synonymous. He postulated that the emotional attachment between spouses is identical to the emotional attachment that each spouse had in his or her family origin (1978, p. 530). However, this writer feels that

corrective experiences the individual might have had are not taken into account and that the emotional attachments are not always identical.

Self psychology emphasizes the selfobject shift toward the environment and is an interpersonal point of view. Kohut postulated that there are often yearnings for needs not met by selfobjects and that marriage is an attempt to satisfy them.

SELECTION OF MATES

Historically, people married out of the need for physical survival and economic security. Marriage provided a structure for the well-being of two people and their offspring. However, today the primary struggle is for psychological and economic survival.

The question is asked, "Why do people marry?" Today, the most common self-report response is: "We are in love." Love is an extremely complex concept. However, definitions have been attempted.

The perfect love espoused by the western Christian world is that described by St. Paul in his First Letter to the Corinthians, Chapter 13, Verses 4-7:

> Love is patient; love is kind.
> Love is not jealous; it does not put on airs.
> It is not snobbish.
> Love is never rude; it is not self seeking.
> It is not prone to anger; neither does it
> brood over injury.
> Love does not rejoice in what is wrong,
> but rejoices with the truth.
> There is no limit to love's forbearance,
> to its trust, to its hope, its power to endure.
>
> (The New American Bible, p. 270)

To Sullivan, the state of love exists "when the satisfaction or security of another person becomes as significant to one as one's own satisfaction and security" (1953, pp. 42-43). George Levinger (1965)

defined love as "esteem for the spouse" (p. 20). Nelson N. Foote (1953) described it as "a devotion and respect of the spouse that is equal to one's own self love." An optimal marriage, according to Foote, is one in which "the success of the marriage is judged by the degree to which each partner contributes reciprocally to the continuous development of the other" (p. 251).

C. H. Swensen has attempted to operationalize what people mean when they talk about their love for one another and the behaviors they show when they are being loving. His factor analysis of the data on love behavior consists of: "(a) expressing affection verbally, (b) showing affection physically, (c) giving emotional support and expressing interest, (d) material aid, (e) positive sentiments of happiness and security, (f) disclosure of intimate facts, and (g) accepting the negative aspects of the loved one in order to continue the relationship" (1972, pp. 92-95).

William Lederer and Don Jackson wrote of the self-report reasons people marry and what they term the myths of marriage: (1) "that people marry because they love each other," (2) "that most married people love each other," (3) "that love is necessary for a satisfactory marriage," (4) "that there are inherent behavioral and attitudinal differences between female and male, and that these differences cause most marital troubles," (5) "that the advent of children automatically improves a potentially difficult marriage," (6) "that loneliness will be cured by marriage," and (8) "that if you can tell your spouse to go to hell, you have a poor marriage" (1968, pp. 41-79).

Marriage research began in 1890 with K. Pearson's comparison of the anthropometric characteristics of spouses (Tharp, 1970, ed. Grey, p. 62). The first sociologist to do a major study of husband-wife relationships

was Ernest W. Burgess of the University of Chicago, who referred to the family as a "unity of interacting personalities" (Farber, 1964, p. 20). Burgess collaborated on two books--Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage (1939) with L. Cottrell, and Engagement and Marriage (1953) with P. Wallin. Research focused on the questions "Whom shall I marry?" and "Which type of mate is most likely to assure a mutually satisfying relationship?" The main finding of both studies, fourteen years apart, was that mate selection was homogamous (Grey, 1970, p. 9). The term "homogamy," according to Burgess, "applies to the observation that, in general, husbands and wives in American families resemble one another in various physical, psychological, and social characteristics" (Burchinal, 1964, p. 645).

The homogamy principle was later challenged by Robert Winch, who formulated the theory of complementarity. Granting that some degree of similarity was important for mutual attraction, he nevertheless felt that it was also possible one would seek a spouse whose traits are opposite in order to supplement felt needs and deficiencies (Winch et al., 1954, pp. 241-249). Winch's theory works well with clinical observations made by therapists with psychodynamic orientations (Ackerman, 1954, p. 4). However, it is possible that couples who seek therapy have married for complementarity and their attempts to supplement felt needs and deficiencies were not successful.

Roland Tharp, in his article "Psychological Patterning in Marriage," cited the early studies of homogamy versus heterogamy which placed little emphasis on psychological variables. The research related to heterogamy was divided into four categories: interpersonal perception, identification, complementary needs, and role theory. Interpersonal perception

and complementary needs are the most significant for purposes of this study (1970, ed. Grey, p. 65).

E. L. Kelly (1941) was the first to consider perception of personality as an operative force in its own right. He stated, "The actual relative position of the husband and wife on a personality trait continuum is not as important in determining compatibility as the belief of the husband and wife regarding the relative positions on these scales" (p. 193). The results from Kelly's research were that "self-rating of spouses showed positive correlations of the same orders as those of the classic studies with a tendency for greater congruency in happier than in unhappy couples. Higher correlations occur, however, between ratings of self and ratings of spouse. This tendency is likewise stronger with more happily-marrieds" (Tharp, 1970, ed. Grey, p. 66).

Rosalind Dymond supported the view that love is not blind. The better each partner understands the other's perception of himself/herself and his/her world, she contended, the more satisfactory the relationship. The usual findings occurred: "Happily married spouses resembled each other more than unhappily-marrieds. Also, happily-marrieds predicted spouses' replies significantly better than unhappily-marrieds. In the happy group, there was significantly more association between similarity of self and spouse and accuracy of predictions than in the unhappy group. The inference is that happiness increases as does congruence between self and self and self as spouse, particularly when the self as seen by the self and the self as seen by the spouse become more nearly equal stimulus configurations; that is, when the self acting as spouse does no violence to self-identity, causatively or concomitantly, happiness increases" (1954, pp. 164-171). This would indicate that when the spouse is seen

as a positive selfobject, happiness increases.

Raymond J. Corsini found that great conformity of "male perception measured by the mean correlation for each male against all other males is positively correlated with happiness with both husband and wife" (1956, pp. 240-242). Thus, if the husband perceived himself like other men, there was more marital happiness.

Jürgen Klapprott and Johannes Engelkamp measured partner similarity, assumed similarity, accuracy, and projection tendency. The results were that accuracy was independent of partner similarity; assumed similarity correlated with partner similarity; projection tendency was present only in like couples; and accuracy was higher for men. The assumption was made that women's traits were more homogeneous and therefore easier to predict (1979, pp. 167-181). These sexist findings would be challenged today.

INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST

Earlier in this chapter, Sullivan's theories were cited in some detail because of his contributions to self theory; his influence on Don Jackson, who was quoted previously regarding mate selection; and his influence, along with Erik Erikson's, in the development of Timothy Leary's personality psychology. Sullivan defined personality as "a relatively enduring pattern of recurring interpersonal situations which characterize a human life" (1953, p. 110). Leary defined personality as "the multilevel pattern of interpersonal responses (overt, conscious, or private) expressed by the individual. Interpersonal behavior is aimed at reducing anxiety. All the social, emotional, interpersonal activities of an individual can be understood as attempts to avoid anxiety or to establish and maintain self-esteem." Leary further defined interpersonal

behavior as "private perceptions, conscious reports, as well as symbolic and unwitting expressions and overt actions" (1956, p. 9).

The research instrument used in the present work, the Interpersonal Check List (ICL), is based on Sullivan's interpersonal theory of psychiatry and Leary's interpersonal diagnosis of personality. The ICL has frequently been used in marital and family diagnoses and research. Measuring personality variables of the interpersonal diagnosis of personality, the Interpersonal Check List is made up of eight interpersonal variables plotted on a circular continuum for categorizing behavior at all levels: managerial-autocratic, responsible-hypernormal, cooperative-overconventional, docile-dependent, self effacing-masochistic, rebellious-distrustful, aggressive-sadistic, and competitive-narcissistic. Each of the eight variables is subdivided into two components as indicated by the hyphenated phrases above. The eight-trait system has been most accepted.

In addition to the phrases in interpersonal trait levels of the ICL, a higher order of unity is hypothesized to be represented by the variables. The circular continuum containing the eight personality traits is marked with the two bipolar dimensions: dominance-submission and hate-love. A scoring scheme utilizing several variables allows the plotting of a person's dominant-submission and hate-love scores within the circle (Bentler, 1965, ed. Buros, p. 127).

Marital dyad research employing the ICL has been conducted by several social scientists. Eleanor B. Luckey (1959, 1960a, 1960b), using the ICL, found that "satisfaction in marriage is related to the congruence of the husband's self-concept and that held of him by the wife." This relationship does not hold for the concept of wives. Happiness (Luckey's word) was also related to (a) congruence of the husband's self and ideal concepts,

(b) congruence of the husband's self-concept and his concept of his father, and (c) congruence of the wife's concept of the husband and her concept of the father. Luckey also found that in unhappy marriages men saw their fathers as more dominant and less loving than themselves on the ICL scales. In her 1952 study, Luckey scored the ICL 60-Item Dominant-Submission Scale. She found evidence for positive association of marital adjustment with equalitarian roles and negative association of marital adjustment with dominant roles by either spouse (1961, pp. 234-250). These findings suggest that certain dimensions on which the perceptions are congruent are related to the degree of satisfaction the subjects find in marriage. Duplicating Luckey's study, Walter John Drudge reported similar findings: the greater congruency on trait perceptions, the greater the marital satisfaction. The tolerance of the other's traits improved marital satisfaction (1968, p. 4558A).

Studies on marital satisfaction such as that by Michael J. Sparakowsky and George A. Hughston (1978) on long-married couples showed that positive marital adjustment was related to congruence of self and other perceptions. Tests used in this study, in addition to the ICL, were the Locke-Wallace Short Form Marital Adjustment Test and the Wallace Short Form Marital Adjustment Test (pp. 321-327).

Other studies using the ICL include John Altrocchi's "Dominance as a Factor in Interpersonal Choice and Perception" (1959) and Daniel J. Wiener's "Failure of Personality Variables to Mediate Interpersonal Attraction" (1970). Altrocchi found that people do not choose to interact, and perceive people in terms of the complement of one's own degree of dominance. Wiener found that only the dominance-submission measure of the

ICL correlated significantly with attraction, and only for high similarity (Altrocchi, pp. 303-308; Wiener, pp. 784-786).

The ICL itself has been the subject of studies to confirm its validity as a research instrument. Jane Truckenmiller and K. Warner Schoie, who conducted such a study, indicated that the results of structural validation confirmed at least partially Leary's (1957) system of interpersonal diagnosis. Their factors, I and II, roughly corresponded to Leary's dominance and love factors, respectively. It appeared that their study strongly supported the multilevel structural validity of an interpersonal diagnosis system (1979, pp. 1030-1045).

FAMILY RESEARCH

Family research benefited greatly from the classic work Family Worlds: A Psychosocial Approach to Family Life by Robert D. Hess and Gerald Handel. They developed a framework to analyze family interaction and interpersonal relations. The framework consisted of four elements: "separateness and connectedness are the underlying conditions of a family's life and a basic family process is the effort to achieve a satisfactory pattern of separateness and connectedness"; "behavior in a family may be viewed as the family's effort to obtain a satisfactory congruence of images through the exchange of suitable testimony"; "establishing boundaries of the family's world of experience, particularly the differentiation of the individual"; and "dealing with significant given biosocial issues of family life, particularly sex, generation, and birth order" (1959, pp. 4-19).

Family cohesion, family dimensions, related theoretical concepts, and definitions of the marital/family systems concept were the subject

of a review by David H. Olson and associates. Defining family cohesion as "the emotional bonding members have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in the family system" (p. 5), the authors delineated the opposite ends of the spectrum. High family cohesion at the extreme can result in enmeshment, an overidentification with family which results in extreme bonding and limited individual autonomy; low cohesion at the extreme is disengagement characterized by low bonding and high autonomy. Striving for balance is important (Olson et al., 1979, pp. 3-28).

A study of psychological health and family systems by Jerry M. Lewis and colleagues found that function is the greatest concern in healthy families. "The need for intimacy is respected; anger is responded to as a sign that something needs to be changed or corrected; and sexual interest is considered a generally positive force." The authors postulated five dimensions on which all families can be described: "(1) power structure, (2) degree of family individuation, (3) acceptance of separation and loss, (4) perception of reality, and (5) affect" (Lewis et al., 1976, p. 51). Healthy families are distinguished from unhealthy ones by their ratings on these dimensions.

The Lewis et al. study further indicated that tolerance for individuation is closely related to autonomy of family members. In the western world, a premium is placed on a personal sense of autonomy (Westley and Epstein, 1969; Lewis, 1976; Kagan et al., 1978). According to Lewis et al., tolerance for individuation is reflected in several discrete qualities of the family system: "(1) I-ness: the ability of individual family members to express themselves clearly as feeling, thinking, acting, valuable and separate individuals and to take responsibility for thoughts,

feelings, and actions; (2) respect for the unique experience of another: the recognition and acceptance that others may perceive differently; (3) permeability to others: the ability to share and respond to others within the system." In poorly differentiated families, members behaved as if human closeness is achieved by thinking and feeling alike; individuation is tantamount to rejection and exclusion. "If one cannot be 'himself' in his own family, he may have no self at all" (Lewis et al., pp. 57-58).

The research supported previous findings that the parental coalition establishes the level of function of the total family. Citing the works of Bowen, Lidz and Lidz, and the clinical insights of Ackerman, Zuk and Minuchin, the Lewis team also found that the parental coalition in optimal families, that is, the healthiest group, had unusual complementarity and reciprocity.

A notable study regarding the importance of a child's early years was conducted by L. W. Sander. According to Sander's formulation, the rules defining the operational system of the family are first expressed, then negotiated interactionally, and finally refined during the early years of family functioning (1975, p. 136).

Robert G. Ziegler and Peter J. Musliner conducted a study of two subsystems: mother-infant and the parenting couple dyads. The study examined the conceptualization of points of contact and/or mutual influence between the organization and function of the family and developing child (1977, pp. 293-305).

PARENTAL INFLUENCE/PRESCHOOL CHILD DEVELOPMENT

The review of literature of the preschool child was limited to parental influence on the development of preschool children.

Betsy Lozoff and colleagues (1977), writing about mother-newborn relationships, stressed that neonates need proprioceptive vestibular stimulation. Early maternal contact encourages maternal affection. As little as fifteen to twenty minutes of extra contact may be associated with later differences in maternal and infant behavior, promoting positive patterns of interaction (pp. 1-12).

A study about competent fathers by D. H. Heath (1976) indicated there is a correlation between parental competence and marital satisfaction as perceived by the mother. Competence as a father related to her perception of her spouse as a husband. The skill to communicate intimate feelings and engender a supportive relationship, as well as the ability to create a satisfactory adult relationship, made the wife feel adequate as a mother. By allaying doubts, anxieties and frustrations, and by support from the father, the mother would be able to give more nurturance to the child. The father's interest accelerated the mother's interest (pp. 26-39).

Sylvia Brody and Sidney Axelrod (1978) focused on the formation of character in the first seven years. Their observational research showed that the more adequate fathers were married to the more adequate mothers, which they concluded related to the quality of the marital relationship. The research also indicated a correlation between infant and child behavior: The child who had poor object relations at the end of the first year also had a poorer capacity for object relations later, as well as a poorer capacity for abstract thinking (pp. 304-312).

Candice Feiring and Michael Lewis (1978) noted the emphasis placed on mother-child dyads and suggested a greater emphasis on the father's role. Early socialization was also seen as a positive influence. The researchers stressed the need to conceptualize a young child as a member of the family, that is, in the family system (pp. 225-233).

S. K. Escalona (1973) who made a study of social interaction during the first two years of life, stated that "the fact that two-year-old children are already sensitive to what an adult wants them to do and are motivated to meet those implied requests make the process of socialization far easier than it would be if adults had to rely only on adult punishment." The author stressed that the appearance of internal standards is not a late development that occurs after the child learns to fear punishment, but is present in early ontogeny. "There is ample evidence that the variation in parental practices during the first year of life produces dramatic and lawful variations among children regarding irritability and rate of cognitive growth" (p. 205).

Ann S. Epstein and Norma Radin (1976), conducting a study on approximately 144 families with four-year-olds, explored the role of motivation to achieve as an intervening variable between parental nurturance and intellectual functioning of the child. For all males, motivation was an intervening variable between paternal behavior and the son's intellectual performance. The father's behavior affected the daughter's task and interpersonal motivations but did not influence her performance or intellectual task (pp. 831-839).

Child-rearing practices as they relate to competence in the preschool child were the subject of a study by Diana Baumrind (1967). The child-rearing practices of those parents whose children were self-reliant,

self-controlled, exploratory and content were contrasted with the child-rearing practices of parents whose children were discontented and distrustful and with the practices of parents whose children were immature and dependent. Observations were made in natural and structured settings. Parents of the most mature children were controlling, demanding, communicative, and nurturant. Parents of the discontented children were non-nurturing. Parents of the immature children were noncontrolling. (pp. 43-88).

Leo Katz (1974) in his article "The Rumpelstiltskin Complex," discussed parental rejection of children which assumes the form of overevaluation, that is, exaggerated appraisal of the child's genuine capacity. Such overevaluation results in difficulty for the child. The most serious damage occurs in the child's self-image in distorted parental relationships and in all subsequent object relationships (pp. 117-124).

The effect of parent participation on a child's self-concept was the subject of a study by Mary L. Summerlin and G. Robert Ward (1978). Parents in the group were measured by a parent attitude survey against twenty-four parents, randomly selected, who indicated a willingness to participate. Twenty-three children of the parent participants showed differences in self-concept, as measured by the Primary Self-Concept Inventory. The treatment effect experienced by parents was communicated to the children and resulted in higher self-concepts (pp. 227-232).

Kennedy T. Hill (1976) reviewed the effects of adult presence on children's learning and task performance as reported in a group of three studies. The presence of an adult, the study showed, increases performance of behaviors learned through positive reinforcement (pp. 99-104).

An evaluation of peer interactions on preschool children conducted

by Thomas Horner et al. (1976) offered rich data. The researchers stated that "psychoanalysis has established the importance of mental representations in the mediation of actions with objects which are encountered early by the individual. This is a period in which the child must resolve issues of separation which directly affect a child's core of positive feelings about himself/herself, and individuation, which entails a move toward an autonomy of greater emotional self-sufficiency." The evaluation of the child's peer interactive skills was based on his/her ability to induce, sustain, and coordinate interactions as well as maintain a basically positive disposition in order to enter into interactions with age mates.

The child's conceptualization of roles required the development of skills which included (1) planning, (2) identification of social cues, and (3) matching behavior patterns to existing psychic representations of patterns of interactions. "The development of positive cohesive self-structure is used, first, as an integral component of development and, second, as a beneficiary of the interactive skills which emerge from the young child's interactions with his/her age mates. The mutual contributions made by the emergence and continued growth of these skills and narcissistic equilibrium were discussed as the key characteristic of the developmental line from egocentricity to companionship" (Horner, pp. 461-475).

Essentially, the observation was that if the child was secure with the parental objects, he/she was more likely to enter into relationships with age mates.

The review of the self psychology theoretical literature indicates the importance of continuing selfobject relationships and the possibility

that marriage might be an attempt to satisfy unmet selfobject needs.

The literature supports the view that congruence of perceptions is important in marital satisfaction. Congruence could be seen as perceiving the spouse as a selfobject.

The literature also supports the findings that the variation in parental interaction is significant in the child's development of a self-concept and in the child's performance, suggesting that positive self-object relationships of parents are important in the development of children. However, there was no research on the formation of the marital dyad and its relationship to the perception of the children. Therefore, this writer decided to research the formation of the marital dyad, that is, the couple's selfobject relationship, to determine whether the relationship influences their perceptions of their children.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes an outline and description of the research process and the methods used for eliciting data, including the variables to be explored and an explanation of the marital dyad categories.

THE RESEARCH PROCESS

The family population of a Montessori preschool was chosen for study. This private, non-profit preschool is located in an upper-middle, professional class suburb of the San Francisco Peninsula. The research was designed as a cross-sectional study. The steps in the methodology were as follows:

1. Development of the hypothesis
2. Development of the seven marital dyad categories
3. Requesting and receiving permission from the Board of Directors of the school to conduct the research
4. Sending letters to all parents in the school
5. Selection of families
6. Assignment of a number to each family
7. Audiotaping home interviews with the families (no prior discussion with teachers), including
   a. consent form, signed by parents and children
   b. family portraits, real and ideal, drawn by all family members
   c. Interpersonal Check List, completed by parents
   d. responses to Satir's marital dyad questions, "How, of all the people in the world, did the two of you get together?"
   e. parents' perceptions of their children

f. identifying information given by parents

8. Completion of Interpersonal Check List by teachers for each experimental child, independent of Step 7

9. Entering each item on the Interpersonal Check List into computer by research assistant

10. Scoring, by three raters (two blind), of the parental responses to the marital dyad question, including

    a. assignment of answers to Categories 1-3 (Group A) or to Categories 4-7 (Group B) by raters

    b. group designation entered into computer and matched to family number

11. Tabulation of variables of family portraits

12. Scoring Interpersonal Check List and entering answers into computer by research assistant

    a. individual items matched for similarity and positivity

    b. standardized scores used and plotted on dominance-submission/hate-love quadrant

13. Comparison of Group A families with Group B families using self-object variables

14. Comparison of portraits, real and ideal, drawn by Group A with those drawn by Group B

15. Clinical impressions of the families

16. Conclusions

17. Implications

Permission was requested and granted for use of the school population and staff for the research. Letters were sent to the parents of each student, informing them of the research and requesting their participation. (See Appendix A for letter.) Twenty families responded; however, the research design limited participation to intact families, thus eliminating four respondents. The families were advised that the research had been revised from that outlined in the original letter to include

variables related to the development of the self in the preschool child. Participants tended to be among the families most active in various support-volunteer activities in the school.

Families electing to participate signed consent forms giving permission to be audiotaped and to have the coded, confidential information used for research and/or teaching purposes. (See Appendix A for consent form.)

Data were gathered during one interview with each family. The interviews were held at the homes of the participants and all were done at the kitchen table. The sessions consisted of drawing family portraits, real and ideal, by all family members; completing the Interpersonal Check List by each parent; responses (by parents) to the question, "How, of all the people in the world, did the two of you get together?"; eliciting parents' perceptions of their children at the current time and their perceptions of their children projected into the teenage years and adulthood; and identifying information given by parents.

TECHNIQUES FOR ELICITING DATA

I. Two Family Portraits, Real and Ideal

This procedure was chosen in order to elicit data about family interaction and the perceptions family members have of each other. Materials included a large sheet of white paper and 64 crayons. This medium was chosen because it is familiar to preschool children and offers opportunities for nonverbal as well as verbal levels of communication. Analysis of the data was limited to tabulations of the following: setup of project (interpreter/organizer); arrangement of family (individual--one person, group--more than one member of the family); subgroups (members of family

positioned together); touching; inclusion (in family portrait); drawn by other than self; additions to family; family values present; color; and changes in family composition. (See Appendix C, Table 8.)

II. The Interpersonal Check List

A. Completion of the Interpersonal Check List (ICL) by Parents

The test, consisting of 128 items, was given to parents in the absence of the children. Examples of the test items are: "well-thought of," "often admired," "always giving advice," "tries to be too successful." (See Appendix B for complete test.) Parents were asked to rate self, spouse, each child, and ideal self. Analyzed were relationships as follows: father by father, mother by father, ideal self by father, experimental subject by father, other children by father, mother by mother, father by mother, ideal self by mother, experimental subject by mother, other children by mother. These data answered some of the questions as to the relationship of the parents as selfobjects and the relationship of the experimental child as a selfobject.

B. Completion of the Interpersonal Check List by Teachers

The preschool teachers completed the Interpersonal Check List on each experimental subject. The perceptions of the parents were compared with those of the teachers.

The tests were scored by a research assistant and entered into a computer for analysis. Each item of the ICL was entered, as well as each item scored by the parents and teachers. The data were analyzed according to the standard format and by a nonstandardized format, matching each item for similarity and positivity.

III. The Marital Dyad Formation

This procedure offered data to answer questions about the parents' perception of the formation of their relationship. It was understood that they were making a retrospective analysis of the formation of the marital dyad which would be influenced by the current relationship. Parents were asked to answer Virginia Satir's question, "How, of all the people in the world, did the two of you get together?" (Satir, 1963, Family Therapy Seminar). Noted were (a) the basis for the first meeting and (b) the attraction. Three raters, which included the researcher and two trained raters, each working independently and the two trained raters working blindly, scored the audiotaped answers according to the following categories (for definitions of categories, see Chapter I):

1. Positive self and positive selfobject spouse
2. Positive complementary self and positive complementary selfobject spouse
3. Positive/negative self and positive/negative selfobject spouse
4. Negative self and negative selfobject spouse
5. Positive self and negative selfobject spouse
6. Negative self and positive selfobject spouse
7. Deficient self and deficient selfobject spouse

Categories 1-3, which contain elements of positive self and positive selfobject spouse in their definitions, constitute Group A. Categories 4-7, with negative and deficient selfobject language in their definitions, constitute Group B. Each family was designated A or B. The family number and group designation were entered into a computer, and the ICL data were analyzed.

IV. Parents' Perception of Children

Parents were asked to state their perceptions of their children which included the children as seen in the present, the children seen as teenagers, and the children seen as adults. The purpose of this exercise was to give the researcher an opportunity to observe interaction of the parents, how they handled any differences in their perceptions of their children, and whether there was any difference in stated perceptions and patterns of responses between Group A and Group B parents.

V. Identifying Information of Families

This information identified the sample as to its composition in terms of age, years of marriage, culture, race, education, religion, and occupation. Also noted was whether the family was labeled as clinical or nonclinical, that is, whether they had been in counseling, psychotherapy, or active with any community agency within the past five years. (See Appendix C for tables.)

VI. Clinical Observation and Evaluation

Clinical observation of the family interactions and evaluation of the family portraits, real and ideal, were made by the researcher, with the observation emphasis placed on the following Kohutian concepts:

1. Presence of empathy
2. Evidence of constituents of the self
   a. ambitions
   b. ideals
   c. skills
   d. talents

3. Evidence of merger of child with parent or parents, or of parents with child

4. Presence of mirroring, verbal or nonverbal

5. Evidence of tension regulation (soothing, setting limits)

6. Idealization of parent(s) by child

7. Idealization of child by parent(s)

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter includes descriptions of the sample, the researcher's seven selfobject categories, and the assignment to Group A or B; analysis and summary of the Real and Ideal Family Portraits; scoring of the Interpersonal Check List, t-tests of the null hypotheses and a summary of the findings; and reports on the clinical observations of the families and the parents' perceptions of their children, including a summary of the observations and perceptions.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The sample consisted of sixteen volunteer families from a Montessori preschool known for offering a quality preschool experience with well-trained, experienced teachers. The school is made up of racially integrated, upwardly mobile, middle-middle to upper middle class families who place a high value on education and would be considered child-centered families. There were two subjects in one family, bringing the number of experimental children to seventeen. Thirteen families were Caucasian, three Oriental. This was the first marriage for all the respondents.

The sample's vital statistics were: years of marriage--mean 10, median 9, range 5-16 (see Table 1); fathers' ages--mean 36, median 36, range 29-47 (see Table 2); mothers' ages--mean 33, median 33, range 26-42 (see Table 3); children's ages--mean 4.76, median 5, range 3-6; boys' ages --mean 4.86, median 5, range 4-6; girls' ages--mean 4.70, median 5, range 3-6. There were seven males and ten females as experimental subjects (see Table 4).

The range of education for fathers was from two years of college and graduation from a technical institute to Ph.D., with the upper levels of education being more weighted. The level of education of the mothers was one year of college and currently a student to M.A. The upper levels of education were more weighted. (See Table 5.)

Families were asked questions about stress and illness. They were also asked whether they had been active with a community resource or in psychotherapy within the past five years. Families who had been or were currently in therapy were designated as clinical. There were six clinical and ten nonclinical families. (See Table 6.)

MARITAL DYAD SELFOBJECT CATEGORIES/ASSIGNMENT TO GROUP A OR B

Seven categories were developed prior to the interviews. Group A would consist of the families in Categories 1-3, and Group B would consist of families in Categories 4-7. Categories 1-3 all contained positive selfobject in their definitions; Categories 4-7 contained negative self-object or deficient selfobject in their definitions.

The first procedure was to assign the families to Group A or Group B, based on each couple's response to Virginia Satir's question, "How, of all the people in the world, did the two of you get together?"

The raters were: (1) the researcher, a licensed clinical social worker with 26 years of clinical experience, (2) a licensed clinical social worker with five years of clinical experience, and (3) a counselor with a master's degree in counseling and three years of counseling experience. Each rater worked independently. Raters (2) and (3) had no knowledge of the families other than the information on the audiotapes. All three raters listened to and scored each audiotape. The tone of the

comments, as well as the content, was taken into consideration. When two out of three raters placed a response in a particular category, the response was counted as a score for that category. When one spouse gave answers that were scored for Categories 4-7, that family was placed in the B group, since both spouses had to have some elements of positive self selfobject in their responses to be placed in the A group. Some parents gave more than one response.

The following are samples of responses from each category:

Category 1: Positive self and positive selfobject spouse.

(Father) "We had the same values about career."
(Mother) "We had the same values about family."

(Father) "We both enjoyed good times."
(Mother) "We were both interested in social action groups."

Category 2: Positive complementary self and positive complementary selfobject spouse.

(Father) "I enjoyed her vitality. She's a go-getter and more emotional than I."
(Mother) "He's very thoughtful and reserved and helps me maintain a good balance in life."

Category 3: Positive/negative self and positive/negative selfobject spouse.

(Father) "We're very much alike. We like the same things. We also both have tempers."
(Mother) "Yes. We know how to fight--we blow up and then it's over. We're both responsive."

Category 4: Negative self and negative selfobject spouse.

(Father) "We're both perfectionists."*
(Mother) "We both need security."

*Tone indicated that these attributes were seen as negative.

Category 5: Positive self and negative selfobject spouse.

(Father) "She looked sad and I thought I could cheer her up. She looked like she needed someone."
(Mother) "I see myself as warm and he's distant."

Category 6: Negative self and positive selfobject spouse.

(Mother) "I can't do anything right. He takes care of most things."

Category 7: Deficient self and deficient selfobject spouse.

(Father) "We were both lonely and at loose ends."
(Mother) "We both seem to need someone to take care of us."

A statistical reliability test was not used. The visual pattern of responses indicated high reliability among the raters. (See Table 7.)

There were eight Group A families and eight Group B families, with 37 and 38 family members, respectively. Two newborns in Group A did not participate. An arbitrary decision was made to count one of the B families as "family 17," since there were two experimental subjects in that family. Therefore, there were eight A families and nine B families.

ANALYSIS OF THE FAMILY PORTRAIT

Each family was given one large sheet of paper and requested to draw a family portrait. Detailed instructions were not given, so as to give the researcher the opportunity to observe how the family functioned together. Some families asked for further clarification, such as whether each person was to draw the family as a group or to draw an individual, either himself/herself or another family member. The researcher would answer, "whatever way you want." Some siblings were too young to draw, but many participated by sitting at the table and using the crayons. There were no statistical tests of the family portraits. The family pictures were scored by the researcher according to the visual presence or absence of the listed variables, except interpreter (explained the task) and organizer (structured the task) which were scored from the audiotape. Comparisons were made between the two portraits, real and ideal.

A different instruction was given to families regarding the Ideal Portrait. They were asked to draw the family as they would like it to be, and to include themselves. Variables directly affected by this change in instruction were: arrangement of the family as individuals (a person drawing one person) or the family as a group (a person drawing some or all family members), and inclusion of self (a person drawing himself/herself). Another variable was added to the study of the Ideal Portrait, namely, changes in the family composition.

Real Portrait

Mothers were interpreters of the project more than fathers (6-5), with B mothers (4) more than A mothers (2). The fathers were organizers of the project more often than the mothers (9-6), with A fathers (6) scoring twice as often as the B fathers (3). However, the B mothers (4) scored higher than the fathers (3) and also scored twice as often as the A mothers (2). In the arrangement of the family, the A family members (20) drew themselves as individuals almost twice as often as B family members (11). The B families (21) drew themselves as a group twice as often as the A families (9). B families (6) also tended to be more linear, that is, oldest to youngest. The B families (7) tended to have more subgroups in the Real Portrait. The B families (14) drew themselves as touching other family members almost twice as often as the A families (8). For inclusion of self, the B families (23) tended to include themselves more than the A families (15). Some of the A families explicitly made a game out of the project and (by mutual agreement) drew other members of the family. Three of the B families also drew other members of the family. However, there was a difference in the process. Two of the

children objected, one strenuously, but both complied. One drew his mother while she drew him. The other child was instructed by the parents to draw them. Each parent, in turn, put a hand over the child's hand while being drawn. The B families tended to draw family members in their relative size.

The A families had three additions to the family, and the B families had six, with pets accounting for all the additions in the A families and four out of six in the B families.

There were more family values present in the B families (15) than in the A families (7). Most of these were drawn by the fathers. In color value, mono (one color) scores were approximately the same (7-6), but in the limited number of colors (two or three) the A families scored more than twice as often as the B families (11-5). The B families (21) used more color (three or more colors) in their pictures than did the A families (15).

Ideal Portrait

The mothers of the B families scored higher as interpreter of the project than did A mothers (5-0). There was not as much scoring as organizers in either A or B categories in the Ideal Portrait. More B families (22) drew the family as a group than did the A families (18). However, it is interesting to note that despite the instructions, two B mothers did not draw themselves and one B father did not draw himself. One B mother drew a house and her parents, and the other couple again had their pictures drawn with their hands over the child's hand.

The B families (15) again had more subgroups than the A families (9) with one difference: the A families (6) had twice as many subgroups

showing parents together. The variable of touching was about the same for both groups: A (17), B (16). The A parents followed the instructions to include themselves in the picture, while an experimental subject in a B family again drew the parents under their direction. The B parents tended to have more relative size in their drawings.

The B families' Ideal Portrait had more additions (7) than did the A families (4), with one B mother drawing her parents. There was a marked change in family values present, with the A families (44) scoring twice as many times in this category as the B families (22). However, the B fathers scored higher in play than the A fathers but no B mothers scored in that variable. Only one A father scored in religion. There was more of a trend with A families scoring in achievement/status (7-5), as well as work (2-1). There was a higher score for A families in competition (7-1) and cooperation (4-3). The most marked difference was in activity, with the A scores three times that of the B scores (15-5).

The A families scored lower than the B families in mono color (12-15), higher in limited color (5-3), and lower in colorful (16-18).

The most striking difference between the groups was in the changes in family composition category--the addition and deletion of children. The A couple who added a child, a baby girl, were in agreement. The B families were not in agreement as to additions. Two fathers and one mother added children, sex specified. In the deletion of children present in the Real Portrait, one A father left out a newborn baby. One father and three mothers in the B group deleted children in the Ideal Portrait and called attention to their deletions. Two experimental subjects in the A group and two experimental subjects in the B group deleted siblings, as did one sibling in the A group and three siblings in the B group. There

were no changes in sex of children in the A group, but two changes in the B group. There was no deletion of parents (parents drawn together) in the A group, but one deletion of parents by an experimental subject in the B group. Two experimental subjects in the A group deleted the father, and an experimental subject in the B group also deleted the father. There were no deletions of mothers.

It is interesting to note that the deletions in the A group occurred in families with babies under six months of age. Also, two of the A families who drew the family as a group had babies under six months of age. Overall, there were twice as many changes in family composition in the B families (16) as in the A families (8).

SUMMARY OF PORTRAIT FINDINGS

Real Portrait

The major finding in the Real Portrait was that the A group drew themselves as individuals more often than did the B group. The exception was that two of the A families, both of whom had babies under six months of age, drew themselves as a group. Some of the A families made a game out of the project and drew each other. Three experimental subjects in the B group were delegated to draw portraits of their parent or parents. All three complied, but two complained during the exercise. There was more touching in the B group.

Ideal Portrait

The major finding in the Ideal Portrait was that the B group changed family composition twice as often than did the A group. One A couple added a baby girl but were in agreement about the addition. One A father apparently forgot to include their baby. There were deletions by experi-

mental subjects in three A families. The A families with composition changes had babies under the age of six months, except the family in which the parents were in agreement on the addition of a baby girl.

Changes in family composition by Group B parents were deliberate and were noted verbally by them. The parents were not in agreement with these changes. The children of one B family added friends to their portrait, and another B mother added her parents but did not include herself. In spite of instructions to include themselves, three B parents did not do so. Two mothers of the A families who made a game out of drawing the Real Portrait drew the family as a group in the Ideal Portrait. (See Table 8.)

INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST SCORING

There are 128 items in the Interpersonal Check List.

Parents were asked to rate self, ideal self, spouse, and children. Teachers were asked to rate each experimental subject. Items checked on the Interpersonal Check List and the related concepts of Kohut are as follows:

Items Checked on ICL	Kohutian Concepts
Self	Self
Self and ideal self	Positive self
Self and spouse	Selfobject spouse
Self, ideal self and spouse	Positive selfobject spouse
Self and child	Selfobject child
Self, ideal self and child	Positive selfobject child
Spouse and ideal self	Positive complementary selfobject spouse
Child and ideal self	Positive complementary selfobject child
Items not checked by teachers, but by parents about child and ideal self	Child idealized selfobject

The Interpersonal Check List (ICL) was scored in two ways. First, the nonstandardized method (a procedure for analyzing data differently from that of Leary et al.) was employed, with each item entered into a computer and matched for similarity and positivity. Items checked by both parents were considered similar. Items checked for ideal self were considered positive.

Items checked for self but not ideal were not considered negative. Negative selfobject spouse and child were not scored, since an item might not be considered negative by the respondent even if it was not checked as ideal.

The teachers rated each experimental child. Their ratings were used as an objective rating, with the child considered to have the trait when two out of three teachers checked a particular item.

Second, the test was scored according to the standardized instructions,* with parents' ratings of self, ideal self, spouse, and children (experimental subject and siblings) plotted on the bipolar quadrant of dominant-submission/hate-love. The teachers' scores (the average of the three) were also plotted on the quadrant.

A computer was used in the analysis of the data. The level of significance was determined to be .05. Trend would be considered .051 to .10.

Groups A and B were compared using t-test procedure assuming unequal variance. Because the hypotheses were that Group A would be more positive than Group B, a one-tailed, rather than the two-tailed, t-test was used. The t-values for the one-tailed test were derived by dividing the two-tailed

*ICL Manual.

t-values in half. The assumption of unequal variance is proper: when the group variances are in fact equal, the t-values resulting from the two methods are exactly the same.

THE t-TESTS OF THE NULL HYPOTHESES

Null Hypothesis 1--The mean of Group A is equal to the mean of Group B (with each couple's scores averaged) for the following variables: Self and ideal self; self and spouse; self and child; child and ideal self; spouse and ideal self; child, self, and ideal self; child, self, and not ideal self; spouse, self, and not ideal self; spouse, self, and ideal self; congruence with teachers of non-ideal items checked for child; congruence with teachers of ideal items checked for child.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected except for the following variable: percentage of items checked for self and child, which was significant at the .0419 level. (See Table 9.)

Null Hypothesis 2--The mean of Group A is equal to the mean of Group B, using the same variables as Null Hypothesis 1, with Group A parents scored as individuals and the Group B parents scored as individuals.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected except for the following variable: percentage of items checked for self and child (child self-object), significant at the .0202 level. Two variables shown to be a trend were: percentage of items checked for spouse, self and ideal self, .0759; and percentage of congruence with teachers of non-ideal items checked for child, .0732. (See Table 10.)

Null Hypothesis 3--The mean of Group A is equal to the mean of Group B for the following variables: congruence of parents' view of child with

teachers'; congruence of fathers' and mothers' view of child; congruence of parents' ideal self with view of child; congruence of parents' self with view of child; congruence of parents' ideal self with self; congruence of parents' self with view of spouse; and idealized view of child, that is, items checked for ideal self, child, not self, and not congruent with teachers.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected, except for the following variable: congruence of parents' self with view of child, .0436. The following were trends: congruence of parents' view of child with teachers', .0607; congruence of parents' ideal self with view of child, .0510, congruence of parents' view of self with view of spouse, .0678; idealized view of child, .0923. The B families idealized more than the A families. (See Table 11.)

Null Hypothesis 4--The mean of fathers' scores is equal to the mean of mothers' scores. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There were no significant findings. (See Table 12.)

The standardized scores of the parents' ratings were placed on the bipolar quadrant. The teachers' ratings of the experimental subjects were also placed on the quadrant. (See Table 13 for each family's ratings.) A *t*-test was made of the standardized scores placed on the bipolar quadrant of dominance-submission/hate-love. The distance was measured between the various scores placed on the quadrant comparing Group A and Group B families. The assumption is: the closer the scores (the less distance), the more congruent the perception.

Null Hypothesis 5--The mean of Group A is equal to the mean of Group B for the following variables: child by father, child by mother; child

by mother, child by teachers; child by father, child by teachers; ideal self by mother, child by mother; ideal self by father, child by father; self by mother, child by mother; self by father, child by father; self by mother, father by mother; self by father, mother by father; self by father, self by mother; self by parents, ideal self by parents; self by parents, parents by parents; child by father, child by mother, child by teachers; child by teachers; child by parents, child by teachers; ideal by parents, child by parents; self by parents, child by parents.

For the variables including child in their measurement, the mean was 9. For variables not including child, the mean was 8.

The null hypothesis was rejected for the following variables: child by father, child by teachers, .0379; ideal self by mother, child by mother, .0103; ideal self by father, child by father, .0123; self by mother, child by mother, .0141; self by father, mother by father, .0411; self by parents, ideal by parents, .0307; child by mother, child by father, child by teachers, .0454; child by parents, child by teachers, .0403; ideal by parents, child by parents, .0128; self by parents, child by parents, .0449. (See Table 14.)

SUMMARY OF t-TEST FINDINGS

Following is a summary of the findings in which the null hypotheses were rejected. For Null Hypotheses 1 through 3, the mean of Group A was greater than the mean of Group B for the variables listed; for Null Hypothesis 5, the mean of Group A was less than the mean of Group B for the variables listed.

t-Test Results

SCORES OF ICL INDIVIDUAL ITEMS
MATCHED FOR SIMILARITY/POSITIVITY

Comparison of Group A and Group B Families Fathers' and Mothers' Scores Averaged (Group A, n=8; Group B, n=9)	
Null Hypothesis 1	
Percentage of self and child Child and selfobject (K)	.0419*

Comparison of Group A and Group B Parents as Individuals (Group A, n=16; Group B, n=18)	
Null Hypothesis 2	
1. Percentage of self and also child Child selfobject (K)	.0202*
2. Percentage of spouse, self and ideal self Spouse positive selfobject (K)	.0759+
3. Percentage of congruence with teachers about child of non-ideal items	.0732+

(K) Kohutian concept.
* Significant at the .05 level.
\+ Trend .051 to .10

t-Test Results

SCORES OF ICL INDIVIDUAL ITEMS
MATCHED FOR CONGRUENCE

Fathers' and Mothers' Scores Averaged

(Group A, n=8; Group B, n=9)

Null Hypothesis 3

1.	Congruence of self with view of child	.0436*	
2.	Congruence of parents' view of child with teachers'	.0607+	
3.	Congruence of parents' ideal self with view of child	.0510+	
4.	Congruence of parents' self with view of spouse	.0678+	
5.	Parents' percentage of child, ideal self, not by teacher, not self (idealized)	.0923+	(by B Families)

* Significant at the .05 level.
+ Trend .051 to .10.

COMPARISON OF STANDARDIZED SCORES OF ICL ITEMS PLOTTED ON THE DOMINANCE-SUBMISSION/HATE-LOVE QUADRANT

Distance = Mean of the Distance Between Scores

(Group A, n=8; Group B, n=9)

Null Hypothesis 5

1.	Child by Father Child by Teachers Distance	.0379*
2.	Ideal by Mother Child by Mother Distance	.0103*
3.	Ideal by Father Child by Father Distance	.0123*
4.	Self by Mother Child by Mother Distance	.0141*
5.	Self by Father Mother by Father Distance	.0411*
6.	Self by Parents Ideal by Parents Distance	.0307*
7.	Child by Mother Child by Father Child by Teachers Distance	.0454*
8.	Child by Parents Child by Teachers Distance	.0403*
9.	Ideal by Parents Child by Parents Distance	.0128*
10.	Self by Parents Child by Parents Distance	.0449*

* Significant at the .05 level.

CLINICAL OBSERVATIONS OF THE FAMILIES/PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN BY PARENTS

Clinical observations of the families were made by the researcher during the interviews. The parents' perceptions of their children were elicited for the present age, as well as their expectations in the teenage years and adulthood. Some families were more open than others.

Family 1 (B)

Although there was obvious tension between the parents, both were pleasant. The father was not feeling well. His tone was somewhat humorously sarcastic and critical toward the mother. The mother was anxious and placating. It was important for her to have the child perform well. The baby sat at the end of the table, alternately using a crayon, playing with a few toys, and eating a cookie. The family had some difficulty finishing the task. The mother insisted that she would draw the experimental subject and the experimental subject was to draw her. The child objected but then complied; however, the picture of his mother looked more like himself than her. The father, drawing a hot tub, made a point of saying that he was including the baby in the picture.

The Ideal picture had the family drawn as stick figures by the father, with the mother drawing a house and her parents coming to visit. The experimental subject drew his father, a beachhouse, and a boardwalk. There was also a sign, Zoo, which had significance as it was linked to a story about a beautiful red-haired girl the parents saw while on a visit overseas. The father commented that he had wished for a girl like her but instead their first-born was a red-haired boy. Status and image seemed important to this particular family, as well as play. The father seemed aware of the importance of including everyone in the family. The

mother seemed anxious for the experimental subject to perform. She was invasive in her interactions with the experimental subject and did not seem empathic with his struggle to draw himself.

The parents were in general agreement about the experimental subject, the mother being more specific about characteristics she thought he would have as a teenager. The father's comments, more general, included the statement that he hoped the child would be happy. The mother projected that the experimental subject would be a marine biologist, and the sibling would be an oral surgeon.

Family 2 (A)

This family gave the impression of high-level activity and participation without any sense of disorganization. The children responded very quickly to any indications that the parents wanted them to settle down. Everyone cooperated to set up the projects and very quickly became involved in the tasks. The strong parental coalition, that is, their working together, was obvious. There was a certain playfulness and interplay during the project. The best artist was chosen to draw the father, and the father in turn drew that child. The first and third sons demonstrated their competitiveness in the picture.

Discussion about the Ideal Portrait revealed that the family's conception of an ideal family was doing something together, but each person drew himself/herself as an individual. The experimental subject was not happy with the content because the activity was not one that he participated in. However, he drew himself as a spectator.

Family values of activity, cooperation, play, and competitiveness were obvious, both in the picture and in the interaction during the

interview. The parents were very clear, and in agreement, as to how they saw each of the children. They were clear as to what values they wanted to impart to the children and felt that the immediate family as well as the extended family was available to offer support. They did not make any predictions for the future about the experimental subject other than to say that whatever he did, he would do well. They were somewhat concerned because he was a perfectionist and would be hard on himself, but they hoped he would be more accepting of himself in the future. The enthusiasm, empathy and warmth in this family were obvious.

Family 3 (B)

This family was friendly and showed warmth initially, but there seemed to be a lack of empathy on the part of the father toward the experimental subject. The father's lack of empathy was evidenced by his calling the child derogatory names and comparing him unfavorably with other children and his sibling. The father seemed to be conscious of image and seemed to project deficiencies on other members of the family.

Performance and competitiveness seemed important in this family. The family was task efficient. There seemed to be a strong coalition between the parents, and both had high expectations of the children. The parents were in agreement about their perceptions of the experimental child. Both expected him to be no problem as a teenager and an academic as an adult.

Family 4 (A)

There was a great deal of warmth and kindness manifested in this family plus a great deal of respect for one another. The mother was disabled and the father was extremely solicitous of her, performing the

functions she could not. The mother tended to be more dominant and assertive than the father, but both obviously cared for each other and their child. The parents had a sense of humor and were clear on the family values of education and support of the family. The parents evidenced empathy for each other and the child. Play was added in the ideal picture.

This interview was to be conducted in two meetings because of the mother's debilitating disease, but she died unexpectedly before the second part of the interview could be completed.

The parents had agreed in their perceptions of the child at the current age; however, the projections for the future were not completed.

Family 5 (A)

This family was cordial and evidenced a sense of humor and warmth. However, it was obvious that there was tension between the father and mother, although the parents operated as a team with the children. The mother appeared to have more empathy for the children. The father seemed to need to be in control. He held onto the second child throughout the interview, seemingly to give him a sense of control of the situation. The mother remarked that he always had to have the final word. Family values of play and competition were obvious in the drawing.

In the Ideal drawing, the father forgot to include the new baby and was obviously annoyed when he realized what he had done. The family seemed to be realigning, the mother closer to the oldest child and the father closer to the middle child. The experimental subject deleted her siblings in the Ideal Portrait. The parents were in general agreement about their perceptions of the experimental subject, but they were in

disagreement as to whether she would marry or have a career. They finally resolved their disagreement by saying that they would just have to wait and see, as it would be the child's decision.

Family 6 (B)

The tension in this family was almost palpable. The tension surrounding the oldest child was like a tornado in terms of her verbal activity and quick movements. The parents were very cooperative with the researcher. However, there obviously was not a positive parental coalition. The parents seemed oppositional, as did the children. There was some humor and laughing. There was open competitiveness of a negative sort on the part of the oldest sibling. The experimental subject seemed to be in her own world and withdrew more when criticized. The oldest child drew the mother as a movie star. It seemed an obvious attempt to idealize her mother, whose physical appearance was not that of a movie star.

For the Ideal Portrait, this mother of three daughters drew the family with two sons. The children did not draw their parents. The experimental subject drew herself with a crown and included a friend. The middle sibling drew herself at a friend's house, and the oldest child drew herself in the garage with her possessions. The middle sibling drew a Mercedes automobile. The father was the only one to draw the whole family. He drew the family in a circle, with himself the dominant, central figure and the mother and daughters of smaller and uniform size.

There seemed to be little empathy in the family. There was obviously no tension regulation. No attempt was made to soothe the anxiety in any of the children, or to set limits on the oldest child's aggressive

behavior toward her sisters. One wonders if members of this family liked each other, considering all the open criticism of one another. The mother stated she favored the second child, although this was not apparent to the researcher. The father indicated that he liked some of the qualities of the oldest child, particularly her aggressiveness. There was some disagreement in the parents' perceptions of the qualities of the children and what they would do in the future. Although the parents espoused the importance of individuality in the family, there was a great deal of invasiveness and conformity in being oppositional.

Family 7 (B)

This family was very warm and friendly, and anxious to please. They were very proud of their child and seem to center their activities through her. The pictures drawn were an example of this. The parents had the child draw the picture of the family as a group, with each parent in turn putting a hand on the child's while being drawn. The child complained about drawing the picture, but complied. She needed constant reassurance in order to do things by herself. Invasiveness was present, but the parents were also aware of the struggle they were having in separating their respective functions and the child's. The task was hard to complete because it was being done through the child. The child was very young and tired easily.

The parents were in general agreement about the characteristics of the child. They made no projections for the future other than to say that they hoped she would be happy and that being a woman would not prevent achievement.

Family 8 (A)

There was a great deal of warmth and a sense of humor in this family. They were anxious about being productive, and manifested their anxiety with some anxious laughter. They were very proud of their family and were task efficient. There seemed to be a great deal of trust, respect, empathy and a very strong parental alliance. The family was unusually aware of each other and their interactions. There was much nonverbal communication such as smiling, visual encouragement, and enjoyment of the task. The family values were obvious in the picture, which consisted of play, activity, and work.

The parents were in agreement about their perceptions of the child. Individually, the parents noted various qualities they perceived the child to have, and the other nodded in agreement. They worked in a complementary fashion.

There was a change in composition in the Ideal Portrait. The parents each added a baby girl, explaining that they thought this addition would be an ideal family. They added that they were happy with their present family, seemingly to reassure the experimental subject.

Family 9 (A)

This was the most child-centered household of the study. There was a relaxed atmosphere, and pictures drawn by the children were on display everywhere. There was a child's slide in the living room. Empathy and warmth were obvious in this family. They were task efficient, with the father setting the tone. When the experimental subject became upset with his drawing, the father was very soothing.

The parents were in agreement as to their perceptions of the

children. Neither parent projected anything for the future. Both wanted the experimental subject to be happy, the father adding that he hoped the child would have something to call his own--something that would make him unique and special. These parents were complementary and complimentary with each other. This was manifested in the Ideal Portrait when the mother drew herself and the father reached over, smiled, and drew a necklace around her neck. Both enjoyed the interaction.

Family 10 (B)

This family was warm and hospitable. It was obvious that the parents cared about their children, but the father did not seem particularly empathic with them. The father deferred most of the responsibility to the mother, affirming her qualities as a mother. Control was a major issue with the father, who spoke at length of how he controlled one of the children (the only boy). The father seemed to like the family but enjoyed solitary activities.

Some tension existed between the parents regarding roles and responsibilities. They did not agree on the children. The father was more positive about the experimental subject than the mother. They acknowledged their disagreement, saying they knew they had to resolve this source of conflict. They also disagreed about the predictions. The mother was specific about the experimental subject, indicating that the child would become an actress. The father did not know what the child would be. The Ideal Portrait was very telling of the family dynamics. The mother drew the family grouped and almost fused together; the father drew himself alone on a mountain; and the experimental subject drew herself.

Family 11/17 (B)

This family was very cordial and open. However, there was a sense of disorganization and tension within the family. There was some difficulty in completing tasks. The father set up the project, dividing the paper. Once started, the project provided some fun. The coalition between father and mother was not firm; each one sided with the experimental subject of the same sex. Each parent felt positive toward the experimental subject of the same sex and some negativeness toward the experimental subject of the opposite sex. The question could be raised as to whether the parents were expressing their dissatisfaction and conflict through these two children. There was competition between the parents and evidence of oppositional behaviors. There was disagreement about what the ideal family would be, with mother deleting a male child, and the father adding another female child to balance the family with two boys and two girls.

The parents disagreed about their perceptions of experimental subject #1. The mother saw the child as some type of performer, perhaps in an artistic line; the father saw her as a doctor. They were in agreement about experimental subject #2, indicating that whatever the child did in the future, it would be through his force of personality.

Family 12 (A)

This family was warm, anxious to cooperate and seemed to want approval. They were task efficient. Both parents were invasive with the experimental subject. She was compliant rather than oppositional; however, her participation was controlled. There seemed to be empathy and understanding in the family, but the empathy seemed to be more intellectual than emotional. The parents were in agreement as to their perceptions

about the child and seemed disappointed in her. The child, premature and unresponsive when born, had matured slowly.

Greater expectations were placed on the new child, and already the parents thought he was more responsive and brighter. The parents hoped the experimental child would be happy in the future. They had been working at accepting her for herself. Although they did not think she would be a professional, the mother hoped the child would have a career before becoming a mother. When pressed by her father to include her baby brother in the Ideal Portrait, the experimental child deleted her father.

Family 13 (A)

This family was friendly, but not particularly warm. They seemed to be very private people. The parents were efficient in the task and did not give many guidelines to the children. The baby was held by the father and was included in the drawings and activities. There was obvious respect between the parents and a firm coalition existed, with the mother deferring to the father. Both were in agreement as to the importance of family values of education, competition, and productive use of leisure time.

There was agreement on the characteristics of the experimental child, with the father wanting the child to become a doctor and the mother wanting the child to first establish a career and then become a mother. The mother also wanted the child to be in a profession and better educated than an elementary teacher (mother's profession).

Family 14 (B)

This family was very active and slightly chaotic, although task efficient. The parents were oppositional with each other, and the tension

between them was obvious. The father sided with the oldest child (a son) and the mother sided with the second oldest child (a girl). Although the parents agreed that the experimental subject was happy, they saw her differently. The father saw her as a leader and the mother as a follower and pleaser. The father saw her as someone who would make a contribution to society, perhaps a teacher. The mother disagreed, saying the child liked affirmation from people and would probably become an entertainer.

There were changes in the family composition. The oldest sibling changed the sex of one of the siblings. The experimental subject deleted her father.

Family 15 (A)

This was a very active, enthusiastic family, and they obviously enjoyed working cooperatively together. Each child voiced an opinion about the procedure to accomplish the task. The father performed executive functions in clarifying what was going to be done. All seemed to enjoy making the decisions about who would draw whom. They agreed that the person drawing his/her picture would have the full attention of the rest of the family. Although this process took a very long time, no one seemed to mind. The oldest sibling took the longest time; the next sibling in line wanted her to hurry, but there was no real pressure to do so. There was great respect for individuality in this family. The parental coalition was very strong and the value system seemed clear. Playing together was important. Being together as a group was important, with each participating in his/her own way. The family drawings, including that of the experimental subject, captured some of the characteristics of each family member so that they were readily identifiable. There was

empathy, warmth, and respect in this family. Each member drew the family as a group in the Ideal Portrait.

The parents were in agreement about their perceptions of the children. They felt that the experimental subject would be a positive, productive person and enjoy life. The mother was not specific about his occupation. The father mused that perhaps he would be a farmer or a philosopher with an appreciation for nature. He seemed to describe a type of person more than an actual occupation.

Family 16 (B)

This family was friendly and had warmth, but was anxious, expecially the mother. The oldest sibling was very aggressive, as was the youngest sibling, and the experimental subject was anxious and somewhat withdrawn. The experimental subject did not draw the parents in either the Real or the Ideal Portrait, but she drew her siblings. The parental coalition was present in the relationship with the children. The mother was more active with the children. The father seemed to defer responsibility to the mother, which fit in with her need to take control. However, both seemed concerned about the welfare of the children.

The parents changed the composition of the Ideal Portrait. The father's ideal picture had a fused quality and no faces. He deleted a girl. The mother added another boy. Family values of activity were also present. The parents were in agreement about current perceptions of the children, but disagreed about the projections for the future. The father thought the experimental subject would be a housewife--"a porcelain doll." The mother saw her as a ballerina or ice skater, but acknowledged that she may have projected onto the daughter something she wished she had done.

This family seemed to be struggling with roles and balance, but they were aware of the conflicts. The experimental subject was the only child in the study in therapy.

SUMMARY OF CLINICAL OBSERVATIONS/PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN BY PARENTS

Group A families exhibited more warmth and empathy than the B families, and the parental coalition of A families seemed stronger. The parents of Group A did not always cite the same perceptions of the experimental child, but seemed to accept the other's assessment, sometimes adding another dimension to the description. There was more disagreement in the B families about perceptions of the children. The parents of some B families were oppositional in their disagreement, with no attempt made to resolve the disagreement. The A group had two specific projections for their children's occupations in the future. The B group had ten.

The A families seemed more involved in their interaction with each other. Group A parents appeared to enjoy their children more. Group B parents seemed to need to encourage their children to "perform" in the researcher's presence and would ask the children, particularly the experimental subject, to show his/her drawing, to tell where they had gone on vacation, or to discuss what they were planning in the future. These parents seemed more anxious about performance. The B families seemed more concerned about the researcher's evaluation of them than the A families, with the exception of the two A families who had new babies.

The A families did more mirroring, verbal and nonverbal, than the B families, except for the B family with the experimental subject in therapy. The A families commented on the experimental subjects' positive qualities and frequently compared them to one of the parents; for example, "He's a

hard worker like his father."

All the families were child centered and concerned about their children.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

The study has demonstrated that a structured, clinical understanding of the formation and function of the marital dyad as selfobjects has important implications in terms of the development of a self in a preschool child. Parents who used positive selfobject language in the marital dyad formation, Group A, perceived the experimental subjects as selfobjects, perceived their spouses and children more positively, and had better congruence with teachers' perceptions of the experimental subjects than did those who used negative or deficient selfobject language, Group B. Although self psychology was the theoretical base for this study, the findings are also applicable to other theoretical orientations such as object relations and family systems theory.

This chapter examines the researcher's findings regarding family portraits, the Interpersonal Check List, and clinical observations; the clinical implications; and the recommendations for future research.

FINDINGS

Family Portraits

There were observable differences in the Real Portraits of Groups A and B. Group A families drew themselves more as individuals, while the B families drew themselves as a family group. Exceptions were the A families with babies under three months of age. (There were no B families with babies of this age.) One interpretation could be that there was more individuation in the A families. Closeness and touching are often seen as positive values. It was surprising that there was more touching

in the B families. However, it may be that the B families have greater need for selfobjects or see each other as extensions of one another. Also, it is assumed that when family homeostasis--that is, family balance --is threatened, there is a need for realignment of the family group. The A families who drew themselves as a group support that theory inasmuch as they could be trying to rebalance the family to include a new child.

In the Ideal Portrait, two of the A families who had made a game out of drawing the Real Portrait drew the family as a group. All the A families followed directions to draw themselves in the Ideal Portrait. Three of the B parents did not. One of the B parents did not draw herself, but drew her parents visiting her house; this might be seen as a lack of self and/or individuation.

Color is often thought of as a self expression. It was a surprise that B families used more color.

The most striking difference between the two groups was in the change of composition variable. The B parents made almost three times as many changes in family composition as did the A parents. The changes made in the Ideal Portrait by the B parents were noted by them, but no attempt was made to acknowledge the changes to their children or to demonstrate empathy about how the children might feel. The two A parents who added a child were in agreement on the addition, which could be seen as positive. They were aware of the effect the addition could have on the experimental subject and commented that they were happy with their present family but would enjoy having another child. One A father did not include his new baby son and was obviously distressed when he discovered the omission. All the deletions in Group A were in families with children under six months of age. This again might be interpreted as indicating the

realignment of the family. The changes in the composition of the family could indicate dissatisfaction with the self and/or the family system.

Interpersonal Check List

The t-tests of the Interpersonal Check List indicated that there were significant differences and trends between Group A and Group B parents. The standardized scores showed that Group A parents' perceptions of the experimental children were closer to their self and ideal self perceptions than were Group B parents'.

The nonstandardized scoring of the items indicated that Group A parents saw the experimental subject as a selfobject, that is, as having qualities similar to their own. Their perceptions of their spouses tended to be more positive than those of the Group B parents.

The results also showed more congruence of the parents' ideal self with the view of their child, and congruence of their perceptions of self with the view of the spouse. Group A parents' perceptions of the experimental subject were more congruent with the teachers' perceptions in the nonstandardized scoring of individual items than Group B's, indicating a trend.

The t-tests using the standardized scores indicated that the congruence of perceptions of the teachers and Group A parents, as compared to teachers and B parents, were significant. Group A parents and teachers observed similar qualities, some of which were directly related to functions; for example, "works independently." The tests indicated that these parents perceived the child as a positive selfobject. The teachers observed the same qualities, which could indicate that the transmuting of internalization was taking place. Transmuting internalizations could also

be taking place with the Group B children, but the process might be more complex.

It could also be inferred that the teachers' ratings supported the findings that Group A parents were more objective or realistic about their children. Seeing the children more realistically would help the parents to be more empathic with normal competitive, aggressive, and libidinal feelings so that the children would not need to repress or disavow them. Idealization of the parents would be easier for the Group A children, since the parents were more in agreement about their ideals and each saw the other parent as trustworthy and positive. There would be approval of idealization of the other. Group A parents would have less need for the children to be used as extensions of themselves or to meet their unmet needs. Therefore, the children's ambitions and talents could be responded to appropriately, facilitating the formation of a cohesive self. Also, being more realistic about the children, the parents could provide tasks or experiences that are appropriate for the child's level of development and not need to have the child perform in order to enhance their own (the parents') self-esteem. Asynchrony can develop if the parents do not provide what is optimal for the child at a given point in the child's development. It is interesting to note that both mothers of newborns attributed characteristics to the babies while the fathers did not.

The Group B parents, as expected, showed a trend to idealize their children. This would be confusing to the self-perception of the children and place unrealistic demands upon them, particularly in the area of performance. For example: If the child is seen as a genius, rather than bright, he/she could be expected to achieve far beyond his/her capacity.

Clinical Observations

Clinical observations verified that there was more empathy and warmth in the A families than in the B families. The parents' needs appeared to be more adequately met by their spouses, insuring that they had more emotional supplies to meet the needs of their children. There seemed to be more enjoyment, fun, and spontaneity present, as demonstrated by their interactions while drawing the family pictures. There was cooperation, respect for individuality, and few, if any, sarcastic remarks made to one another.

Group A parents presented their child as positive when describing him/her in the interview. They often cited different qualities they perceived the child as having, but did not disagree with one another.

Group B parents had more negative selfobject functioning. These parents' interactions were more oppositional than Group A parents', possibly to separate themselves from the negative or deficient selfobject. This interpretation was supported by the behavior in the clinical interviews. Group B parents often negated the spouse's point of view, particularly about the perceptions of the children. Disagreement about the perceptions of the children would create more inconsistent mirroring. There was more tension and energy involved in being oppositional than in facilitating function or working toward a basis of agreement. There was less fun in the families. The children would therefore tend to feel pulled in opposite directions if this strained atmosphere was the usual operating environment. There would be more conflict about idealization of the parents. The Group B parents might negate the idealization of the spouse, particularly if they saw the spouse as not ideal or deficient.

Group B parents had more specific projections into the future for

the children, allowing for less freedom for the child to express himself/herself without feeling either overly compliant or uncooperative. Group B parents might define success in terms of external role performance, "doing" rather than "being," which can be compensatory for an incomplete self.

CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS

Today, renewed emphasis is being placed on combating the fragmentation related to the high divorce rate and establishing a more cohesive family unit. Kohut has emphasized the importance of selfobject relations throughout life as being necessary to healthy functioning. He has stated that there is no mature love if the loved object is not also seen as the selfobject and there is no love relationship without mutual mirroring and idealization, which enhance self-esteem (1979 Conference).

Since it is recognized that families are only as strong as the marital dyad, community organizations are working toward building a firm structure through premarital counseling. The use of Satir's marital dyad question and the seven categories could serve as useful guidelines to educators, clergy, and clinicians involved in premarital counseling. The seven categories could be helpful in alerting counselors that some couples might be together more out of negative than positive reasons. Couples who appear to be in Categories 4-7 (the negative or deficient selfobject functioning) might be offered additional counseling to help them develop a better understanding of their relationship, thus avoiding disappointments and psychological dysfunction at a later date. These categories could also be helpful in the diagnosis and treatment of couples in family therapy, since the categories offer a framework which facilitates an

understanding of the selfobject relationship, its balance, strengths, and deficiencies.

Equally important is the reinforcement that could be given to couples who have formed a healthy/positive relationship in terms of positive self-object functioning. The need for positive affirmation is always present. Far too often clinicians focus on treatment of pathology and forget that couples and/or families that function in a healthy way need mirroring to support their functioning. Community organizations such as preschools and religious institutions recognize the need for education and support for young families and have taken over the function of an extended family system in a mobile society.

The drawing of family portraits, real and ideal, is a simple exercise that offers a wealth of clinical information for both diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. Kagan (1979, p. 35) and Kohut (1980, p. 480) have emphasized that it is not only the child's experiences that are important but also the way the child perceives his/her experiences. The drawing of the family portrait provides a trained clinician an opportunity to observe the family dynamics, and gives the family members, especially a school child, an opportunity to express himself/herself in a medium which is familiar. Portraits pinpoint areas of strength to be reinforced and/or deficiencies or conflicts to be explored; they highlight issues where clarifications and/or interventions are needed--for example, the birth of a child. Most clinicians believe that the birth of a child can be particularly stressful as the family tries to re-establish its balance, and this was demonstrated in the Group A families with children under the age of six months. These were the only families in Group A with negative changes (deletions) in the composition of the family.

A greater awareness exists today of the importance of the father in the caretaking and education of young children. Fathers need to know that their involvement is of great consequence in the formation of a self in a preschool child. As society changes into two-career families, there is a re-adjustment for fathers in their new role. They often need information and support, since there is no precedent for their role and thus no role model such as mothers have had. Nevertheless, many fathers are responsive to the new challenge.

More clinicians need to broaden their skills to include consultation to community resources. They can offer their clinical knowledge in a preventive way by participating in workshops which help parents to better understand the needs of their children. Educating the parents can be an important preventive measure, often eliminating the need for therapy. Some parents do not know what is appropriate behavior and what are appropriate developmental tasks for their children. They are not necessarily pathological, but inexperienced. Some parents know intuitively what to do. Others, who need to learn the importance of empathy, can be helped to learn to respond first to the child's feelings and then to attempt to solve the problem. They can learn the importance of the mirroring and idealizing functions. They can be taught to appreciate the uniqueness of their child. They can be encouraged to offer a variety of experiences in order to discover the child's talents and interests and to give the child an opportunity to develop mastery, keeping in mind the concept of "optimal frustration," that is, encouraging the child to perform as many functions as possible for himself/herself. Also, children need to have their efforts affirmed, not only to be given credit for the finished product.

The researcher's experience as a consultant to a Montessori school

has highlighted the importance of educating parents in understanding the maturation and developmental tasks of preschool children. Many parents are eager to learn and are able to utilize this information, including observations about their children, if it is presented in a non-threatening way. One of the most important functions of the consultant in a school is to help the teachers communicate their observations in a constructive way, in keeping with each family's capability to absorb the information. This approach could help to train consultants who advise the teachers. Teachers are sometimes not aware of the power and influence they have on young families. They might underestimate the amount of reassurance some young parents need in order to function satisfactorily. Teachers perform very important selfobject functions in the community for these families.

Teachers also perform important selfobject functions for the preschool child. The first educational experience is highly important in forming the child's attitude toward education. If the teachers are empathic and help the child to develop mastery, the child's self-esteem will be enhanced. This, in turn, will help the child to develop a love for learning and respect for authority. John Kinch points out that in order to maintain self-esteem, children will denigrate the importance of a person they feel is demeaning them; therefore, the teacher will have less influence if he/she is demeaning, and learning will become less desirable (1967, p. 263). This is an important concept for parents to remember as well.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study indicated that Group A fathers were more objective about their children than the mothers, and that mothers idealized their children

more. Considering that the fathers were more accurate in their perceptions (as verified by the teachers' perceptions), it would seem important to have further research in order to understand the father's influence on the preschool child.

It is important that further research be done on the concepts of self psychology. Further work needs to be done on defining the self of a child. Kohut does not offer a developmental line marked by specific tasks at specific ages. Mahler (1975) does suggest developmental tasks at certain ages. However, A. J. Malerstein and Mary Ahern disagree as to when the various stages are reached (1982, p. 59). It would be helpful to test out the functions a child is able to perform at his/her developmental age and which selfobject functions are important at any given period.

Further research could be done on the seven categories to determine the validity and accuracy of their descriptions. The answers to the questions could be codified. It would be interesting to compare them with the Timberlawn Family Systems Rating Scales and the Riskin Family Interaction Scales.

Further research could also be conducted on the portraits, real and ideal, to standardize the instructions and to determine the psychometric properties of the various variables in the pictures.

The practice of clinical social work has, as a prime value, the promotion of healthy growth and development in individuals and families in society. Clinical social work is compatible with self psychology. Both recognize that is more desirable to facilitate healthy functioning and to develop a cohesive self in a child than to spend years doing reconstructive therapy.

The child who develops a positive cohesive self will be able to form

more positive selfobject relationships, which in turn could strengthen individual and family functioning in society.

APPENDIX A

Appendix A contains the letters and forms sent to the families being interviewed, as follows:

Letter to Parents

Consent Form

Identifying Information (of Families)

April 30, 1979

Dear Parents,

I am a former parent, former board member, and as you know, the psychological consultant of Montessori Preschool.* With my longstanding interest in Montessori education and preschool children, it seemed appropriate that I turn to the school for my doctoral research. The Board of Directors has given me permission to contact you regarding participation in the research. The time commitment will be one to two hours, arranged at your convenience.

I am interested in studying how family variables relate to the child's development and perception of self and/or school adjustment. Surprisingly enough, there is research about mother-child relationships but no research on the total family with preschool children.

The results will be coded and confidential. However, I will be willing to discuss the findings with the participating families or furnish them an abstract. A better understanding of the variables, their effects, and any discernible trends could be the basis for further exploration and educational information which could benefit the children of Montessori Preschool.

I would appreciate it if the parents willing to participate would either sign the sheet posted outside the classroom or return the lower portion of this announcement to the classrooom. I will call you in order to answer any questions you may have and to schedule a family appointment.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Katherine Godlewski, M.S.W.
Psychological Consultant

- -

Name _____ Phone _____

*Name deleted for purposes of confidentiality.

CONSENT FORM

I _____ and _____

give permission for our family to take part in the family research of Katherine Godlewski, M.S.W., under the auspices of the Institute for Clinical Social Work.

It is our understanding the results will be published, but will not be personally identifiable. The interview, tests, and recordings will be kept confidential. Families will be identified only by code. At the conclusion of the research we will receive the results in abstract form and/or in consultation.

_____ _____

Date Katherine Godlewski, M.S.W.

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION
(Page 1)

Father

Birthdate_____

Sibling position_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Nationality/Cultural influence

_____

Religious affiliation

_____

Mother

Birthdate _____

Sibling position_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Nationality/Cultural influence

_____

Religious affiliation

_____

Parents

Father_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Religious affiliation

_____

Mother_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Religious affiliation

_____

Parents

Father_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Religious affiliation

_____

Mother_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Religious affiliation

_____

Siblings

Age/Sex_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

Siblings

Age/Sex_____

Education_____

Occupation_____

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION
(Page 2)

Date of Marriage:

Children:

Clinical Notes/Health Data:

Additional Notes:

APPENDIX B

Appendix B includes the Interpersonal Check List (ICL) and an illustration of the ICL variables.

The Interpersonal Check List

Name_____ Age___ Sex_____ Date_____ Testing #_____

Address_____ City_____ Phone_____ Education_____

Occupation_____ Marital Status_____ Referred by_____

Group_____ Other_____

DIRECTIONS: This booklet contains a list of descriptive words and phrases which you will use in describing yourself and members of your family or members of your group. The test administrator will indicate which persons you are to describe. Write their names in the spaces prepared at the top of the inside pages. In front of each item are columns of answer spaces. The first column is for yourself, and there is another column for each of the persons you will describe.

Read the items quickly and fill in the first circle in front of each item you consider to be generally descriptive of yourself at the present time. Leave the answer space blank when an item does not describe you. In the example below, the subject (Column 1) has indicated that Item A is true and and item B is false as applied to him.

Item

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

A ● ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ **well-behaved**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

B ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ **suspicious**

After you have gone through the list marking those items which apply to you, return to the beginning and consider the next person you have been asked to describe, marking the second column of answer spaces for every item you consider to be descriptive of him (or her). Proceed in the same way to describe the other persons indicated by the test administrator. Always complete your description of one person before starting the next.

Your first impression is generally the best so work quickly and don't be concerned about duplications, contradictions, or being exact. If you feel much doubt whether an item applies, leave it blank.

This booklet has been prepared by Timothy Leary, Ph.D., and published by the Psychological Consultation Service, 1230 Queens Road, Berkeley 8, California. The Interpersonal Check List was developed by Rolfe LaForge, Ph.D., and Robert Suczek, Ph.D., and other staff members of the Kaiser Foundation Research Project in Psychology.

Column 1 _____ Col. 2 _____ Col. 4 _____ Col. 6 _____

SUBJECT'S NAME

Col. 3 _____ Col. 5 _____ Col. 7 _____

SAMPLE:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
A	●	O	●	O	●	●	O	O	well-behaved

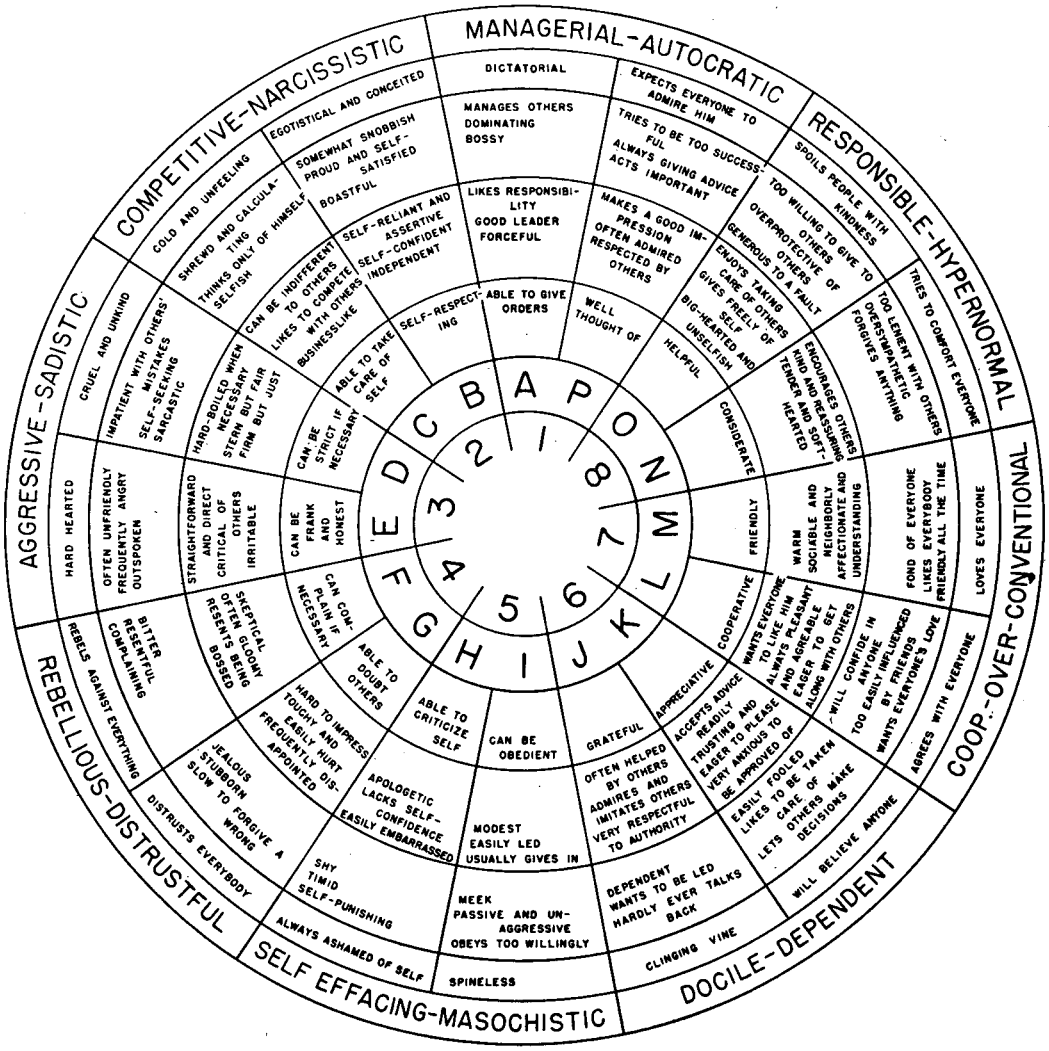
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1	P	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	well thought of
2	P	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	makes a good impression
3	A	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	able to give orders
4	A	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	forceful
5	B	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	self-respecting
6	B	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	independent
7	C	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	able to take care of self
8	C	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	can be indifferent to others
9	D	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	can be strict if necessary
10	D	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	firm but just
11	E	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	can be frank and honest
12	E	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	critical of others
13	F	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	can complain if necessary
14	F	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	often gloomy
15	G	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	able to doubt others
16	G	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	frequently disappointed
17	H	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	able to criticize self
18	H	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	apologetic
19	I	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	can be obedient
20	I	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	usually gives in
21	J	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	grateful
22	J	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	admires and imitates others
23	K	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	appreciative
24	K	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	very anxious to be approved of
25	L	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	cooperative
26	L	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	eager to get along with others
27	M	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	friendly
28	M	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	affectionate and understanding
29	N	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	considerate
30	N	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	encourages others
31	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	helpful
32	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	big-hearted and unselfish
33		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	often admired
34		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	respected by others
35		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	good leader
36		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	likes responsibility
37		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	self-confident
38		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	self-reliant and assertive
39		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	businesslike
40		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	likes to compete with others
41		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	hard-boiled when necessary
42		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	stern but fair
43		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	irritable
44		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	straightforward and direct
45		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	resents being bossed
46		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	skeptical
47		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	hard to impress
48		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	touchy and easily hurt
49		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	easily embarrassed
50		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	lacks self-confidence
51		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	easily led
52		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	modest
53		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	often helped by others
54		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	very respectful to authority
55		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	accepts advice readily
56		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	trusting and eager to please
57		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	always pleasant and agreeable
58		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	wants everyone to like him
59		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	sociable and neighborly
60		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	warm
61		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	kind and reassuring
62		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	tender and soft-hearted
63		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	enjoys taking care of others
64		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	gives freely of self
65		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	always giving advice
66		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	acts important
67		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	bossy
68		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	dominating
69		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	boastful
70		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	proud and self-satisfied
71		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	thinks only of himself
72		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	shrewd and calculating
73		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	impatient with others' mistakes
74		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	self-seeking
75		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	outspoken
76		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	often unfriendly
77		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	bitter
78		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	complaining
79		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	jealous
80		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	slow to forgive a wrong
81		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	self-punishing
82		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	shy
83		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	passive and unaggressive
84		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	meek
85		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	dependent
86		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	wants to be led
87		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	lets others make decisions
88		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	easily fooled
89		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	too easily influenced by friends
90		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	will confide in anyone
91		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	fond of everyone
92		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	likes everybody
93		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	forgives anything
94		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	oversympathetic
95		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	generous to a fault
96		O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	overprotective of others

Col. 8_____

Date_____

		Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6	Col. 7	Col. 8
		Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials
97 tries to be too successful	P								
98 expects everyone to admire him	P	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP
99 manages others	A								
100 dictatorial	A	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC
101 somewhat snobbish	B								
102 egotistical and conceited	B	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE
103 selfish	C								
104 cold and unfeeling	C	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG
105 sarcastic	D								
106 cruel and unkind	D	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI
107 frequently angry	E								
108 hard-hearted	E	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK
109 resentful	F								
110 rebels against everything	F	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM
111 stubborn	G								
112 distrusts everybody	G	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
113 timid	H								
114 always ashamed of self	H	P							
115 obeys too willingly	I								
116 spineless	I	S							
117 hardly ever talks back	J								
118 clinging vine	J	L							
119 likes to be taken care of	K								
120 will believe anyone	K	H							
121 wants everyone's love	L								
122 agrees with everyone	L	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM
123 friendly all the time	M								
124 loves everyone	M	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV
125 too lenient with others	N								
126 tries to comfort everyone	N								
127 too willing to give to others	O								
128 spoils people with kindness	O								

INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST
ILLUSTRATING THE CLASSIFICATION OF INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIORS
INTO 16 VARIABLE CATEGORIES



APPENDIX C

Appendix C contains fourteen tables, as follows:

TABLE 1

MARRIAGE DISTRIBUTION
(Data Gathered in 1979)

Family	Date of Marriage	Years Married
1. (B)	08-28-71	8
2. (A)	12-18-66	13
3. (B)	02-01-71	8
4. (A)	05-14-72	7
5. (A)	08-04-73	6
6. (B)	06-08-68	11
7. (B)	09-06-70	9
8. (A)	09-05-70	9
9. (A)	10-12-74	5
10. (B)	06-17-72	7
11. (B)	12-20-69	10
12. (A)	08-21-65	14
13. (A)	06-27-70	9
14. (B)	11-30-63	16
15. (A)	06-15-65	14
16. (B)	07-30-67	12

Mean: 10 years
Median: 9 years
Range: 5-16 years

TABLE 2

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FATHERS
(Data Gathered in 1979)

Family	Date of Birth	Age
1. (B)	01-13-44	35
2. (A)	12-20-32	47
3. (B)	11-04-43	36
4. (A)	10-22-47	32
5. (A)	09-14-48	31
6. (B)	01-04-43	36
7. (B)	12-08-46	33
8. (A)	06-11-40	39
9. (A)	11-02-50	29
10. (B)	06-26-46	33
11. (B)	08-25-34	45
12. (A)	04-02-43	36
13. (A)	07-20-45	34
14. (B)	08-03-38	41
15. (A)	03-15-40	39
16. (B)	04-06-42	37

NUMBER OF FATHERS AT EACH AGE:
(16 fathers)

Age	Number
29	1
31	1
32	1
33	2
34	1
35	1
36	3
37	1
39	2
41	1
45	1
47	1

Mean: 36.44
Median: 36
Range: 29-47

TABLE 3

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MOTHERS
(Data Gathered in 1979)

Family	Date of Birth	Age
1. (B)	02-26-48	31
2. (A)	06-06-40	39
3. (B)	10-30-49	30
4. (A)	09-04-45	34
5. (A)	12-04-50	29
6. (B)	07-03-48	31
7. (B)	10-26-49	30
8. (A)	02-04-42	37
9. (A)	11-19-53	26
10. (B)	10-14-47	32
11. (B)	12-22-44	35
12. (A)	06-28-43	36
13. (A)	01-05-46	33
14. (B)	06-04-41	38
15. (A)	07-10-40	39
16. (B)	10-21-37	42

NUMBER OF MOTHERS AT EACH AGE
(16 mothers)

Age	Number
26	1
29	1
30	2
31	2
32	1
33	1
34	1
35	1
36	1
37	1
39	2
42	1

Mean: 33.8
Median: 33
Range: 26-42

TABLE 4

SEX AND AGE DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL SUBJECTS
(Data Gathered in 1979)

Family	Date of Birth	Age	Sex
1. (B)	11-05-74	5	M
2. (A)	09-06-73	6	M
3. (B)	01-21-75	4	M
4. (A)	04-01-74	5	F
5. (A)	05-04-74	5	F
6. (B)	09-02-75	4	F
7. (B)	03-03-76	3	F
8. (A)	06-27-73	6	M
9. (A)	09-25-75	4	M
10. (B)	03-25-75	4	F
11. (B)	10-09-73	6	F
	08-06-75	4	M
12. (A)	07-01-74	5	F
13. (A)	08-01-74	5	F
14. (B)	09-05-74	5	F
15. (A)	06-10-74	5	M
16. (B)	05-28-74	5	F

NUMBER OF MALES AT EACH AGE
(7 males)

Age	Number
3	0
4	3
5	2
6	2

Mean: 4.86
Median: 5
Range: 4-6

NUMBER OF FEMALES AT EACH AGE
(10 females)

Age	Number
3	1
4	2
5	6
6	1

Mean: 4.70
Median: 5
Range: 3-6

Mean: 4.76
Median: 5
Range: 3-6

TABLE 5

EDUCATION

Fathers	Mothers
1. (B) B.A., 1 course short of M.B.A.	1. (B) B.A. + semester into M.A.
2. (A) B.S.	2. (A) B.S.
3. (B) Ph.D.	3. (B) B.S.
4. (A) B.A.	4. (A) M.A.
5. (A) B.A., current student in M.B.A. program	5. (A) 1 year college, current student
6. (B) Ph.D.	6. (B) B.A.
7. (B) B.A. +	7. (B) M.A.
8. (A) B.S.	8. (A) B.S. + certification
9. (A) M.S.	9. (A) 3 years college, current student
10. (B) B.S.	10. (B) 3 years college
11. (B) B.A. +	11. (B) B.A., B.S.
12. (A) Ph.D.	12. (A) M.A.
13. (A) Ph.D.	13. (A) B.S., elementary cred., 7 years college
14. (B) 2 years college, graduate Institute of Aviation	14. (B) 3-1/2 years college
15. (A) M.B.A.	15. (A) B.A.
16. (B) B.S. +	16. (B) B.S.
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	- - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
1 - 2 years college + certification	1 - 1 year college, current student
2 - B.A.	3 - 3 years college
3 - B.S.	2 - B.A.
3 - B.A. +	1 - B.A. +
1 - B.S. +	3 - B.S.
1 - M.B.A.	2 - B.S. +
1 - M.S.	1 - B.A. + B.S.
4 - Ph.D.	3 - M.A.

TABLE 6
(Page 1 of 2)

CLINICAL AND HEALTH DATA

Family	Therapy	Major Illness/Hospitalization in Last 5 Years
1. (B)	No	No
2. (A)	No	No
3. (B)	No	No
4. (A)	No	Mother - muscular dystrophy Child - muscular dystrophy
5. (A)	Marriage counseling (current) Father - individual therapy	Father - knee surgery (no date) Mother - three Caesareans
6. (B)	No	Father - accident Child - accident
7. (B)	Father and mother - conjoint and individual therapy (current)	Father - serious infection 3 years ago
8. (A)	No	Mother - miscarriage Child - hospitalized for foot surgery
9. (A)	Mother - individual therapy	Mother - hospitalized for kidney stone. Labile hypertension; eczema
10. (B)	No	Father - hypertension Mother - migraine Child - hospitalized for croup
11. (B)	Marriage counseling	Family - severe allergies Mother - bone disease
12. (A)	No	Father - hypertension Mother - migraine
13. (A)	No	Child - hospitalized for meningitis

TABLE 6
(Page 2 of 2)

Family	Therapy	Major Illness/Hospitalization in Last 5 Years
14. (B)	Counseling - physician, pastor, conjoint therapy (current)	Child - surgery for skull
15. (A)	No	Mother - headaches
16. (B)	Mother and child - group therapy (current)	No

	Group A	Group B
Clinical	2	4
Nonclinical	6	4

TABLE 7

MARITAL DYAD FORMATION RATINGS

1. Rater 1	F - Father
2. Rater 2	M - Mother
3. Rater 3	FM - Father-Mother

See next page for ratings.

TABLE 7

MARITAL DYAD FORMATION RATINGS

Categories / Families	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. (B)				1 FM 2 FM 3 FM		1 FM 2 FM 3 FM	
2. (A)	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM						
3. (B)	1 M 2 M 3 M		2 M				1 F 2 F 3 F
4. (A)	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM	1 FM					
5. (A)		1 FM 2 FM 3 FM	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM				
6. (B)	1 M			1 F 2 F	3 M	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM	
7. (B)					1 F 2 FM 3 F	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM	
8. (A)	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM						
9. (A)		1 FM 2 F 3 FM			1 M		1 M 2 M 3 M
10. (B)	1 M 2 M 3 M	1 FM 2 M 3 M				1 F 2 F 3 F	
11. & 17. (B)						1 FM 2 M 3 FM	1 F 2 F 3 F
12. (A)		1 FM 2 FM 3 FM					
13. (A)	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM						
14. (B)							1 FM 2 FM 3 FM
15. (A)	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM						
16. (B)						1 FM 2 F 3 FM	1 FM 2 FM 3 FM

TABLE 8 (Page 1 of 8)

FAMILY PORTRAITS

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
A. Setup of Project				
1. Interpreter	(5)	(7)	(3)	(7)
a. father	2	3	2	1
b. mother	2	4		5
c. both parents	1			
d. experimental subject				
e. siblings			1	1
2. Organizer	(10)	(8)	(4)	(6)
a. father	6	3	1	3
b. mother	2	4	1	1
c. both parents		1	1	2
d. experimental subject				
e. siblings	2		1	
B. Arrangement of Family				
1. Individuals	(20)	(11)	(12)	(11)
a. father	6	3	2	1
b. mother	5	3	2	
c. experimental subject	5	3	3	4
d. siblings	4	2	5	6
2. Family as Group	(9)	(21)	(18)	(22)
a. father	2	6	5	7
b. mother	3	6	5	7
c. experimental subject	3	6	4	5
d. siblings	1	3	3	3
3. Linear	(1)	(6)	(1)	(5)
a. father		2		1
b. mother	1	3		1
c. experimental subject		1		
d. siblings			1	3

a-e indicate variable drawn/executed by individual(s) listed.
() Total for category.

TABLE 8 (Page 2 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
C. Subgroups	(2)	(7)	(9)	(15)
1. Parents Together	(1)		(6)	(3)
a. father	1		2	1
b. mother			1	2
c. experimental subject		1	2	
d. siblings			1	
2. Father-Experimental Subject	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
3. Mother-Experimental Subject	(1)	(3)	(1)	(4)
a. father		1		1
b. mother				
c. experimental subject	1	2	1	2
d. siblings				1
4. Father-Siblings	(0)	(2)	(0)	(0)
a. father		1		
b. mother				
c. experimental subject		1		
d. siblings				
5. Mother-Siblings	(0)	(1)	(0)	(2)
a. father		1		1
b. mother				1
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
6. Children Together	(0)	(0)	(1)	(5)
a. father			1	1
b. mother				2
c. experimental subject				1
d. siblings				1
7. Experimental Subject and One Sibling	(0)	(0)	(1)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings			1	

TABLE 8 (page 3 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
8. Experimental Subject and Parents (in family with siblings)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(1)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				1
d. siblings				
D. Touching	(8)	(14)	(17)	(16)
1. Parents	(5)	(7)	(9)	(6)
a. father	3	3	4	4
b. mother	2	2	3	2
c. experimental subject		1	1	
d. siblings		1	1	
2. Parents and Children	(2)	(5)	(7)	(9)
a. father	1	2	2	3
b. mother	1	1	2	3
c. experimental subject			1	2
d. siblings		2	2	1
3. Father-Experimental Subject	(0)	(1)	(1)	(1)
a. father		1	1	
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				1
4. Mother-Experimental Subject	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
5. Father-Experimental Subject	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
6. Mother-Siblings	(1)	(1)	(0)	(0)
a. father		1		
b. mother				
c. experimental subject	1			
d. siblings				

TABLE 8 (page 4 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
7. Experimental Subject-Siblings	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
E. Inclusion (in picture)				
1. Self	(15)	(23)	(35)	(35)
a. father	3	5	8	8
b. mother	3	5	8	7
c. experimental subject	6	8	8	8
d. siblings (some too young)	3	5	11	12
2. Parents	(8)	(23)	(20)	(16)
a. father	2	5	5	5
b. mother	2	5	5	6
c. experimental subject	3	7	5	1
d. siblings	1	6	5	4
3. Children	(11)	(14)	(10)	(17)
a. father	3	5	3	5
b. mother	4	5	3	6
c. experimental subject	3	4	3	3
d. siblings	1	4	1	3
4. Father (without mother)	(5)	(2)	(2)	(3)
a. father	2			1
b. mother	2	1		
c. experimental subject	1	1	2	2
d. siblings				
5. Mother (without father)	(4)	(1)	(2)	(1)
a. father	3			
b. mother	1			
c. experimental subject		1	2	1
d. siblings				
6. Experimental Subject (without siblings)	(2)	(1)	(0)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother		1		
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings	2			

TABLE 8 (page 5 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
7. Siblings (without experimental subject)	(6)	(2)	(4)	(3)
a. father	2	1	1	
b. mother	2		1	
c. experimental subject			1	1
d. siblings	2	1	1	2
F. Drawn by Other Than Self	(29)	(12)	(0)	(2)
1. Parents	(0)	(2)	(0)	(1)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject		2		1
d. siblings				
2. Father	(6)	(1)	(0)	(0)
a. mother	3			
b. experimental subject	2			
c. siblings	1	1		
3. Mother	(6)	(1)	(0)	(0)
a. father	4			
b. experimental subject	1			
c. siblings	1	1		
4. Experimental Subject	(3)	(1)	(0)	(0)
a. father	1			
b. mother	1	1		
c. siblings	1			
5. Siblings	(14)	(7)	(0)	(0)
a. father	4	3		
b. mother	5	2		
c. experimental subject	3	2		
d. siblings	2			
G. Size (relative)	(9)	(12)	(13)	(17)
a. father	4	5	4	6
b. mother	4	5	6	7
c. experimental subject	1	1	3	2
d. siblings		1		2

TABLE 8 (page 6 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
H. Additions to Family	(3)	(6)	(4)	(7)
1. Extended Family Members				(1)
a. father				
b. mother				1
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
2. Friends	(0)	(2)	(2)	(2)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject		1	1	1
d. siblings		1	1	1
3. Pets	(3)	(4)	(2)	(4)
a. father		1	1	
b. mother	1	1	1	
c. experimental subject	2	1		2
d. siblings		1		2
I. Family Values Present	(7)	(15)	(44)	(22)
1. Play	(4)	(5)	(8)	(7)
a. father	2	3	2	5
b. mother	1		3	
c. experimental subject	1		2	1
d. siblings		2	1	1
2. Religion	(0)	(0)	(1)	(0)
a. father			1	
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				
3. Achievement/Status	(2)	(2)	(7)	(5)
a. father		1	3	1
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				1
d. siblings	2	1	4	3
4. Work	(0)	(0)	(2)	(1)
a. father			2	
b. mother				1
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				

TABLE 8 (page 7 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
5. Competition	(0)	(2)	(7)	(1)
a. father			1	
b. mother			1	
c. experimental subject			1	
d. siblings		2	4	1
6. Cooperation	(0)	(2)	(4)	(3)
a. father		1	3	1
b. mother			1	2
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings		1		
7. Activity	(1)	(4)	(15)	(5)
a. father	1	4	4	3
b. mother			3	1
c. experimental subject			2	1
d. siblings			6	
J. Color				
1. Mono	(7)	(6)	(12)	(15)
a. father	3	2	3	4
b. mother	4		4	5
c. experimental subject		2	3	1
d. siblings		2	2	5
2. Limited (2-3)	(11)	(5)	(5)	(3)
a. father	3	2	2	
b. mother	2	2	1	2
c. experimental subject	4	1	1	1
d. siblings	2		1	
3. Colorful (more than 3)	(15)	(21)	(16)	(18)
a. father	2	3	3	4
b. mother	2	4	3	1
c. experimental subject	4	6	4	7
d. siblings	7	8	6	6
K. Changes in Family Composition			(8)	(16)
1. Addition of Children (sex specified)			(2)*	(3)**
a. father			1	2
b. mother			1	1

*Parents in agreement with addition.
**Parents in disagreement with addition.

TABLE 8 (page 8 of 8)

	Real		Ideal	
	A	B	A	B
2. Deletion of Children (present in real portrait)			(4)	(9)
a. father			1	1
b. mother				3
c. experimental subject			2	2
d. siblings			1	3
3. Change in Sex of Children			(0)	(2)
a. father				
b. mother				1
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				1
4. Deletion of Parents			(0)	(1)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				1
d. siblings				
5. Deletion of Father			(2)	(1)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject			2	1
d. siblings				
6. Deletion of Mother			(0)	(0)
a. father				
b. mother				
c. experimental subject				
d. siblings				

TABLE 9 (page 1 of 2)

t-Test Results

SCORES OF ICL INDIVIDUAL ITEMS
MATCHED FOR SIMILARITY/POSITIVITY

Fathers' and Mothers' Scores Averaged

(Percentage of 128 Items Checked)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Self and ideal self Positive self (K)	70.83 (8)	72.46 (9)	-.1835	.4287
Self and spouse Spouse selfobject (K)	72.07 (8)	64.76 (9)	0.9090	.1888
Self and child** Child selfobject (K)	59.74 (8)	46.49 (9)	1.8558	.0419*
Child and ideal self Child positive complementary selfobject (K)	67.51 (8)	61.27 (9)	0.6921	.2500
Spouse and ideal self Spouse positive complementary selfobject (K)	72.15 (8)	60.79 (9)	1.1474	.1352
Child, self, and ideal self Child positive selfobject (K)	62.76 (8)	53.71 (9)	0.9176	.1870
Child, self, and not ideal self Child negative selfobject (K)***	12.81 (8)	10.81 (9)	0.3883	.3528
Spouse, self, and not ideal self Spouse negative selfobject (K)***	12.60 (8)	12.24 (9)	0.0603	.4764

(K) Kohutian concept.
* Significant at the .05 level.
** "Child" refers to experimental subject.
*** Not a true negative selfobject; refer to text page 55.

TABLE 9 (page 2 of 2)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Spouse, self, and ideal self Spouse positive selfobject (K)	66.29 (8)	53.37 (9)	1.2545	.1147
Congruence with teachers of non-ideal items checked for child	82.96 (8)	78.49 (9)	1.3168	.1054
Congruence with teachers of ideal items checked for child	65.24 (8)	63.21 (9)	0.4117	.3433

TABLE 10 (page 1 of 2)

t-Test Results

SCORES OF ICL INDIVIDUAL ITEMS
MATCHED FOR SIMILARITY/POSITIVITY

Fathers' and Mothers' Scores Not Averaged

(Percentage of 128 Items Checked)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Self and ideal self Positive self (K)	70.83 (16)	72.46 (18)	-0.2032	.4203
Self and spouse Spouse selfobject (K)	72.71 (16)	64.76 (18)	1.1116	.1374
Self and child** Child selfobject (K)	59.74 (16)	46.45 (18)	2.1603	.0202*
Child and ideal self Child positive complementary selfobject (K)	67.51 (16)	61.27 (18)	0.7316	.2354
Spouse and ideal self Spouse positive complementary selfobject (K)	72.15 (16)	60.79 (18)	1.3097	.1004
Child, self, and ideal self Child positive selfobject (K)	62.76 (16)	53.71 (18)	0.9850	.1667
Child, self, and not ideal self Child negative selfobject (K)***	12.81 (16)	10.81 (18)	0.4082	.3434
Spouse, self, and not ideal self Spouse negative selfobject (K)***	12.60 (16)	12.24 (18)	0.0668	.4736

(K) Kohutian concept
* Significant at the .05 level.
** "Child" refers to experimental subject.
*** Not a true negative selfobject; refer to text page 55.

TABLE 10 (page 2 of 2)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Spouse, self, and ideal self Spouse positive selfobject (K)	66.29 (16)	53.37 (18)	1.4717	.0759+
Congruence with teachers of non-ideal items checked for child	82.96 (16)	78.49 (18)	1.4775	.0732+
Congruence with teachers of ideal items checked for child	65.24 (16)	63.21 (18)	0.5242	.3019

+ Trend.

TABLE 11

t-Test Results

SCORES OF ICL INDIVIDUAL ITEMS
MATCHED FOR CONGRUENCE

Fathers' and Mothers' Scores Averaged

(Percentage of Congruent Items)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Congruence of parents' view of child with teachers	77.39 (8)	72.91 (9)	1.6301	.0607+
Congruence of parents' view of child	78.02 (8)	74.65 (9)	1.0688	.1515
Congruence of parents' ideal self with view of child	79.68 (8)	72.74 (9)	1.7398	.0510+
Congruence of parents' self with view of child	78.56 (8)	70.61 (9)	1.8581	.0436*
Congruence of parents' ideal self with self	83.64 (8)	82.59 (9)	.1906	.4162
Congruence of parents' self with view of spouse	83.54 (8)	74.47 (9)	1.5866	.0678+
Parents' percentage of items checked for ideal self, child, not self, not checked by teachers (idealized view of child)	0.48 (8)	1.51 (9)	-1.4278	.0923+

* Significant at the .05 level.
+ Trend at .051 to .10.

TABLE 12 (page 1 of 2)

t-Test Results

SCORES OF ICL INDIVIDUAL ITEMS
COMPARISON OF FATHERS AND MOTHERS

(Percentage of 128 Items Checked)

Variables	Fathers Mean (n)	Mothers Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Self and ideal Positive self (K)	73.65 (17)	69.75 (17)	0.5011	.3099
Self and spouse Spouse selfobject (K)	66.24 (17)	70.16 (17)	-0.5911	.2793
Self and child* Child selfobject (K)	54.48 (17)	50.98 (17)	0.5489	.4934
Child and ideal Child positive complementary selfobject (K)	65.64 (17)	62.78 (17)	0.3409	.3677
Spouse and ideal Spouse positive complementary selfobject (K)	62.38 (17)	69.90 (17)	-0.8665	.1964
Child, self, and ideal self Child positive selfobject (K)	57.95 (17)	58.00 (17)	-0.0050	.4980
Child, self, and not ideal self Child negative selfobject (K)**	12.15 (17)	11.36 (17)	0.1673	.4343
Spouse, self, and not ideal self Spouse negative selfobject (K)**	13.26 (17)	11.57 (17)	0.3189	.3759

(K) Kohutian concept.
* "Child" refers to experimental subject.
** Not a true negative selfobject; refer to text page 55.

TABLE 12 (page 2 of 2)

Variables	Fathers Mean (n)	Mothers Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Spouse, self, and ideal self Spouse positive selfobject (K)	55.38 (17)	63.53 (17)	-0.9230	.1815
Congruence with teachers of non-ideal items checked for child	79.90 (17)	81.30 (17)	-0.4510	.3276
Congruence with teachers of ideal items checked for child	63.12 (17)	65.22 (17)	-0.5417	.2959

TABLE 13

INDIVIDUAL FAMILY VARIABLES SCORES PLOTTED ON THE INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST BIPOLAR QUADRANT

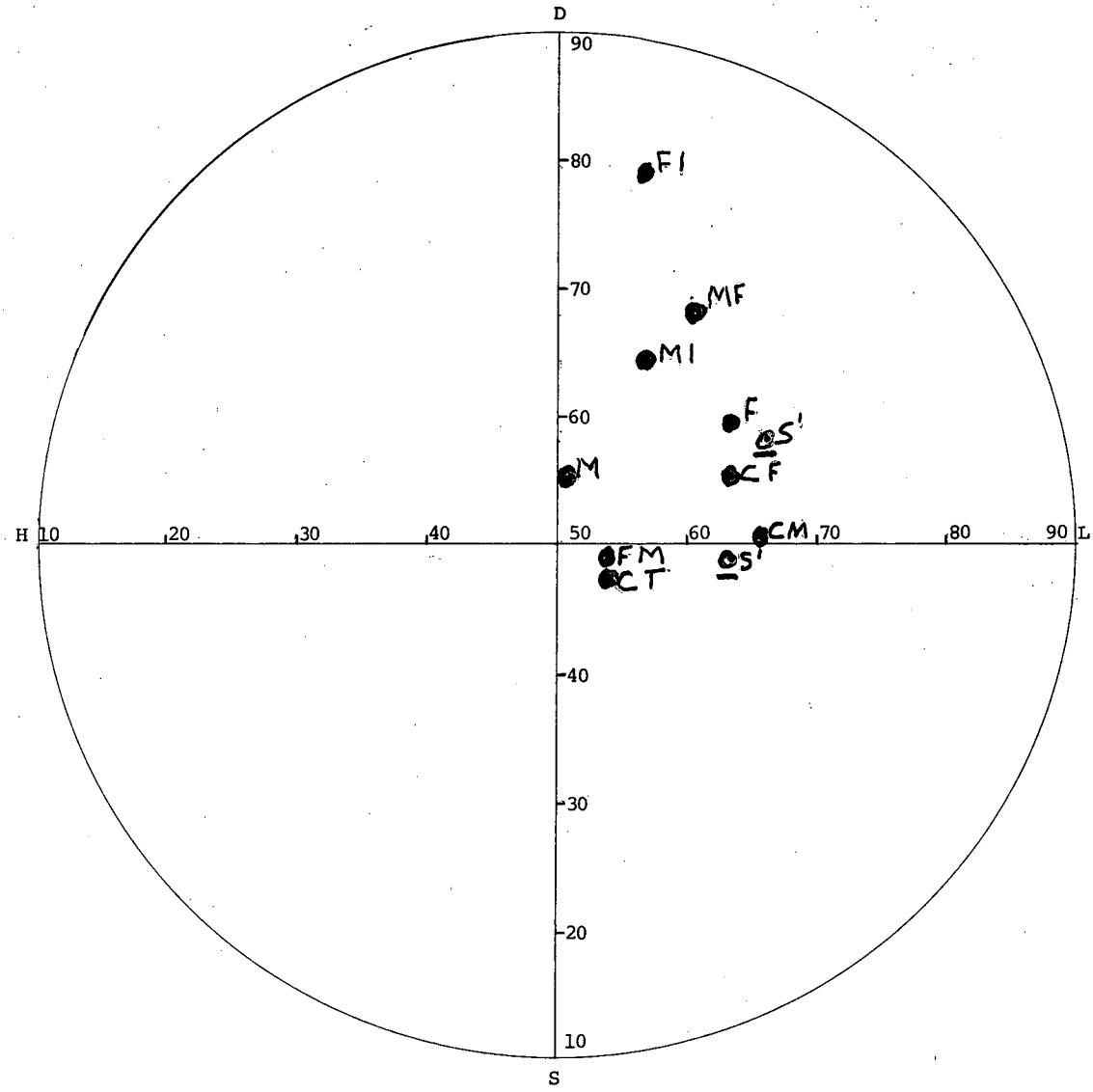
The following pages show the plotting of the ICL scores of the following variables:

Father	Mother	Child by Teachers
Father Ideal	Mother Ideal	
Mother by Father	Father by Mother	
Child by Father	Child by Mother	
Siblings by Father	Siblings by Mother	

The scores for each of the seventeen families were placed on the bipolar quadrant of the dominance-submission/hate-love axes. (One family, with two experimental subjects, was counted as two families--11 and 17.)

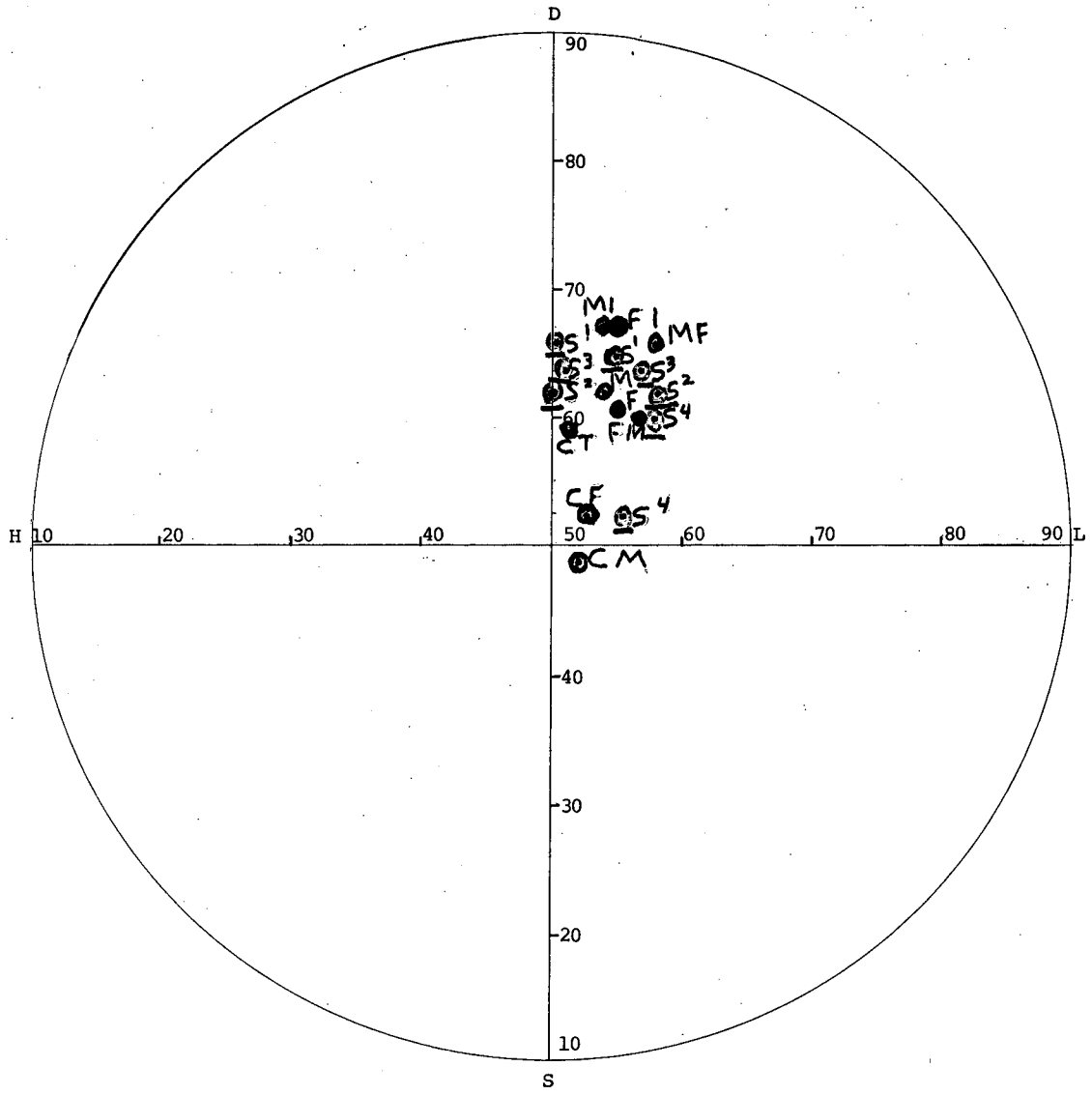
Two fathers with babies under two months of age (families 5 and 12) indicated they could not attribute any characteristics to the infants.

TABLE 13 (page 1 of 17) Family 1 (B)



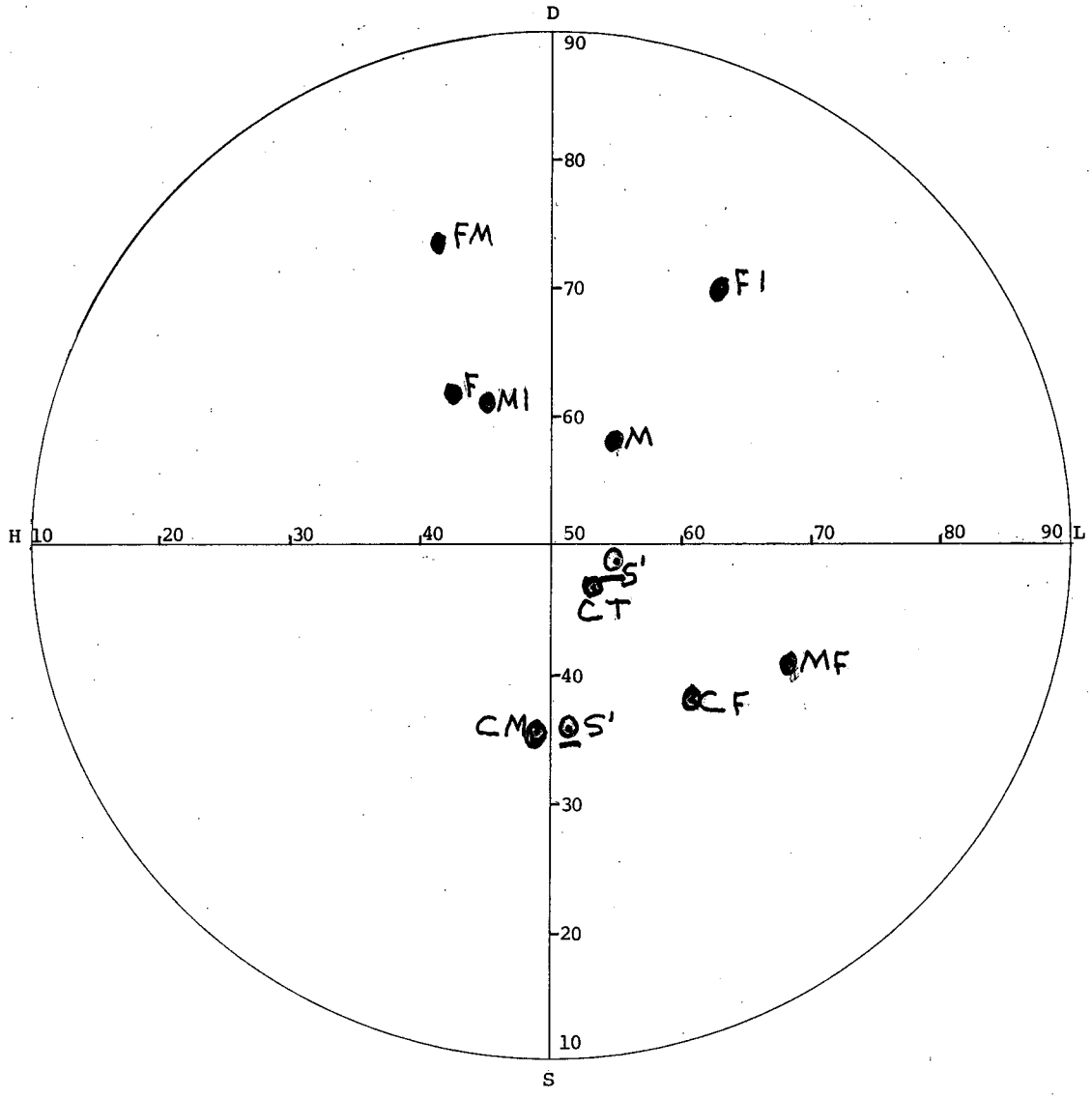
- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 2 of 17) Family 2 (A)



- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- S^3 Sibling by Father
- S^4 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother
- S^3 Sibling by Mother
- S^4 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 3 of 17) Family 3 (B)

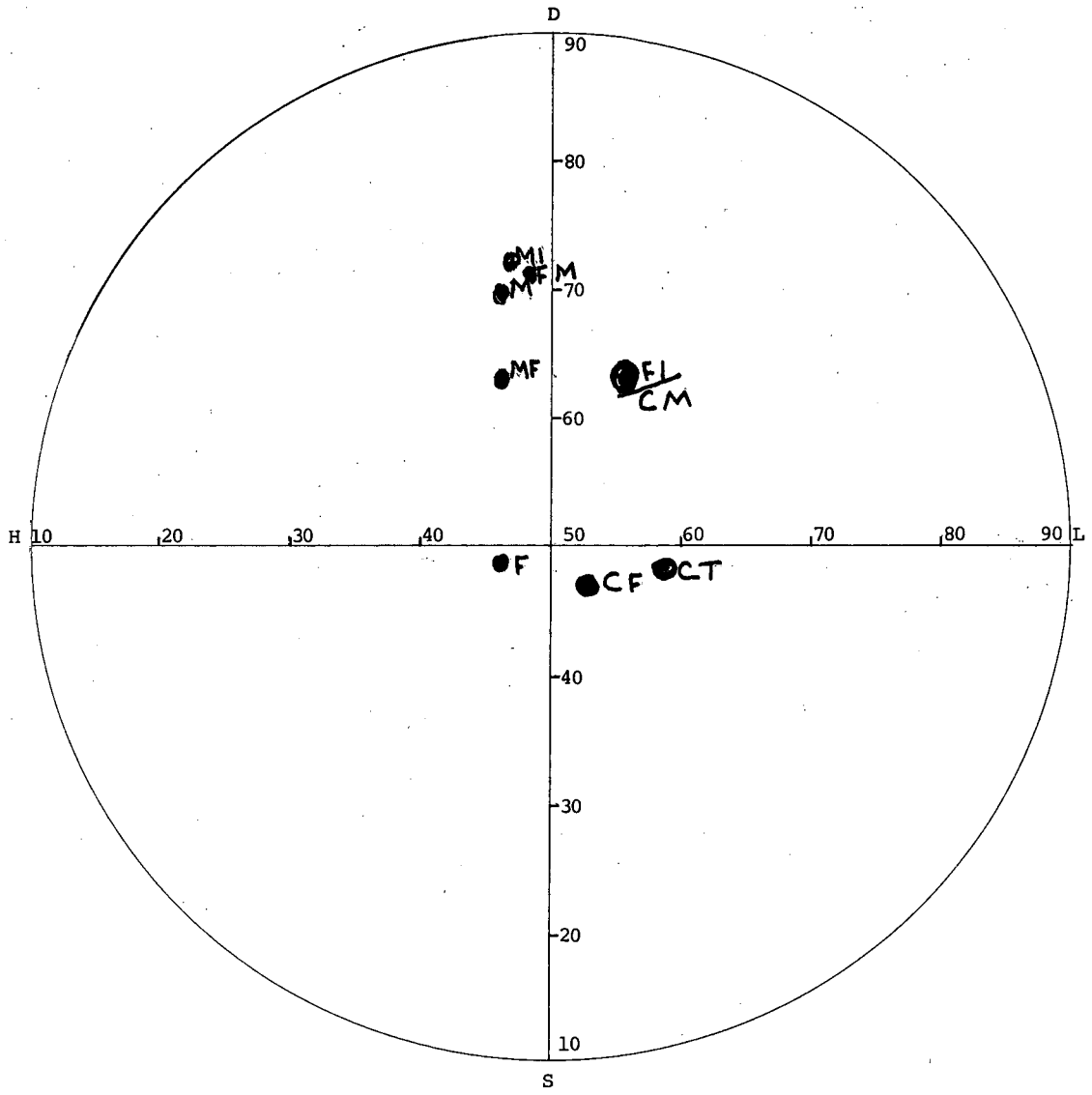


F Father
FI Father Ideal
FM Father by Mother
S^1 Sibling by Father

CM Child by Mother
CF Child by Father
CT Child by Teachers

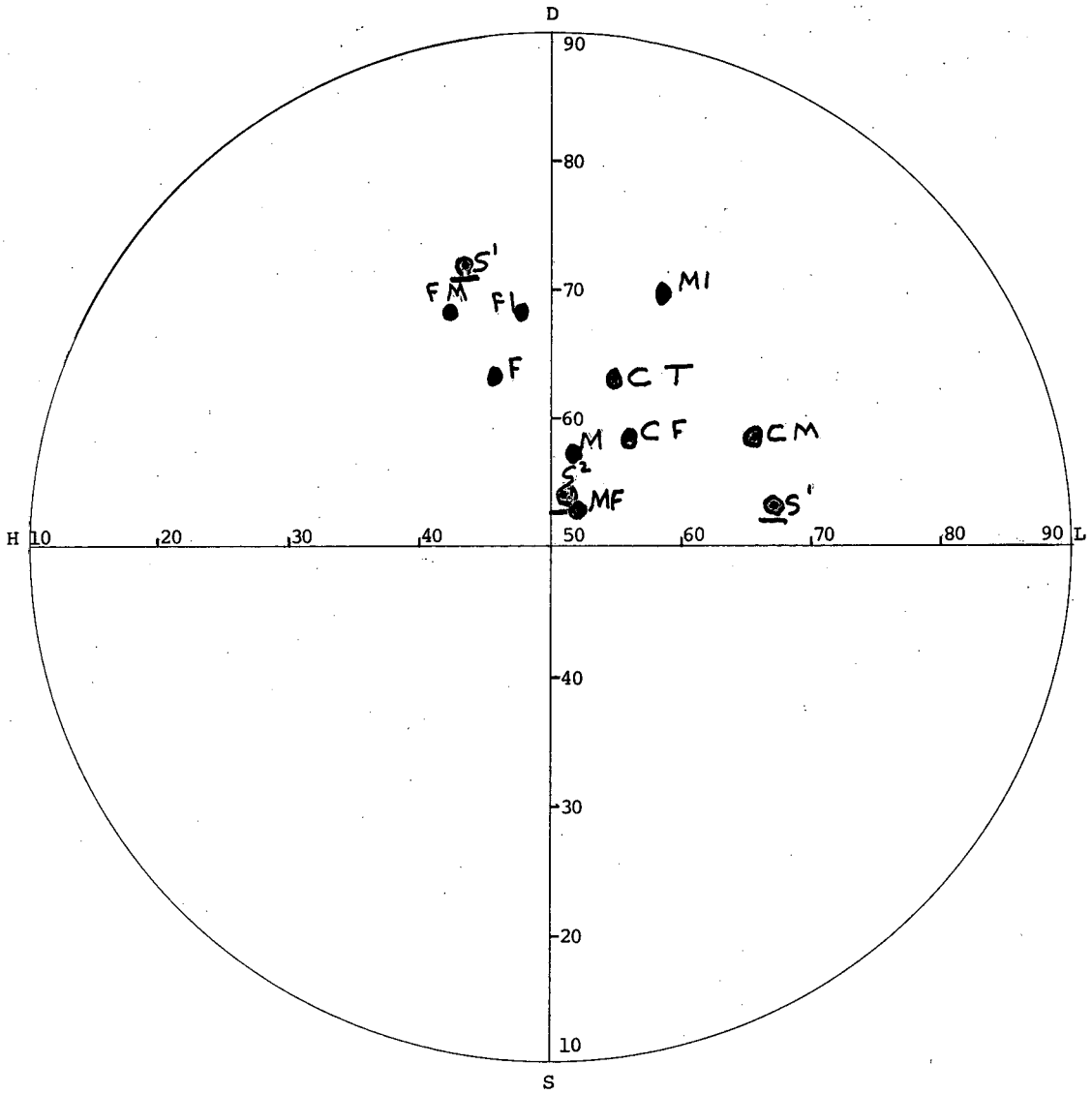
M Mother
MI Mother Ideal
MF Mother by Father
S^1 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 4 of 17) Family 4 (A)



- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father

TABLE 13 (page 5 of 17) Family 5 (A)

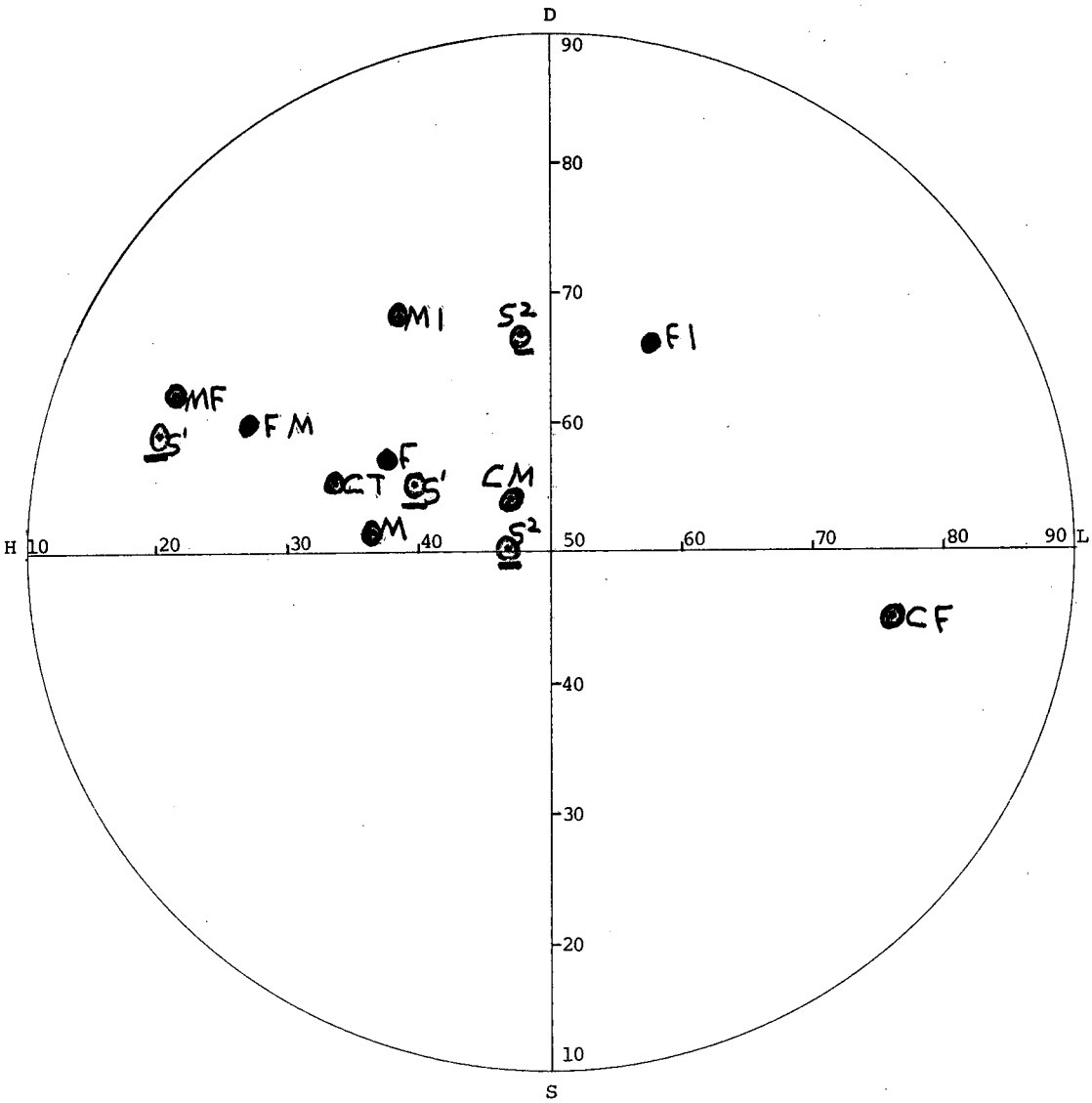


- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father

- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers

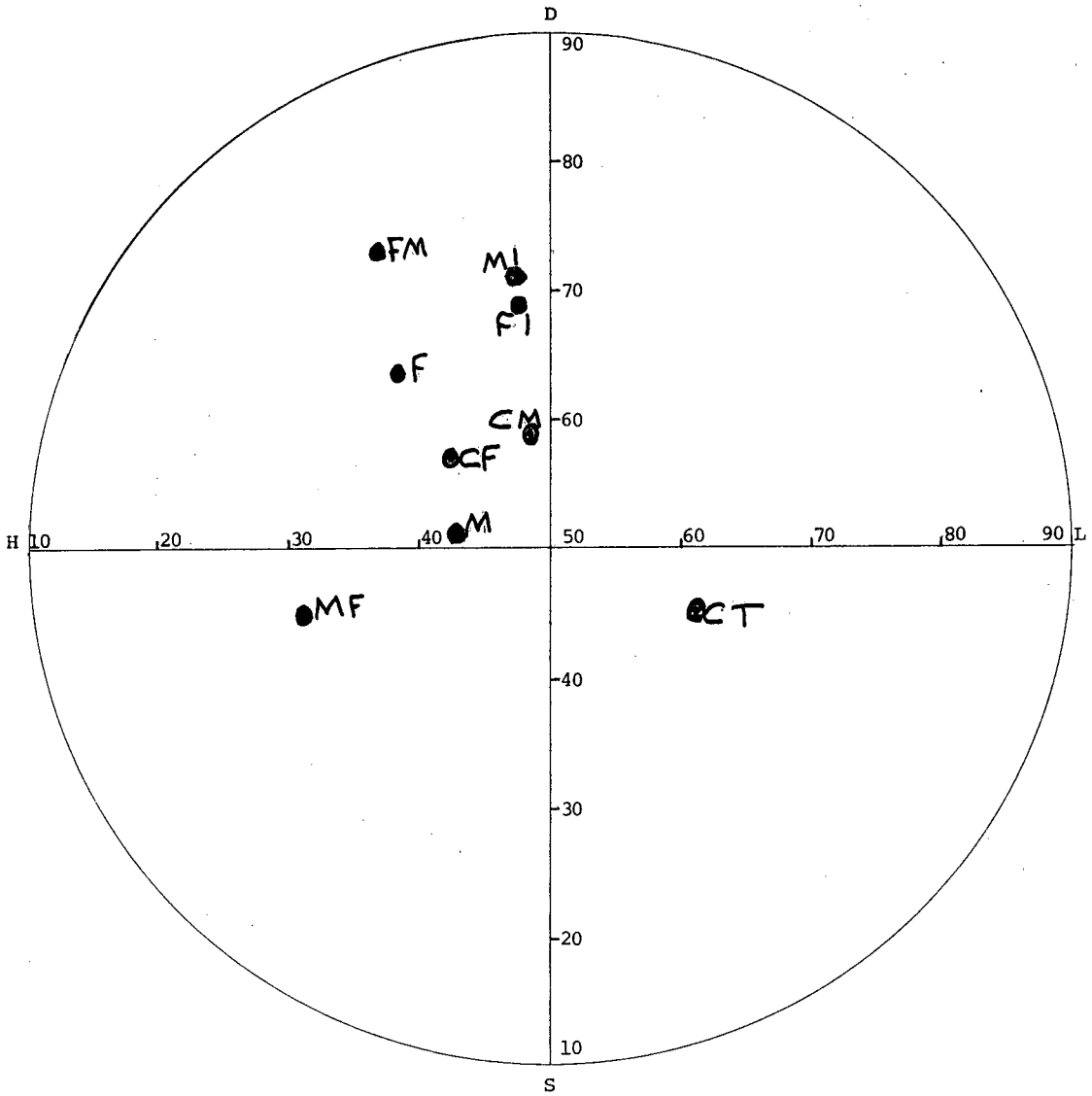
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 6 of 17) Family 6 (B)



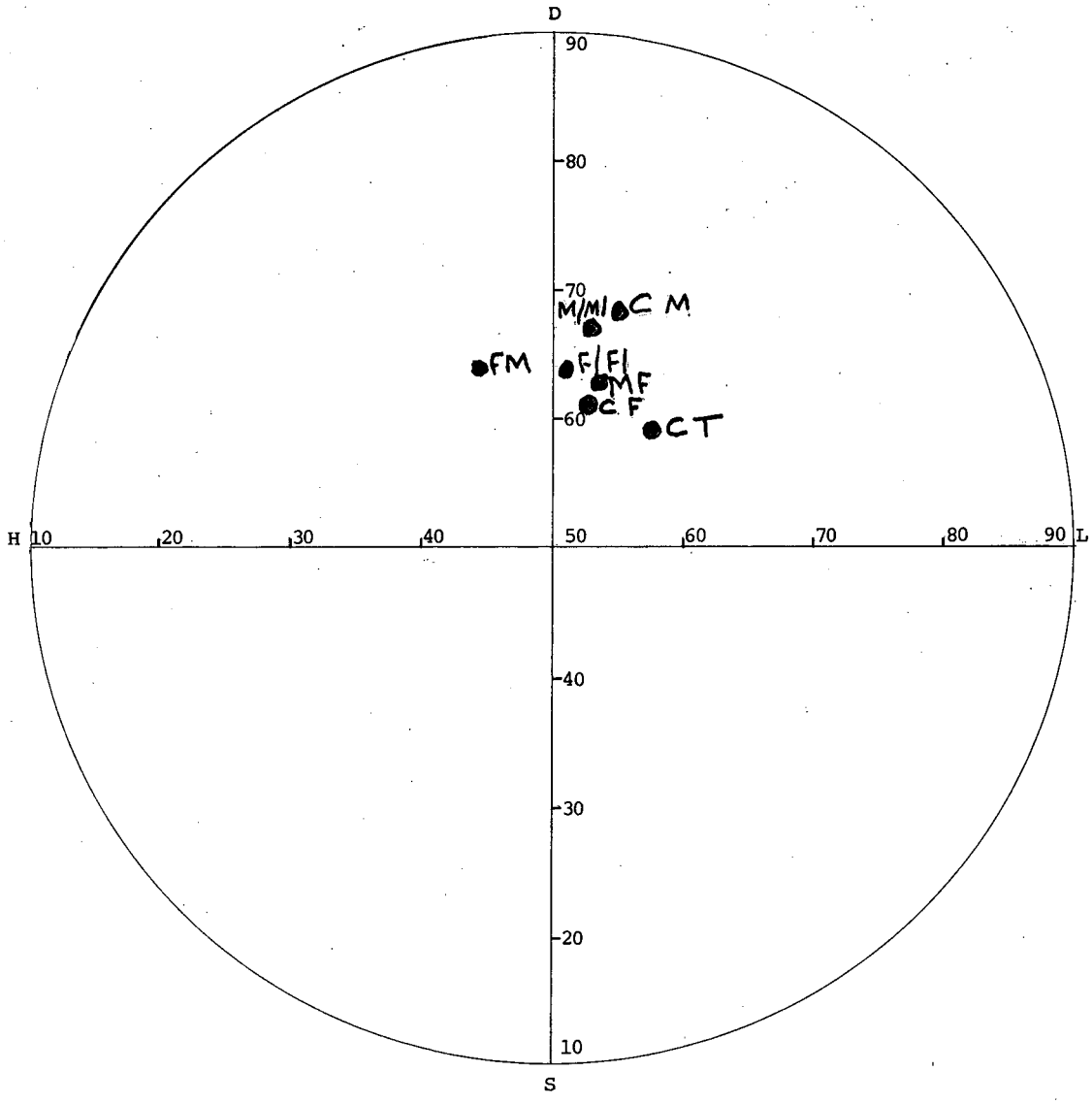
- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 7 of 17) Family 7 (B)



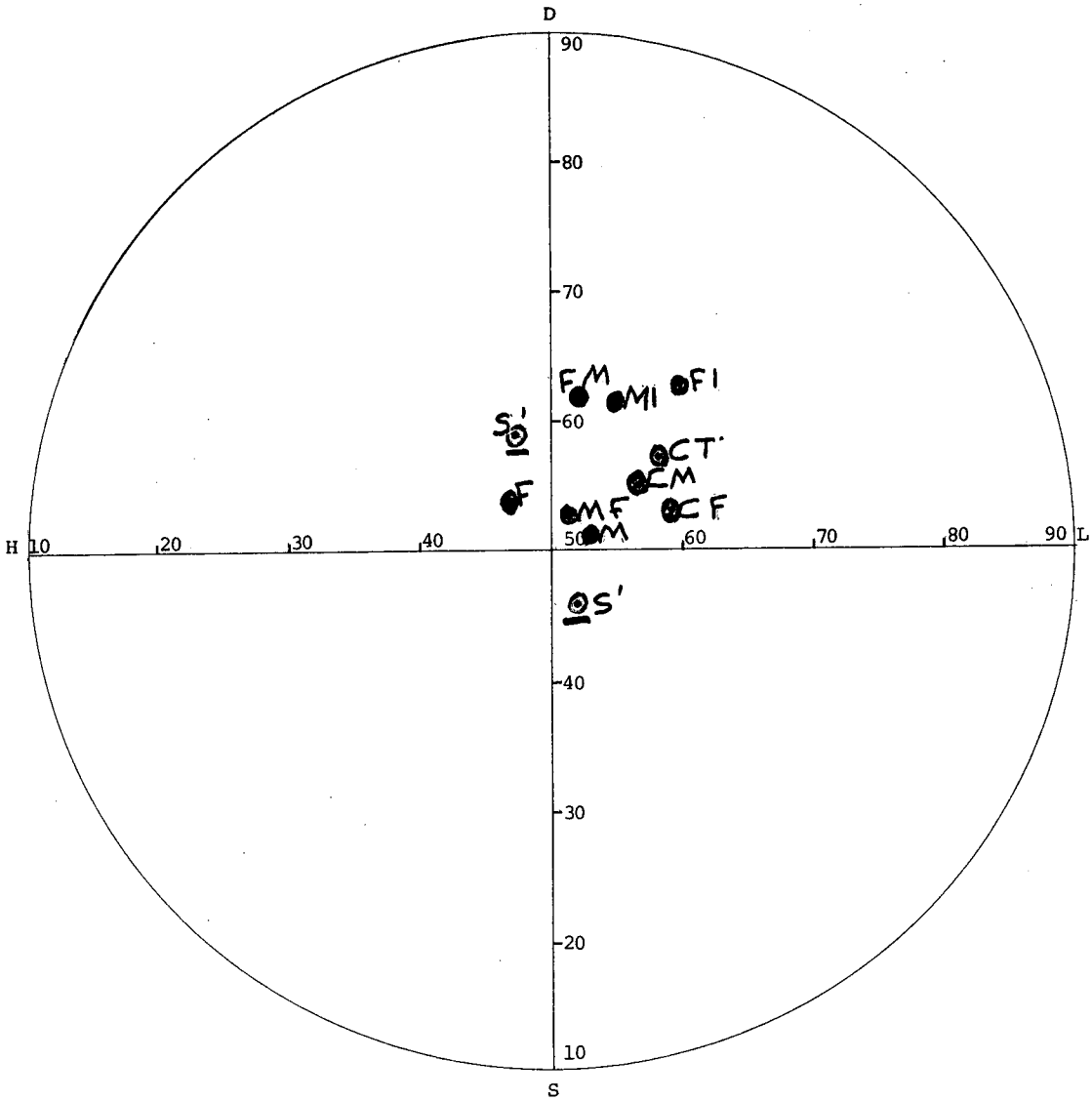
F Father
FI Father Ideal
FM Father by Mother
CM Child by Mother
CF Child by Father
CT Child by Teachers
M Mother
MI Mother Ideal
MF Mother by Father

TABLE 13 (page 8 of 17) Family 8 (A)



● F Father
● FI Father Ideal
● FM Father by Mother
● CM Child by Mother
● CF Child by Father
● CT Child by Teachers
● M Mother
● MI Mother Ideal
● MF Mother by Father

TABLE 13 (page 9 of 17) Family 9 (A)

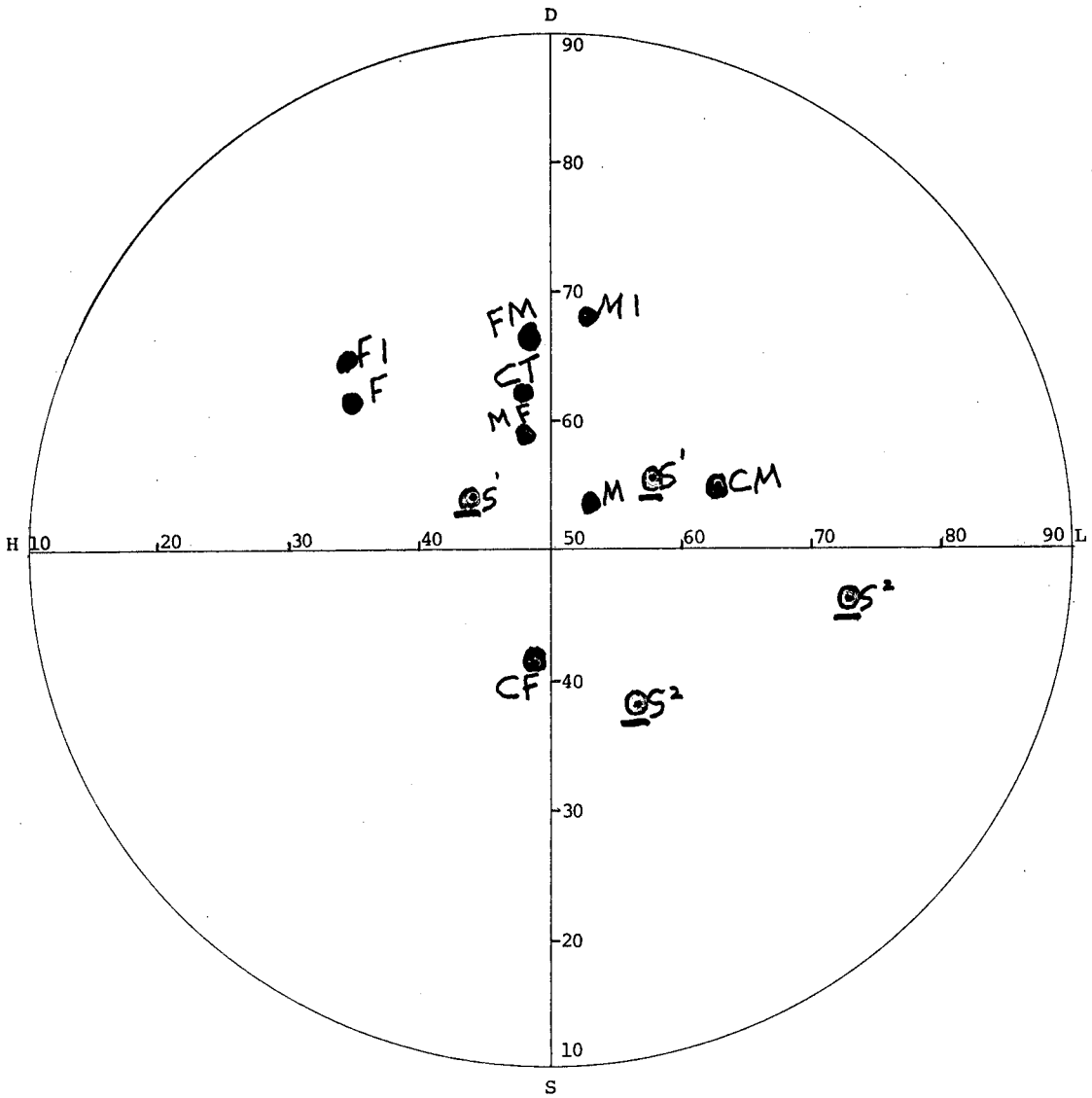


● F Father
● FI Father Ideal
● FM Father by Mother
O S1 Sibling by Father

● CM Child by Mother
● CF Child by Father
● CT Child by Teachers

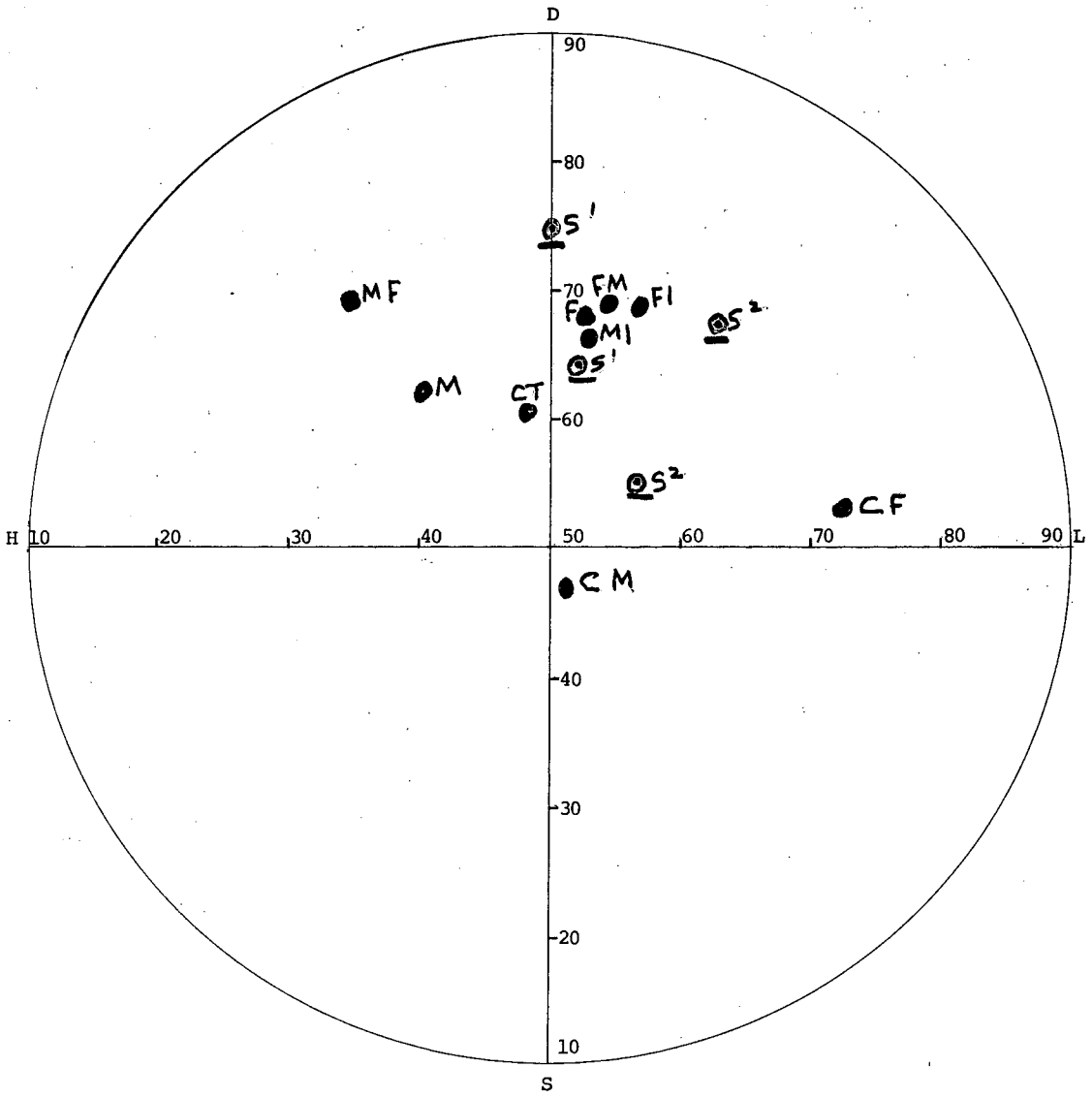
● M Mother
● MI Mother Ideal
● MF Mother by Father
O S1 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 10 of 17) Family 10 (B)



- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 11 of 17) Family 11 (B)

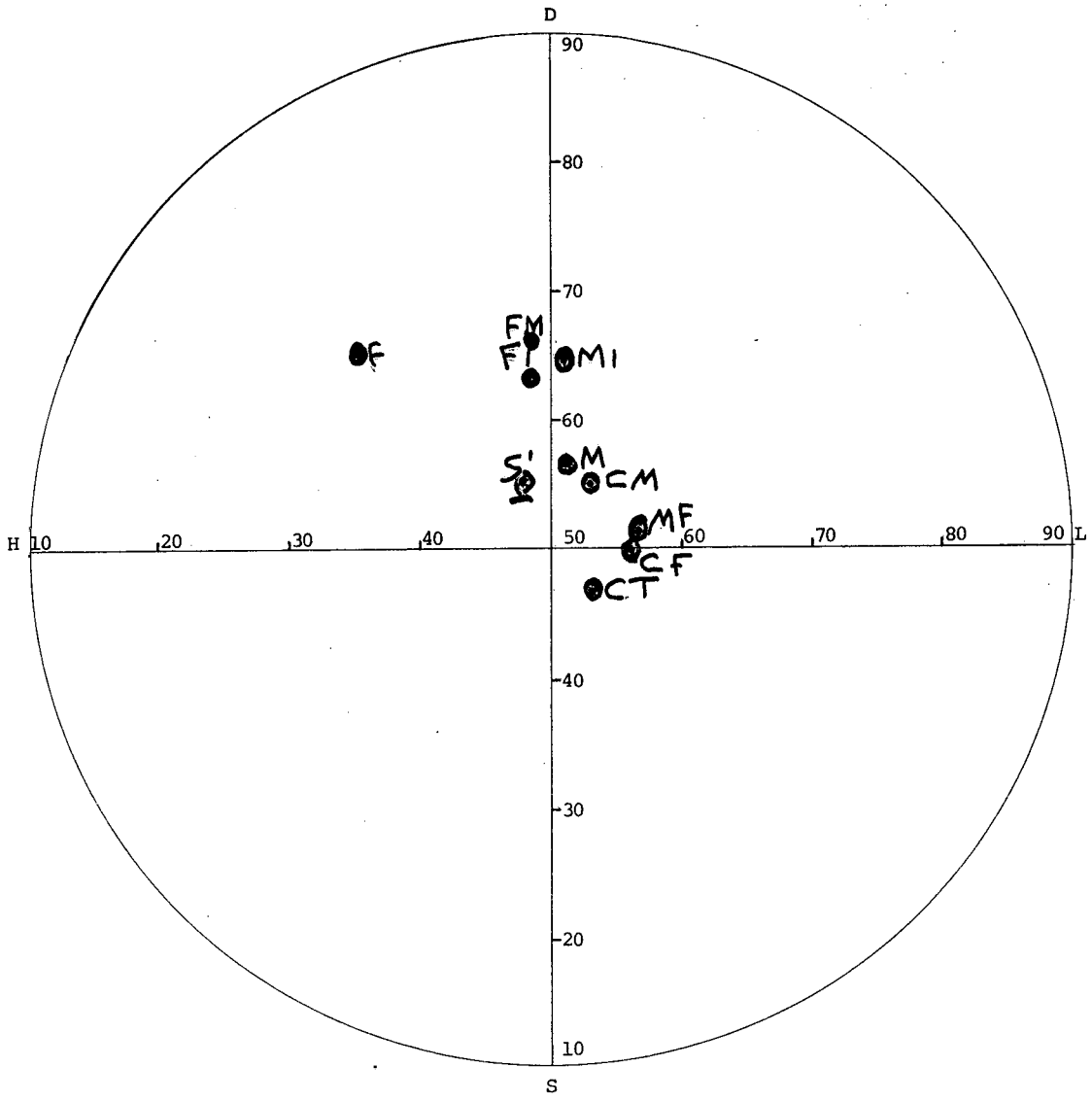


● F Father
● FI Father Ideal
● FM Father by Mother
O S^1 Sibling by Father
O S^2 Sibling by Father

● CM Child by Mother
● CF Child by Father
● CT Child by Teachers

● M Mother
● MI Mother Ideal
● MF Mother by Father
O S^1 Sibling by Mother
O S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 12 of 17) Family 12 (A)

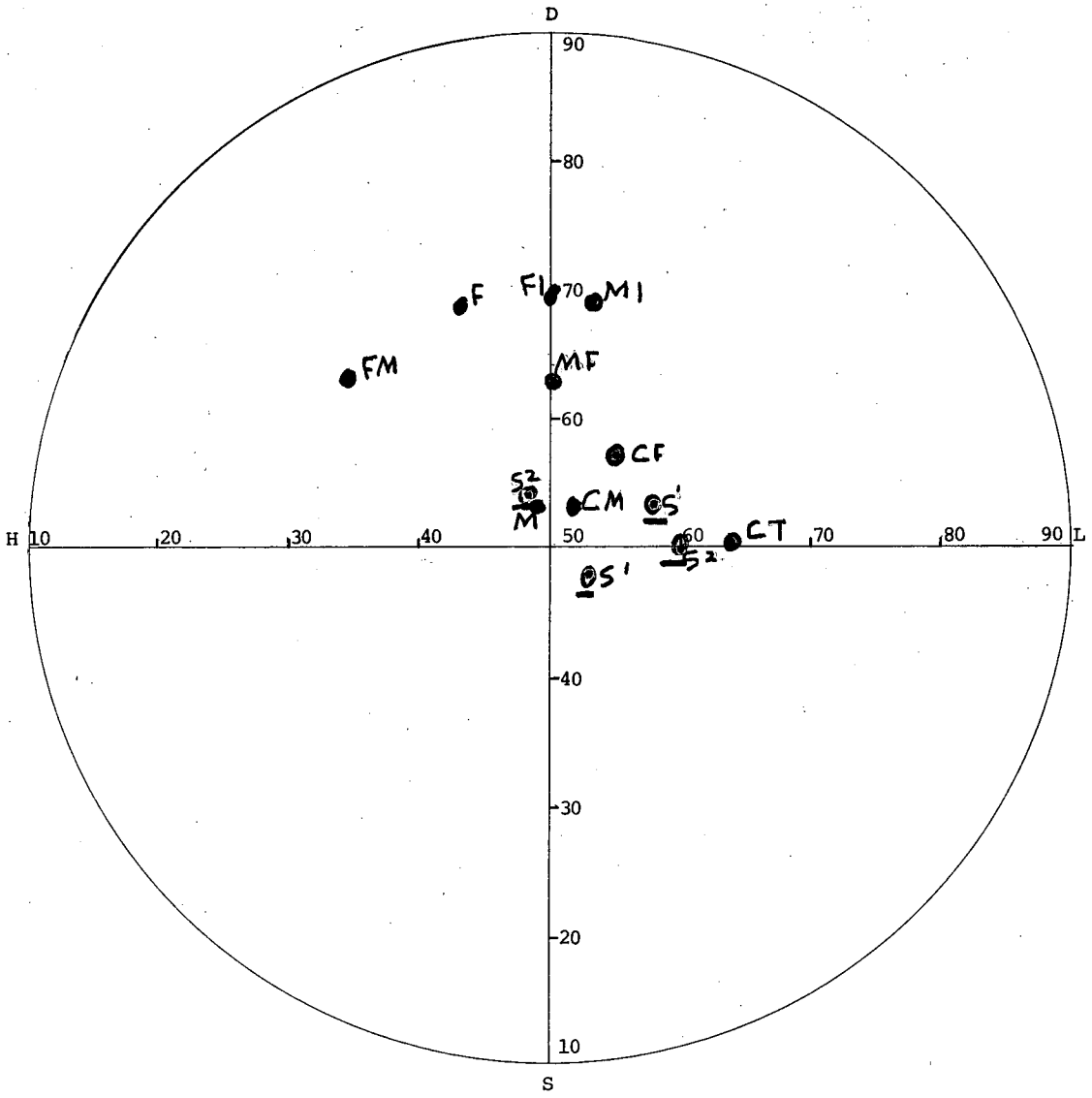


F Father
FI Father Ideal
FM Father by Mother
S^1 Sibling by Father

CM Child by Mother
CF Child by Father
CT Child by Teachers

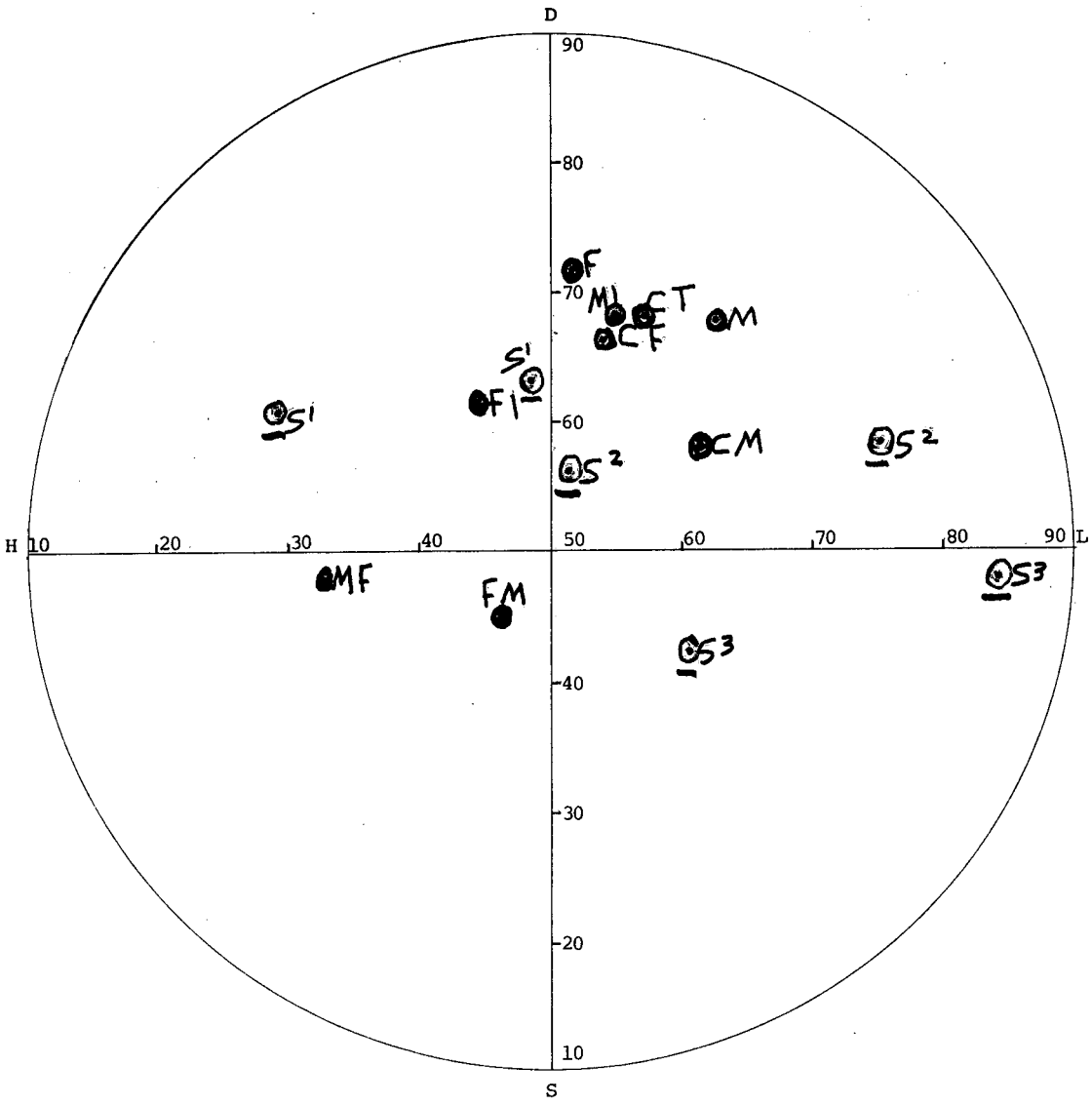
M Mother
MI Mother Ideal
MF Mother by Father
S^1 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 13 of 17) Family 13 (A)



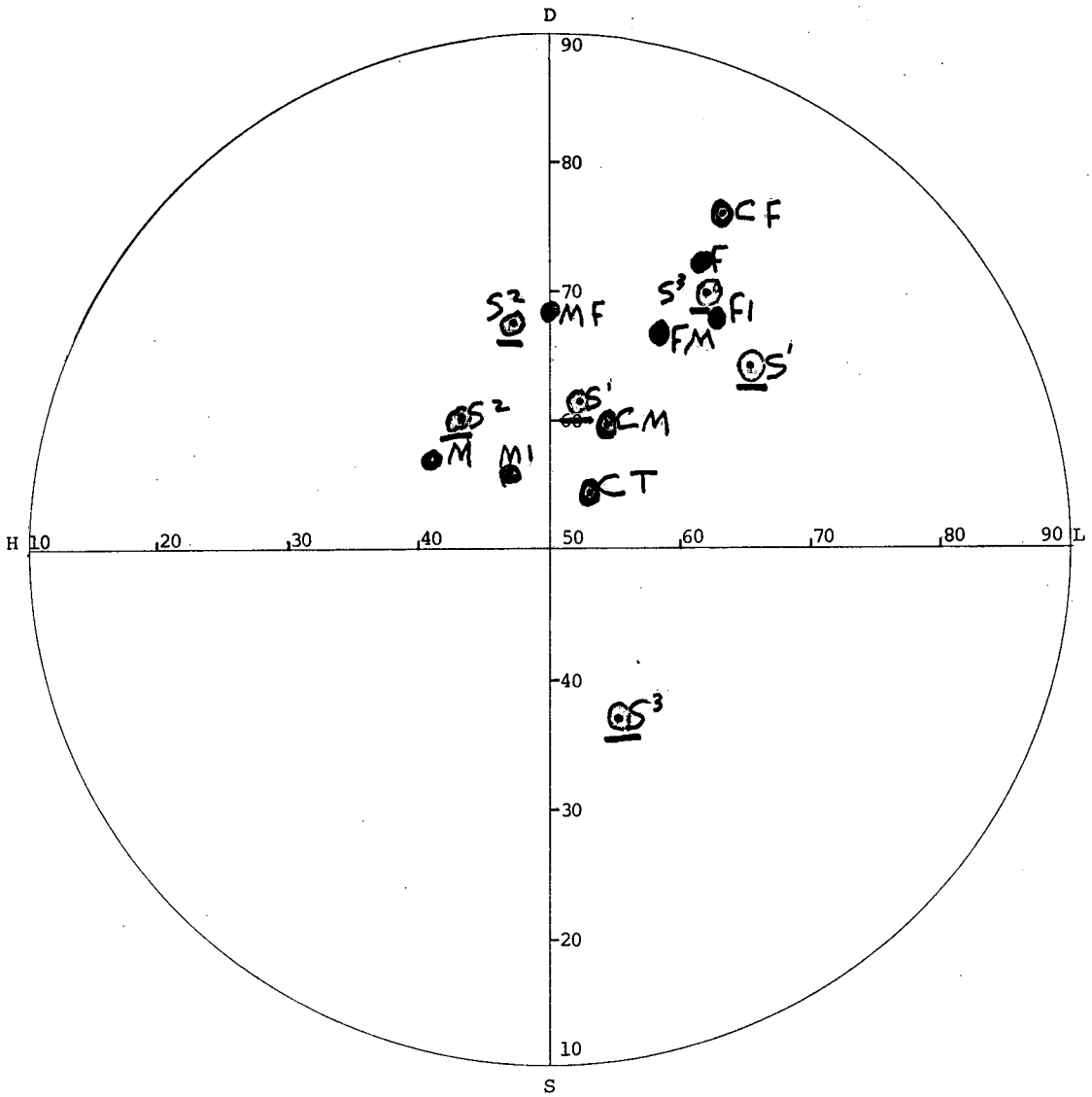
- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 14 of 17) Family 14 (B)



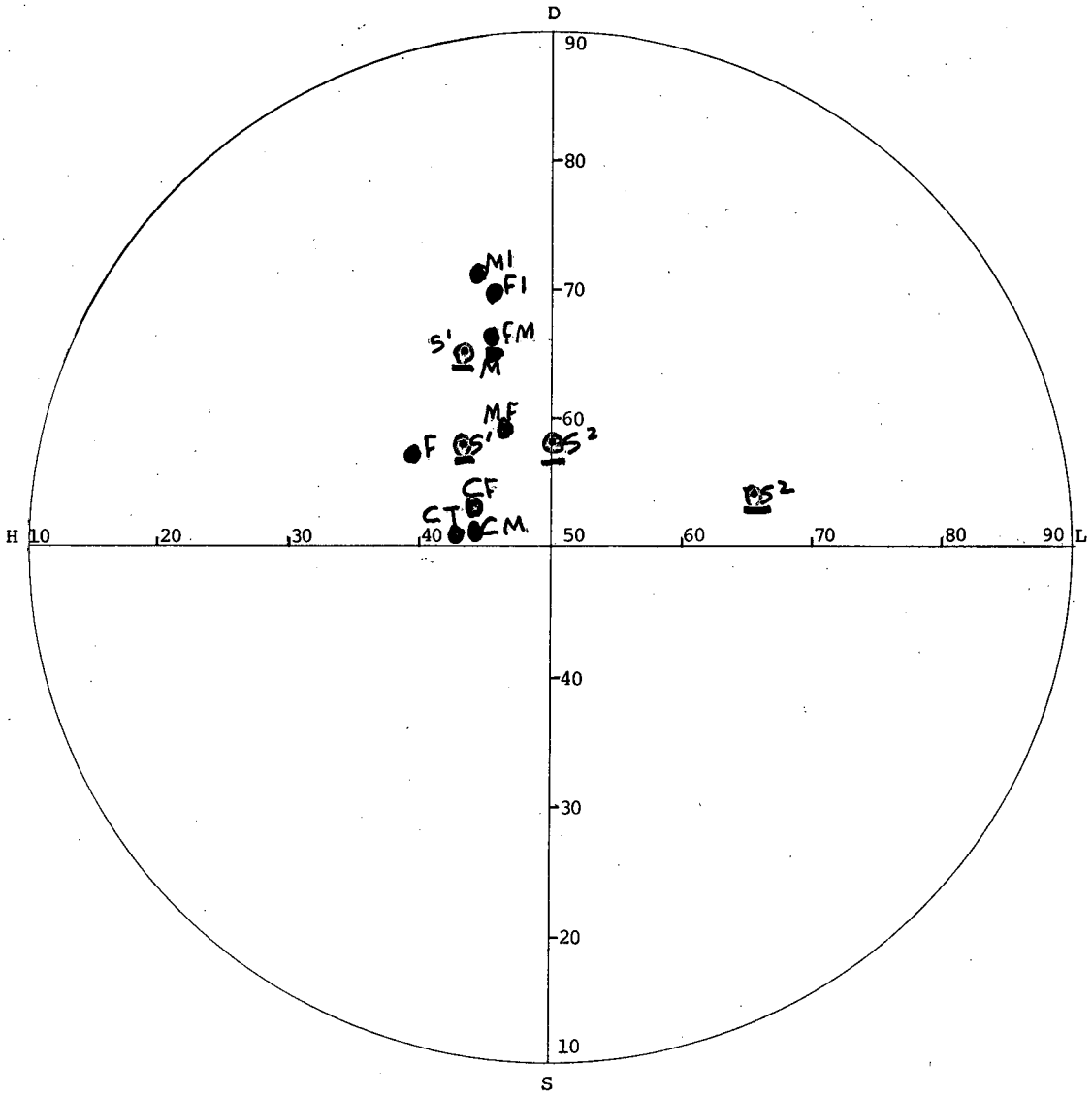
- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- S^3 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother
- S^3 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 15 of 17) Family 15 (A)



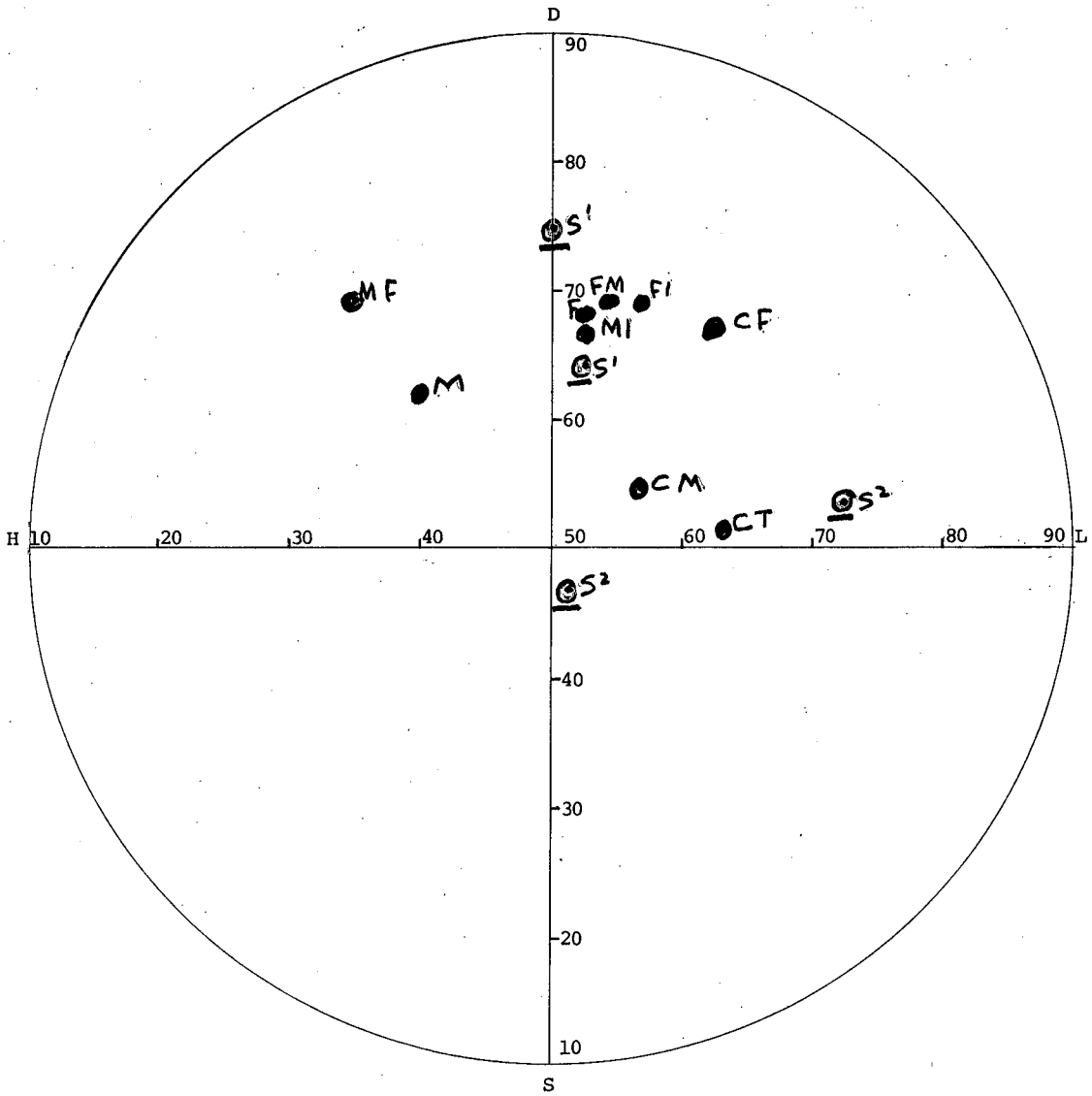
- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- S^3 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother
- S^3 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 16 of 17) Family 16 (B)



- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 13 (page 17 of 17) Family 17 (B)



- F Father
- FI Father Ideal
- FM Father by Mother
- S^1 Sibling by Father
- S^2 Sibling by Father
- CM Child by Mother
- CF Child by Father
- CT Child by Teachers
- M Mother
- MI Mother Ideal
- MF Mother by Father
- S^1 Sibling by Mother
- S^2 Sibling by Mother

TABLE 14 (page 1 of 2)

t-Test Results

COMPARISON OF STANDARDIZED SCORES OF ICL ITEMS
ON DOMINANCE-SUBMISSION/HATE-LOVE QUADRANT

(Distance=Mean of the Distance Between Scores)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Child by Father Child by Mother Distance	8.7991 (8)	13.6567 (9)	-1.2972	.1079
Child by Mother Child by Teachers Distance	9.4808 (8)	12.0254 (9)	-1.1166	.1410
Child by Father Child by Teachers Distance	8.7606 (8)	18.5033 (9)	-1.9346	.0379*
Ideal by Mother Child by Mother Distance	10.8255 (8)	17.0717 (9)	-2.6147	.0103*
Ideal by Father Child by Father Distance	11.9452 (8)	20.4808 (9)	-2.5740	.0123*
Self by Mother Child by Mother Distance	8.2332 (8)	14.3146 (9)	-2.4454	.0141*
Self by Father Child by Father Distance	11.2965 (8)	17.4584 (9)	-1.1893	.1282
Self by Mother Father by Mother Distance	10.9290 (8)	15.4919 (8)	-1.1736	.1308
Self by Father Mother by Father Distance	10.7764 (8)	18.6793 (8)	-1.8809	.0411*
Self by Father Self by Mother Distance	12.8111 (8)	13.0951 (8)	-0.0817	.4687

* Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 14 (page 2 of 2)

Variables	Group A Mean (n)	Group B Mean (n)	Values of the t-Statistic	One-Tailed Prob. Values
Self by Parents Ideal by Parents Distance	7.3588 (8)	11.1309 (8)	-2.0367	.0307*
Self by Parents Parents by Parents Distance	4.8834 (8)	9.9249 (8)	-1.3543	.1010
Child by Father Child by Mother Child by Teachers Distance	27.0406 (8)	44.185 (9)	-1.8371	.0454*
Child by Teachers Distance	41.2412 (8)	35.7652 (9)	0.8488	.2010
Child by Parents Child by Teachers Distance	8.5356 (8)	14.3716 (9)	-1.9146	.0403*
Ideal by Parents Child by Parents Distance	10.8760 (8)	17.9152 (9)	-2.4892	.0128*
Self by Parents Child by Parents Distance	9.3123 (8)	14.5657 (9)	-1.8515	.0449*

* Significant at the .05 level.

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