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MARITAL SATISFACTION, PARENTAL AGREEMENT ON CHILD REARING
AND
PARENTAL PERCEPTION OF CHILD'S ADJUSTMENT

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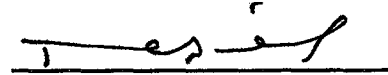

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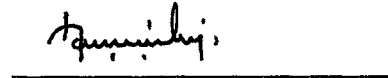
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ABSTRACT

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The major purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of a child's adjustment. The other purposes of the study were to understand a) whether the mothers' perception of their children would be more similar to the teachers' perception of the children than the fathers' perception of the children, b) whether the husbands would have more marital satisfaction than the wives, c) whether a child's gender would have negative effect on parental agreement, parental perception and marital satisfaction of parents. The nonreferred sample consisted of 100 married

couples with one preschool-aged child each and the teachers of these children. The data were gathered by administering four instruments; the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) for parents, the Teacher Report Form (TRF) for teachers, and a Demographic Information Form.

Findings indicated that there was no significant relationship existing among marital satisfaction, parental agreement, and parental perception of a child's adjustment. However, a negative significant correlation was found between parental agreement and marital satisfaction of mothers. For the second hypothesis, a significant difference was found between the mothers' and teachers' perception of children. For the third hypothesis, no significant difference was found between mothers' and fathers' marital satisfaction. For the last hypothesis, a child's gender was not found to be an influential factor over parents' marital satisfaction, parental agreement and perception of a child's adjustment.

Keywords: Marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception.

ÖZ

EVLİLİKTEN SAĞLANAN DOYUM, ÇOCUK YETİŞTİRME KONUSUNDA
EBEVEYNLER ARASINDAKİ UZLAŞMA VE ÇOCUĞUN UYUMUNUN
EBEVEYNLER TARAFINDAN ALGILANMASI

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, 1)Evlilikten sağlanan doyum, çocuk yetiştirme konusunda ebeveynler arasındaki uzlaşma ve çocuğun uyumunun ebeveynler tarafından algılanması arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir.Buna ek olarak çalışma; 2)Annelerin çocuğu algılamalarının, öğretmenlerin algılarıyla babaların algılamalarından daha fazla benzeşip benzeşmediğini; 3)Kocaların evlilikten sağladıkları doyumun eşlerinden daha fazla olup olmadığını; 4)Çocuğun cinsiyetinin, çocuk yetiştirme konusunda ebeveynler arasındaki uzlaşmada, çocuğun uyumunun ebeveynler tarafından algılanmasında ve eşlerin evlilikten sağlanan doyum üzerinde olumsuz etkileri olup olmadığını araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Veriler, Çiftler Uyum Ölçeği (DAS), 4-18 Yaş Çocuk Gençler için Davranış Değerlendirme Ölçeği (CBCL), Aile Hayatı ve Çocuk Yetiştirme Tutumu Ölçeğinin anaokuluna giden, daha önce kliniğe başvurmamış, 100 çocuğun anne ve babalarına; aynı çocukların öğretmenlerine de Öğretmen Bilgi Formu uygulanmasıyla elde edilmiştir.

Elde edilen sonuçlara göre evlilikten sağlanan doyum, çocuk yetiştirme konusunda ebeveynler arasındaki uzlaşma ve çocuğun uyumunun ebeveynler

tarafından algılanması arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Ancak, annelerin evlilikten sağladıkları doyum ve çocuk yetiştirme konusunda eşleriyle aralarındaki uzlaşma arasında negatif yönde anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. İkinci hipotez için, annelerin çocuğu algılamaları ve öğretmenlerin algıları arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur. Üçüncü hipotezde, eşlerin evlilikten sağladıkları doyum arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Sonuncu hipotez için, çocuğun cinsiyetinin, çocuk yetiştirme konusunda ebeveynler arasındaki uzlaşmada, çocuğun uyumunun ebeveynler tarafından algılanmasında ve eşlerin evlilikten sağlanan doyum üzerinde olumsuz bir faktör olmadığı bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Evlilikten sağlanan doyum, Çocuk yetiştirme konusunda uzlaşma, Çocuğun algılanması.



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The link between family functioning and child behavior has long been of interest to different fields of psychology such as developmental and child psychology. To investigate this linkage, several theoretical formulations; such as the unidirectional models of socialization in which children are thought to be passive recipients of parents (Brody, Pillegrini & Sigel, 1986), the attachment theory; that found links among adults' working models of their early attachment histories, their behavior as parents and their children's attachment or diagnosis (Crowell, O'Connor, Wollmers, Sprafkin & Rao, 1991), learning theories which emphasize the study of objectively observable behavior and psychoanalytically oriented approaches in which unconscious motives and conflicts are emphasized (Fauber & Long, 1991) were constructed. In recent years, there has been increasing dissatisfaction with the available explanations. As a result, recent formulations and studies have emphasized the role of the family system.

According to the family systems approach, which stresses the role of family as a system, families comprise several subsystems (i.e., spousal or marital, parent-child, individual and the sibling subsystems), each of which affects and is affected by events that occur in the other subsystems (Hansen & L'Abate, 1982; Belsky,

1981; cited in Brody, Pellegrini & Sigel, 1986). If one component of the system changes, the rest of the system will be forced to change, in response, such as the changes observed in the relationship patterns between spouses who become mother and father as well as husband and wife. (Schuchts & Witkin, 1989; Harriman-Cooper, 1985; Munichin, 1985).

In this two-way interaction; marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of a child's adjustment are accepted as important variables in family functioning. However, in the literature, no study has been found on the relationship among these three crucial variables. Therefore, the present study has examined the relationship among marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of child's adjustment.

In particular, the systems approach suggests that the quality of parenting is influenced by the marital relationship. In research, positive marital relationship has been found to provide the primary cognitive, emotional and physical support for the parents. Thus, the state of parents' relationship as a couple would affect their parenting behavior, and in turn, the child's adjustment (Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1993). One component of the marital relationship that has generated most interest in regard to parenting is marital satisfaction.

Generally, each study defines and measures marital satisfaction in different ways. For example, in one study researchers operationalized marital satisfaction congruently with the conception of Burgess and Locke (1945:439; cited in Rollins & Cannon, 1974, p.20) that "satisfaction appears to be resultant of the correspondence between the actual and the expected, or a comparison of the actual relationship, with the alternative, if the present relationships were terminated." In

another study, satisfaction is defined as a subjective condition in which an individual experiences a certain degree of attainment to a goal or desire (Burr, 1970). Spanier and Cole (1976 cited in Crane et al., 1990) claimed that marital adjustment is a general term, typically defined as the functioning and the success of the marital partners and it encompasses the concepts of marital satisfaction and happiness. According to Campbell, Ewing, Breaux and Szumowski (1976, cited in Roach, Frazier & Bowden, 1981), satisfaction with any domain of life experience which is applicable to marriage, is produced by the difference between an individual's perceived reality of the current situation and his or her aspirations concerning the domain. This definition is in congruence with Burgess and Locke's definition. In another study, marital satisfaction referred to spouses' evaluation of their relationship on two general dimensions: positive interaction and negative sentiment. This conceptualization is based on the exchange-theory perspective which predicts that individuals in overrewarded situations will be satisfied, since they are maximizing their rewards (Gilford & Bengtson, 1979).

In order to measure the overall quality of marriage, many instruments were constructed and among the most popular scales are; the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, the Marital Adjustment Test and the Revised Marital Adjustment Test (Crane, Allgood, Larson & Griffin, 1990). The Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) (Locke & Wallace, 1959; cited in Crane et al., 1990) has been broadly used in research, especially to distinguish distressed couples from nondistressed ones and in determining therapy effectiveness. The Revised Marital Adjustment Test (RMAT) (Kimmel & Van Der Veen, 1974) was developed by reanalysing Locke and Wallace's original question pool with factor analysis. It is reported by the authors

that RMAT is statistically more valid than the MAT. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976) yields an overall score of satisfaction and can be divided into four subscales - marital satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus and affectionate expression.

A satisfactory marital relationship in which spouses' emotional needs are met, enables both partners to shape their roles as parents and to establish an optimal relationship with their children. They can be capable of emotional investment and sensitivity toward their child because the marital interaction contributes to their emotional accessibility and sensitivity. On the otherhand, a poor marital relationship may prevent the parents' emotional availability and responsiveness toward their children (Shulman & Zohar, 1991). In his study Belsky (1984) suggested that marital dissatisfaction may affect the general well-being of parents, thereby compromising their competent functioning in the parental role . Due to the importance of the well-being of husbands and wives, in addition to marital happiness , researchers have begun to speculate that specific aspects of family functioning, such as , spouses participation in outside interests together and frequent agreement about a variety of topics are essential for the parents' well-being (Stoneman, Brody & Burke, 1989).

Parental agreement about child rearing constitutes one of the specific aspects of family functioning under investigation. Parental agreement - disagreement in child rearing is operationalized as the degree of congruence existing between the descriptions of child-rearing practices independently offered by the mother and by the father of a child (Block, Block & Morrison, 1981). Parental agreement has been seen as reflecting family organization with high

agreement indicating adaptive functioning and low agreement indicating disorganization.

Parental agreement then appears to be a variable that may play an important role in family dynamics, not only as an index of well-functioning parental dyads but also in the impact that agreeing or disagreeing parents may have on children over time (Deal, Halverson & Smith-Wampler, 1989). Parental child rearing disputes have been shown to correlate significantly with behavior problems in preschool-aged boys (Deal et al., 1989; Block et al., 1981). For example, in a study that combined clinic-referred and not clinically referred families with 3-year-old children, parental discrepancies in child-rearing attitudes correlated with a variety of behavior problems (Block et al., 1981).

Another specific dimension of family functioning that is important in understanding family life in terms of both husband-wife and parent-child relationships is parental perception. Parental perception of a child's adjustment is the parents' judgment about their children's behaviors, emotions, competencies and developments (Brody, Stoneman & Burke, 1988). It is especially important in labeling and the referral process because children are rarely referred to as clients unless their parents perceive and accept the child as having a likely need for psychological help (Dadds, Sanders, Behrens & James, 1987; Brody et al., 1988). Parental perceptions of child development and attributions to children will also influence the development of children (Dix & Grusec, 1985; Sameroff & Feil, 1981, 1985; cited in Haddad, Barocas & Hollenbeck, 1991).

In the literature, marital relationship and parental perception was found to be positively correlated (Floyd, & Zmich, 1991; Conger, Yang, Lahey, Kropp &

McCarty, 1984; Miller et. al, 1993). Howes and Markman (1989) in their research suggested that after a heated unresolved marital discussion, parents may perceive a child's behavior more negatively than objectively during a subsequent parent-child interaction, indicating a carry-over effect from the marital interaction to parent and child interaction. Other researchers also suggested that problems in marriage will affect maternal perception of child deviance more than the child's actual level of deviant behavior (Webster-Stratton, 1988; Brody & Forehand, 1986; Katz-Fainsilber & Gottman, 1993).

In addition to marital and parental perception relationship, studies in the literature also show that marital relationship and parental agreement are interrelated (Block et al., 1981; Harriman-Cooper, 1985; Deal et al.; 1989; Floyd & Zmich, 1991; Jouriles, Murphy, Farris, Smith, Richters & Waters; 1991). Block et al. (1981) measured the degree of parental agreement by comparing the independent responses of 83 parental dyads, using a set of Q-sort items reflecting child-rearing values and orientations. The results of the study showed that the degree of agreement correlated with the continuation or termination of the marriage and related to independently described characteristics of the family home environment. As it was seen in the literature, the relationship between marital dissatisfaction or conflict and parental perception, marital quality and parental agreement were mostly investigated (Webster-Stratton, 1988, 1989; Dadds et al., 1987; Gottman & Fainsilber-Katz, 1989; Brody et. al, 1986; Stoneman, Brody & Burke, 1989; Grych & Fincham, 1990). However, no research was found which studied the relationship among marital satisfaction, parental perception of child adjustment and parental agreement.

The Goals of the Study:

The first goal of this study was to investigate whether there was a relationship existing among marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of a child's adjustment in a nonreferred sample. The other goals of the study were to investigate;

2- Whether the mothers' perception of their children would be more similar to the teachers' perception than the fathers' perception of their children.

3-Whether the husbands would have higher scores on marital satisfaction than the wives.

4-Whether a child's gender would have negative effect on parental agreement, parental perception and marital satisfaction of the parents.

1.1. Significance of the study

The most important aspect of this study is that these three variables, marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of a child's adjustment have not been studied together before. In child psychopathology, while evaluating a child's behavior, it is inevitable to disregard the perspectives of the adults. However, there are many factors which can affect the perspectives of parents. Especially, in married couples, the satisfaction that parents get from their marriages is thought to be an influential factor for their perspectives.

Another important factor in this study is the use of three different sources in evaluating children's adjustment. In the literature, except for a few studies, most research used one source; the mother, in the children's studies. For this reason, it was hard to make judgments and generalizations about the children. Therefore, in this study, fathers' and teachers' ratings have been used in addition to the mothers' ratings.

This study was conducted with a nonreferred group of Turkish preschool children's parents. It is impossible to help psychopathological problems without knowing what is going on in nonreferred population. There is a need for structured, society-based studies. This study may be helpful in forming Mental Health programs in which the role of family as a system that is comprised of interrelated subsystems can be emphasized. Preschool children have especially been chosen for this study because families with preschool children are not thought to have successfully negotiated the transition to parenthood. They are not thought to have a history of reconciling and developing strategies for coping with marital difficulties like families with school-aged children.

Consistent with this, another factor which has to be mentioned is the use of one recently standardized and another recently adapted scale. The first one is the Child Behavior Checklist and its teacher form. With this study, additional information could be provided especially about preschool children to Turkish literature. The other scale is the Dyadic Adjustment Scale which is the mostly used instrument for the measurement of marital satisfaction and adjustment in the literature.

When it comes to the issue of parental agreement, it is not a commonly studied concept in the literature. Parental Agreement is an important topic for a child's mental health, because it is known that the inconsistencies in child-rearing issues can cause ambivalence and may result in childhood psychosis. Moreover, the aspects for which child rearing mothers and fathers agree or disagree for their sons and daughters were examined. This information may be helpful for future research in understanding sex roles and gender difference.



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Marital Satisfaction: Its definition and measurement

In this section, different definitions of marital satisfaction and different instruments used to measure marital satisfaction is presented. In the following sections of marital satisfaction, three concepts; family life cycle, gender difference and division of household labor, that are thought to be important in studying marital satisfaction are presented.

In the literature, positive marital relationship has been found to provide the primary cognitive, emotional and physical support for husbands and wives (Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1993). One component of marital relation that has generated most interest in regard to parenting is marital satisfaction.

In different studies, marital satisfaction was defined and measured in various ways. For example, in one study, marital satisfaction referred to spouses' evaluation of their relationship on two general dimensions: positive interaction and negative sentiment. This conceptualization is based on the exchange-theory perspective which predicts that individuals in overrewarded situations will be

satisfied, since they are maximizing their rewards (Gilford & Bengtson, 1979). In another study, the definition "satisfaction with any domain of life experience which is applicable to marriage, is produced by the difference between an individual's perceived reality of the current situation and his or her aspirations concerning the domain" is used (Roach, Frazier & Bowden, 1981, p.539).

In his study Burr (1970) defined satisfaction as a subjective condition in which an individual experiences a certain degree of attainment to a goal or desire. Whereas, Spanier and Cole (1976 cited in Crane et al., 1990) claimed that marital adjustment is a general term, typically defined as the functioning and the success of the marital partners and it encompasses the concepts of marital satisfaction and happiness. Finally, another study operationalized marital satisfaction congruently with the conception of Burgess and Locke (1945:439; cited in Rollins & Cannon, 1974, p.20) as "satisfaction appears to be a resultant of the correspondence between the actual and the expected or a comparison of the actual relationship with the alternative, if the present relationships were terminated".

In order to measure the overall quality of marriage, many scales were constructed and among the most popular measures are; the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, the Marital Adjustment Test and the Revised Marital Adjustment Test (Crane, Allgood, Larson & Griffin, 1990). The Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) (Locke & Wallace, 1959; cited in Crane et al., 1990) has been broadly used in research, especially to distinguish distressed from nondistressed couples and in determining therapy effectiveness. The Revised Marital Adjustment Test (Kimmel & Van Der Veen, 1974) was developed by reanalyzing Locke and Wallace's original question pool with factor analysis. It is reported by the authors to be

statistically more valid than the MAT. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) yields an overall score and can be divided into four subscales: marital satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus and affectional expression.

Many correlational studies were constructed to understand the factors contributing to marital satisfaction. Some of the concepts in these studies, such as the family life cycle, division of household labor, and gender difference are especially important in understanding relationship between marital satisfaction and parenting.

2.1.1. Marital Satisfaction and Family Life Cycle

There is a growing interest in understanding and describing changes in marital satisfaction as perceived by husbands and wives over their family life cycle. The span of time from the beginning of a family with the marriage of a young couple, the bearing, rearing and launching of their children, through the time when they are again alone together, until the retirement and inevitable death of one or both of them is referred to as the family life cycle (Duvall, 1971:144, cited in Schram-Wienman, 1979). The course of satisfaction through the stages of marriage has become the focus of researchers and the public. This is due in part to two dramatic demographic changes that have been documented in recent decades. First, the tremendous growth in the over 65-years-old population in the United States and, secondly, the high rate of divorce, not only in young marriages, but also in couples in mid-life or older (Vaillant & Vaillant, 1993).

In the 1960s, studies were begun about the patterns of change in marital interaction over the family life cycle. In his study, Burr (1970) divided the family life cycle into 8 categories: beginning families, childbearing families, families with

preschool children, families with school-age children, families with teenage children, families as launching centers, families in the middle years, and aging families, and found that there was a major drop of satisfaction at the preschool stage and an increase after this stage. Although a number of studies done according to the family life-cycle approach reported an "inevitable" linear decline in marital satisfaction (Blood & Wolfe, 1964; cited in Rollins & Cannon, 1974) Burr's finding was different from the general trend. This approach contrasts sharply with the earlier attempts to predict positive adjustment in the early stage of marriage under the assumption that personal readiness for marriage, compatible mate selection and early adjustment were the keys to marital success (Rollins & Feldman, 1970) .

By the 1970s, trends in research had changed and a curvilinear decline in marital satisfaction was noted. The curvilinear decline was that, a drop in satisfaction was observed in the early stages of marriage, then an increase in satisfaction took place. For the first time; studies increasingly began to include men (husbands) in their sample. Prior to the 1970s, men were often omitted , if not ignored. Secondly, in addition to the increased probability that husbands would be studied as a part of marriage research, there was also growing interest in finding ways of looking at the couple as a unit of analysis in contrast to studying only the individual. Thirdly, sample sizes were generally larger in the published literature of the 1970s than in the literature of the 1960s. Lastly, there has been an increasing use of multivariate statistics for data analysis. As a result of these new trends in research, a curvilinear decline has been found. A sharp drop during the child-rearing stage was observed with satisfaction moving up again in postparental

period, although never attaining the original level (Rollins & Cannon, 1974; Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Burr 1970 ; Schram-Wienman, 1979; Spainer & Lewis, 1980).

In the 1980s studies were done to overcome the definition ambiguity in this area of research as there is little agreement on the use of concepts such as marital satisfaction, quality and adjustment, but the ambiguity was not solved (Spainer & Lewis, 1980). In the 1990s, besides similar findings such as the observation of a drop in satisfaction at the child-rearing stage, studies about marital satisfaction endeavored to establish a benchmark for stability and change in marital quality and attributions in marriage as marital distress has a profound and deleterious effect on the physical and emotional well-being of spouses and their children (Vaillant & Vaillant, 1993; Bradbury & Fincham, 1990). In their article, Weishause and Field (1988) presented a dynamic model which encompasses the inevitable changes found in long-term marriages and makes it possible to derive a pattern of relationship over a period of time. Seventeen marriages lasting for 50 to 69 years were studied and nearly three-quarters of the marriages showed either curvilinear or stable/positive patterns.

To sum up, it could be said that there has been an obvious change in marital satisfaction, depending upon the stage at which the couples have reached, and a drop is mostly observed in the child-rearing period.

2.1.2. Marital Satisfaction and Gender Difference

Despite the wealth of research on gender contributing to marital satisfaction, the results have been inconclusive and often contradictory. One of the findings was that men tend to be more satisfied with their marriages than women

(Bernard, 1972; Campbell, 1976; Atkinson, 1980; cited in Rhyne, 1981). In her study Bernard (1972) suggested that men derive greater benefits from marriage and this has been corroborated to some degree by subsequent research (cited in Rhyne, 1981). For example, Gove and his colleagues (1986 cited in Fowers, 1991) conducted a series of studies in which they found a differential relationship between marital status and mental health for men and women. Their results indicated that married women have a much higher rate of mental illness than married men. Moreover, single men have a higher rate of mental illness than single women. Finally, the ratio of single to married men suffering from mental health illness is higher than the ratio of single to married women. All of this indicates that men seem to derive greater mental health benefits from marriage than women.

This difference may be due to male-female differences. A large literature has examined the relationship between the gender roles observed by a couple and marital satisfaction (Booth, Johnson, White & Edwards, 1984; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; cited in Lye & Biblarz, 1993). Gender is the socially determined role of the individual that is ascribed as a result of his or her sex. Gender role consists of both the individual's private understanding of sexual identity and the public expression of the private understanding (Money & Eckhardt, 1972; cited in Juni & Grimm, 1993). Traditional gender role theory describes masculine and feminine characteristics as operating at negatively correlated ends of a unidimensional continuum (Kelly & Worell, 1977; cited in Juni & Grimm, 1993). In addition to that model, a new model of gender role, androgyny was developed which assumes that individuals can have both masculine and feminine characteristics (Bem, 1974; cited in Juni & Grimm, 1994). An

overview of numerous studies showed that marital adjustment is correlated with one's androgyny and/or masculinity (Agarwal & Srivastava, 1989; Alain & Lussier, 1988; Handal & Salit, 1988; Harris & Schwab, 1990; cited in Juni & Grimm, 1994).

An alternative line of inquiry focuses on marital satisfaction, a construction that is not pathologically oriented. Using self disclosure as a mediating factor, Antill and Cotton (1987, cited in Juni & Grimm, 1994) showed that marital happiness is indeed correlated with self-disclosure, while disclosure levels were correlated with femininity of men and of women. In addition, femininity and masculinity correlated with disclosure for men and women respectively. Conversely, House (1986) reported that marital satisfaction correlates with masculinity for men and with femininity for women (cited in Juni & Grimm, 1994). Juni and Grimm (1993) reported that, as a rule, gender-role correlate with marital satisfaction but that masculinity is effective in this respect, primarily for men. Exploring specific content areas, these researchers found the following: femininity enhances satisfaction in affectionate communication and childrearing; masculinity enhances satisfaction in problem-solving communication; gender-role difficulties are more troublesome for men who show increased masculinity or women who show increased femininity; while sexual dissatisfaction is more troublesome for men who show increased femininity or women who show increased masculinity (cited in Juni & Grimm, 1994; Lye & Biblarz, 1993; Langis, Sabourin, Lussier & Mathieu, 1994).

It has also been contended that the key to satisfaction and quality in marriage lies in the flexibility of gender roles. Spouses that foster multiple roles

and androgynous skills, which are consistent with the changing needs of marriage, tend to be more satisfied than those who hold a narrow view of gender identity. Flexibility in relation to gender roles allows married women and men to develop open and egalitarian attitudes that reinforce a sense of companionship, understanding and empathy (Shachar, 1991; Cooper, Chassin & Zeiss, 1985).

Also, male-female differences in the level of marital satisfaction have been linked to objective conditions specific to the marriage, such as the length of marriage, age at marriage, number and age of children, and wives' employment status outside the home. However, there is considerable evidence that subjective aspects of the marital experience (such as friendship or affection) rather than sociodemographic attributes such as the length of marriages, number and age of children, are the key to understanding the different levels of marital satisfaction (Rhyne, 1981; Bahr, Chappell & Leigh, 1983). In general, the more satisfied people are with such characteristics as love and affection, friendship, interest, sexual gratification, the more they are satisfied with their marriages as a whole (Rhyne, 1981).

To sum up, it could be said that gender difference only makes a difference in subjective evaluation of the marriage and for the sex roles more research has to be done for a definite conclusion to be reached.

2.1.3 Marital Satisfaction and Division of Household Labor

Describing and explaining the division of household labor has become a focus of research on gender and family in recent years. It has also been well-documented that division of household labor is responsive to variations in the family life-cycle (Suitor, 1991; Shelton, 1990). Although wives are found to

shoulder a disproportionate share of household labor across the life-cycle course, the disparity between their contribution and that of their husbands' appears to be greatest in the early child-rearing years and the least in preparental and postparental years (Retreat and Shehan, 1987; cited in Sutor, 1991; Cowan, Heming, Coysh, Garrett, Curtis-Boles & Boles, 1985).

Schafer and Keith (1981; cited in Sutor, 1991) found that both husbands and wives perceived greater fairness in the division of household labor in the postparental than either the early or later childrearing stages; nevertheless, their data did not permit a comparison with the preparental years. In the only study to span the family life cycle, Rhyne (1981) found that wives' satisfaction with the amount of help spouse gave around the house was higher in the pre and postparental than childrearing stages, but the difference among these stages were negligible.

In contrast to the findings just cited, Pleck (1985; cited in Sutor, 1991) found that wives with young children were only slightly more likely to desire greater husband participation in household labor than were wives without children and that the difference among other life cycle stages was not consistent.

There are two alternative theoretical models which try to explain the variations in satisfaction with division of labor. Social exchange theory proposes that partners in a marriage will try to maximize their rewards. Thus, social exchange theory predicts that individuals in overrewarded situations will be satisfied, since they are maximizing their rewards. Whereas, equity theory proposes that, where individuals find themselves participating in inequitable relationships,

they will become distressed (Berscheid & Walster, 1969 cited in Yogev & Brett, 1985; Barnet & Baruch, 1987).

Studies about these theories showed that there are significant relationships between marital satisfaction and perception of the division of housework. It is possible that working out a successful arrangement with regard to housework contributes to a couple's marital satisfaction or that, conversely, mutual marital satisfaction may make it easier to communicate and create an efficient and satisfactory arrangement for housework.

2.2. Theoretical Overview of Marital and Parent-Child Relationship

To conceptualize the complexity of family dynamics, researchers commonly characterize the family as a social system composed of the marital, parent-child and the sibling subsystems, each of which influences and, in turn, is influenced by the others (Belsky, 1981; Lamb, 1976; Munichin, 1974; Pederson, Andreson & Cain, 1980; Sroufe, Jacobvitz, Mangelsdorf, DeAngelo & Ward, 1985, cited in Belsky, Youngblade, Rovine & Volling, 1991). Of the three family subsystems, the marital subsystem is regarded by many as the core of family solidarity and the key element in determining the quality of family life.

Major significance is attributed to the marital and parent- child relationship linkage because of the hypothesis, frequently raised by family researchers and therapists, that marital disharmony leads to child behavior problems through its association with the quality of the parent-child relationship (Belsky, 1984; Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984; Grych & Fincham, 1990). It is not readily apparent whether the quality of the marriage and the quality of the parent-child relationship are associated and whether the association between them, if it exists, is

positive or negative (Belsky, 1990; Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984). One hypothesis portrays the primary pathway of influence as a positive correlation between the marital quality and the quality of parent-child relationship.

Consistent with the above topic, in their study, Grossman, Pollack and Golding (1988) demonstrated that satisfactory husband-wife relationship facilitates the adaptation of mothers and fathers to their parental role. Also, Goldberg and Easterbrooks (1984) found marital quality to be associated with sensitive parenting, which in turn was related to secure mother-child and father-child attachment. A positive relationship provides important emotional support need for sensitive parenting (Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984). It can act as a buffer, interrupting the negative relationship with the children (Cowan, Cowan, Cohn & Pearson, 1995; cited in DeLuccie, 1995). It is also suggested that a negative or conflictual marital relationship may cause parents to be irritable and emotionally drained and therefore less attentive and sensitive (Easterbrooks & Emde, 1988; cited in DeLuccie, 1995; Shulman & Zahor, 1991).

Thus, positive marital relationship quality is thought to be associated with positive parent-child relationship quality and negative marital relationship quality is thought to be associated with negative parent-child relationship quality. Following Engfer's (1988, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995) terminology, the above view is referred to as the *spillover hypothesis*. Spillover is a term adapted from the sociological literature on stress and refers to the direct transfer of mood and affect or behavior from one setting to another (Repetti, 1987, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). This process involves the expression of feelings in one system (e.g., the marital dyad) that were engendered in another system (e.g., the parent-child dyad).

Reviewers of the literature (Easterbrooks & Emde, 1988; Margolin, 1981 cited in Erel & Burman, 1995; Emery, 1982) have discussed four primary mechanisms through which the quality of marriage may spillover and affect the parent-child relationship. These four spillover mechanisms are drawn from the family systems theory, social learning theory, socialization research and sociology theory.

The first of these hypothesized mechanisms, derived from the family systems literature, is that of “detouring” (Minuchin, Rosman & Baker, 1978 cited in Erel & Burman, 1995) or “scapegoating” (Vogel & Bell, 1960, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995) whereby focusing on the child’s faults and behavior problems distracts the parents and the family from conflict and difficulties in the marital subsystem. In other words, the negative feelings from the marriage are expressed in relation to the child.

The second mechanism, Social learning theory emphasize that children’s behavior can be greatly influenced by vicarious learning of behavior modeled by parents (Easterbrooks & Emde, 1988; cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). This explanation suggests that both functional and dysfunctional interactions elicit or exacerbate behavior in children that is similar to the behavior they witness in their parents.

The third spillover mechanism focuses on the effect of marital discord on parenting and socialization and has been referred to as “ the socialization hypothesis” (Easterbrooks & Emde, 1988, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). The socialization hypothesis suggests that parents experiencing marital discord provide less consistent discipline and tend to use less optimal parenting techniques than parents not experiencing marital difficulties. Child-rearing is a frequent topic of

dispute between parents (Block et al., 1981) and it has been hypothesized that inconsistencies in discipline may result from marital distress (Emery, Hetherington, & Dilalla, 1984; cited in Erel & Burman, 1995 ; Patterson, 1982).

The fourth spillover mechanism is derived from the sociological literature on family stress and role strain. This perspective suggests that marital problems and parent-child problems are stress factors that lead to additional problems for the parent child relationship and the marriage, respectively (Margolin, 1981, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). The sociological perspective suggests three possible directions of influence between marital and parent-child relationship quality (Margolin, 1981, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). The first direction of influence is that from the marital relationship to the parent-child relationship. The rationale underlying this direction of influence is that when one is under stress (marital stress in this case), one cannot be emotionally available to monitor sensitively and respond to the needs and desires of the child (Emde & Easterbrooks, 1985, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). The second direction of influence is that from the parent-child relationship to the marital relationship. There is a large body of literature suggesting that even under normal conditions, marital satisfaction decreases during the years in which parents are engaged in child-rearing (Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Schram-Wienman, 1979). The last direction of influence is that from a third factor (e.g., chronic illness or unemployment) that is not part of either the marital or the parent-child subsystem but stresses the entire family (Margolin, 1981, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995) triggering conflict in both subsystems. To sum up, the spillover hypothesis is well grounded in both psychological and sociological theory.

This hypothesis has been challenged, however, by the compensatory hypothesis. In the sociological literature, spillover is often contrasted with compensation, a process in which an individual seeks experiences and satisfaction in one system to make up or compensate for deficiencies in another system (Gutek, Repetti & Silver, 1988, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). The compensatory hypothesis claims that a parent who does not fulfill his or her needs for love and intimacy in the marital relationship seeks to satisfy these needs in the parent-child relationship. According to this view, a stronger involvement and investment with the child is likely to occur when there is a deficit in the parents experience in the quality of their marriage (Engfer, 1988, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995).

Yet, the significance and direction of the linkage between the marital and parent-child relationship are not clear cut. To conclude, it could be said that, viewing the family as a dynamic system, child-parent relationship and the husband-wife relationship are interdependent. Marital satisfaction is assumed to influence parenting characteristics; that is, the emotional support and fulfillment parents derive from the marriage influences their availability for sensitive interactions with the child.

2.3. Parental Agreement on Child Rearing

Transitions made at various points in the life cycle have been the focus of a number of empirical investigations (Wright, Henggeler & Craig, 1986, cited in Wallace & Gotlib, 1990; Belsky, Spainer & Rovine, 1983). One type of transition experienced by the majority of adults “the transition to parenthood”, has been of particular interest, especially to those researchers concerned with familial development. The birth of the first child accompanies the transition from a couple

to a triad. Changes in the family life-style of individual family members are often required to accommodate the needs of the infant (Wallace & Gotlib, 1990). There are suggestions that men and women experience different changes in self-roles and the marriage during the transition to parenthood, but it is not at all certain that different changes result in increasing difference between parents. In their study, Cowan et al. (1985) found that change in itself seems necessary but not sufficient to explain what happens to marital satisfaction during the transition to parenthood.

Of particular interest has been the joint influence of the two parents on the developing child. It has been argued that parental attitudes create the emotional climate that the child experiences in the home. When there are differences, a potential for conflict results in less effective parenting as demonstrated by its relation to problematic child behavior (Amato, 1986; Emery, 1982; Gerber, 1976; Johnson & Lobitz, 1974 cited in Deal, Halverson & Smith-Wampler, 1989; Ellison, 1983).

Parental agreement- disagreement in child rearing is operationalized as the degree of congruence existing between the description of child-rearing practices independently offered by the mother and the father of a child (Block, Block & Morrison, 1981, p.963). Parental agreement has been seen as reflecting family organization with higher agreement indicating adaptive functioning and low agreement indicating disorganization (Falender & Mehrabian, 1980 cited in Deal et al., 1989; Easterbrooks & Emde, 1988 cited in Simons, Whitebeck, Conger & Melby, 1990).

Parental disagreement about child-rearing values, if extreme, is presumed to contribute to marital discord and would be expected to affect the psychological

functioning of the child. Parental agreement then appears to be a variable that may play an important role in family dynamics, not only as an index of well-functioning parental dyads but also in the impact that agreeing or disagreeing parents may have on children over a period of time (Deal et al.,1989).

The exact nature of the relationship between parental agreement and parental effectiveness, however, is not clear. It is possible that the highly effective parents are also the high agreeers, that agreement is simply more variable, along with nonauthoritarian control and high warmth or pleasure, that defines effective parenting. On the other hand, agreement between low effective parents may result in a more consistent environment for the child and the family as a whole, helping to negate the impact of the ineffective parenting. In the same way, highly effective parents who differ in the ways in which they are effective may find that the corresponding lack of consistency in the home environment helps to negate the positive impact of their good parenting skills (Pettit & Bates, 1989).

A study with preschoolers revealed that children who had parents more likely to agree on child rearing attitudes concerning affectionate expression and suppression of aggression were judged more popular by their friends than parents of children who were judged as unpopular (Chung, 1980 cited in Block et al., 1981). On the other hand, parental agreement about child-rearing orientations benefit the quality of both the parent-child and child-peer relationships. Because socialization of the child's primitive impulses is a major goal of child-rearing, it is expected that children coming from homes in which the parents have consensus on child-rearing orientations would be more socialized and therefore more controlling of impulses (Block et al., 1981; Fitzgerald, Maguin, Zucker & Reider, 1994).

In addition to the effect of child-rearing consensus on socialization, Deal et al (1989) proposed that agreement would be positively related to parental effectiveness, marital satisfaction and positive home environment. Their results suggested that couples who are high on parental agreement have marital and familial relationships characterized by those qualities that therapists and other family professionals generally ascribe to well-functioning “healthy” families.

In another study done by Stoneman et al.(1989), the relationship between marital satisfaction and parental inconsistency was examined. It was predicted that in a community sample of families of school-aged children, mild marital distress and conflict would be associated with increased inconsistency between parents and higher levels of individual inconsistency within both mothers and fathers. The results showed that mild marital and individual distress reported by fathers especially strongly predicted both inconsistent fathering and lack of parental agreement concerning discipline.

Cox, Owan, Lewis & Henderson (1989) studied the impact of parents’ marriages measured prenatally, on their parenting of firstborn, 3-month old infants. From the findings, it was concluded that even when differences in individual psychological adjustment are taken account, mothers are warmer and sensitive with their infants and fathers hold more positive attitudes toward their infants and their roles as parents when they are in close/confiding marriages. The quality of marriage play an important part in the development of parent-child relationship.

However, there are studies in the literature showing no relation between marital adjustment and parental agreement. Jouriles et al. (1991) conducted two studies to illustrate how measuring a specific aspect of marriage, namely, child-

rearing disagreement, provides a better understanding of the link between marriage and preschool boys' behavior. They used a 21 item questionnaire reflecting common topics of child-rearing disagreements identified through interviews. The results showed that child-rearing disagreements correlated more significantly with a variety of boys' behavior problems than indices of general nonchild disagreements and marital adjustment.

Another study was conducted to explore relations among parents' self-reported disciplinary styles, preschoolers' playground behavioral orientations and peer status. Results indicated that children with more inductive mothers and fathers (i.e., less power) exhibited fewer disruptive playground behaviors. Few significant relations were found between parental discipline and child behavior-peer status. But, they could not find any significant relation between parental agreement and child compliance (Hart, Dewolf, Wozniak & Burts, 1992).

In their study, Simons et al. (1990) proposed that difficulties in the marital relationship would disrupt the parenting practices of women more than men. The data suggested that mothers who have satisfying, supportive marital relationships with their husbands are more available, sensitive and responsive to the needs of their children and have constructive agreement on child-rearing practices.

In summary, healthy child development is more likely to occur in the context of high levels of parental warmth and acceptance, consistent behavior control, in other words, congruence existing between the definition of child-rearing practices. As parents begin to stray from this ideal, the likelihood of maladjustment in children increases dramatically.

2.4. Parental Perception of Child Adjustment

A little over a decade ago, clinical researchers interested in the treatment of conduct disorders in preschool and school-aged children. In an effort to identify the factors that compromise treatment effectiveness, researchers began to focus more attention on the characteristics of the parents who serve as the vehicle for treatment of child conduct disorder. For example, parental perceptions of child development and attributions to children influence the development of children. Sameroff and Feil (1981, 1985 cited in Haddad et al., 1991; Egeland, Kalkoske, Gottesman & Farell-Erikson, 1990) suggested that parents adopt either a perspectivistic; which views the child as an evolving individual whose immediate behavior is a function of individual characteristics and environmental factors or a categorical developmental orientation, that views the child as a static entity and allows for little consideration of situation variance and individual difference toward their children.

Parental perception is especially important in the labeling and referral process and research was designed to ascertain whether parents of conduct disorder children perceive their children's adjustment level accurately. Thus, studies concerned with the relationship between parental perception of child adjustment and actual child functioning fall into two categories (Dadds, Sanders, Behrens & James, 1987; Brody et al., 1988). The first category tried to determine whether parental perceptions of child adjustment reliably discriminate referred from nonreferred children; the second category examined the contributions of parent adjustment variables such as marital problems or psychological problems to parental perceptions of child adjustment.

Studies in the first category demonstrated that parental perceptions of child adjustment do, in fact, discriminate the referred from nonreferred child. Furthermore, independent observations in these studies indicated that referred children actually display more noncompliant and deviant behavior than do nonreferred children (Doleys, Cartelli & Doster, 1976; Forehand, King, Peed & Yoder, 1975 cited in Brody & Forehand, 1986; Ferguson & Allen, 1978). These data suggest that parents are reasonably accurate in their perception.

However, the results of other studies (Delfini, Bernal & Rosen, 1976; Rickard, Forehand, Wells, Griest & McMohan, 1981 cited in Brody & Forehand, 1986) indicated a considerable overlap in the behavior of referred and nonreferred children. That is, although parents of referred children perceived them as more deviant, these children could not be differentiated behaviorally from control groups. In their study, Christensen, Philips, Glasgow and Johnson (1983) have indicated that marital discord may be an important variable associated with parents' (usually mothers') child-rearing behavior, their perceptions of child behavior and child behavior as assessed through independent observations.

Studies in the second category which examined the contributions of parent adjustment variables to parental perception of adjustment found a covariation of measures of parental psychological adjustment and marital satisfaction with parental perceptions of child adjustment. Mchale and Huston (1992) investigated 85 female and 67 male 1st-born children (aged 9-12) and their parents independently rated dimensions of marriage relations and their children's internalizing and externalizing problems. The children's school grades were also obtained. Parents' reports of marital conflict, dissatisfaction about their spouses'

child-rearing philosophy and global marital satisfaction as well as each child's adjustment were gathered. Little evidence was found that marital conflict is linked to child adjustment problems, but some evidence indicated that boys, in particular might be adversely affected by parental disagreement about child-rearing strategies.

Recent research has suggested that maternal perception of child deviance may be more a function of parent's personal distress (maternal depression, marital dissatisfaction) than of a child's actual level of deviant behavior (Grych & Fincham, 1990; Harold, Fincham, Osborne & Conger, 1997). Schaughency and Lahey (1985) conducted a study with 61 mothers of school children referred for psychological treatment. Mothers completed the Beck Depression Inventory, The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and the Conners Teacher Rating Scale; their teachers also completed the Conners Teacher Rating Scale. Mothers' ratings of their children's behavior significantly correlated with the teachers' ratings, but the fathers' ratings did not. Although the mothers were found to have personal distress, their perception was accurate. This result was consistent with the first approach that parental perception was accurate in the differentiation of referred from nonreferred children.

Brody and Forehand (1986) conducted a study to examine a model for predicting how child behavior patterns and parental depression influence parental perceptions of child maladjustment. This model emphasizes the combined influence of child characteristics and parent characteristics on parental perception. In particular, it was predicted that the combination of a high level of maternal depression and a high level of child noncompliance would be associated with greater perceptions of child maladjustment than either factor alone. To test this

model, 60 young referred children were observed. Beck Depression Inventory was used to assess maternal depression. The study demonstrated that mothers who reported similar levels of depression rendered different judgment regarding their child's adjustment depending on their child's rate of noncompliant behavior. This result was also consistent with the first approach to perception of child adjustment.

In view of the fact that parents' perceptions of their children's adjustment have demonstrated implications for parent-child interactions and consequently for child behavior, it is surprising that so little is known about those factors that contribute to parental perceptions of child adjustment in nonreferred families (Brody et al., 1988; Brody & Forehand, 1986).

Webster (1989) conducted a study to examine the effects of the presence or absence of marital conflict or satisfaction on clinic mothers' and fathers' perception of child adjustment, parenting behavior and child conduct problem. Results revealed significant correlation between mothers' reports of marital satisfaction and negative perception of child adjustment, that is, increased mother stress levels leads to an increase in mother commands and an increase in child noncompliance.

Cuccaro, Holmes and Wright (1993) examined behavioral problems in 13 male and 7 female preschool children (aged 3-5 years) referred to diagnostic nursery. They were assessed using parents' ratings in which measures included the Child Behavior Checklist and Parenting Stress Index. The patterns of behavior problems reported in 4-5 year-old children parallel those typically noted for clinic-referred children. In each case, both parents rated their children accurately. In another study, (Campbell, March, Pierce, Ewing & Szumowski, 1991) the mothers

and fathers of children with conduct problems (ages=3-8) completed two measures of child adjustment (Child Behavior Checklist, Eyberg Child Behavior Inventory), three personal adjustment measures (Beck Depression Inventory, Marital Adjustment Test, Parenting Stress Index) and a Life Experience Survey were observed interacting with their children. In addition, teachers completed the Behar Preschool Questionnaire. The fathers' perceptions of their children's behaviors significantly correlated with teachers' ratings, but mothers' ratings did not. Correlations showed that mothers who were depressed or stressed due to marital problems perceived more child deviant behavior.

To conclude, there are contradictions in the literature. Some researchers say that mothers' rating are more accurate and are not affected by their problems, others say the fathers' rating are more accurate.

2.5. The Effect of the Child's Gender

In the literature, the child's gender has been found to affect the behavior of its parents (Jouriles & LeCompte, 1991). For example, a theory was generated from clinical observations that child gender moderates the association between husbands' aggression toward wives and mothers' aggression toward children. O'Leary (1984, cited in Jouriles & LeCompte, 1991) has suggested a displacement hypothesis in which maritally distressed mothers strike out more often at sons than at daughters because sons remind them of their husbands. Conversely, daughters may remind mothers of themselves, not deserving of harsh punishment. Empirical data consistent with these hypotheses indicate that divorced mothers deliver more

data consistent with these hypotheses indicate that divorced mothers deliver more negative commands and sanctions to sons than to daughters (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978; cited in Jouriles & LeCompte, 1991).

In addition, an extensive literature has documented differential physical handling and socialization practices, depending on the sex of the child, with regard to physical contact, communication style, amount and type of play with the child, choice of toys, showing affection, and so forth (Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Honig, 1983; cited in Stattin & Klackenberg-Larsson, 1991). Earlier, in summarizing the literature on sex-differentiated socialization, it was noted that boys more than girls are directed toward and reinforced for an active orientation toward understanding contingencies in the physical and logical world. Girls more than boys seem to be directed toward and reinforced for their engagement in the interpersonal or social world. For both sexes, the attention responsivity, encouragement and criticism received from parents, teachers, and the larger cultural environment tend to accentuate this difference in orientation (Block, 1983).

In their study, Stattin and Klackenberg-Larsson (1991) investigated whether less conflicted parent-child relations would occur in families with a child whose sex was consistent with parents' parental preferences than in families in which both of the parents had wanted a child of the opposite sex. Results over several age periods from early childhood to late adolescence supported their hypothesis; which was that more negative consequences for children whose sex did not match the stated preferences of their parents were obtained for playing time

In another study, Margolin and Petterson (1975) investigated the mothers' and fathers' differential responding to their sons and daughters in the home. The result of the study showed that parents were more responsive to like-sex children, this was especially valid for fathers as they showed higher levels of positive responding to sons than to daughters.

Another study (Morgan, Lye & Condran, 1988) was conducted to examine the association between the sex of the children and their parents' risk of marital disruption using the June 1980 Current Population Survey in United States. The results of the study showed that women who have daughters are more likely to experience marital disruption than those who have sons. Likewise, daughters are more likely than sons to experience the disruption of their parents' marriages. The relative risk of disruption was about 9% greater for daughters or for couples that have a daughter. It was argued that parenthood creates a new basis for marital stability and that this basis is especially strong if fathers are actively involved in parenting. But since norms encourage greater paternal participation in raising sons than daughters, active parenting by fathers is more common when there are sons. While the differential in the risk of disruption for daughters and sons is small, it is important clues about the reasons for the association between parenthood and marital stability.

One implicative area in which parents of boys and parents of girls have been observed to differ is in the frequency of their contingent responding to behaviors initiated by their child. In the feeding situation, mothers were observed to be more responsive and attentive to signals from their male infants than to those from female infants (Murphy & Moriarty, 1976; cited in Block, 1983).

Indeed, Moss (1967; cited in Block, 1983) found, after checking the state of the infant with respect to irritability and sleepiness, that mothers were significantly more stimulating and arousing towards their male infants than of their female infants. Both mothers and fathers have been observed to react more contingently to the vocalizations of boys than to the vocalization of girls (Lewis & Freedle, 1973; Parke & Sawin, 1976; cited in Block, 1983).

To the extent that sex-related differences in family socialization patterns are echoed in the behaviors of teachers, the sex-typed behaviors of males and females are given more extensive reinforcement. Considerable evidence for such reinforcement in the classroom exists. Observations of nursery school teachers' behavior demonstrate in several studies that boys are given more attention, both positive and negative than girls (Felsenthal, 1970; Serbin, O'Leary, Kent & Tonick, 1973; cited in Block, 1983).

To sum up, it is apparent that there is a strong impact of the child's gender on their parents' and teachers' attitudes and behaviors.

2.6. Connection Between Literature Review and The Goals of The Study

Besides the studies mentioned above, studies were conducted to examine the factors contributing to marital satisfaction of the couples. Gender roles and division of household labor were among the most studied issues while investigating the satisfaction difference between husbands and wives (Rhyne, 1981; Juni & Grimm, 1993; Lye & Biblarz, 1993). In addition to the gender studies of husbands and wives, in the literature, the gender of a child was found to have impact on his/her parents' attitudes and behavior, such as different socialization of the male

and the female children, differential responding of parents to their boys and to their girls (Stattin, Klackenber-Larsson, 1991; Block, 1983).

The first goal of this study was to investigate whether there was a relationship existing among marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of a child's adjustment in a nonreferred sample. The other goals of the study were to investigate;

2- Whether the mothers' perception of their children would be more similar to the teachers' perception than the fathers' perception of their children.

3-Whether the husbands would have higher scores on marital satisfaction than the wives.

4-Whether a child's gender would have negative effect on parental agreement, parental perception and marital satisfaction of the parents.

In addition to above goals, to find whether there was any attitude difference in relating to the male and female children, the factors of Parental Attitude Research Instrument for the mothers and the fathers were examined separately.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

3.1. The Subjects

The sample consisted of mothers and fathers of 100 preschool children and teachers of those children. As a sampling procedure, convenience sampling was used. The families and teachers were recruited from a variety of corporation preschools in Ankara, such as those of the Makina Kimya Endüstrisi Kurumu, Vakıfbank, Milli Piyango, Jandarma, Defterdarlık, Hava Lojistik and Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi. The education levels of mothers were primary school (N= 0), secondary school (N=4), lycee (N=41) and university (N=55). The education levels of fathers were primary school (N=2), secondary school (N=2), lycee (N=28) and university (N=68). Age of mothers ranged from 24 to 48 years (M= 33.96) and age of fathers ranged from 28 to 53 years (M=36.20). The length of the marriages ranged from 4 to 16 years (M=9.27). Parents were from different occupations such as: Army Officer(N=20), Teacher (N=25), Faculty Member (N=10), Engineer (N=43), High Ranking Public Official (N=12), Pharmacist (N=7), Accountant (N=9), Dentist (N=5), Housewife (N=22), Doctor (N=11). Occupation was categorized as state employee, self-

employed, private organization-employee. "How the parents arranged" their marriage was divided into three categories: family arranged, family arranged and self-selected and self-selected.. Mean age of the children was 5.6 years. The number of parents who have sons were 53 and the number of parents who have daughters were 43.

3.2. The Instruments

Four instruments , namely, Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Appendix A) for measuring marital satisfaction, Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) (Appendix B) for measuring parental perception of a child's adjustment, TRF (Teacher Report Form) (Appendix C) for measuring teachers' perception, Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) (Appendix D) for measuring parental agreement and Demographic Information Form were used in the present study. These scales are described below.

3.2.1. Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

The DAS (Spainer, 1976) was used to assess the quality of marital relationship as perceived by married and cohabiting couples. It contains 32 items, primarily utilizing the 5 and 6 point response format. There are also two items that are answered with either "yes" or "no". Factor analysis resulted in the identification of 4 factors: Dyadic Satisfaction, Dyadic Cohesion, Dyadic Consensus and Affectional Expression. The DAS has satisfactory validity and reliability with cronbach alpha's for the subscales ranging from .73 to .97, and an alpha of .96 for the entire scale. It was used as general satisfaction measure in an intimate relationship by using total score. The possible total score obtained from DAS range between 0 and 151. Higher scores reflect a higher perception of the quality of the relationship.

The DAS was translated into Turkish and its reliability study was carried out by Fıfılođlu and Demir (1997). The alpha coefficient for the DAS was .90. Split-half reliability coefficient was .85 and the alpha for part one was .89 and for part two was .73. The construct validity of the DAS was .82. Factor structure of the Turkish form did not match the four factors (dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus and affectional expression) of the DAS.

3.2.2. Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI)

The PARI (Schafer & Bell; 1958) was used to measure parental attitudes toward child-rearing and family-life. This scale comprises 115 Likert-type items, and utilizes a 4-point response format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. In all, 23 subscales are measured, each being evaluated by virtue of five items. The subscales cover the areas of encouraging verbalization, fostering dependency, seclusion of the mother, breaking the will, martyrdom, fear of harming the baby, marital conflict, strictness, irritability, excluding outside influences, deification, suppression of aggression, rejection of the homemaking role, equalitarianism, approval of activity, avoidance of communication, inconsiderateness of the husband, suppression of sexuality, ascendancy of the mother, intrusiveness, comradeship and sharing, acceleration of development, and dependency of the mother. The PARI has been adapted by several authors, often resulting in shorter versions, independent factor analyses, and varying factor structures. Two major factors of democratic and authoritarian attitudes have been replicated in several studies (Zuckerman, Ribback, Monashkin & Norton, 1958).

Parental Attitude Research Instrument was adapted to Turkish by G. Lecompte and A. Lecompte in 1978. There are 60 items and 5 subscales. The subscales are 1-Dependency, 2- Equalitarianism and Democratic Attitudes, 3- Rejection of Home Making Role, 4- Marital Conflict and 5- Strictness and Authoritarianism. Items in PARI have positive and negative statements. Four response alternatives (1 to 4) are permitted: strongly agree, mildly agree, mildly disagree, strongly disagree. The higher the scores parents get from the factors of PARI, the higher they agree with the attitude in the factor. The PARI has two forms. The reliability and validity study of the second form has not been constructed but test-retest reliability of the first version was found as .58 and .88. It was also found to have predictive validity.

3.2.3. Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL)

The Child Behavior Checklist/4-18 was developed by Achenbach and Edelbrock (1983) in order to identify children's behavioral, emotional problems and their competencies for ages 4-18 based on reports of the parents. The CBCL includes competence scales and problem behavior scales. The competence scales are comprised of 20 items, designed to reflect school performance, involvement in activities and social relationships, and also behavior and social competence scales derived from factor analysis of the checklist. The problem behavior scale consists of 118 items in 9 scales: Withdrawn, Somatic Complaints, Anxious/ Depressed, Social Problems, Thought Problems, Attention Problems, Delinquent Behavior, Aggressive Behavior and Other Problems. Second-order analyses have shown two broad band groupings of behavior problem scales which have been labeled as Internalizing and Externalizing.

The internalizing part was formed of Withdrawn, Somatic Complaints and Anxious/Depressed scales. The externalizing part was formed of Delinquency and Aggressive Behavior scales. The problem behavior scale utilizes a 3-point response format 0,1 and 2, depending on "how often" a problem behavior was seen within 6 months. The scale also includes open-ended questions such as whether a child has an illness or he/she is mentally retarded or physically handicapped. The possible total score obtained from CBCL ranges between 0 to 236. In this study, the total problem behavior score was used. The reliability of the original form of the Child Behavior Checklist for girls is .97 and for boys .87 and the construct validity of the checklist for girls is .63 and for boys .58. The 1981 version of the CBCL was translated into Turkish by Akçakın and Savaşır in 1983. Data were obtained from 80 children aged 6-11 (Akçakın,1983; Akçakın,1985). Since normative data were lacking for different age, gender and SES groups, the Turkish version of the CBCL has not been widely used. The 1991 version of the checklist was translated into Turkish by Neşe Erol and Cengiz Kılıç. In order to have continuity with the 1981 version, the translated forms were compared and checked for discrepancies. Examination of the discrepant items showed that some items contained idiomatic expressions. After the modifications for ensuring adequacy of the translation, a pre-field study of the translation was carried out in order to have the comprehensibility and acceptability of the checklist. A bilingual retest method was used to see if the Turkish version and English version were comparable in the new form. Both the original and the translated version of the checklist were administered a one week interval to 24 bilingual parents of children aged 7 to 11. The correlations

were .89 for Total Competence and .93 for the Total Problems. An additional 50 parents were administered the Turkish version of the test twice, a week apart. Test-retest reliability of CBCL scores for parents was .78 for Total Competence scale, .84 for Total Problem scale (Erol, Arslan & Akçakın,1995). The internal consistency of the scale was computed by using Cronbach alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha was .73 for Competence subscales and .85 for Total Problem scale.

3.2.3.1. Teacher's Report Form (TRF)

Teacher's Report Form of the Child Behavior Checklist (TRF) (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1986) is designed to obtain teachers' judgments of pupils in a standardized fashion. The TRF is a well-established measure that consists of two parts. The first part involves teachers' ratings of academic performance, involvement in activities and social relationship. The second part, similar to CBCL involves 118 behavior problem items and 9 scales also utilizing a 3-point response format depending on "how often" a behavior was seen within 2 months. The Turkish version of the form was first standardized by Akkök, Askar and Sucuoğlu (1988). Data were obtained from a group of male children aged 7-12. Later, studies were conducted with female children (Akkök & Askar, 1989). The 1991 version was checked for discrepancies by Neşe Erol and Melda Akçakın (1992). After that, 20 teachers were administered the form. An additional 49 teachers were administered the Turkish version of the test twice, fifteen days apart. Test-retest reliability was .88 for Total Problem scale (Erol, Kılıç, Ulusoy, Keçeci & Şimşek,1997). The internal consistency of the form was .84. Besides applications to individual pupils, the TRF is designed to address questions about

groups of children, programs and the causes and outcomes of disorders. The Internalizing, Externalizing and total problems scales provide additional data relevant to criteria for special education services.

3.3. Procedure

Between September 96 and June 97; 350 questionnaires and scales were distributed to the parents and the teachers of preschool children aged 5 and 6 in different corporation preschools. Approximately 220 questionnaires were returned and among them, 100 fully completed questionnaires were selected for both parents and teachers. As a selection criteria for CBCL and TRF, scales with 8 or more missing items were excluded from the study. The total response rate of the sample was %65. This rate was higher for the teacher's report form approximately %90. The first chosen corporation was Makina Kimya, as the researcher had worked there as an apprentice. Other corporations were found by the referral of the teachers working at M.K.E.K. Apart from Hava Kuvvetleri, the directors of the other corporation preschools gave permission for the distribution of the questionnaires and the scales. Since they were distributed by the teachers at the preschools, the researcher was unaware of the identity of the families. The teachers were instructed to give the questionnaires and the scales to the parents of children living with their biological parents. The teachers also completed a TRF for each child. The teachers were instructed to tell the parents that they had to fill in all the questionnaires and the scales completely and independently and return them within 2 weeks. Unfortunately, most of them were collected in 4 to 6 weeks and some parents did not even return the questionnaires. For

some parents, in order to get the questionnaires back , the teachers had to contact the parents directly for a second time.

3.4. Analysis of Data

The statistical tests used to analyze the data were Pearson Product Moment Correlation, paired and independent t-tests and MANOVA. All the analysis were carried out by using the SPSS/PC+ programs (Norusis, 1986).



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In the following section, the descriptive statistics of the study variables, the correlation matrixes, the results of T-test analysis and the results of Manova are presented.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

The mean and standard deviation for each of the variables which were used in the following analyses are presented in Table1.

Table1. Means and Standard Deviations for the Variables of the Study

Variables (N=100)	M	SD
Age of Mother	33.96	10.30
Age of Father	36.20	7.69
Length of Marriage	9.27	5.58
Mother's Marital Satisfaction Score (MDAS)	105.43	15.37
Father's Marital Satisfaction Score (FDAS)	106.80	15.26
Mothers' Parental Agreement Score (MPARI)	122.56	19.19
Fathers' Parental Agreement Score (FPARI)	123.35	19.29
Mothers' Parental Perception Scores (MCBCL)	33.16	16.87
Fathers' Parental Perception Scores (FCBCL)	30.26	16.11
Teachers' Perception Scores (TRF)	27.11	18.65

4.2. Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

The first objective of this study was to investigate the relationship among marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of child's adjustment with a nonreferred sample. In order to examine the relationship, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used.

The intercorrelation of variables used in this study are presented in Table2.

Table2. Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

	MCBCL	FCBCL	MDAS	MPARI	FPARI	FDAS
MCBCL						
FCBCL	.5933***					
MDAS	-.0136	-.1876				
MPARI	.1236	-.0313	-.2054*			
FPARI	.0215	.1883	-.1578	.5300***		
FDAS	-.0476	-.1605	.5204***	-.2048	-.1912	
TRF	.3242**	.2806**	.1780	.0608	-.0779	.1282
FAGE	.0035	-.0572	-.1107	.1793	.0414	-.0983
MAGE	-.1494	-.0064	-.1766	.1354	-.0054	-.2034

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001 M= Mother F= Father

Concerning the first hypothesis, no significant correlation was found between the parental perception of child's adjustment (CBCL) and the marital satisfaction of parents (DAS) and between the parental agreement (PARI) and the parental

perception of child's adjustment (CBCL). Whereas, a negative significant correlation was found between mothers' agreement (MPARI) and marital satisfaction (MDAS). When the mothers have high marital satisfaction, they have low parental agreement.

The satisfaction the mothers (MDAS) and the fathers (FDAS) get from their marriages was found to be significantly correlated. There was also a significant relationship between the mothers' perception (MCBCL) and the fathers' perception (FCBCL) scores. The correlation between the mothers' and the teachers' perception was found significant and the correlation between the fathers' perception and teachers' perception (TRF) was also significant. A significant correlation existed between mother's agreement (MPARI) and father's agreement (FPARI) scores.

4.3. Correlation Matrix for the Factors of PARI

In order to have correspondence with the literature, the correlations of the PARI's factors separately for mothers and for fathers were computed for measuring parental agreement and the correlations of the factors with the satisfaction scores of mothers and fathers were reported.

Table5. presents the correlations between the mothers' and the fathers' scores of the original factors of Parental Attitude Research Instrument measuring parental agreement. The factors were; 1-Dependency, 2- Equalitarianism and Democratic Attitudes, 3- Rejection of Home Making Role, 4- Marital Conflict and 5- Strictness and Authoritarianism. The correlations between the marital satisfaction (DAS) and the score of factors of PARI of the mothers and the fathers, are presented in Table3 and Table4, respectively.

Table 3. Correlation Matrix for the mothers' factors of PARI and the mothers' marital satisfaction(MDAS)

	MDAS
MF1	-.1838*
MF2	-.2121*
MF3	-.2163*
MF4	-.0512
MF5	-.0976

Table4. Correlation Matrix for the fathers' factors of PARI and the fathers' marital satisfaction(FDAS).

	FDAS
FF1	-.10
FF2	-.2383**
FF3	-.1554
FF4	-.1313
FF5	-.0810

Table5. Correlation Matrix for the Mothers' and Fathers's factors of PARI

	FF1	FF2	FF3	FF4	FF5
MF1	.5439***				
MF2		.3697***			
MF3			.4766***		
MF4				.3049**	
MF5					.3837***

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001 M= Mother F= Father

The mothers and the fathers showed substantial agreement with regard to all of the factors included in the study. For the fathers, a negative significant relation was found between their marital satisfaction and factor 2 (Equalitarianism and Democratic Attitudes) in PARI. For the mothers, again a negative significant relation was found between their marital satisfaction and the first three factors of PARI (Dependency, Equalitarianism and Democratic Attitudes and Rejection of Homemaking Role) measuring parental agreement.

4.4. The Results of T-test Analysis

For the second hypothesis, whether mothers' perceptions of their child's adjustment would be more similar to teachers' perception than the fathers' perception of their child, the t-test for paired samples was used. The reason for conducting the t-test for paired samples is that the measures that are obtained from the mothers, the fathers and the teachers of the children are treated as different measures gathered from

the same group of children. A significant difference was found between mothers' perception scores and teachers' perception scores, $t(99)=2.92$, $p < .01$. Whereas, no significant difference was found between the fathers' and the teachers' perception of the children. Also, no difference was found between mothers' and fathers' perception of their children's adjustment.

To test the third hypothesis; which was that the fathers would have higher scores on marital satisfaction than mothers, again the t-test for paired samples was used. No significant difference was found between mothers' and fathers' satisfaction scores.

In order to test the fourth hypothesis as to whether a child's gender has any effect on the parents' perceptions, parental agreement and marital satisfaction, the t-test for independent samples was established. The independent variable was the gender of the child and the dependent variables were the parental perception, parental agreement and marital satisfaction scores.

For parental perception, no difference was found between the perception of the mothers of the girls and the perception of the mothers of the boys. Likewise, no perception difference was found between the fathers of the boys and the fathers of the girls. The teachers' perception was similar to that of the parents of the children. The teachers also did not perceive any difference between their male and female students.

For the first four factors of Parental Attitude Research Instrument measuring parental agreement, no attitude differences were found between the mothers of the girls and the mothers of the boys. For the last factor, factor 5 (Strictness and

Authoritarianism), a significant attitude difference was observed. The mothers of the girls tended to be more strict than the mothers of the boys, $t(98)=2.04, p<.05$.

Consistent with the mothers' results, again no attitude difference was observed between the fathers of the girls and the fathers of the boys for the first four factors of PARI, which measures the fathers' agreement. For the last factor, factor 5, just as in the mothers' case, the fathers of the girls tended to be more strict with their daughters, $t=2.54, p<.02$.

For marital satisfaction of parents, no difference was found between the marital satisfaction of the mothers of girls and the mothers of boys. Likewise, no marital satisfaction difference was found between the fathers of boys and fathers of girls.

4.5. The Results of Manova

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVAs) was used to investigate the interaction of the independent variables; the sex of child, the education levels of the parents, the length of their marriage and how parents arranged their marriages with the dependent variables which were marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of the children. First of all, the interaction between the demographic variables of the mothers and the dependent variables of the mothers such as mothers' marital satisfaction, parental agreement and mothers' perception was examined. If no significant interaction was found, then the main effects of the independent variables were examined. When a main effect was observed, follow-up tests of interaction effects were performed to determine the location of the significant effects using by Tukey's Test. The same analyses were also done for the fathers.

4.5.1. The Results of Mothers

There were no interactions found between the independent variables. There was, however, a significant main effect for "the way they arranged their marriages", $F(16,172)=2.201$, $p < .01$, indicating that mothers' marital satisfaction (MDAS) changes according to the way their marriages had been arranged (See Table 6). According to the follow up test, there was an observed difference between the family arranged ($M=88.1429$) and both family arranged and self selected group ($M=109.5044$) and also between family arranged ($M=88.1429$) and self selected group ($M=106.0137$). The family arranged group was found to be less maritally satisfied than the other groups.

Table6. The Manova Results of The Mothers

Sources of Variance: The way marriages arranged(2,53)D.F					
Variables	Error sum of square	Mean Square	Error mean square	F	Significance of F
MFactor 1	1992,3333	19,62630	37,59119	.52210	.596
MFactor 2	767,5833	11,15464	14,48270	.77020	.468
MFactor 3	939,0000	18,47072	17,71698	1,0425	.360
MFactor 4	377,666	6,06260	7,12579	.85080	.433
MFactor 5	2124,666	6,17693	40,08805	.15408	.858
MCBCL	14232,450	194,23678	268,53680	.72332	.490
MDAS	10143,405	1299,78569	191,38501	6,7914	.002
MPARI	17537,916	8,80814	330,90409	.02662	.974

4.5.2. The Results of Fathers

Similar to the mothers' results, no significant interaction effect was found, still a main effect for "the way they arranged their marriage" $F(16,170)=2.178$, $p < .05$, was observed (see Table7). According to follow up test, there was an observed difference

of marital satisfaction(FDAS) between the family arranged(M=89,2559) and family arranged and self selected group(M=108,6549) and also between family arranged(M=89,2559) and self selected group(M=107,9329). The family arranged group was found to be less maritally satisfied than the other groups. There was an observed difference for fathers for the first factor of PARI (Dependency) between the family arranged (M=41,1429) and family arranged and self selected group(M=36,9474) and also between family arranged (M=41,1429) and self selected group(M=33,1370). The group of fathers whose marriages were arranged for them were found to have more agreement on the attitude called Dependency. There was also an observed difference for the fathers' perception of a child's adjustment. The family arranged group(M=45,5854) perceived more problem behavior compared to the family arranged and self selected group(M=35,2638). The group of fathers whose marriages were arranged by themselves perceived less problem behavior (M=27,4435).

Table7. The Manova Results of the Fathers

Sources of Variance: The way marriages arranged(2,92) D.F

Variables	Error sum of square	Mean Square	Error mean square	F	Significance of F
FFactor 1	4209,6638	169,53087	45,75722	3,70501	.028
FFactor 2	1375,4371	24,04840	14,95040	1,60855	.206
FFactor 3	2430,0296	28,54084	26,41337	1,08055	.344
FFactor 4	729,9831	23,98568	7,93460	3,02292	.054
FFactor 5	3024,9321	53,71078	32,87970	1,63355	.201
FCBCL	22489,543	1204,37087	244,45155	4,92683	.009
FDAS	19260,179	1638,43890	209,34978	7,82632	.001
FPARI	32806,599	1156,17847	356,59347	3,24229	.062

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was mainly to examine the relationship among marital satisfaction, parental agreement and parental perception of child adjustment. The researcher was also interested in investigating whether there were differences between mothers', fathers' and teachers' perception, whether there was a difference between mothers' and fathers' satisfaction, and finally, the researcher was interested in investigating the effect of child's gender on parental agreement, parental perception and marital satisfaction of the parents. Additionally, to find whether there was any attitude difference towards the male and female children, the factors of Parental Attitude Research Instrument for the mothers and the fathers separately were examined.

No significant correlation among fathers' marital satisfaction, agreement and perception of their child's adjustment was found. A number of studies have suggested that child adjustment is associated more strongly with the dimension of marital quality referred as overt marital conflict than with the dimensions of marital quality referred as marital satisfaction (Fincham, 1994; Jaycox & Repetti, 1993, cited in Erel & Burman, 1995). This may be one of the reasons for not finding significant correlations between

the variables of this study, in addition to doing research with a nonreferred population. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study was not supported for fathers. However, a negative correlation was found between the mothers' marital satisfaction and parental agreement. When the mothers have high marital satisfaction, they have low parental agreement or the opposite is true. In some instances, happily married parents may regard the child as an intrusion in their intimacy as a couple (Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984). For others, a stressed marriage could increase the parents' attentions to the child, perhaps as compensation for the affection or satisfaction lacking in marital interaction. The presence of a child or children deters many unhappily married persons from divorcing at least for a time. Similarly, good marriages may either impede or facilitate sensitive parent-child interactions. Although any of these configurations are plausible, the available theoretical, clinical and empirical evidence support a position linking positive marital quality with sensitive parenting characteristics and optimal child development (Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984) which is not inline with the findings of this study.

Another reason may be that when the mothers are dissatisfied with their marriages, in order to protect their children from inconsistencies and unhappiness, they may have agreement with their husbands on child rearing issues. Another reason for not finding a correlation among the study variables may be the methodological issues about parenting and child adjustment. The measures of parenting are more likely to be affected by children's behavior than are the measures of parental conflict (or other types of family distress) (Emery, Fincham & Cummings, 1992).

In the present study, the unidimensional focus on marital satisfaction may result in a failure in identification of the specific dimensions of marital quality that are correlated with or predictive of child functioning. As a result, although there is evidence that distressed marriages correlate with negative child outcome, it is unclear exactly what it is about those marriages that are most causative of children's well-being (Howes & Markman, 1989).

The second hypothesis of this study, as to whether the mothers' perception of a child's adjustment would be more similar to the teachers' perception than the fathers' perception was also not supported. Teachers' perceptions were also included in this study as they were thought to be more objective sources of data.

Very little research has been conducted about how accurate are fathers' perception of their children's problem behavior. However, the findings showed that there was a lack of accuracy on the part of the fathers' ratings of their children's misbehavior. The reason might be that fathers usually spending less time interacting with their children than do mothers. In the present study, additional information was provided about the accuracy of the fathers' perceptions; it was correlated with the mothers' and the teachers' perceptions of the child's adjustment. This may result from the educational levels of the fathers. Moreover, as the mothers also have jobs, there has to be a division of labour, so that the fathers also participate in child care and spend time with their children.

The third hypothesis of this study, which was that fathers would have higher marital satisfaction than mothers, was not supported. No significant difference was

observed between the mothers' and the fathers' marital satisfaction. The reason for not finding a significant difference between the marital satisfaction of parents may result from their gender role flexibility. In today's world, most of the women enter into the labor force, so their gender roles have changed and become more flexible. As a result, their husbands' gender role has to be changed. As their wives have jobs outside the house, they begin to share the housework. Flexibility in relation to gender roles allows married women and men to develop open and egalitarian attitudes that reinforce a sense of companionship, understanding and empathy (Shachar, 1991; Cooper, Chassin & Zeiss, 1985).

For the last hypothesis, parents' agreement, perception and marital satisfaction was investigated with respect to child's gender. No significant gender discrimination was observed in this study, except for some differences in the factors of Parental Attitude Research Instrument. For factor 5 which is strictness and authoritarianism, the mothers of the girls tended to be more strict than the mothers of the boys. This is also valid for the fathers. Also, gender discrimination was found for the mothers' perception of child adjustment. They tended to perceive their daughters as less adjusted when compared to the scores obtained from the mothers of the boys. Most studies in the literature were done with maritally conflicted families. Not finding many significant results in the present study may be due to the nonreferred sample of the study.

The interactions among parents and children have been studied intensively from a variety of perspectives in child development and have revealed a number of

systematic differences in the styles with which mothers and fathers relate to daughters and sons. Interactions with daughters have been described as emphasizing affection and compliance, whereas those with boys have been seen as involving more cognitive stimulation and encouragement for company (Block, 1973; Dunn, Bretherton & Munn, 1987; Weitzman, Birns & Friend, 1985; cited in Kerig, Cowan & Cowan, 1993).

As a conclusion, similar results were not found with the literature. This may result from the limitations of this study. Although more than 300 questionnaires were given to parents, the return (%60) and the completion(%30) rate was low. Parents who did not return their questionnaires may have problems either in their marriages or with their children. It was not possible to compare the sample characteristics of those who returned the questionnaires with those who did not. Moreover, the use of a rather “normal”, nonreferred group may be another factor in not finding significant relationships among the study variables. For future research, a study can be conducted with the variables of the present study with a group of parents who have clinical-referred children so that a comparison can be made between referred and nonreferred groups.

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APPENDIX A
ÇİFTLER UYUM ÖLÇEĞİ

Örnek Maddeler:

1- Ne sıklıkla boşanmayı, ayrılmayı ya da ilişkinizi bitirmeyi düşünür ya da tartışsınız?

2-Eşinize güvenir misiniz?

3-Siz ve eşiniz ev dışı ilgilerinizin-etkinliklerinizin ne kadarına birlikte katılırsınız?

Aşağıdaki olaylar siz ve eşiniz arasında ne sıklıkla geçer?

1-Birlikte gülmek.....

2-Birşeyi sakince tartışmak.....

Yazışma Adresi: Yrd.Doç.Dr. Hürol Fışiloğlu, Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji
Bölümü, Ankara.

APPENDIX B

AİLE HAYATI VE ÇOCUK YETİŞTİRME TUTUM ÖLÇEĞİ

Örnek Maddeler:

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri okuyup, şu şekilde değerlendiriniz:

4

3

2

1

Çok uygun
buluyorum

Oldukça uygun
buluyorum

Biraz uygun
buluyorum

Hiç uygun
bulmuyorum

F:I

1. Çocuk yorucu işlerden korunmalıdır.
2. Çocuk boşa geçen dakikaların bir daha hiç geri gelmeyeceğini ne kadar çabuk öğrenirse, kendisi için o kadar iyi olur.

F:II

1. Çocukların sorunlarına eğilerseniz, sizi oyalamak için bir çok masal uydururlar.
2. Çocuklardan sık sık ödün vermelerini, anne-babaya uymalarını istemek doğru değildir.

F:III

1. Çocuk yetiştirmek sinir bozucu, yıpratıcı bir iştir.
2. Hiçbir kadından yeni doğmuş bir bebeğe tek başına bakması beklenmemelidir.

F:IV

- 1.Babalar biraz daha şevkatli olurlarsa, anneler çocuklarını daha iyi yönetebilirler.
2. Babalar daha az bencil olsalar, kendilerine düşen görevi yaparlar.

F:V

- 1.Sert terbiye, sağlam ve iyi bir karakter geliştirir.
- 2.Eğer anne kollarını sıvar, bütün yükü sırtlanırsa, tüm aile rahat eder.



APPENDIX C

4-18 YAŞ ÇOCUK VE GENÇLER İÇİN DAVRANIŞ DEĞERLENDİRME

ÖLÇEĞİ

Örnek Maddeler:

1-Çocuğunuzun üyesi olduđu kuruluş,kulüp, takım yada grupları sıralayınız.

2-Çocuğunuzun yaklaşık kaç tane yakın arkadaşı vardır?

3-Çocuğunuzun herhangi bir hastalığı,fiziksel rahatsızlığı ya da zihinsel özürü var mı?

Aşağıda çocukların özelliklerini tanımlayan bir dizi madde bulunmaktadır.Her bir madde çocuğunuzun şu andaki ya da son 6 ay içindeki durumunu belirtmektedir. Bir madde çocuğunuz için çok ya da sıklıkla doğru ise 2, bazen ya da biraz doğru ise 1, hiç doğru değil ise 0 sayılarını yuvarlak içine alınız. Lütfen tüm maddeleri işaretlemeye çalışınız.

0 1 2 1. Yaşından daha küçük bir çocuk gibi davranır.

0 1 2 2. Dikkatini uzun süre bir konu üzerinde toplayamaz.

0 1 2 3. Sinirli ve gergindir.

0 1 2 4. Konuşmayı reddeder.

0 1 2 5. Mutsuz, üzgün, çökkün ve bezgindir.

Yazışma Adresi: Doç. Dr. Neşe Erol, Ankara Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Çocuk Psikiyatrisi Ana Bilim Dalı, Ankara.

APPENDIX D

Bilgi Toplama Formu

Cinsiyetiniz : Kadın Erkek

Yaşınız :

Mesleğiniz :

Eğitiminiz : İlkokul Ortaokul
Lise Yüksek

Kaç Yıllık Evlisiniz? :

Nasıl Evlendiniz? : Anlaşarak Görücü Usulü
Görücü Usulü ve Anlaşarak

Çocuğunuzun Cinsiyeti : Kız Erkek

Bugünün Tarihi : Ay Gün Yıl

Çocuğun Doğum Tarihi : Ay Gün Yıl

APPENDIX E

ÖĞRETMEN BİLGİ FORMU

Örnek Maddeler:

1- Bu öğrenciyi ne kadar iyi tanıyorsunuz?

2- Bu öğrencinin herhangi bir hastalığı, fiziksel rahatsızlığı ya da zihinsel özürü var mıdır?

Aşağıda öğrencilerin özelliklerini tanımlayan maddeler bulunmaktadır. Her bir madde öğrencinin şu andaki ya da son 2 ay içindeki durumunu belirtmektedir. Bir madde öğrenciniz için çok ya da sıklıkla doğru ise 2, bazen ya da biraz doğru ise 1, hiç doğru değil ise 0 sayılarını yuvarlak içine alınız. Lütfen tüm maddeleri işaretlemeye çalışınız.

0 1 2 1. Yaşından daha küçük bir çocuk gibi davranır.

0 1 2 2. Dikkatini uzun süre bir konu üzerinde toplayamaz.

0 1 2 3. Sinirli ve gergindir.

0 1 2 4. Konuşmayı reddeder.

0 1 2 5. Mutsuz, üzgün, çökkün ve bezgindir.

Yazışma Adresi: Doç. Dr. Neşe Erol, Ankara Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Çocuk Psikiyatrisi Ana Bilim Dalı, Ankara.

APPENDIX F
VELİLER İÇİN AÇIKLAMA

AÇIKLAMA

Katılmakta olduğunuz bu çalışma, evlilik yaşamı ile çocuk yetiştirme tutumu ve çocuğun davranışlarının algılanması arasındaki ilişkinin araştırmasını amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçla Ek'te sunulan ölçekleri cevaplandırmanız bu konuda yapılan çalışmalara yardımcı olacaktır.

Araştırmanın sağlıklı sonuç vermesi, soruları içtenlikli ve doğru cevaplamanıza bağlıdır. Kimlik belirtmeniz gerekmemektedir ve cevaplarınız tamamen araştırmanın amaçları doğrultusunda kullanılacaktır. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Müge Çelik

O.D.T.Ü Klinik Psikoloji
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

APPENDIX G
ÖĞRETMENLER İÇİN AÇIKLAMA

AÇIKLAMA

Katılmakta olduğunuz bu çalışma, evlilik yaşamı ile çocuk yetiştirme tutumu ve çocuğun davranışlarının algılanması arasındaki ilişkinin araştırmasını amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçla Ek'te sunulan ölçeği, sınıfınızda velilerine anket dağıttığınız çocuklar için cevaplandırmanız bu konuda yapılan çalışmalara yardımcı olacaktır.

Araştırmanın sağlıklı sonuç vermesi, soruları içtenlikli ve doğru cevaplamanıza bağlıdır. Cevaplarınız tamamen araştırmanın amaçları doğrultusunda kullanılacaktır. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Müge Çelik

O.D.T.Ü Klinik Psikoloji
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi