MARITAL COPING OF PARENTS, PERCEIVED PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE/REJECTION AND SELF-PERCEPTION OF CHILDREN; A CROSS CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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Dr. Nighat Gillani
Supervisor

To my Husband

ADNAN,

Love and Sunshine of my Life!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire   PARQ/C

Personality Assessment Questionnaire   PAQ

Marital Coping Inventory   MCI

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ABSTRACT

The present cross-cultural study explores the relationship between, marital coping of parents, perceived parental acceptance rejection and self-perception of children. The sample consisted of 100 families (Pakistani=50, USA=50). Only those families were contacted who had at least one child falling in the age range (7-13 years) had both parents alive, and belonged to an intact native family of the country they were living in. Marital coping of parents was measured using Marital Coping Inventory (MCI), For measuring the perceived parental acceptance rejection, Parental Acceptance-Rejection/ Control Questionnaire (PARQ/Control) was used. The personality of the children was determined by child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ). The sample consisted of families from Pakistan (Rawalpindi, Islamabad) and United States (Virginia, Maryland, Washington D.C). The data was collected using convenience sampling based on inclusion criterion. The results showed that Pakistani couples were using more positive approach for dealing with marital problems, while American couples indulged more in self-interest, avoidance and conflict. Pakistani wives used self-blame more than their husbands. American Children perceived their parents to be rejecting as compared to Pakistani children, while Pakistani children found their mothers to be more warm and less controlling. Personality assessment showed that children of united sates have more negative personality attributes than Pakistani children. Children of United States were found to be more aggressive, emotionally instable and had negative view about self and the world. Pakistani children on the other hand especially females were found to be more dependent. Correlations showed that there is high significant relationship between all the variables, indicating that parents who are coping with marital problems effectively are perceived to be warm and their children have positive personality traits. The results help in understanding the parent child relationship among two contrasting cultures and the findings of the present study can be used for further researches in the future.

INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

The present study is aimed at exploring the cross-cultural differences between American and Pakistan families to understand the relationship between children's perception of parental acceptance, rejection and control, their self perception and marital coping of their parents. This study is based on Rohner's Theory of parental acceptance rejection, the personality sub-theory of which deals with the effect of perceived parental acceptance, rejection and control on the personality of the child.

Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to influence child outcomes. Many writers have noted that specific parenting practices are less important in predicting child well-being than is the broad pattern of parenting. Most researchers who attempt to describe this broad parental milieu rely on Diana Baumrind's concept of parenting style. The construct of parenting style is used to capture normal variations in parents' attempts to control and socialize their children (Baumrind, 1991).

A parenting style is a description of a way of rearing children, loving and caring for them, bringing them to maturity, and dealing with their daily behavior (Baldwin, 1948).

According to Maccoby and Martin (1983) parenting style captures two important elements of parenting: parental responsiveness and parental demandingness. Parental responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioral control) refers to "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Baumrind, 1991, pp. 61-62).

Parental behavior is very important in not only understanding the parent child relationship, but also in determining the personality of the child. This behavior causes

significant changes in the personality of the child especially in the middle childhood years. The child's attitude and behavior are markedly influenced by the parental relationship and the styles of parenting they adapt. This sets child's attitude towards himself, the parental behavior and the life in general. Over restriction or hostility in rearing styles is likely to lead to problematic behavior in children (Clausen, 1966)

Maccoby and Martin (1988) have also demonstrated that degree of parental warmth and control are two primary dimensions of child rearing styles. Schaffer (1959) emphasizes that warmth factor deals with emotional relationship of the parent with the child, and control factor with control restriction and punishment on the child's behavior. Schaffer (1988) believes that warmth and control are especially important during the preschool and school years. Similarly Heatherington and Parke (1979) observed that parental child rearing practices have two variations, Warmth verses Hostility, and permissiveness versus control.

During the past 35 years, research based on Baumrind's conceptualization of parenting style has produced a remarkably consistent picture of the type of parenting conducive to the successful socialization of children into the dominant culture of the United States and worldwide.

As researchers have expanded beyond samples of White, predominantly middle-class families, it has become increasingly clear that the influence of authoritativeness, as well as other styles of parenting, varies depending on the social milieu in which the family is embedded. For example, Baumrind (1972) reported that authoritarian parenting, which is associated with fearful, timid behavior and behavioral compliance among European-American children, is associated with assertiveness among African-American girls. Furthermore, other studies in which the effects of authoritativeness have been compared across ethnic groups have consistently shown that authoritative parenting is most strongly associated with academic achievement among European-American adolescents and is least effective in influencing the academic achievement of Asian- and African-American youths (Dornbusch, et al, 1987; & Steinberg et al, 1991).

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Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory:

Rohner (1975) is the proponent of the theory of Parental Acceptance-Rejection which is the important dimension of child-rearing (Golden, 1969; Martin, 1975). The construct of parental warmth falls on a continuum, where acceptance stands at one end and rejection, i.e., absence of acceptance at the other end. The theory asserts that parental rejection has its most consistent and predictable effects on individuals, insofar, as they subjectively perceive their parents' behavior as being accepting and rejecting.

Together, parental acceptance and rejection form the warmth dimension of parenting. This is a dimension or continuum on which all humans can be placed because everyone has experienced in childhood more or less love at the hands of major caregivers. Thus, the warmth dimension has to do with the quality of the affectional bond between parents and their children, and with the physical and verbal behaviors parents use to express these feelings. One end of the continuum is marked by parental acceptance, which refers to the warmth, affection, care, comfort, concern, nurturance, support, or simply love that parents can feel and express toward their children. The other end of the continuum is marked by parental rejection, which refers to the absence or significant withdrawal of these feelings and behaviors and by the presence of a variety of physically, and psychologically hurtful behaviors and affects. Parental rejection can be shown by any combination of four principal expressions: (1) cold and unaffectionate, the opposite of being warm and affectionate, (2) hostile and aggressive, (3) indifferent and neglecting, and (4) undifferentiated rejecting. Undifferentiated rejection refers to individuals' belief that their parents do not really care about them or love them, even though there might not be any clear behavioral indicators that the parents are neglecting, or unaffectionate (Rohner, 1975)

Warmth Dimension of Parenting
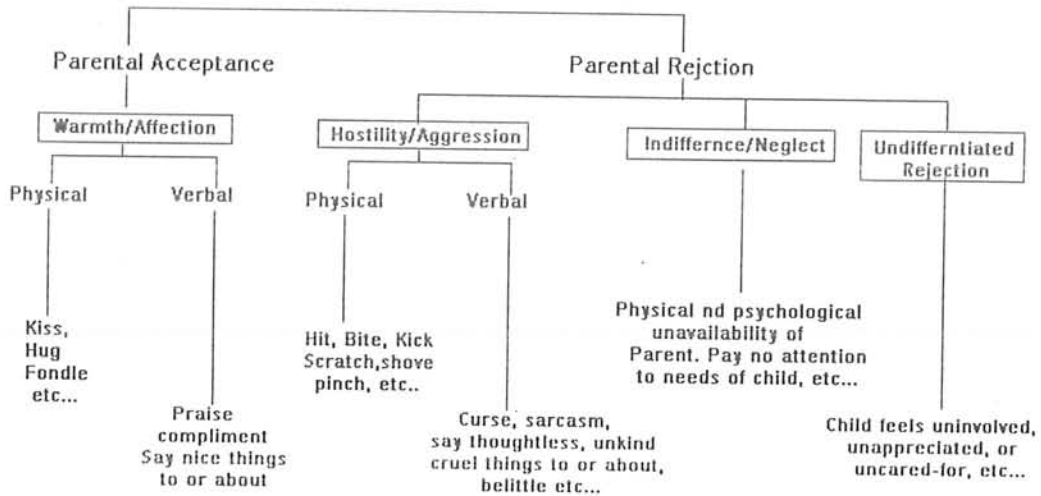
FIG 1: Rohner(2001)

In the Figure above, warmth, hostility, and indifference refer to internal, psychological feelings of the parents. That is, parents may feel warm (or cold and unloving) toward their children or they may feel hostile, angry, bitter, resentful, irritable, impatient, or antagonistic toward them. Alternatively, parents may be indifferent toward their children, feel unconcerned and uncaring about them, or have a restricted interest in their overall well-being. affection, aggression, and neglect refer to behaviors that result when parents act on these emotions. Thus when parents act on their feelings of love they are likely to be affectionate. As noted in the Figure, parental affection can be shown either physically (hugging, kissing, caressing, comforting, etc.) or verbally (praising, complimenting, saying nice things to or about the child, etc.). These and many other caring, nurturing, supportive, and loving behaviors help define the behavioral expressions of parental acceptance.

When parents act on feelings of hostility, anger, resentment, or enmity, the resulting behavior is generally called aggression. Aggression is any behavior where there is the intention of hurting someone, something, or oneself. The above Figure shows that parents may be physically aggressive (hitting, pushing, throwing things, pinching, using hurtful symbolic gestures, etc.) and verbally aggressive (sarcastic,

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cursing, mocking, shouting, saying thoughtless, humiliating, or disparaging things to or about the child, etc.) (Rohner, 2001)

The connection between indifference as an internal motivator and neglect as a behavioral response is not as direct as the connection between hostility and aggression. This is true because parents may neglect their children for many reasons that have nothing to do with indifference (Rohner, 2001)

Neglect is not simply a matter of failing to provide for the material and physical needs of children, however; it also pertains to parents' failure to attend appropriately to children's social and emotional needs. Often, for example, neglecting parents pay little attention to children's needs for comfort, solace, help, or attention; they may also remain physically as well as psychologically unresponsive or even unavailable or inaccessible (Rohner, 2001)

All of these behaviors--individually and collectively--are likely to induce children to feel unloved or rejected. Even in warm and loving families, however, children are likely to experience--at least occasionally--a few of these hurtful emotions and behaviors.

Personality Sub-theory:

PAR Theory's personality subtheory attempts to predict and explain major personality or psychological--especially mental health-related-- consequences of perceived parental acceptance and rejection. The subtheory begins with assumption that humans have developed the enduring, biologically based emotional need for positive response from the people most important to them. The need for positive response includes an emotional wish, desire, or yearning (whether consciously recognized or not) for comfort, support, care, concern, nurturance, and the like. Parents are uniquely important to children because the security and other emotional and psychological states of offspring are dependent on the quality of relationship with their parent(s). It is for this reason that parental acceptance and rejection is postulated in PAR Theory to have unparalleled influence in shaping children's personality development over time.

The concept personality is defined in PAR Theory as an individual's more or less stable set of predispositions to respond (i.e., affective, cognitive, perceptual, and motivational dispositions) and actual modes of responding (i.e., observable behaviors) in various life situations or contexts. This definition recognizes that behavior is motivated, is influenced by external (i.e., environmental) as well as internal (e.g., emotional, biological, and learning) factors, and usually has regularity or orderliness about it across time and space.

PAR Theory's personality subtheory (1975) postulates that the emotional need for positive response from significant others and attachment figures is a powerful motivator, and when children do not get this need satisfied adequately by their parents (or adults do not get this need met by their attachment figures), they are predisposed to respond emotionally and behaviorally in specific ways. In particular--according to the theory--rejected individuals are likely to feel anxious and insecure. In an attempt to allay these feelings and to satisfy the need for positive response, rejected persons often increase their bids for positive response, but only up to a point. That is, they tend to become more dependent, as shown in Figure :
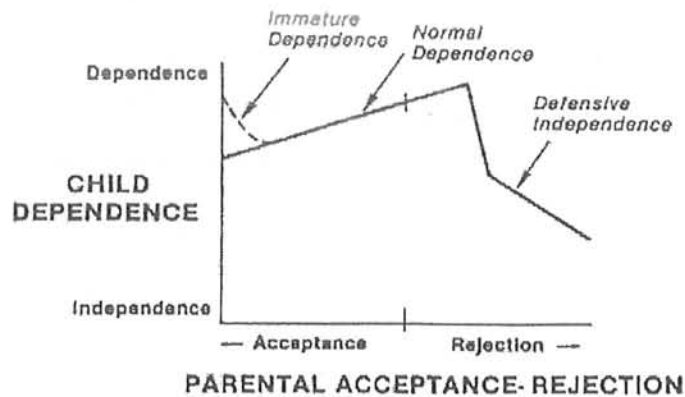
FIG 2: Rohner (1975)

The term dependence refers to the internal, psychologically felt wish or yearning for emotional (as opposed to instrumental or task-oriented) support, care, comfort, attention, nurturance, and similar behaviors from attachment figures. The term, as used in PARTheory, also refers to the actual behavioral bids individuals make for such

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responsiveness. For young children these bids may include clinging to parents, whining or crying when parents unexpectedly depart, and seeking physical proximity with them when they return. Older children and adults may express their need for positive response more symbolically--especially in times of distress--by seeking reassurance, approval, or support, as well as comfort, affection, or solace from people who are important to them, particularly from parents for youths, and from non-parental significant others and attachment figures for adults.

According to PAR Theory's personality subtheory (1975), parental or partner rejection also leads to other personality outcomes, in addition to dependence. These include:

1. Hostility, aggression, passive aggression, or psychological problems with the management of hostility and aggression
2. Emotional unresponsiveness
3. Immature dependence or defensive independence depending on the form, frequency, duration, and intensity of perceived rejection and parental control
4. Impaired self-esteem
5. Impaired self-adequacy
6. Emotional instability and
7. Negative worldview

In addition to dependence or defensive independence, rejected individuals are predicted in PAR Theory to develop impaired feelings of self-esteem and self-adequacy. This comes about because individuals tend to view themselves as they think their parents or significant others view them. Thus, insofar as children and adults feel their attachment figures do not love them, they are likely to start feeling they are unlovable, perhaps even unworthy of being loved (Rohner, 2000).

Whereas self-esteem pertains to individuals' feelings of self-worth or value, self-adequacy pertains to their feelings of competence or mastery to perform daily tasks adequately and to satisfy their own instrumental (task-oriented) needs. Insofar as individuals feel they are not very good people, they are also apt to feel they are not very good at satisfying their needs. Or alternatively, insofar as people feel they are no good

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at satisfying their personal needs, they often come to think less well of themselves more globally(Rohner, 2000) .

Anger, negative self-feelings, and the other consequences of perceived rejection tend to diminish rejected children's and adults' capacity to deal effectively with stress. Because of this they tend to be less emotionally stable than accepted people. They often become emotionally upset--perhaps tearful or angry--when confronted with stressful situations that accepted (loved) people are able to handle with greater emotional equanimity (Rohner, 2000).

All these acutely painful feelings associated with perceived rejection tend to induce children and adults to develop a negative worldview. That is, according to PAR Theory, rejected persons are likely to develop a view of the world--of life and the very nature of human existence--as being hostile, unfriendly, emotionally unsafe, threatening, or dangerous. These feelings and associated thoughts often extend to people's beliefs about the nature of the supernatural world (i.e., God, the gods, and other religious beliefs), discussed more fully below in PAR Theory's sociocultural systems subtheory.

Negative worldview, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, and some of the other personality dispositions described above are important elements in the social-cognition or mental representations of rejected persons.

As a counterpoint to the litany of troubles associated with perceived parental rejection, it should be noted that perceived acceptance (maternal and paternal love) is associated directly and indirectly with a long list of positive developmental outcomes. It is, for example, associated with prosocial behavior in childhood, including the development of generosity, helpfulness, and empathy; positive peer relations in adolescence; and, overall physical and emotional well-being in adulthood, including lowered psychological distress, a sense of happiness, and overall life-satisfaction. In addition, parental acceptance has been shown to be an effective buffer against the development of many forms of behaviors associated with rejection such as depression, substance abuse, conduct problems, and delinquency.

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Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Effect on Childs' Personality:

Along with Rohner, there are many other researchers that talked about acceptance and rejection and its effects on the personality of the child. Warmth has the positive effects while Rejection can create severe problems. The result may be a positive, balanced personality at one extreme. Rejection is just the reverse, manifesting itself in hostility, aggression, academic difficulties on the other, and indifference (Mussen, 1979; Sears, Maccoby, and Levin, 1957; Baldwin et al., 1945)

Acceptance is also known as Nurturance, that is, an attitude on the part of the parent, of the warmth and helpful assistance towards the child. Maccoby defines a warm parent as deeply committed to the child's welfare, responsive to child's needs, willing to spend time in joint enterprises of the child's choosing, ready to show enthusiasm over the child's accomplishments, sensitive to the child's emotional states. (Maccoby, 1989).

Parental acceptance means an attitude on the part of parents which is characterized by a keen interest in and love for the child. The accepting parent puts the child in a position of importance in the home and develops a relationship with the child which is characterized by emotional warmth.

The phenomenon of parental warmth has been studied across-culturally. Rohner (1975) has found that parental rejection is significantly related with (a) children's hostility, aggression, or passive aggression, (b) dependence, and (c) negative self-evaluation, including negative self- esteem and negative self-adequacy. Basing upon intracultural and cross-cultural data "Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory" (Rohner, 1975, 1980) was formulated. Rohner (1980) supported the basic theoretical formulation of parental acceptance-rejection by comparing the data of 316 American boys and girls with 174 Mexican boys and girls. The findings revealed that parental acceptance-rejection and reported personality dispositions of American and Mexican children are strongly associated. Children of accepting parents as compared to the children of rejecting parents value themselves and have positive personality dispositions.

Substantial amount of research has shown that the effects of parental warmth on child's personality and mental health are significantly important (Bowlby, 1965, 1969; Rotter, 1981), however, what these effects are on personality development, how these

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are reflected in personality functioning, needs careful explanation whether these characteristics persist into adulthood and what characteristics or external factors help in softening or reverencing the detrimental effects (Rohner, 1975). Research evidence (Bradley & Caldwell, 1979; Crandall, 1973; Davis & Phares, 1969; Mustaine, 1986; Nowicki & Segal, 1974; Valentine, 1980) supports the basic postulates of the theory.

Some inconsistent findings may be attributed to the differences in how one defines the construct or it may be related to methodological problems and flaws of the research (Yarrow, 1963). Parent-child interaction depends on the noticeable or sometimes unnoticeable parental preferences and subjective biases in parenting, due to the gender of the child, his birth order or sometimes due to the desired or unwanted pregnancy. It is fact that parental interaction gradually appears to be gender specific. Due to a number of psychological reasons their interaction with older children becomes more sex typed. Father enjoys the company of their boys more as compared to girls (Clausen, 1966; Newson & Newson, 1976). Mothers and fathers have more of a companion relationship with the children of their own sex, whereas, with the children of the opposite sex they tend to be warmer and indulgent emotionally (Newson & Newson, 1976). Obviously, it has interesting psychodynamic interpretation as well.

Researches have shown that mother's standing on the warmth-coldness dimension remains stable overtime (Moss, Robson, & Pederson, 1969). In a study, subjects' ratings on warmth during first three years of their life were found to be positively correlated with the ratings during the age of 9- to- 14 years (Schaefer & Bayley, 1963). Parental coldness is considered most important factor in the development of behavioral problems. Most of the serious personality and behavioral problems, such as, antisocial behavior along with some inner psychological problems, like high anxiety are more common in children of those parents who are relatively cold with their children (Martin, 1975).

It has been indicated that those parents who combine hostility and autonomy in their parenting (are neglecting, lax, indifferent), their children would show signs of antisocial tendencies including bullying, stealing, etc. These rejected children tend to be more anxious, hostile, aggressive, and emotionally unstable, and have low self-esteem as well (Rohner, Saaverda, & Granum, 1980). Parental hostility and aggression not only

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inculcates harsh patterns of behavior in children but also these children tend to feel more rejected. Their involvement in anti-social behaviors seems to be an attention-seeking behavior for their parents.

Similarly, a continuing relationship of warmth and affection between parents and children is expected to result in the acceptance of adult values by the child and identifying with the parental role models, with generally high level of compliance (Bandura, 1969). Lack of warmth, on the other hand, is associated with behavioral problems including delinquency and aggression (East, 1991; Hetherington & Martin, 1979, 1986; Olwens, 1980; Parke & Slaby, 1983). This is found true across-cultures (MacDonald, 1988; Rohner, 1975). Consistent with these findings Hinshaw (1987) has explored that the hyperactive aggressive children tend to have negative hostile family relationship from the very beginning. Similarly, psychopathology and various types of maladjustment have found to be the characteristics of a hostile-rejecting parent-child relationship (Conger & Petterson, 1984; Hetherington & Martin, 1979, 1986; Taj, 1989).

Family is considered an important source of inculcating aggression, especially in children (Green, 1980). Scott, Scott, and McCabe (1991) and Babree (1997) have explored that there is a positive relationship between the amount of hostility expressed by the child and the degree of parental punitiveness and aggression across cultures.

Parental conflict sometimes becomes the source of child negligence. There is consensus upon the opinion that warmth and love of both parents is needed for optimal personal growth and development. The relationship characterized by warmth and love turn a child into self-assured individual. This assurance of emotional support makes him feel that he is owned by his parents with all his strengths and weaknesses.

Bowlby (1953) has argued that mother-child bonding was essential to the mental health of the developing individual. Maternal deprivation would likely to have disastrous aftereffects on the child's personality. Research has suggested that abusing and neglecting parents do not provide that sort of emotional environment which ensures the normal child development. Steele and Pollock (1968) assert that abusing and neglecting parents have generally unrealistic high expectations of their children from

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their young age and they expect them to respond with love and warmth which is not appropriate with their age.

Differences in Parenting:

Researches in the field of socialization (Bates, 1980; Belsky, Robins, & Gamble, 1985; Brown & Harris, 1978; Colleta, 1979; Keniston, 1977; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957) primarily focused towards the understanding of the process, whereby, parents' child-rearing strategies and their behavior influence the development of children and much less attention has been devoted to study why parents behave the way? They do (Belsky, 1984). There are several theories put forward for explaining the cross-cultural differences in childrearing practices. LeVine (1974) for example, has hypothesized that differences in child-rearing patterns may result from the different requirements imposed by the environment to ensure the survival of the child. Super and Harkness (1981) suggested that parents' attitudes about the nature of the child or about the world, generally are different in various groups and these differences in perception affect their parenting behavior. Hoffman (1977) believed that parents rear their children in a way that pave the way for the development of those qualities and attitudes which suit with their adult roles.

Since the adult role expectations differ from society to society, and even within sub-groups of society, cultural differences in child-rearing patterns prevail. Kohn (1969, 1980) asserts that differences in parenting are due to the differences in parents' occupations.

According to Belsky (1984) three general sources of influences on parental functioning are: (1) the parents' personality/psychological well-being, (2) the child's characteristics of individuality and (3) contextual sources of stress and support in the family and environment.

Parenting is found to be significantly related with the age of the mother. Mother's age is found to be positively related with her psychological maturity. The teenage mothers are less psychologically mature than the older mothers. They express less desirable child-rearing attitudes and have less realistic expectations for their

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children (Field, Widmayer, Stringer, & Ignatoff, 1980). More direct support for a personality- parenting linkage can be found in Mondell and Tyler's (1981) data. They linked child's internal locus of control with high levels of interpersonal trust, and an active style of parenting with high levels of warmth, acceptance, and helpfulness, and with the low levels of disapproval when interacting with their young children. Studies have also shown that when mothers were depressed they offered a disruptive, hostile, rejecting environment for their children, which, undoubtedly, undermined the child normal functioning (Colleta, 1979).

Parents' child-rearing practices are considered an important aspect of one's personality development. Parents were children once, and were subjected to the child-rearing styles of their own parents. What they are and what they do partly is the product of those experiences (Belsky, 1984; Bronfenbrenner, 1960; Brown & Harris, 1978; Cox, Owen, Lewis, Riedel, Scalf-Melver, & Suster. 1985; DeFrain, 1979; Eiduson & Alexander, 1978; Frommer & O'Shea, 1973; Hall, Pawlby, & Wolkind, 1980; Manion, 1977; Reuter & Biller, 1973; Sagi, 1982). Thus, we can not study the phenomenon independently. Such parents need counseling for their burnt-out reactions, dissatisfaction and frustrations.

The characteristic of the child that has received more attention in terms of influence on parental functioning is child's temperament (Bates, 1980). It is a fact that the parenting is determined by both the behavior of the child and the attitudes of the parents towards the child. Easy going, compliant children generally elicit parental warmth and build comfortable relationship with their parents. They learn quickly that deal for what they want gets them further than demanding. Easy going children are thus characterized by regularity, positive approach, responsive to new stimuli. They are highly adaptable to change and are mild or moderate in their moods.

Achenbach (1978, 1979) has labeled these children as "intemalizers" and "extemalizers". Intemalizers are characterized by over control of emotions, whereas, extemalizers show under control of impulses (Smets, 1985). In contrast difficult children make many demands and resist their parents' wishes. If parents respond harshly, the child retaliates by becoming difficult (Mulhem & Passman, 1981). With both types of children, self-perpetuating cycles of child's behavior and the parents'

reaction can develop. The "goodness-of-fit" between parents and child influences child's behavior and developing personality which continues to affect parental response.

Parental Control:

For the purpose of understanding the process through which parents influence the development of their children, it looks imperative to understand the emotional climate within which the process of socialization is initiated. Parenting style as defined by Darling and Steinberg (1993) is a constellation of attitudes towards child which are communicated to the child and that taken together; create an emotional climate in which the behaviors of parents are expressed. These behaviors include; both specific goal-directed behaviors through which parents perform their duties (to be referred to as parenting practices) and non-goal directed parental behaviors, such as, gestures, changes in tone of voice, or the spontaneous expressions of emotions.

This definition is in harmony with some of the earlier researches (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) conducted on socialization during the 3rd and 4th decades of 20th century. Parenting styles generally based on three particular components: (1) emotional relationship between the parent and the child, (2) parents, practices and behaviors, and (3) the parents' belief system.

Interest in the study of the effects of parental behavior started with the advent of behaviorist and Freudian theory (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). The focus of behaviorists was to see how different patterns of reinforcement in immediate environment influence one's development. Freudian theorists (1933) on the contrary were of the view that basic determinants of behavior were biological and most of these are inevitably in clash with parental desires and the demands of society. The interaction between child's libidinal needs and the family environment presumed to determine individual differences in the development.

Researches in the field of socialization having psychodynamic perspective (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) focused their efforts upon emotional relationship between the child and his parents and its influence on the child's psychosexual, psychosocial and personality development. Like many socialization theorists, these models were

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unidirectional. According to them individual differences in the emotional relationship between parents and child are necessarily due to differences in parental attributes. Many researchers perceived the parental attitudes as an important attribute to be further explored (Orlansky, 1949).

However, since the attitudes are more strong determinants of parental practices and have more subtle behaviors which give more meanings to these practices. Many investigators who worked in this tradition reasoned that assessing parental attitudes would capture the emotional tenor of the family milieu, which determines the parent-child relationship and influences the child development (Baldwin, 1948; Orlansky, 1949; Schaefer, 1959; Symonds, 1939). However, this shift in emphasis from parents' behaviors to attitudes created a problem for researchers. Behavior is determined and made meaningful by attitudes, but attitudes are expressed through behavior. In other words, although attitudes were seen to be more important than behaviors per se, there was no means of studying the former without measuring the latter.

There are some researchers (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) who thought that emotional processes are underlying factors for parenting style; they in fact tried to fill the gap between parental attitudes and specific behaviors by aggregating behavior to which Schaefer (1965) called a "Molar" level. Instead of using individual practices to define parenting, particular parental practices were grouped conceptually into broader categories on the basis of their potential to change the emotional process (Baldwin, 1948; Orlansky, 1949; Schaefer & Bell, 1958; Symonds, 1939). These molar attitudes included, among others; autonomy granting, ignoring, punitiveness, perception of child as a burden, strictness, use of fear to control, and expressions of attention (Schaefer, 1959,1965).

Sears and his colleagues chose to emphasize the mother's warmth and the effects of punishment and of permissiveness. The major dimensions that Sears identified of parent attitude are Strictness, general family adjustment, Warmth, responsible orientation, and aggressiveness and punitiveness.

The father's role in the child's adjustment has been so generally overlooked that it warrants special attention. In a study of children, referred to clinic, fathers of children

with conduct problems were weak, and ineffectual; those of children with personality problems were dictatorial and unconcerned about them (Becker, 1964). In another study, the father's attitudes were found to be more intimately related to maladjustment tendencies in their children than were those of the mothers. The major finding was that harshness and aggressiveness in fathers related to both sorts of problems in children (Peterson & Stunkard., 1992).

The literature repeatedly emphasized the importance of family members' acceptance of the children. In Pakistani context, the researches on parental acceptance rejection have been done before using the PARQ/ Control and PAQ. Working on the PAR theory of Rohner, Haque (1987) found out that rejecting parents are usually hostile and quarrelsome, lacking in emotional affection towards the child. Parental acceptance-rejection theory is theory of socialization, which attempts to explain and predict major consequences of rejection for behavioral, cognitive and emotional development of children and for personality functioning of adult everywhere. The researches and clinical reports support the expectation that have been implicated in a wide range of psychiatric and behavioral disorders (Sheikh & Haque, 1994). The postulates of the theory are supported by converging evidence from cultural and cross cultural studies and numerous psychological studies in the West, as well as in the East including Pakistan (Haque, 1987; sheikh & Zohra, 1994). Hassan (1979) and Nasir (1979) reported that among the family problems the most important were neglect by parents and harsh by the fathers.

Numerous studies that have been done in Pakistan related to Parental Control, and its effect on the children. Hamid (1986) found that children who have poor and inadequate adjustment come from authoritarian and strict parents. Tariq and Durrani (1983) found that adverse control and support combination of parenting style was present for habitual criminals. Children who are more securely attached and normal come form warm and loving families (Riaz, 1991). Karim (1986) found that aggression in the children is conditioned by the parenting style, so the children of aggressive parents were found to be aggressive. Sajjad (1993) found the same results studying the relationship of individual psychopathology and the family and found that disturbance in parental relationship effects the psychological condition of the children.

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Marital Coping

"Marital adjustment refers to those processes that are presumed to be necessary to achieve a harmonious and functional marital relationship" (Locke, 1951).

Sinha and Mukerjee (1990) define marital adjustment as "the state in which there is an overall feelings in husband and wife of happiness and satisfaction with their marriage and with each other" (p. 633). It therefore calls experiencing satisfactory relationship between spouses characterized by mutual concern, care, understanding and acceptance.

Silverman (1972) and Mace (1982) who speak about three kinds, of involvement in marital relationship: minimum, limited and maximum. Minimum involvement is seen in the traditional marriages that are aimed at safe guarding the structures to serve utilitarian ends. Limited interpersonal involvement in marriage gives reasonable comfort and security to the couples. Maximum involvement gives the couple a sense of satisfaction and confidence in the relationship. To have maximum involvement, the couples have to grow in them the understanding of each other and adjust in different factors that affect the core of the family life.

According to Crohan and Veroff (1989) there are three aspects, which are necessary for the marital adjustment and marital satisfaction. These -components are happiness', equity, and competence. Happiness was more clearly linked to all aspects of well being than any other, but feeling of competences in the marital role and feeling of control over marital outcome were also found to be important for the better adjustment.

Blood and Wolfe (1960) speak about eight areas of marital adjustment namely; money, children, recreation, personality, in-laws, roles, religion and sex. Landis (1975) lists six areas of marital adjustment. They are religion, social life, mutual friends, in-laws, money and sex. Mace (1982) sees six areas of adjustment, values, couple growth, and communication in the following areas: companionship, recreation, parenting, rearing, children and sexual satisfaction. Simon (as cited in Janetius, 1999) whose nine areas of marital adjustment present social activities and recreation, training and disciplining of children, religion, in-law relationships, financial matters, sexual

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relationship, communication, mutual trust and companionship.

According the participants and outside observers about the nature of the participants' relationship. The spouses should be close with each other in their physical and cognitive activities so that they have better understanding and adjustment. It was later found that emotional maturity; security and self-disclosure are necessary for the couples to live happily (Bal, 1988; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Moffit, Spence, & Goldney, 1986; Prakash & Radhike, 1987; Shrivastava & Shrivastava, 1985).

Many researches revealed that marital adjustment includes spending time together, shared values and flexibility (Klagsburn, 1985). Physical intimacy, emotional closeness, and empathy also help to enhance satisfactory marital relationship (Tolstedt & Stokes, 1983; Zimner 1983). According to Markman and Hahlweg (1993) marital adjustment is high if couples have less conflict in their lives and they have more understanding about their problems, feelings and emotions, Emotional attachment, which is also called romance, is an important component of the successful marriage.

Marital Adjustment also depends on the two people simply liking each other (Stemberg, 1987). Liking and respecting one's partner may be important in part because of their effect on how they control themselves and live with satisfaction (Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto, 1989). In many researches it is found that marital adjustment requires growth in a unique type of interdependence through which each partner identifies with the needs of the other, and both can find happiness and fulfillment to the extent that primary concern becomes the maintenance of-their 'coupleness' its procreative mission (Leshan, 1973; Levinger & Snoek, 1972).

Marital adjustment is high when both spouses have high mutual self disclosure and mutual sharing of interests, beliefs, opinions and the like is often more important than sex (Sternberg & Grajek, 1984). Marital adjustment is also enhanced when the partners have complementary personality styles (Wiggins, Phillips, & Trapenell, 1989). Meyer and Pepper (as cited in Naseer, 2000) conducted a stud), in which they found that similarity of spouses, needs for affiliation, aggression, autonomy, and nurturance are associated with high marital adjustment.

Well adjustment takes place when couples tend to display higher rates of

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pleasurable behavior towards one another (Birchler 1975; Robinson & Price, 1980; Weiss, 1978). Well adjusted relationship which are necessary for the good marriage has been conceived of as one in which the partner frequently interact with one another seldom disagree on important marital issues communicate openly with one Another and resolve disagreements in a mutually satisfactory manner (Sabatelli, 1988).

Many researches have found that marital adjustment is determined by the interaction between the two partners over the time span of their marriage. That is, a marriage is not simply the sum of the two individuals that makes it up, but rather it is a unity of two interacting personalities. Neither one can determine alone the success of the relationship. Coping with the conflicts is also a part of marital adjustment. Self-blaming, increase the chances of marital adjustment and blaming the other partner decrease it. Marital adjustment implies that the individual or pair has a good working arrangement with reality, adulthood, and expectations of others. There are many social settings with others that contribute to marital adjustment, like various kinds of social network involvements can be positively related to marital success. Social involvement is related to personal feelings. The more satisfied the individual is with love and affection as well as friendships and other community involvements, the more satisfied they would be with their marriages (Hawkins, Weisberg, & Ray, 1980; Madden & Bulman, 1981).

Education is closely related to marital adjustment. Higher the educational level the greater is the marital satisfaction and adjustment, occupation, and income which are often thought to be associated with the level of satisfaction, basically are not (Blood & Wolfe, 1960). A number of studies show a relationship between education and marital happiness. In general, the higher the education of the couple the higher their evaluation of their Marriage. This is probably because educated persons place a greater value on the interpersonal nature of marriage and are more willing to put something into it (Anila, khan & Sabir, 1993 .Glean & Weaver, 198 1; Saima & Farooqi, 1997).

There are important social class differences related to adjustment in marriage. The lower and middle class men and women have a greater tendency to live in separate social and psychological worlds with limited communication in marriage. Whereas in the upper class there is generally a great place of communication and shared activities and these are seen as closely related to adjustment in marriage. These differences are

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also reflected in what is felt to be- important in marriage by social class (Macke, Bohmstedt, & Bernstein, 1979). The lower the social class of a couple having love or arranged marriage the less stable and happy their marriage is. It is also likely to be reflected in part of the lack of economic and social stability in the environment on lower socioeconomic levels (Komarovsky, 1964; Renne, 1970).

The number of children too affects marital adjustment. Children are source of strength in marriage and bring a big change in marital life. It was found that in some cases where husband and wife were especially close and dependent on each other, the advert of a baby led to a decrease in marital happiness, while in other cases where a couple's interests were dissimilar before childbirth, but the arrival of a baby strengthened their relationship (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Veroff & Feld (1970). In analysis it was reported that close relationships between couples effect the arrival of children, as most couples are happier without children in early years of marriage. On the other hand,' it was found that after some years of marriage the couples feel more comfortable and adjusted with the children. (Feldman & Rollins, 1970; Lieberman, 1970; Renne, 1970).

Working couples also feel problems in happy marital life especially women who are married with children and also employed outside of the home, the marital relationship can be a potentially even a greater stressor. That could be the reason that two-career couples have the highest rate of divorce ill the United for spouse lack of emotional support and competition between spouses is cited as common problem for dual career couples (Nadelson & Eisenberg,, 1977). Another major problem for married women who work outside as well as inside the home have great stress due to work overload associated with multiple roles of spouses, parents and career person. In addition to career demands and opportunities, dual-job women still have responsibility for household work and childcare (Mareek & Ballou, 198 1; Poloma, 1972; Tryon & Tryon 1982).

Marital Conflict and Effects on Children:

Both marital conflict and child adjustment are multidimensional constructs. Marital conflict can vary in frequency, intensity, content, and resolution and can be overt or covert. All marriages are characterized by some degree of conflict, and it is

unlikely that all expressions of marital conflict are stressful for children. In fact, exposure to some types of conflict may promote the development of constructive problem-solving or coping strategies. Because marital conflict can be expressed in myriad ways, it is important to identify which dimensions of marital conflict are related to child problems. Similarly, child adjustment is a global term that encompasses elements such as the adaptiveness and appropriateness of children's behavior, emotional well-being, self-concept, and achievement. Understanding the relationship between marital conflict and child adjustment thus also requires assessment of a wide range of adjustment indexes to determine if some outcomes are more closely related to exposure to conflict than others.

Marital conflict is associated with a wide range of adjustment problems in children (Grych & Fincham, 1990). Furthermore, interparental conflict figures prominently in the negative impact of various risk environments on children, such as divorce (Amato & Keith, 1991; Emery, 1988; Rutter, 1979) and parental depression (Emery, Weintraub, & Neale, 1982; Rutter & Quinton, 1984).

However, the bases and mechanisms through which marital conflict affects children are little understood and in some question (Emery, Fincham, & Cummings, 1992). Marital conflict negatively affects parent–child (Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, & Wierson, 1990; Kerig, Cowan, & Cowan, 1993) and sibling (Brody, Stoneman, & Burke, 1987) relationships. Furthermore, interparental conflict increases children's distress, anger, and aggression (Cummings, Zahn-Waxler, & Radke-Yarrow, 1981; Cummings et al, 1989) and also their enmeshment in parental problems (Cummings & Davies, 1994). Marital conflict is more closely associated with negative child outcomes than with global marital discord (Jouriles, Bourg, & Farris, 1991). Although children's immediate reactions do not necessarily indicate adjustment problems, by the same token, links between marital conflict and child diagnostic outcomes do not specify the processes by which these problems develop.

Grych and Fincham (1990) has been a major catalyst guiding research into the relationships between marital conflict and child adjustment. They suggested that children are likely to experience adjustment problems if they are exposed to frequent parental conflict that is aggressive, poorly resolved, and for which children blame

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themselves and feel personally threatened. On the other hand, if children are exposed to occasional, well-resolved, and non child-focused conflict between parents, they are less likely to experience adjustment difficulties. The majority of research to date has focused on the severity of marital conflict and its impact on fairly narrow definitions of children's behavioral adjustment (Grych & Fincham, 1990).

In examining the effect of conflicting marital interactions on parent-child relationships, Buehler and Gerard (2002) found marital conflict to be associated with more frequent parent-adolescent conflict and greater use of harsh disciplinary practices. In addition, marital conflict was found to be linked with reduced levels of parental involvement (Buehler & Gerard, 2002). As marital conflict intensifies, parents might become more consumed by their marital problems, while becoming even less available to their children. As a result of these interactions, adolescents may in turn develop behaviors that are more outwardly aggressive and defiant (Buehler & Gerard, 2002). Some children may in fact behave more defiantly as a means of gaining attention from their withdrawn or neglectful parents. Marital discord has been associated with a number of indexes of maladjustment in children, including aggression, conduct disorders, and anxiety (Emery, 1982, 1988). The relation between marital discord and child behavior problems were explained by Emery's (1982)

The Association between Marital Conflict and Children's Adjustment:

Relation between Marital Conflict and Child Problems

Many studies have been published investigating the relation between marital conflict and children's adjustment. Although, as noted earlier, many of the studies reviewed by Emery (1982) actually measure marital satisfaction, others provide more direct evidence for the existence of an association between marital conflict and child behavior. The findings of two early studies indicate that openly expressed marital conflict is more closely associated with child problems than is marital dissatisfaction (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1982; Rutter et al., 1974; see also Emery & O'Leary, 1984; Johnson & O'Leary, 1987). Hetherington et al. (1982) found that only the degree of conflict to which children were exposed was related to adjustment problems in children. "Encapsulated conflict," or conflict of which children were not aware, was not associated with behavior problems. Similarly, child problems were found to be more

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highly associated with unhappy marriages that were quarrelsome, tense, and hostile than to unhappy marriages characterized by apathy and indifference (Rutter et al., 1974).

Other researches examine overt conflict, or conflict of which children are likely to be aware. These studies have documented associations between marital conflict and a range of negative child outcomes, including externalizing problems such as conduct disorder (e.g., Johnson & O'Leary, 1987; Jouriles, Murphy, & O'Leary, 1989; Wierson, Forehand, & McCombs, 1988), aggression (e.g., Jacobson, 1978; Johnston, Gonzalez, & Campbell, 1987), and delinquency/antisocial behavior (Emery & O'Leary, 1984; Peterson & Zill, 1986) and internalizing problems such as depression (Johnston et al., 1987; Peterson & Zill, 1986) and anxiety/withdrawal (e.g., Long, Slater, Forehand, & Fauber, 1988; Wierson et al., 1988). Several investigations have also reported that social competence (Emery & O'Leary, 1984; Long, Forehand, Fauber, & Brody, 1987), cognitive competence (Long et al., 1987; Wierson et al., 1988), and grade point average (Long et al., 1987; Wierson et al., 1988) are related to marital conflict. Several studies have also found relationships between children's perceptions of family conflict and negative child outcomes (e.g., Enos & Handal, 1986; Farber, Felner & Primavera, 1985; Slater & Haber, 1984).

Studies using a divorced sample indicate that marital conflict present before and after divorce is related to a range of negative outcomes, and that this association is also found in intact families included as comparison groups. For example, Long et al. (1987) found significant differences between children from high- and low-conflict families (regardless of marital status) on teacher ratings of social and cognitive competence, conduct disorder, problem solving, and Wierson et al. (1988) reported that young adolescents' (from both intact and divorced families) perception of interparental conflict correlated with teacher-rated conduct disorder, anxiety/withdrawal, cognitive competence (correlations ranged from .25 to .32). The extensive longitudinal study conducted by Hetherington et al. (1982) provides further evidence of the relative effects that divorce and marital conflict may have on children.

Research on the relation between marital conflict and adjustment using intact families in which a child had been referred for psychological treatment also provides evidence that supports this association. For example, Emery and O'Leary (1982) found

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that boys' perception of the frequency of marital conflict was related to maternal ratings of conduct disorder, immaturity, and delinquency (correlations ranged from .35 to .41) on the Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay, 1977). Porter and O'Leary (1980) found correlations of similar magnitude to those reported by Emery and O'Leary (1982) between maternal ratings of openly expressed marital conflict and a range of adjustment problems in boys, but found that mothers' ratings of marital satisfaction were not significantly associated with child problems. This suggests that the relation between conflict and child behavior was not simply an artifact of marital distress.

In contrast, Jouriles, Barling, and O'Leary (1987) reported significant correlations between parent–child aggression and behavior problems but no relationship between marital conflict and behavior problems. This study involved children referred to a facility for women and children from martially violent families; all of the mothers in the sample had been recent victims of marital violence, and 91% of the children had also been targets of parent–child aggression within the previous year. Being the victim of parental aggression is likely to be more stressful than witnessing marital conflict, and so exposure to parental conflict may be a much poorer predictor of behavior problems in such a sample. Further, given the level of aggression present in these families, variance in the measure of children's exposure to conflict may have been restricted.

Dimensions of Conflict

Several dimensions of marital conflict may be important to consider. The frequency, intensity, content, and resolution of conflict in particular may affect the stressfulness of marital conflict for children and thus may be related to the existence of child problems. We consider research examining each of these factors in turn.

Frequency:

Increased exposure to interparental conflict potentially could have two contrasting effects: It might lead to fewer behavior problems because children become desensitized to marital conflict, or conversely more frequent conflict may sensitize children to conflict and lead to a greater incidence of adjustment problems. Available evidence supports the latter hypothesis in that more frequent open conflict is associated with increased behavior problems (Johnston et al., 1987; Long et al., 1987, 1988; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Wierson et al., 1988). In a study of naturally occurring episodes of

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interparental anger, children exposed to more frequent marital conflict reacted more intensely when exposed to a later episode of parental conflict than did children who had experienced less frequent conflict (Cummings, Zahn-Waxler, & Radke-Yarrow, 1981). Additionally, children who had witnessed two angry confrontations between adult experimenters in a laboratory behaved more aggressively toward a playmate than those who had observed only one such conflict (Cummings, Iannotti, & Zahn-Waxler, 1985). Although these latter studies examined only children's immediate reaction to displays of anger, they suggest that increased exposure to conflict may have increasingly negative effects.

Intensity:

Marital conflicts differ widely in their intensity, ranging from calm discussion to physical violence. It may be that exposure to low-intensity conflict, even if it is frequent, is unrelated to child problems and that marital conflict is upsetting to children only when it involves hostility or physical aggression. Intensity of conflict has been examined in a number of studies. Johnston et al. (1987) reported that the degree of verbal and physical aggression between divorcing parents was related to parental reports of behavior problems assessed two years after the divorce, and measures of interparental aggression two years after divorce were related to the somatic complaint, withdrawn/Uncommunicative, and Total Pathology scales of the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983). Studies of marital violence have also reported correlations between these intense types of conflict and child behavior problems (e.g., Jouriles et al., 1989; Wolfe et al, 1985).

In a series of studies examining children's immediate response to anger between others, Cummings and his colleagues have found that children exhibit more distress when observing naturally occurring anger between their parents that involves physical aggression (Cummings et al., 1981), and children watching videotapes of angry exchanges between adults that included physical aggression expressed more distress than when watching tapes that exhibited only verbal anger (Cummings, Vogel, Cummings, & El-Sheikh, 1989). Children who report a history of physical conflict between their parents also exhibit greater distress (E. M. Cummings et al., 1989) and increased efforts to comfort their mother when she is angrily confronted during an experimental session (J. S. Cummings, Pellegrini, Notarious, & Cummings, 1989) than

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children not reporting such conflicts. However, Cummings et al. (1989) did not find a direct association between history of physical interparental conflict and clinical levels of behavior problems.

This evidence indicates that conflict involving physical aggression is more upsetting to children and may be more closely linked to behavior problems than less intense forms of conflict. However, assessing the degree of physical aggression present during conflict is only one possible operationalization of intensity. Intensity of marital conflict can also be conceptualized as the degree of negative affect or hostility expressed by parents. Because both verbal and nonverbal forms of anger have been shown to cause distress in children (Cummings et al., 1989), it is important to consider other aspects of intensity to gain a more complete understanding of the relation between conflict intensity and child problems.

Content:

The content of interparental conflict may also affect children's responses. Dunn and Munn (1985) studied conflict in the families of 2-year-olds and found that the children responded differently to mother–sibling conflict depending on the topic of the conflict. Conflicts pertaining to the siblings' aggressive behavior led to negative affect in children, whereas conflicts over family rules were more likely to be met with laughter. These results were not simply due to the emotion expressed by the participants in the conflict; children also responded differently to various topics that were emotionally neutral. Although this study examines mother–sibling conflicts, it suggests that children as young as 2 years of age are sensitive to the content of conflicts.

One might speculate that conflict concerning the child may be more distressing to the child and thus may be more closely related to behavior problems. Two studies support this idea. Block, Block, and Morrison (1981) found that parental disagreement on child-rearing values predicted adjustment problems in children one to four years later, and Snyder, Klein, Gdowski, Faulstich, and LaCombe (1988) reported that a measure of conflict over child rearing was related to a range of behavior problems in children.

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Resolution/ Coping:

How conflicts are resolved may moderate their impact on children. Parents who successfully resolve their conflicts provide positive models of problem solving for their children, which may lead to increased social competence and coping skills, whereas poor conflict resolution may produce continued tension in the family and lead to more frequent episodes of conflict. Very little research has examined the effect of conflict resolution on children's response to marital conflict, a recent study supports the influence of conflict resolution on children's immediate response to conflict between others. Cummings et al. (1989) found that 6- to 9-year-old children, but not 4- and 5-year-olds, reported less negative affect when angry interactions between adults resulted in clear resolution of the conflict than when the conflict was left unresolved.

Demographic Variables:

In addition to investigating specific dimensions of marital conflict, a number of demographic variables that may influence the strength of the association between conflict and adjustment have been examined. The variables considered most often are children's gender, whether they have been referred for treatment, and their age.

Gender:

Early studies examining marital conflict and child adjustment found that conflict was more closely linked to behavior problems in boys than in girls (Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Hetherington et al., 1982; Porter & O'Leary, 1980), a finding consistent with studies of children's adjustment to divorce and other psychosocial stressors (Emery, 1988; Zaslow, 1989; Zaslow & Hayes, 1986). One explanation offered for this difference is that girls are more likely to be shielded from conflict than boys. However, it appears that boys and girls are equally likely to be exposed to and are equally aware of marital conflict (Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Porter & O'Leary, 1980). Consistent with this finding, more recent investigations have reported significant associations between marital conflict and girls' adjustment, suggesting that both boys and girls are adversely affected by exposure to interparental conflict (Emery & O'Leary, 1984; Johnson & O'Leary, 1987; Jouriles, Pfiffner, & O'Leary, 1988; Long et al., 1987; Peterson & Zill, 1986).

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Other studies using measures of marital satisfaction rather than marital conflict have found that marital distress is most closely related to externalizing problems in boys and internalizing problems in girls (Block et al., 1981; Hess & Camara, 1979; Whitehead, 1979). When marital conflict is assessed, however, these gender differences are not obtained. Several studies have reported significant relations between interparental conflict and internalizing and externalizing problems in both boys and girls (e.g., Johnson & O'Leary, 1987; Long et al., 1988). Thus, gender differences found in research investigating marital dissatisfaction and divorce do not appear to extend to studies specifically examining marital conflict and children's adjustment. It is likely, then, that gender differences in the form or incidence of behavior problems are due to some factor associated with marital distress or divorce other than interparental conflict.

Although there is evidence for sex differences in children's response to psychosocial stress (Zaslow & Hayes, 1986), studies examining boys' and girls' responses to background anger have produced inconsistent results. No sex differences were obtained in three of the studies conducted by Cummings and his colleagues (E. M. Cummings et al., 1981; E. M. Cummings, Zahn-Wexler, & Radke-Yarrow, 1984; J. S. Cummings, et al., 1989), but in two others they found that boys were more likely to respond to adult anger with aggression and anger than were girls, and girls tended to exhibit greater distress than boys (E. M. Cummings et al., 1985, 1989). Consistent with these latter studies, Feshbach (1970) argued that boys tend to respond to a stressor with aggression, whereas girls are more likely to inhibit their behavior (Block et al., 1981).

Clinic versus Non-Clinic Samples:
Stronger patterns of associations between marital conflict and child behavior problems tend to be found in families of clinic-referred children than in community volunteers. For example, Porter and O'Leary (1980) and Emery and O'Leary (1982) reported several correlations greater than .40 between marital conflict and subscales of the Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay, 1977) in samples of clinic referred children, whereas correlations between similar measures reported in studies using community samples rarely exceeded .35 (e.g., Emery & O'Leary, 1984; Wierson et al., 1988).

Whether clinic or non-clinic samples are used also has implications for whether sex differences are found in the association between interparental conflict and behavior problems. Studies that have found no relationship between conflict and behavior

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problems in girls have used clinic samples (Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Porter & O'Leary, 1980), whereas studies using community volunteers generally did not uncover sex differences (e.g., Emery & O'Leary, 1984, Wierson et al., 1988). Although this difference could be due to a larger number of boys than girls in clinic samples or to a higher incidence of externalizing than internalizing problems in clinic samples, both Emery and O'Leary (1982) and Porter and O'Leary (1980) studied roughly equal numbers of boys and girls who did not differ significantly in maternal reports of internalizing or externalizing problems.

Age of the Child:

Interestingly, one parameter that has not been consistently related to behavior problems is the age of the child. There has been little systematic research on age differences, but existing data suggest that no one age group is particularly vulnerable to the effects of marital conflict. Porter and O'Leary (1980) found that specific behavior problems were associated differentially with marital conflict at different ages for the boys in their sample, but did not test the differences between the correlations for statistical significance. Hetherington (1979, 1984) suggested that children of different ages differ in their awareness of and ability to cope with interparental conflict, but that no one particular age group is likely to be more affected than another. Although young children may be less able to cope with conflict, they are less likely to be aware of conflict and its implications, whereas older children have a larger repertoire of coping responses but are likely to be more aware of the causes and consequences of conflict (Hetherington, 1984; Hetherington, Stanley-Hagen, & Anderson, 1989). This idea has been supported by work on children's response to anger between adults, which shows that 4- to 5-year-old children evidence more distress, but also more adaptive coping responses, than 2- to 3-year-olds (E. M. Cummings, 1987).

Mechanisms Accounting For the Association between Marital Conflict and Child Problems:

Most of the hypotheses advanced to explain the relationship between marital conflict and children's adjustment have presumed that marital conflict affects children. This is a reasonable viewpoint because even though children's behavior is also likely to influence marital interaction (Bell, 1979), there is reason to believe that this association does not simply reflect child effects. For example, O'Leary and Emery (1984) reported

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that the probability of having a problem child given the existence of marital distress is greater than the probability of experiencing marital distress given the presence of a problem child, and improvement of a child's problem behavior does not seem to result in the alleviation of marital problems (Oltmanns, Broderick, & O'Leary, 1977). It is likely that the relation between marital and child problems is reciprocal, but given the goal of understanding the development of adjustment problems in children, and consistent with current theorizing, focus is needed on how marital conflict may affect children. Hypotheses offered to account for the association between marital conflict and child behavior problems can be divided into those positing direct effects of conflict on children's adjustment and those arguing that the impact of marital conflict is indirect and is mediated by parent–child relationships. The most frequently discussed direct mechanisms are modeling and stress, whereas hypotheses proposing indirect effects focus on changes in the character of parent–child interaction and discipline practices.

Modeling:

Modeling is perhaps the most appealing mechanism presumed to underlie the marital conflict–child behavior association because it is well documented that children tend to imitate their parents (Bandura, 1973, 1977). Because of their salience, affective relationship, and importance to their children, parents can be powerful models, particularly for the same-sex child. Children learn a great deal about interpersonal relationships from watching their parents (Belsky, 1981), and it may be that engaging in aggressive or hostile behaviors during conflicts provides children with maladaptive models of problem solving or conflict resolution.

One study that has attempted to relate parents' conflict behaviors to children's behavior problems provides some support for the modeling hypothesis. Johnson and O'Leary (1987) found that the mothers of girls with conduct disorders were more hostile and the fathers more aggressive than the mothers and fathers of girls without conduct disorders. The two groups of parents did not differ in marital satisfaction, suggesting that the behaviors exhibited by parents during conflict have greater impact than marital distress.

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Marital Conflict as a Stressor:

Marital conflict may also affect children by exposing them to a potentially intense stressor. Research on children's reactions to angry interactions between adults (background anger) indicates that exposure to parental conflict is stressful for most children; even children as young as 1 and 2 years exhibit distress when observing hostile parental interaction (Crockenberg, 1985; E. M. Cummings et al., 1981; 1984,1985, 1988 Dunn & Munn, 1985).

Parent–Child Relationships:

Interparental conflict may also be related to behavioral problems because it leads to a deterioration in parent–child relationships (Hess & Camera, 1979; Jouriles et al., 1987; O'Leary & Emery, 1984; Peterson & Zill, 1988). Parent–Child relationships may be affected in a number of ways. For example, parents might become withdrawn or hostile toward their children or might attempt to ally the child with them in a coalition against the other parent, thus creating loyalty conflicts for the child (Emery, Joyce, & Fincham, 1987; Margolin, 1981).

In support of the mediating role of parent–child relationships, Tschann et al. (1989) reported that pre-divorce marital conflict was related to post-separation behavior problems and emotional adjustment only indirectly through its association with the quality of parent–child relationships. In contrast, Peterson and Zill (1986) found that children living in intact families marked by moderate or high levels of conflict exhibited higher levels of behavior problems than children in low-conflict families after adjusting for parent–child relationships. Although Peterson and Zill (1986) reported that higher quality parent–child relationships were related to lower levels of marital conflict, they concluded that conflict is a significant predictor of behavior problems independent of parent–child relationships. It is difficult to resolve the discrepancy in the findings from these two studies because the studies differed on a number of important dimensions, including the type of sample, instruments used to measure the constructs, who rated conflict and parent–child relationships, and data-analytic strategies. More research clearly is needed before conclusions can be drawn regarding the role of parent–child relationships in mediating the association between marital conflict and children's adjustment.

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Several studies investigating the relation between marital discord, parent–child relations, and children's adjustment have assessed marital satisfaction rather than marital conflict. For example, Hess and Camara (1979) assessed marital harmony and parent–child relationships through interviews with divorced and nondivorced families, and found that parent–child relationships accounted for more variance in child behavior problems than did marital harmony. However, the criteria Hess and Camara (1979) used to evaluate marital harmony are unclear, and so it is difficult to determine the extent to which this variable assessed parental conflict versus marital satisfaction. Studies assessing marital satisfaction provide only indirect tests of the relationship between conflict, parent–child relationships, and child behavior. However, decreased marital satisfaction is associated with both increased conflict and poorer parent–child relations (Brody, Pillegrini, & Siegal, 1986; Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984; Johnson & Lobitz, 1974) and thus these studies highlight the importance of the parent–child relationship for understanding the association between marital conflict and child behavior. For example, frequently occurring marital conflict may lead to greater deterioration in parent-child relationships as children become more aware of and possibly more involved in parental conflict. Children may feel they need to choose sides in the conflict or a parent may come to resent a child if he or she is perceived as a cause of conflict (O'Leary & Emery, 1984).

Marital conflict and parent–child relations also may be linked because the hostility and aggression expressed during marital conflict may be reproduced in the parent–child relationship. Interspousal aggression has been found to be related to parent–child aggression (e.g., Jouriles et al., 1987), and parent–child aggression is related to many of the same problems as marital conflict: conduct problems, anxiety/withdrawal, and motor excess in boys and anxiety/withdrawal in girls (e.g., Jouriles et al., 1987, 1989; Wolfe et al., 1985).

Finally, it has been proposed that the impact of marital conflict may be mediated by changes in a particular aspect of parent–child relations, discipline practices (Emery, 1982). Marital conflict has been associated with within- and between-parent inconsistency in disciplining daughters (Stoneman, Brody, & Burke, 1989), and inconsistent discipline has been linked to conduct problems and aggression as well as to juvenile delinquency (Patterson, 1977, 1986; Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984). In

a longitudinal study, Block et al. (1981) found that parental disagreement about discipline was related to both subsequent divorce and later externalizing problems in boys and internalizing problems in girls. Discipline may also play a role by being the source of some parental conflicts. Since such conflicts concern the child directly, he or she is particularly likely to be exposed to them.

Although changes in discipline practices can affect children's behavior, marital conflict does not invariably lead to inconsistent discipline. To determine if changes in discipline account for the association between child behavior problems and marital conflict, it is necessary to show that conflict first leads to inconsistent discipline, which then causes behavior problems. If marital conflict and changes in discipline simply co-occur, it may be that conflict leads to behavior problems, which then cause parents to change or become less effective in their discipline practices. Additionally, the hypothesis that changes in discipline underlie the marital conflict–child behavior association does not explain why exposure to parental conflict is more closely related to child behavior problems than is encapsulated conflict. It may be that as conflict becomes increasingly intense and more frequent, children are more likely to be exposed to it and discipline practices are also more likely to be affected, but this possibility has not been investigated.

With reference to family conflict styles, Rands, Levinger, and Mellinger (1981) defined three major styles of conflict resolution: attacking, avoiding, and compromising or discussing. An "attacking" resolution style involves being verbally abusive, angry, and sarcastic; an "avoiding" style involves withdrawing after arguments, avoiding talking, and becoming cool and distant. Adopting a "discussing" style involves trying to understand a partner's feelings, as well as using reasoning tactics to smooth things over and work out a compromise. Each of these patterns has been shown to have varying effects on the quality of the marital relationship (Canary & Cupach, 1988), and the small amount of research to date has supported the importance of parental resolution styles for children's adjustment.

Kempton, Thomas, and Forehand (1989) found that resolution style predicted the largest amount of variance in adolescent's responses to parental conflict. Also, although there was an overall association between resolution and maladaptive child

behavior, it was fathers' use of verbal and physical aggression that elicited the most negative reactions from children. Camara and Resnick (1989) found that verbal attacks and avoidance tactics used by the mother and father to resolve conflict, as well as physically violent behavior from the father, were associated with poorer adjustment. On the other hand, parents who used negotiation and compromise to resolve disagreements were more likely to have children who displayed greater social competence in interactions with their peers. It should be noted that these studies typically measure dimensions of conflict using parental reports. Grych and Fincham (1990) argued that parental reports of conflict may actually underestimate the amount of conflict to which children are exposed. Further, a number of researchers have shown child reports of marital conflict to be better predictors of their own adjustment than parental reports (Cummings, Davies, & Simpson, 1994; Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Fincham, Grych, & Osborne, 1994; Grych, Seid, & Fincham, 1992).

The review of literature shows that Parental interaction behaviors have a negative or positive impact on children's development, suppressing the children's opportunities to initiate activities or requests. Other studies also verify the correlation between Parental behaviors and child development. Others have concluded that the Parents' directive behavior may be an appropriate adaptive response to the children's developmental levels (Crawley & Spiker, 1983; Marfo, 1992; Marfo & Kysela, 1988). Again, more controlled studies are needed to validate this conclusion.

In Pakistani context, the researches on parental acceptance rejection have been done before using the PARQ/ Control and PAQ. Working on the PAR theory of Rohner, Haque (1987) found out that rejecting parents are usually hostile and quarrelsome, lacking in emotional affection towards the child. Parental acceptance-rejection theory is theory of socialization, which attempts to explain and predict major consequences of rejection for behavioral, cognitive and emotional development of children and for personality functioning of adult everywhere. The researches and clinical reports support the expectation that have been implicated in a wide range of psychiatric and behavioral disorders (Sheikh & Haque, 1994). The postulates of the theory are supported by converging evidence from cultural and cross cultural studies and numerous psychological studies in the West, as well as in the East including Pakistan (Haque,

1987; sheikh & Zohra, 1994). Hassan (1979) and Nasir (1979) reported that among the family problems the most important were neglect by parents and harsh by the fathers.

There are numerous studies that have been done in Pakistan related to Parental Control, and its effect on the children. Hamid (1986) found that children who have poor and inadequate adjustment come from authoritarian and strict parents. Tariq and Durrani (1983) found that adverse control and support combination of parenting style was present for habitual criminals. Children who are more securely attached and normal come form warm and loving families (Riaz, 1991). Karim (1986) found that aggression in the children is conditioned by the aggression in the parenting style, so the children of aggressive parents were found to be aggressive. Sajjad (1993) found the same results studying the relationship of individual psychopathology and the family and found that disturbance in parental relationship affects the psychological condition of the children.

Great amount of work has also been done using the Rohner's theory of parental acceptance/rejection cross-culturally. Researches all over the world including Asia, Africa, America and Europe have produced results consistent to the theory's predictions that children who are accepted have a positive effect on their self, perception and personality (Cournoyer, 2000; Reddy, 1986; Rohner, 1980; Rohner, 1990; Rohner, 1975). Researches have been done in Sudan (Ahmed et al, 1987), hong kong (Bastos et al, 1996), Nigeria (Bello, 1985), African amrican population (Bluestone & Tamis, 1999), Italy (Britner et al, 2003; Comunian & Todorov, 1999), China (Chen & Rubin, 1994; 1995), Korea (Choi & Son, 1998), Mexico (Comunian & Gielen, 1999a), Sweden (Kitahara, 1987), Czech republic (Matejcek & Kadubcova, 1983; 1984), India (Reddy, 1986) and many more places all around the world.

Many researches have also focused on marital conflicts and how this effects directly and indirectly the personality of children. The role of marital relationship in children's development has been well studied. One of the most frequent studied pathways between marital quality and child adjustment in parent-child relations. According to this view, the causal pain begins with marital discord, which in turn causes disrupted parenting, which in turn causes child behavior problems (Mann & Mackenzie, 1996). Although the literature includes studies that support the interrelatedness of marital relations and parent-child relations, other studies have not supported this claim.

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Some assert that positive parent-child relations are unlikely amid poor marital quality. As Erel and Burman (1995) stated, "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" (p- 109).

By contrast the other researches assert that positive parent child relations may amid poor marital relations, and that these positive relations buffer the impact of marital discord of children. These researches say that the effect of a stressful marital relationship may increase the amount and quality of attention paid to the child. This may be due to compensation for a lack of closeness within the marital relationship (Brody, Pillegrini & Sigel, 1986). Erel and Burman stated that "positive marital relationship quality is associated with negative parent-child relationship quality , and negative marital relationship quality is associated with positive parent-child relationship quality (p. 109).

The later researches however supported that positive marital relations have positive effects on children (Erel & Burman, 1995; Mann & MacKenzie, 1996). Like Framo (1981), Erel and Burman (1995) recommended that clinical interventions target the marital relationship when treating symptomatic children. They stated that "efforts to improve parent-child interactions may be enhanced by addressing parents' marital difficulties" and "in treating children, assessment of parents' ,marital relationship is as important as the assessment of the parent-child relationship" (p. 128).

Cross-Cultural Differences: Individualism and Collectivism

A general interest in individualism and collectivism and similar oppositions has lasted at least two centuries. For instance, theorists have discussed such concepts as Gesellschaft and Cemeinschaft (Tonnies, 1957), particularism and universalism (Parsons and Shills, 1952), and individualism and collateralism (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). A systematic investigation of individualism and collectivism, however, has started only recently (e.g., Hofstede. 1980; Hui, 1984; Leung and Bond, 1984; Triandis et al, 1986).

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Individualistic Culture:

Western Conceptions of Person: An Application: Lukes's analysis of Individualism (1973a, 1973b) provided a starting point. Lukes analyzed various texts of several national origins (e.g., France, Germany, England, and the United States of America) to conclude that eleven unit-ideas are in the writings of Individualism. actor-behavior-target-context model assumes that symbolic structures concerning social action have four variables: Actor, behavior, target, and context. Thus actor behaves toward a target in a context. This conceptual framework is common in Social psychology (e.g.," Kelley, 1967; Runkel and McGrath. 1972; Gollob, 1974; also see Greimas, 1968), and suitable to analyses of Western texts because it originated in the Western culture; its authenticity is guaranteed.

The eleven unit-ideas of Individualism are as follows.

1. **Dignity of man:** Humans exist as an end in themselves, not merely as a means.

2. **Individual self-development:** The individual's major objective in life is to actualize him or herself.

3 **Autonomy:** The individual makes his or her own decisions. He or she evaluates the norms and the rules of conduct, and reaches decisions by his or her own reasoning.

4- **Privacy:** A private space exists within a public world in which the individual is free from interference, and is able to do and think whatever he or she chooses. The public world or society is seen as a potential interference with the Individual's private life.

5. **Abstract individual:** A society consists of individuals who are endowed with a given set of capacities and needs that are largely fixed; all social arrangements are considered to be a means to satisfy individuals as such.

Collectivistic Culture:

The growing Interest In the dimension of Individualism-collectivism in a country such as India arises out of its relevance for national development. Individualism is often associated with modernity (Berger, Berger, & Keliner, 1973) and economic growth (Adelman & Morris, 1967; Cobb, 1976; Hofstede, 1980). But it is also accompanied by social pathology such as crime, suicide, child abuse, emotional stress, physical and mental illness (Cobb, 1976; Naroll, 1983). Collectivism, on the contrary, is found to be correlated to the instances of happy marriages (Antill. 1983). It is also characterized by greater social support which acts as shock absorber of stresses and strains of life. Hence collectivism is more conducive to mental health and social harmony (Gottieb, 1983) which are now recognized to be the important ingredients of social development.

In every study comparing American parents to those of other cultures, even in other industrialized nations, the goal U.S. parents overwhelmingly stress is making their children independent – socially and economically. This primary emphasis on self-reliance, Small-notes, colors everything American parents do to socialize their children, "as if this were the most natural and normal – in fact the only – way to proceed through life" (Small, 1998, p. 104).

Collectivist societies, however, point their children in a different direction. Many immigrant parents from traditional cultures, for example, see their children's primary role as contributing members of the family unit (Quiroz & Greenfield, 1999). Children are expected to understand and act on a strong sense of responsibility toward the group, the family, and the community. Self-worth and esteem are not defined chiefly in terms of individual achievement. They derive, rather, from "the performance of self-sacrificing acts that create social links and bonds" (Quiroz & Greenfield, 1999 p. 6). In sharp contrast, young people in individualistic societies are typically expected to make educational and occupational choices that develop their own potential – not necessarily with any consideration for how their success would benefit their families.

Individualism and Collectivism At Home

Collectivism and individualism reflect fundamentally different perceptions about knowledge, cognition, and social development. Collectivistic societies are quite hierarchical, and social interaction is strongly defined by age and gender. Children in such societies are less likely to be asked to formulate and share their opinions or to talk about what they are learning in school. The role of sharing opinions and knowledge is reserved for people with higher status (Delgado-Gaitan 1994), and children are taught to respect their elders as the sources of knowledge and wisdom for their community.

Individualistic societies, in contrast, do not see knowledge and wisdom as the special province of designated elders. The self-expression children commonly exhibit toward adults in much of American society would be interpreted as a lack of proper respect in a collectivistic society (Valdés 1996).

Parents in collectivistic cultures tend to cultivate both more psychological and physical closeness with their children. Such closeness is associated with teaching and managing children by "osmosis" more than by verbal means (Azuma 1991). Children are held more and often sleep with their parents when small; infants are carried or otherwise physically close to mothers or other caretakers at all times. In contrast, parents in more individualistic cultures often encourage children to amuse themselves independently and discourage them from requiring constant adult attention (Greenfield & Suzuki 1998).

Even the role of toys is different in collectivistic and individualistic societies. In a collectivistic culture, a toy is an opportunity for sharing. In a more individualistic society it is a source of independent activity, often seen as an opportunity to foster a highly valued "technological intelligence" analytic thinking removed from its larger social context, as defined by Mundy-Castle (1974)

The collectivistic orientation also extends to notions of property, with the boundaries of ownership less fixed (Quiroz & Greenfield, in press). Personal items such as clothing, books, and toys are readily shared and are often seen as family rather than private property. These culturally different approaches to material goods include land

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and natural resources. Indigenous peoples have traditionally regarded the earth as something humans have custody of but do not own. The legacy of these orientations is with us today. Collectivist societies still tend to share resources and cooperate to carry out tasks in agriculture and animal husbandry, as well as in other realms. Though many environmentally conscious citizens in this country would prefer a more cooperative and caring approach to preserving the planet, the ethos of private property presents a formidable obstacle. The United States has created public parks and preserves, but the notion persists that each person is solely responsible for his or her own property.

The first step then is to examine the structure of collectivism. Triandis (1983) has suggested that individualism-collectivism may be studied In terms of the number and the influence of ingroups. In collectivism, there is a greater "emphasis on (a) the views, needs, and goals of the Ingroups rather than on self, (b) social norms and duty defined by the ingroup rather than behavior to get pleasure, (c) beliefs shared within the ingroup rather than beliefs that distinguish oneself from Ingroup. and (d) greater readiness to cooperate within Ingroup members" (p.23). In other words, collectivism manifests in (a) the beliefs and practices with reflect individual's embeddedness In their ingroups and (b) the influence of ingroups on the Individuals. Ingroups may range from small nuclear family to a nation as a whole. Their influence may be confined to a narrow domain or could be quite pervasive. In a collectivist culture such as in India, ingroups are expected to be fewer but they might have a great deal of Influence. It is also believed that family and close relatives constitute the most influential ingroups in a collectivist culture.

Triandis (1985) has further distinguished individual level collectivism from cultural level collectivism; the former Indicates the extent to which Individuals perceive themselves being embedded in their ingroups and the latter signifies the extent to which the people in a culture are perceived believing and plasticizing according to the group norms. For heuristic purposes, the first is designated as allocentrism and the second collectivism. Individualism at the individual level is labeled as idiocentrism in contrast to individualism at the cultural level.

One of the correlates of collectivism seems to be the relationship orientation of people. People in a collectivist culture tend to behave according to the social norms

which are often designed to maintain social harmony among the members of an ingroup. They meet the expectations of the Ingroup members, help each other, share scarce resources, tolerate each other's views, and minimize conflict. In other words, they maintain normative or obligatory relationships. In many instances positive affect is invested in such behaviors transforming the obligatory relationships into complementary relationships. Complementary relationships are enjoyable in themselves and arc engaged without any ulterior motive. Individualistic / cultures on the contrary foster contractual relationships which are based on the principles of exchange. People calculate profit and loss before engaging in behavior. Affect is missing in such relationships.

Therefore if we draw a line, we come to know that close relationship has been found in the literature between three variable being studied in the present research i.e., Marital adjustment, Perceived parental acceptance rejection and Personality of children. The present study is multi purpose, along with dealing with Parents and children, it targets the two populations considered opposite in terms of their values and life styles i.e., Pakistan (Collectivistic culture) and United States of America (Individualistic culture). Therefore this study has exploratory, comparative as well as cross-cultural implications.

Rationale of the Study:

Family is an important unit and in this unit Parent child relationship is considered very important. Parental bonding with one another is as important as the relationship of a child with parents. This relationship is reciprocal where one effect the other, parental relationship is affected by children and children are under the influence of how parents cope with one another.

Since children and parents are living together in a same proximity, their attitudes, perceptions are developed for one another; these perceptions play a very important role in determining how harmonious the relationship is. Children who observe their parents to be hostile and quarreling over a conflict are affected psychologically. They can not only start perceiving them as hostile and aggressive but can also start imitating what they do. Thus conflicting inter-parental relationship has consequences on the personality, attitudes and perception of children.

If we study cross-culturally, we come to know that family unit or the definition of family differs, in a western culture a family unit is consists of just parents and their children living together, they are not under the direct influence of anyone else outside. Other family relatives are considered the part of family but not the household. Western culture thus promotes the values that support their life style of independence. They are taught and are brought-up keeping in mind that they have to make their own life independent of anyone else. Self is what is more important than others. As mentioned earlier such kind of culture is knows as individualistic culture, promoting individuality and independence.

Pakistani or eastern culture on the other hand gives a complete contrast. This culture has an entirely different definition and understanding to the word family. In this culture family does not only consists of parents and children but also close relatives, grand parents. All these members may or may not be living together but they definitely have a strong impact on family's decisions even if they are about a child. The culture is Collectivistic in nature, where children are brought-up with a group orientation, where they focus on group goals and consider everyone more important than self.

If we keep all these things in mind, we can see that parental bonding, their relationship with children might be less affected by parental conflicts since living under the influence of a huge family can put these conflicts on the background and making other things influence a child's perception and personality more. The bonding of a child with parents can be on a different dimension, along with the possibility that child's personality is less affected by the relationship of parents. Similarly how he/she perceives them can also differ as he is under the influence of his/her other relatives in combine family, especially elders and grandparents.

Many researches in the past have been done on broken families and showed that it affects the personalities of children. It is believed that families that are intact also influence the child's life if conflicts occur.

These issues mentioned above were the target of the present study. Comparing the two cultures that have two entirely different way of life would give the idea as to how much the parental marital relationship effects children, and whether this relationship between children and parents differ in any way. How the personalities of children are shaped and how much it is affected by parental warmth, control and their marital coping techniques.

Present research studies a whole family unit, consisting of parents and children, three variables are measured cross-culturally. It studies the marital coping strategies used by parents, how children perceive their parents on the dimensions of warmth and rejection, and what are the personality attributes present in those children. This study also focuses on finding the relationship between these variables i.e., how the coping mechanism of parents affect the perceived parental acceptance/rejection and personality attributes of children.

METHOD

2. METHOD

This study compares perceived parental acceptance rejection and how it is related to their self-reported personality of children. Moreover, this study explores the relationship of these two variables with Marital coping of parents.

Objectives:

The Following are the objectives to be addressed in the present study;

1. To compare the Marital Coping of the Parents of Pakistani and American families using the Marital Coping Inventory.

2. To compare the perceived Parental acceptance/rejection of children of Pakistani and American families using Parental acceptance/rejection control questionnaire.

3. To compare the self-perception of children of Pakistani and American families using Personality assessment questionnaire.

4. To study the effects of Marital coping of parents on Perceived parental acceptance/rejection and self-perception of children.

Population:

The population of the study included families of middle socio-economic class in Pakistan (Islamabad and Rawalpindi) and United States (Virginia, Maryland and Washington D.C).

Sample:

Respondents are selected according to the required criterion previously set, through convenience sampling. The total sample included 50 families (300 individuals). The subjects were selected purposively, consisting of the following inclusion criterion:

1. Families who had at least one child of age 7-13,
2. Only those children whose both parents were alive.

3. Families that were intact; parents not divorced and were living with their children.

4. Families who were born in the country they were living in. (apply for the sample of both Pakistan and United states)

The families were selected using the convenience sampling technique from the target population, according to the criterion.

Instruments:

There are three scales used in this study, the description of each is given below.

i. Parental Acceptance -Rejection Control Questionnaire:

The Parental Acceptance-Rejection/ Control questionnaire was developed by Rohner, Saaverda, and Granum in 1980, has been widely used to measure the warmth dimension of parenting style. There are two parts of the questionnaire, maternal and paternal each containing 72 items. In the present study Urdu version of PARQ/ Control has been used that was developed in 1981, while in this study, the latest version (revised 2004) is used.

An analysis of the reliability of translated PARQ showed that the instrument is psychometrically adequate (Haque, 1981, 1987). Karim indicated strong internal consistency of all the scales of PARQ/ Control. PARQ has been used in Pakistan in various studies (for example, Haque, 1981, 1987; Karim, 1986; Riaz, 1991; Shah, Malik, and Jaffari, 1994; Sheikh & Haque, 1994). Mean test/retest reliability of the Child PARQ across time spans ranging from three weeks through 10 years is .62. Internal reliabilities (Coefficient alpha) of the scales on the child PARQ/Control, range from .72 to .90 (Rohner, 2000)

Child PARQ/ Control measures the way children from 7-13 years of age perceive their mothers and fathers treatment with them. The questionnaire contains 72 items, and in five subscales that assess perceived maternal (or paternal) warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, undifferentiated rejection, and control.

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The questionnaire items are scored on a 4-point Likert-like scale with "almost always true" assigned a score of 4, and "almost never true" assigned a score of 1. In order to avoid response set bias, some items are keyed in the opposite direction and thus are reverse scored.

ii. Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ):

Child PAQ contain the same scales assessing self-reports about the seven personality dispositions most central to PAR Theory's personality sub-theory. The Child version contains 42 items. The Urdu version of Child PAQ has been used in this study, translated by Haque (revised 2000). (see Annexure V)

Children respond to PAQ items on a four-point Likert-like scale ranging from "almost always true of me" assigned a score of 4, to "almost never true of me" assigned a score of 1. A profile of an individual's overall self-reported psychological adjustment is achieved by summing the seven scale-scores after reverse scoring appropriate items.(see Annexure VI). Scores on the Child PAQ range from a low of 42 indicating healthy psychological adjustment, to a high of 168 indicating serious psychological maladjustment.

Mean test/retest reliability of the Child PAQ across time spans ranging from one through 18 months is .61. The reliability coefficient is .76 (Rohner, Greene, & Rohner, 1996).

iii. Marital Coping Inventory (MCI):

This questionnaire measures the primary strategies used by married coupes to cope with recurring marital problems. The MCI was developed by Bowman (1990). Marital coping inventory was developed by Bowman in 1990, while it was translated in Urdu by Sarwar in 1994.

It is a list of 64 strategies sometimes used by married couple and other engaged in long term relationships. Respondents are asked to describe the most serious recurring problem they have with their partner ad to rate the seriousness of that problem on a five point rating scale. The 64 items follow, with each relating to strategies used with the previously described problem. The stem "when I am dealing with this problem, i...." is

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used with all items. Respondents indicate on 5-point scale, how frequently they employ each tactic.

The scale has been divided into 5 subscales (factors), which are, conflict (15 items), introspective self-blame (15 items), positive approach (14 items), self-interest (9 items), and avoidance (11 items). Six Items are reverse scored, and scale scores are calculated by summing response values within dimensions.

Alpha reliability for the five subscales is 0.88(conflict), 0.88 (introspective self-blame), 0.82 (positive approach), 0.82 (self-interest), and 0.77 (avoidance) (Bowman, 1990)

The five point rating scale assesses the degree of disagreement of individuals. Most of the statements are negatively scored and their scoring is reversed. The scale is scored on 5 point rating scale, ranging from 1 (mostly) to 5 (never). The high scores on the scale denote low marital coping/adjustment. The scores range from 64- 320, where the former denotes high while the later denotes low Marital coping in couples.

Procedure:

The following step-by-step procedure was followed for the present study.

Pilot Study:

Pilot study was conducted to find out the relationship between the variables of the study. The sample for pilot study was collected from Rawalpindi and Islamabad according to Inclusion criterion.

Sample: Pilot study was done on 14 Pakistani Families (42 individuals) who were selected using convenience sampling technique.

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                    ┌─────────────┐
                    │ Pilot Study │
                    └─────────────┘
                           │
                     14 Pakistani
                       Families
                           │
        ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
   14 Couples                             14 children
   (Parents)                                    │
        │                           ┌───────────┴───────────┐
   ┌────┴────┐                  7 Male                  7 Female
   14       14                 Children                 Children
 fathers   Mothers                 └──────────┬──────────┘
   └────┬────┘                                │
        │                                     │
        │                                     │
  Marital Coping         Parental Acceptance      Personality
   Inventory             Rejection (PARQ)          Assessment
                                                     (PAQ)
```
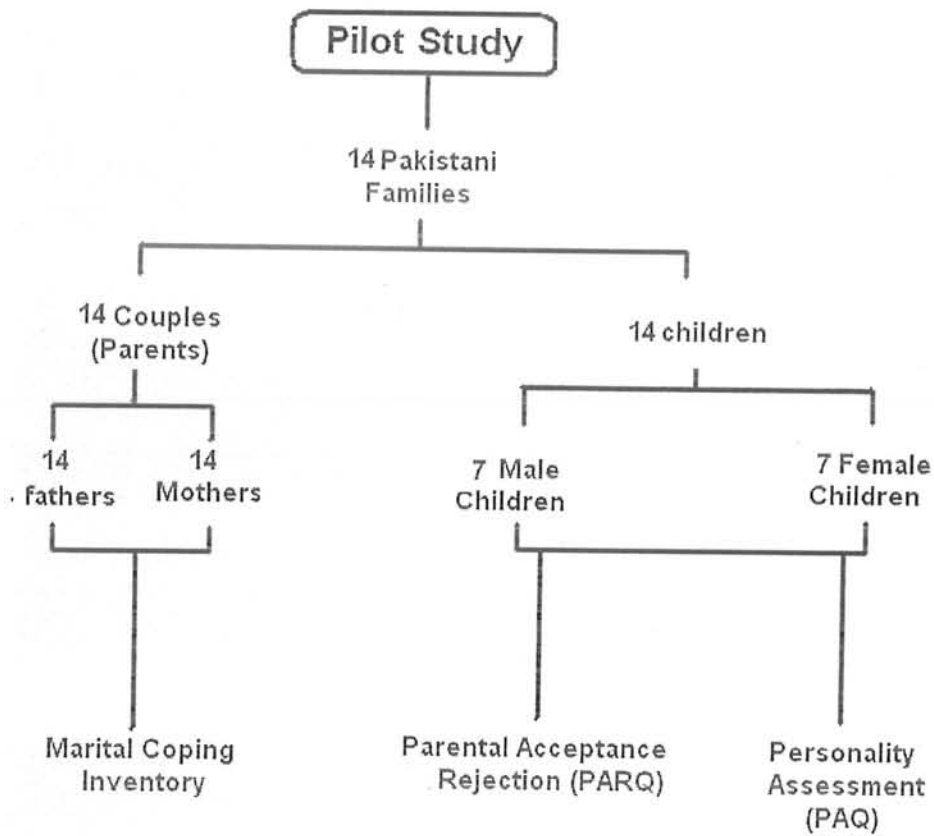
Method: The families were contacted and the permission was taken on the telephone to allow the researcher to work with them. The families of who were willing were contacted again and rapport was built, explaining the purpose of their study, stressing confidentiality and asking for their consent. Those who agreed were asked to fill the questionnaires. The analysis of the pilot study data was done in order to check if any changes were required to be made either in the process or the questionnaire itself.

Alpha reliability was calculated for each questionnaire in order to see if the scales can be used for the main study. Very high alpha reliabilities were found on each scale.

Calculated alpha reliabilities on parental acceptance rejection scale were .78 (Warmth), .67 (Aggression, .69 (Neglect), .76 (Rejection), .81 (Total warmth) and .70 (control).

Calculated alpha reliabilities on child personality assessment questionnaire on the subscales and total scores were .67 (Hostility), .71 (Dependency), .88 (Negative

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self-esteem), .84 (Negative self-adequacy, .79 (Emotional unresponsiveness), .82 (Emotional instability, .74 (Negative world view and .80 (Total score).

Calculated Alpha Reliabilities on the subscales of Marital coping inventory were .77 (Conflict), .71 (Introspective self-blame), .80 (Positive approach), .67 (Self-interest) and .82 (Avoidance).

Main Study:

Sample: The sample for the main study consists of families from Pakistan and United States. Total 100 families were included, out of which 50 belonged to Pakistan while 50 were from United States. Sample was selected using convenience sampling both from Pakistan and United States.

Procedure: The families falling on the required criterion were contacted using convenience sampling and the purpose of the study was explained to them. Complete confidentiality and privacy was also promised. The families who agreed were then given the scales. It is important to note here that children were given scales by the researcher in the absence of the parents so that they don't feel compelled to fill in the desirable responses. The process of data collection took about three months. The data was first collected from Pakistan and then from United States.

```
                          100 Families
                               |
        ┌──────────────────────┴──────────────────────┐
   50 Pakistani                                   50 American
    Families                                        Families
        |                                               |
   ┌────┴────┐                                      ┌────┴────┐
50 Couples    50 children              50 children    50 Couples
(Parents)                                            (Parents)
   |      ┌──────┴──────┐          ┌──────┴──────┐        |
   |   25 Male      25 Female   25 Male      25 Female    |
   |   Children     Children    Children     Children     |
   |      └──────────┬──────────────┬──────────┘          |
 ┌─┴─┐               |              |               ┌─────┴─────┐
 50    50            |              |              50      50
fathers Mothers      |              |            fathers  Mothers
 └──┬──┘             |              |              └────┬────┘
    |                |              |                   |
Marital Coping  Parental Accepance  Personality   Marital Coping
 Inventory      Rejection (PARQ)   Assessment (PAQ)  Inventory
```
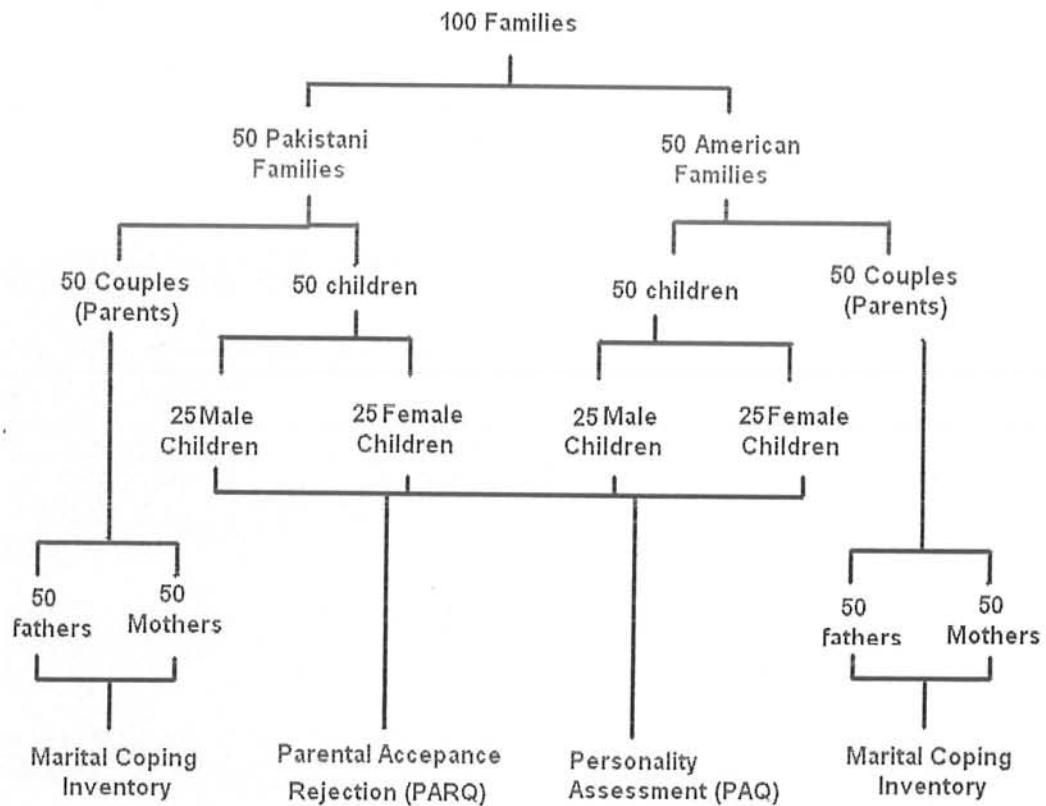
Data Analysis:

The appropriate statistical analysis was done using SPSS. The results were calculated in three sections, the following statistics are calculated using SPSS

1. The percentages for Demographic features
2. t-test for comparing the scores of samples.
3. The correlations between the scales to find out the relationship between the variables.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

3. DATA ANALYSIS

The present study is a cross cultural study, comparing families from Pakistan and United Sates. This research studies the Marital coping of parents and how it affects the Perceived parental warmth and rejection, as well as the effect of both variables on the self-perception of children. This chapter of the study deals with statistical analysis and results. The analysis has been done in three parts,

a) The First part deals with the percentages and frequencies of demographic features.

b) Second part has the alpha reliability coefficients of the sample for all the scales used in the research.

c) In the third part t-test is calculated for comparing scores on Marital coping Inventory.

d) In the fourth part t-test is calculated for comparing Parental acceptance rejection scores.

e) The Fifth part deals with t-test for personality assessment/ self-perception scores

f) The Final part has the correlation analysis between the subscales and questionnaires, to find out the correlation between target variables

Section 1: Demographic Features:

Table 1:

Frequency and percentage of Education level of Parents of USA (N= 100).

Educational Level	Husbands(USA) (N= 50)		Wives(USA) (N= 50)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No-education	0	0	0	0
High school	12	24	16	32
College	32	64	30	60
Masters and above	6	12	4	8
Total	50	100	50	100

Table 1 shows the education level of parents of United States, it shows that greatest percentage of husbands were college graduates (N=50, percentage= 64%), while no one in them was illiterate, all of them completed at least high school (N=50, percentage=24%). Same was with the case of wives, where the highest percentage of them had completed college education (N=50, percentage= 60%)

Table 2:

Frequency and percentage of Education level of Parents of Pakistan (N= 100).

Educational Level	Husbands (PK) (N= 50)		Wives(PK) (N= 50)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No-education	0	0	2	4
High school	16	32	20	40
College	23	46	21	42
Masters and above	11	22	7	14
Total	50	100	50	100

Table above shows the education level of parents of Pakistan, it shows that greatest percentage of husbands were college graduates (N=50, percentage= 46%), while no one in them was illiterate, all of them completed at least high school (N=50, percentage=32%). Same was with the case of wives, where the highest percentage of them had completed college education (N=50, percentage= 42%), while only 4% were illiterate.

Table3:

Birth order of Children of United States and Pakistan (N=100).

Birth order of the Child	Children (USA) (N= 50)		Children (PK) (N= 50)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
First Born	25	50	12	24
Second Born	21	42	24	48
Third Born	4	8	6	12
Fourth Born	0	0	3	6
Fifth Born	0	0	5	10
Total	50	100	50	100

Table 3 above shows the birth order of the children who were part of the research. In United States half of the children were first born (n=50, percentage=50%), and none of them was fourth or fifth born, since they have small families as compared to Pakistan. On the other hand, Pakistani children had highest percentage on 2nd born (n=50, percentage= 48%)

Section 2: Alpha Reliabilities

Table 4:

Alpha Reliability coefficient of the total and Subscales of PARQ/C English version (N=100).

Subscales of PARQ/C	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability
Warmth/Affection	20	.87
Aggression/Hostility	15	.76
Neglect/Indifference	15	.69
Rejection/Undifferentiated rejection	10	.77
Total Warmth	60	.92
Control	12	.82

Table 4 represents the alpha reliability of the total and the subscales of parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire, English version. The values indicate very high reliability on all the subscales, highest being in Total Warmth (.92) and lowest on the subscale measuring neglect (.69)

Table 5:

Alpha Reliability coefficient of the total and Subscales of PARQ/C, Urdu version (N=100).

Subscales of PARQ/C	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability
Warmth/Affection	20	.69
Aggression/Hostility	15	.82
Neglect/Indifference	15	.77
Rejection/Undifferentiated rejection	10	.79
Total Warmth	60	.87
Control	12	.78

Table 5 represents the alpha reliability of the total and the subscales of parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire, Urdu version. The values indicate very high reliability on all the subscales, highest being in Total Warmth (.87) and lowest on the subscale measuring warmth and affection (.69)

Table 6:

Alpha Reliability coefficient of the Total and Subscales of Child PAQ, English Version (N=50).

Subscales of child PAQ	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability
Hostility/ Aggression	6	.77
Dependency	6	.72
Negative Self Esteem	6	.83
Negative Self-Adequacy	6	.80
Emotional Unresponsiveness	6	.75
Emotional Instability	6	.65
Negative World View	6	.79
Total PAQ	42	.90

Table 6 represents the alpha reliability of the total and the subscales of personality assessment questionnaire, English version. The values indicate very high reliability on all the subscales, highest being in Total PAQ(.90) and lowest on the subscale measuring emotional instability (.65).

Table 7:

Alpha Reliability coefficient of the Total and Subscales of Child PAQ, Urdu Version (N=50).

Subscales of child PAQ	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability
Hostility/ Aggression	6	.80
Dependency	6	.91
Negative Self Esteem	6	.89
Negative Self-Adequacy	6	.75
Emotional Unresponsiveness	6	.71
Emotional Instability	6	.76
Negative World View	6	.68
Total PAQ	42	.88

Table 7 above represents the alpha reliability of the total and the subscales of personality assessment questionnaire. The values indicate very high reliability on all the subscales, highest being in Dependency (.91) and lowest on the subscale measuring Negative world view (.68).

Table 8:

Alpha Reliability coefficient of the Subscales of Marital Coping Inventory, English version (N=100).

Subscales of MCI	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability
Conflict	15	.69
Introspective Self-Blame	15	.72
Positive approach	14	.79
Self-interest	9	.88
Avoidance	11	.85

Table 8 above represents the alpha reliability of the subscales of Marital Coping Inventory, English Version. The values indicate very high reliability on all the subscales, highest being in self-interest (.88) and lowest on the subscale measuring Conflict (.69).

Table 9:

Alpha Reliability coefficient of the Subscales of Marital Coping Inventory, Urdu version.(N=100).

Subscales of MCI	No. of Items	Alpha Reliability
Conflict	15	.78
Introspective Self-Blame	15	.71
Positive approach	14	.90
Self-interest	9	.87
Avoidance	11	.82

Table 9 represents the alpha reliability of the subscales of Marital Coping Inventory, Urdu Version. The values indicate very high reliability on all the subscales, highest being in Positive approach (.90) and lowest on the subscale measuring introspective self-blame (.71).

Section 3: T-Test: Marital Coping Inventory

Table 10:

Comparison of couples of USA and Pakistan on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

Dimension of Marital Coping (as measured by MCI)	Couples (USA) (n=50)		Couples (PK) (n=50)		*t*	*p.*
	M	SD	M	SD		
Conflict	49.50	6.53	32.10	6.63	18.68	.0001*
Self blame	32.80	6.50	49.60	7.71	16.64	.0001*
Positive approach	35.00	10.40	50.30	6.30	12.57	.0001*
Self Interest	26.50	5.43	18.00	6.25	10.26	.0001*
Avoidance	37.20	8.81	22.60	8.03	12.24	.0001*

*df =98, *p <0.05*

Table 10 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of scores of couples on Marital Coping Inventory. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the subscales of Marital Coping indicating that Pakistani couples use completely different strategies in conflict resolution among themselves as compared to the Couples living in America.

Table 11:

Comparison of Scores of American Husbands and wives on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

Dimension of Marital Coping (as measured by MCI)	Husbands (USA) (n=50)		Wives (USA) (n=50)		t	p.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Conflict	50.80	8.64	48.20	2.85	2.02	.046*
Self blame	48.60	7.54	50.60	5.15	1.54	.125
Positive approach	42.20	7.82	27.80	7.20	9.57	.0001*
Self Interest	25.80	5.92	27.20	4.84	1.29	.199
Avoidance	44.40	4.39	30.00	5.63	14.2	.0001*

*df =98, *p <0.05*

Table 11 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of scores of American husbands and wives on Marital Coping Inventory. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant on some of the subscales of Marital Coping i.e., on Conflict (t=2.02, df= 98, p=.046), Positive approach (t=9.57, df=98, p= .0001) and Avoidance (t=14.24, df=98, p= .0001) indicating that Husbands in Unites States use Conflict, positive approach and Avoidance more in solving a problem than their wives

Table 12:

Comparison of Scores of Pakistani Husbands and wives on Marital Coping Inventory(N=100).

Dimension of Marital Coping (as measured by MCI)	Husbands (PK) (n=50)		Wives (PK) (n=50)		t	p.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Conflict	32.40	4.16	31.80	8.44	.45	.653
Self blame	30.80	3.27	34.800	10.06	2.67	.009*
Positive approach	50.20	7.86	50.40	4.30	.15	.875
Self Interest	22.00	2.91	14.00	6.16	8.30	.0001*
Avoidance	16.00	2.64	29.20	5.89	4.45	.0001*

*df =98, *p <0.05*

Table 12 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of scores of Pakistani husbands and wives on Marital Coping Inventory. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant on some of the subscales of Marital Coping i.e., on self blame (t=2.67, df= 98, p=.009), self interest (t=8.30, df=98, p= .0001) and Avoidance (t=4.45, df=98, p= .0001) indicating that Wives in Pakistan use self blame, self-interest and Avoidance more in solving a problem than their wives

Table 13:

Comparison of Scores of Husbands of USA and Pakistan on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

Dimension of Marital Coping (as measured by MCI)	Husbands (USA) (n=50)		Husbands (PK) (n=50)		*t*	*p.*
	M	SD	M	SD		
Conflict	50.80	8.64	32.40	4.16	13.56	.0001*
Self blame	48.60	7.54	30.80	3.27	15.31	.0001*
Positive approach	42.20	7.82	50.20	7.86	5.10	.0001*
Self Interest	25.80	5.92	22.00	2.91	12.63	.0001*
Avoidance	44.40	4.39	16.00	2.64	39.16	.0001*

*df =98, *p <0.05*

Table 13 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of scores of Pakistani and American husbands on Marital Coping Inventory. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant on all the subscales of Marital Coping indicating that husbands in Pakistan use positive approach more and, conflict, self blame, self-interest and Avoidance less in solving a problem than husbands in United States.

Table 14:

Cross cultural comparison of Wives on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

Dimension of Marital Coping (as measured by MCI)	Wives (USA) (n=50)		Wives (PK) (n=50)		*t*	*p.*
	M	SD	M	SD		
Conflict	48.20	2.85	31.80	8.44	13.00	.0001*
Self blame	34.80	5.15	50.60	10.06	9.87	.0001*
Positive approach	27.80	7.20	50.40	4.30	19.05	.0001*
Self Interest	27.20	4.84	22.00	6.16	4.69	.0001*
Avoidance	30.00	5.63	29.20	5.89	.69	.489

*df =98, *p <0.05*

Table 14 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of scores of Pakistani and American wives on Marital Coping Inventory. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant on all the subscales of Marital Coping except for Avoidance (t=.69, df=98, p=. n.s)

Section 4: PARQ Analysis

Table 15:

Cross-Cultural Comparison of Paternal score as perceived by American and Pakistani children using Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N=100).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Paternal)	Children (USA) (n=50)		Children (PK) (n=50)		t	$p.$
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	56.04	7.10	45.28	4.70	8.92	.0001*
Aggression/Host	37.20	3.94	31.16	4.11	7.48	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	34.40	4.54	30.44	3.25	5.00	.001*
Rejection/Undif	24.64	2.79	19.52	3.59	7.95	.0001*
Total Warmth	152.8	9.55	126.40	8.84	14.35	.0001*
Control	37.16	4.00	22.28	2.96	21.11	.0001*

*df = 98, *p <0.05*

Table 15 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of Pakistani and American children's perception of parental warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

Table 16:

Cross-Cultural Comparison of Maternal scores using Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N=100).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Paternal)	Children (USA) (n=50)		Children (PK) (n=50)		t	p.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	53.44	5.39	41.72	7.52	8.94	.0001*
Aggression/Host	37.04	4.39	28.52	4.95	9.09	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	32.80	3.51	25.92	3.98	9.15	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	24.44	3.16	19.40	4.52	6.44	.0001*
Total Warmth	147.7	9.85	115.5	11.23	15.21	.0001*
Control	34.40	3.85	25.00	2.39	14.65	.0001*

*df = 98, *p <0.05*

Table 16 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of Pakistani and American children's perception of maternal warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

Table 17:

Cross-Cultural Comparison of Paternal score as perceived by Female children using Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N= 48).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Paternal)	Females(PK) (n=24)		Females(USA) (n=24)		*t*	*p.*
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	53.25	7.48	46.41	4.78	3.76	.0001*
Aggression/Host	35.58	2.93	30.08	4.07	5.36	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	33.58	5.16	29.66	4.13	2.90	.006*
Rejection/Undif	24.58	2.93	20.66	3.73	4.03	.0001*
Total Warmth	147.7	9.99	126.8	8.55	7.79	.0001*
Control	35.58	2.65	22.08	1.97	19.99	.0001*

*df = 46, *p <0.05*

Table 17 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of female Pakistani and American children's perception of parental warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

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Table 18:

Cross-Cultural Comparison of Paternal score as perceived by male children using Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N=52).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Paternal)	males(USA) (n=26)		males(PK) (n=26)		t	p.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	58.61	5.74	44.23	4.47	10.06	.0001*
Aggression/Host	38.69	4.22	32.15	3.97	5.74	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	35.15	3.83	31.15	1.99	4.72	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	24.69	2.72	18.46	3.16	7.60	.0001*
Total Warmth	157.5	6.25	126.0	9.26	14.39	.0001*
Control	38.61	4.51	22.46	3.67	14.13	.0001*

*df = 50, *p <0.05*

Table 18 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of male Pakistani and American children's perception of parental warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

Table 19:

Cross-Cultural Comparison of Maternal score as perceived by male children using Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N= 52).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Maternal)	Males(USA) (n=26)		Males(PK) (n=26)		t	$p.$
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	54.84	6.09	42.61	7.97	6.21	.0001*
Aggression/Host	38.07	3.08	26.84	4.21	10.97	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	32.30	3.86	26.23	4.40	5.28	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	25.07	3.47	21.30	4.63	3.31	.002*
Total Warmth	150.3	9.71	117.0	10.87	11.64	.0001*
Control	35.38	3.31	25.69	1.84	13.02	.0001*

*df = 50, *p <0.05*

Table 19 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of male Pakistani and American children's perception of maternal warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

Table 20:

Cross-Cultural Comparison of Maternal score as perceived by female children using Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N= 48).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Maternal)	Females(PK) (n=24)		Females(USA) (n=24)		t	p.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	51.91	4.13	40.75	7.05	6.68	.0001*
Aggression/Host	35.9	5.31	30.33	5.14	3.69	.001*
Neglect/Indif	33.33	3.07	25.58	3.54	8.08	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	23.75	2.70	17.33	3.42	7.20	.0001*
Total Warmth	144.9	11.64	114.0	11.64	10.11	.0001*
Control	33.33	4.17	24.25	2.70	8.94	.0001*

*df = 46, *p <0.05*

Table 20 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of female Pakistani and American children's perception of Maternal warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

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Table 21:

Comparison of Scores on Maternal and paternal PARQ/C as perceived by Pakistani Children (N= 100).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Maternal(PK) (n=50)		Paternal(PK) (n=50)		t	$p.$
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	45.28	4.70	53.44	5.39	8.05	.0001*
Aggression/Host	31.16	4.11	37.04	4.39	6.90	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	30.44	3.25	32.80	3.51	3.48	.001*
Rejection/Undif	19.52	3.59	24.44	3.16	7.26	.0001*
Total Warmth	126.4	8.84	147.72	9.85	11.38	.0001*
Control	22.28	2.96	25.00	2.39	5.05	.0001*

*df 98, *p <0.05*

Table 21 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of paternal and maternal scores as perceived by Pakistani children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the subscales of Perceived parental warmth and control indicating that Pakistani children perceive their mothers to be more rejecting and controlling than their fathers.

Table 22:

Comparison of male and female Pakistani children on Paternal scores as measured by Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N= 48).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Paternal)	Males(PK) (n=26)		Females(PK) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	44.23	4.47	46.41	4.78	1.67	.101
Aggression/Host	32.15	3.97	30.08	4.07	1.81	.075
Neglect/Indif	31.15	1.99	29.66	4.13	1.64	.108
Rejection/Undif	18.46	3.16	20.66	3.73	2.25	.0298
Total Warmth	126.0	9.26	126.83	8.55	0.33	.743
Control	22.46	3.67	22.08	1.97	0.44	.657

$df = 46$, $*p < 0.05$

Table 22 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of male and female Pakistani children's perception of paternal warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are non-significant in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

Table 23:

Comparison of male and female Pakistani children on Maternal scores as measured by Parental acceptance rejection/control questionnaire (PARQ/C) (N= 48).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C, Maternal)	Males(PK) (n=26)		Females(PK) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	54.84	6.09	51.91	4.13	1.97	.054
Aggression/Host	38.07	3.08	35.91	5.31	1.77	.082
Neglect/Indif	32.30	3.86	33.33	3.07	1.03	.307
Rejection/Undif	25.07	3.47	23.75	2.70	1.49	.141
Total Warmth	150.3	9.71	144.91	9.40	1.99·	.052
Control	25.69	1.84	24.25	2.70	2.21	.055

df = 46, *p <0.05

Table 23 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of male and female Pakistani children's perception of paternal warmth and control. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are non-significant in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control except for in the subscale of control (t=2.21, df= 48, p= .032).

Table 24:

Comparison of Maternal and Paternal scores on PARQ/C as perceived by Pakistani Male Children. (N= 52).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Maternal(PK) (n=26)		Paternal(PK) (n=26)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	44.23	4.47	54.84	6.09	7.16	.0001*
Aggression/Host	32.15	3.97	38.07	3.08	6.00	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	31.15	1.99	32.30	3.86	1.35	.182
Rejection/Undif	18.46	3.16	25.07	3.47	7.17	.0001*
Total Warmth	126.0	9.26	150.30	9.71	9.23	.0001*
Control	22.46	3.67	25.69	1.84	4.00	.0001*

$df = 50$, *$p < 0.05$

Table 24 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of Maternal and Paternal scores as perceived by male Pakistani children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control except for the subscale of Neglect/ indifference (t=1.35, df= 48, p= n.s).

Table 25:

Comparison of Maternal and Paternal scores on PARQ/C as perceived by Pakistani Female Children (N= 48).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Maternal(PK) (n=24)		Paternal(PK) (n=24)		t	p.
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	46.41	4.78	51.91	4.13	4.26	.0001*
Aggression/Host	30.08	4.07	35.91	5.31	4.30,	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	29.66	4.13	33.33	3.07	3.48	.001*
Rejection/Undif	20.66	3.73	23.75	2.70	3.27	.002*
Total Warmth	126.8	8.55	144.91	9.40	6.96	.0001*
Control	24.25	1.97	24.25	2.70	3.16	.0001*

*df = 46, *p <0.05*

Table 25 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of Maternal and Paternal scores as perceived by female Pakistani children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control.

Table 26:

Comparison of Maternal and Paternal scores on PARQ/C as perceived by Children of USA (N= 100).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Paternal (USA) (n=50)		Maternal (USA) (n=50)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	56.04	7.10	41.72	7.52	9.78	.0001*
Aggression/Host	37.20	3.94	28.52	4.95	9.68	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	34.40	4.54	25.92	3.98	9.91	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	24.64	2.79	19.40	4.52	6.96	.0001*
Total Warmth	152.8	9.55	115.5	11.23	17.87	.0001*
Control	37.16	4.00	34.40	3.85	3.51	.001*

$df =98$, *$p <0.05$

Table 26 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of Maternal and Paternal scores as perceived by American children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control. Indicating that the children perceive themselves to be more rejected by their mothers as compared to the fathers, similarly they perceive their mothers to be more controlling than their fathers.

Table 27:

Comparison of Scores of Male and Female children on Paternal PARQ/C as perceived by Children of USA (N= 50).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by Paternal PARQ/C)	Male(USA) (n=26)		Female(USA) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	58.61	5.74	38.69	4.22	2.85	.006*
Aggression/Host	38.69	4.22	35.58	2.93	3.00	.004*
Neglect/Indif	35.15	3.83	33.58	5.16	1.22	.226
Rejection/Undif	24.69	2.72	24.58	2.93	.136	.892
Total Warmth	157.5	6.25	147.7	9.99	4.18	.0001*
Control	38.61	4.51	35.58	2.65	2.86	.006*

*df =48, *p <0.05*

Table 27 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of paternal scores as perceived by Male and Female American children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in four dimensions of Perceived parental warmth and control except for Neglect (t=1.22, df=48, p=n.s) and Rejection (t=.136, df=48, p=n.s) .

Table 28:

Comparison of Scores of Male and Female children on Maternal PARQ/C as perceived by Children of USA (N= 50).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by Maternal PARQ/C)	Male(USA) (n=26)		Female(USA) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	42.61	7.97	40.75	7.05	.873	.387
Aggression/Host	26.84	4.21	30.33	5.14	2.63	.011*
Neglect/Indif	26.23	4.40	25.58	3.54	.569	.572
Rejection/Undif	21.30	4.63	17.33	3.42	3.42	.001*
Total Warmth	117.0	10.87	114.0	11.64	.942	.351
Control	35.38	3.31	33.33	·4.17	1.93	.059

df =48, *p <0.05

Table 28 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of paternal scores as perceived by Male and Female American children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in two subscales of Perceived parental warmth and control i.e., Aggression (t=2.63, df =48, p=.011) indicating that female children perceive their mothers to be more aggressive than male children, and in Rejection (t=3.42, df=48, p=.001) indicating that male children perceive their mothers to be more rejecting than female children.

Table 29:

Comparison of Scores of Male children of USA on Maternal and paternal PARQ/C (N= 52).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Paternal (USA) (n=26)		Maternal (USA) (n=26)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	58.61	5.74	42.61	7.97	8.29	.0001*
Aggression/Host	38.69	4.22	26.84	4.21	10.13	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	35.15	3.83	26.23	4.40	7.79	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	24.69	2.72	21.30	4.63	3.20	.002*
Total Warmth	157.5	6.25	117.0	10.87	16.47	.0001*
Control	38.61	4.51	35.38	3.31	2.94	.005*

$df = 50, *p < 0.05$

Table 29 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of paternal and maternal scores as perceived by Male American children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the subscales of Perceived parental warmth and control indicating that male children perceive their fathers to be more rejecting and controlling than their mothers.

Table 30:

Comparison of Scores of Female children of USA on Maternal and paternal PARQ/C (N= 48).

Dimension of acceptance & Rejection (as measured by PARQ/C)	Paternal (USA) (n=24)		Maternal (USA) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Warmth/Aff	53.25	7.48	35.58	2.93	5.95	.0001*
Aggression/Host	35.58	2.93	30.33	5.14	4.34	.0001*
Neglect/Indif	33.58	5.16	25.58	3.54	6.25	.0001*
Rejection/Undif	24.58	2.93	17.33	3.42	7.88	.0001*
Total Warmth	147.7	9.99	114.0	11.64	10.77	.0001*
Control	35.58	4.17	33.33	4.17	2.22	.031*

df =46, *p <0.05

Table 30 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations of paternal and maternal scores as perceived by female American children. The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show that the scores are significant in all the subscales of Perceived parental warmth and control indicating that female children perceive their fathers to be more rejecting and controlling than their mothers.

Section 5: PAQ, t-Test Analysis

Table 31:

Comparison between the personality of Pakistani and American Children as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ) (N= 100).

Dimensions of Personality (as measured by PAQ)	USA (n=50)		Pakistan (n=50)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Hostility/ Aggression	18.28	2.62	13.32	2.76	9.19	.0001*
Dependency	13.84	2.56	19.32	1.99	11.92	.0001*
Negative Self Esteem	15.44	2.25	11.48	2.54	8.24	.0001*
Negative Self-Adequacy	17.60	2.11	12.08	2.13	12.97	.0001*
Emotional Unresponsiveness	13.60	1.91	12.96	2.16	1.56	.121
Emotional Instability	15.64	2.42	13.52	2.10	4.67	.0001*
Negative World View	16.80	4.47	13.04	1.84	5.49	.0001*
Total	111.2	9.19	95.72	6.16	9.89	.002*

*df = 98, *p <0.05*

Table 31 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations between Pakistani and American children's personality as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ). The tables show significance in almost all the dimensions of personality. However non-significant mean difference is found in emotional unresponsiveness (t= 1.56, df= 98, p= n.s)

Table 32:

Comparison between the personality of Male and Female American Children as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ) (N= 100).

Dimensions of Personality (as measured by PAQ)	Male(USA) (n=26)		Female(USA) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Hostility/ Aggression	18.84	2.36	17.66	2.80	1.61	.114
Dependency	12.69	1.66	15.08	2.81	3.69	.001*
Negative Self Esteem	15.76	1.39	15.08	2.90	1.07	.286
Negative Self-Adequacy	18.15	1.86	17.00	2.24	1.98	.053
Emotional Unresponsiveness	14.07	1.76	13.08	1.97	1.87	.066
Emotional Instability	16.30	2.60	14.91	2.01	2.09	.041*
Negative World View	16.00	1.74	17.66	6.14	1,32	.191
Total	111.8	5.73	110.5	11.96	0.53	.610

*df = 98, *p <0.05*

Table 32 indicates the t scores and the significance of scores among Male and Female American Children. The values indicate that scores are significant only on two scales Dependency (t=3.69, df=48, p=.001) and Emotional Instability (t= 2.09, df= 48, p=.041)

Table 33:

Comparison between the personality of Male and Female Pakistani Children as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ) (N= 50).

Dimensions of Personality (as measured by PAQ)	Female(PK) (n=26)		Male(PK) (n=24)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Hostility/ Aggression	14.00	2.62	12.58	2.78	1.85	.07
Dependency	20.15	1.68	18.41	1.93	3.39	.001*
Negative Self Esteem	11.23	2.65	11.75	2.43	.718	.476
Negative Self-Adequacy	11.76	2.26	12.41	1.97	1.07	.289
Emotional Unresponsiveness	12.30	1.97	13.66	2.18	2.31	.025*
Emotional Instability	13.92	1.71	13.08	2.41	1.42	.160
Negative World View	13.38	1.85	12.66	1.78	1.39	.171
Total	96.76	6.75	94.58	5.36	1.26	.214

df = 48, *p <0.05

Table 33 shows the t values and the significance among Male and Female Pakistani Children. The values indicate that scores are significant only on two scales Dependency (t= 3.39, df=48, p=.001) and Emotional unresponsiveness (t= 2.31, df=48, p=.025)

Table 34:

Cross-Cultural Comparison between the personalities of Male Children as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ) (N= 52).

Dimensions of Personality (as measured by PAQ)	Male(USA) (n=26)		Male(PK) (n=26)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Hostility/ Aggression	18.84	2.36	12.58	2.78	7.00	.0001*
Dependency	12.69	1.66	18.41	1.93	16.02	.0001*
Negative Self Esteem	15.76	1.39	11.75	2.43	7.71	.0001*
Negative Self-Adequacy	18.15	1.86	12.41	1.97	11.07	.0001*
Emotional Unresponsiveness	14.07	1.76	13.66	2.18	3.40	.001*
Emotional Instability	16.30	2.60	13.08	2.41	3.89	.0001*
Negative World View	16.00	1.74	12.66	1.78	5.23	.0001*
Total	111.8	5.73	94.58	5.36	8.67	.0001*

$df = 50$, *$p <0.05$

The table 34 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations between male Pakistani and American children's personality as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ).The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of personality as well as the total personality score.

Table 35:

Cross-Cultural Comparison between the personalities of Female Children as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ) (N= 48).

Dimensions of Personality (as measured by PAQ)	Female(USA) (n=24)		Female(PK) (n=24)		*t*	*p*
	M	SD	M	SD		
Hostility/ Aggression	17.66	2.80	14.00	2.62	6.30	.0001*
Dependency	15.08	2.81	20.15	1.68	4.78	.0001*
Negative Self Esteem	15.00	2.90	11.23	2.65	4.30	.0001*
Negative Self-Adequacy	17.00	2.24	11.76	2.26	7.50	.0001*
Emotional Unresponsiveness	13.08	1.97	12.30	1.97	.971	.337
Emotional Instability	14.91	2.01	13.92	1.71	2.85	.006*
Negative World View	17.66	6.14	13.38	1.85	3.82	.0001*
Total	110.5	11.96	96.76	6.75	5.94	.0001*

*df = 46, *p <0.05*

The table 35 shows the significant values, mean and standard deviations between female Pakistani and American children's personality as measured by Personality assessment questionnaire (Child PAQ).The means, Standard Deviations and Significance on t values show significance in all the dimensions of personality except for emotional unresponsiveness (t=.971, df= 48, p= n.s)

Section 6: Correlations

Table 36:

Correlations between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and perceived paternal warmth and control (N= 100).

	Warmth	Agg.	Neglect	Rejection	Total warmth	control
Hostility	.470**	.426**	.477**	.380**	.598**	.641**
Dependency	.591**	.537**	.380**	.572**	.726**	.746**
Neg.Self.esteem	.356**	.436**	.272**	.460**	.519**	583**
Neg.Self.Adequacy	.470**	.480**	.302**	.494**	607**	774**
Emotional Unresponsiveness	.011	.005	.135	.078	.000	.169
E. Instability	.443**	.225*	.293**	.192	.435**	.517**
Neg. World View	.146	.343**	.142	.026	.245*	.446*
Total	.368**	.417**	.289**	.294**	487**	687**

* Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2- tailed).

**Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 36 indicates the correlation between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and perceived paternal warmth and control. Most of the values shown are significant, however a few highest significant correlations are between dependency and control ($r = .746$) and between negative self adequacy and control ($r=.774$, indicating that more the father is controlling, more would be the child's negative self adequacy and dependency.

Table 37:

Correlations between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and perceived maternal warmth and control (N= 100).

	Warmth	Agg.	Neglect	Rej.	Total warmth	control
Hostility	.305**	.423**	.408**	.260**	.448**	.580**
Dependency	.540**	.683**	.583**	.336**	705**	.645**
Neg..S.esteem	.567**	.472**	.425**	.341**	.608**	.617**
Neg.S.Adequacy	.484**	.623**	.487**	.464**	.665**	.706**
Emotional Unresponsiveness	.136	.183	.141	.078	.178	.126
E. Instability	.345**	.474**	.150	.102	.377**	.383**
Neg. World View	.390	.166	.300**	.336**	.393*	.199*
Total	.481**	.450**	.387**	.377**	.560*	.562*

* Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2- tailed).

**Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 37 indicates the correlation between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and perceived Maternal warmth and control. Most of the values shown are significant, however a few highest significant correlations are between negative self-adequacy and control (r = .706), indicating that more the mother is controlling, more would be the child's negative self adequacy.

Table 38:

Correlations between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and scores of husbands on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

	Conflict	Self Blame	Positive Approach	Self interest	avoidance
Hostility	.52**	.59**	-.29**	.53**	.64**
Dependency	.62**	.66**	-.32*	.65**	.74**
Neg..Self .esteem	.52**	.51**	-.23**	.49**	.63**
Neg.Self .Adequacy	.64**	.68**	-.44**	.73**	.75**
Emotional Unresponsiveness	.09	.07	.02	.15	.16
E. Instability	.27**	.33**	-.25**	.38**	.39**
Neg. World View	.38**	.45**	-.22**	.44**	.50**
Total PAQ	.54**	.59**	-.33**	.61**	.68**

* Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2- tailed).

**Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The table 38 indicates the correlation between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and scores of husbands on Marital Coping Inventory. Most of the values shown are significant, however the highest significant correlation is between negative self-adequacy and avoidance (r = .75), indicating that more the husband avoids a marital problem, more would be the child's negative self adequacy.

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Table 39

Correlations between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and scores of Wives on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

	Conflict	Self Blame	Positive Approach	Self interest	avoidance
Hostility	.54**	.50**	-.57**	.36**	.01
Dependency	57**	.58**	-.68**	.36**	-.00
Neg..S.esteem	.49**	.42**	-.58**	.18	.03
Neg.S.Adequacy	.62**	.56**	-.71**	.38**	.14
Emotional Unresponsiveness	.06	.03	-.09	.14	.15
E. Instability	.29**	.31**	-.43**	.19	.11
Neg. World View	.37**	.37**	-.41**	.20**	.16
Total PAQ	.54**	.48**	-.62**	.31**	.17

* Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2- tailed).

**Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 39 indicates the correlation between subscales and total scores of Personality assessment questionnaire and scores of wives on Marital Coping Inventory. Most of the values shown are significant, however the highest significant correlation is between negative self-adequacy and avoidance (r = .75), indicating that more the husband avoids a marital problem, more would be the child's negative self adequacy.

Table 40:

Correlations between subscales and total scores of perceived maternal warmth and scores of wives on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

	Conflict	Self Blame	Positive Approach	Self interest	avoidance
Warmth	.44**	.45**	-.56**	.21**	.12
Aggression	.58**	.52**	-.60**	.29**	-.01
Neglect	.40**	.52**	-.58**	.30**	.04
Rejection	.41**	.38**	-.45**	.32**	.22**
Total Warmth	.59**	.61**	-.72**	.35**	.10
Control	.65**	.56**	-.75**	.33**	.02

* Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2- tailed).

**Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 40 indicates the correlations between subscales and total scores of perceived maternal warmth and scores of wives on Marital Coping Inventory. Most of the values shown are significant, however the highest significant correlation is between negative Positive approach and Warmth (r = -.72), i.e., greater is the positive approach towards solving the problem, lesser would be the rejection perceived by the child.

Table 41:

Correlations between subscales and total scores of perceived Paternal warmth and scores of husbands on Marital Coping Inventory (N=100).

	Conflict	Self Blame	Positive Approach	Self interest	avoidance
Warmth	.57**	.60**	-.32**	.40**	.64**
Aggression	.51**	.55**	-.30**	.51**	.59**
Neglect	.29**	.31**	-.05	.39**	.40**
Rejection	.48**	.54**	-.35**	.48**	.58**
Total Warmth	.66**	.71**	-.37**	.61**	.78**
Control	.73**	.79**	-.36**	.69**	.87**

* Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2- tailed).

**Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 41 indicates the correlations between subscales and total scores of perceived paternal warmth and scores of husbands on Marital Coping Inventory. Most of the values shown are significant, however the highest significant correlation is between negative control and avoidance (r = .87), greater is the avoidance of marital conflict great is the father is perceived as controlling by the children.

DISCUSSION

4. DISCUSSION

Present cross-cultural study explored the relationship between marital coping of parents, perceived parental acceptance rejection and self-perception of children. The participant scores were compared cross-culturally as well as within the country. Important results were found in every part of the research. This section of the research deals with discussing the results and concluding the findings.

The first objective of the study was to explore the cross-cultural comparison of American and Pakistani couples on Marital coping Inventory. T-test was calculated comparing the scores on the subscales of conflict, positive approach, avoidance, self-blame and self-interest. Results are discussed in Table 10. The mean scores on each subscale showed that Pakistani couples scored significantly higher on the subscale of positive approach i.e., they discuss the problem with their partner, while couples of United States had higher significant mean scores on subscales of conflict, avoidance, self-interest and self-blame. The interpretation of results indicates that when a problem arises in a marital relationship of Pakistani couples, they prefer to discuss the problem with one another in order to solve it as soon as possible. The couples of United States on the other hand argue more with one another and avoid the problem by indulging into self-interest activities and blaming their own self. These findings can have an explanation based on cultural differences, as both cultures are contrasting in terms of its setup and functioning. Husband and wives in an American culture are considered equal part of a relationship, where both are equally dominating; a wife can express her emotions as much as the husband. She is open to express her anger and disagreement that can lead to heighten the conflict. American couples also have an opportunity to indulge themselves into the activities of their choice. Therefore when a conflict becomes exaggerated, it is easier for them to start spending time alone on the activities they like. Pakistani couples on the other hand provide a contrasting picture, where a wife is usually under the influence of the husband. She does not express her disagreement and takes a passive role. Therefore she cannot avoid the marital conflict or argue with her husband and she does not even have her personal hobbies to revert to.

Similarly Pakistani culture is collectivistic in nature, where families consist of not just husband and wives but also other family members. The decisions of a couple are influenced by other family members living with them. In case a conflict between the couple arises, other family members are also involved and the problematic situation cannot be avoided. It is then thought better to try solving it by discussing it among themselves and also with everyone else. This leaves a little chance for the couple to avoid the problem by reverting to their personal interests.

Another comparison was made among the couples of United Sates, comparing the scores of American husbands and wives. The results were calculated using t-test analysis, which are displayed in Table 11. Both husband and wives scored high on the subscales of self-interest and self-blame, indicating that they try to avoid the marital conflict by sending time alone on their hobbies and also blame their own selves. This can be due to the reason that American culture is considered an individualistic culture as mentioned before; they are brought-up with a philosophy of self-reliance, independence and personal goals. Both males and females are taught to have their own personal lives. Even as husband and wife, they have equal opportunities to go out, fulfill their personal goals, socialize with friends, and spend time on their hobbies. It is therefore easier for them to avoid a conflict and spend time alone or keep themselves busy in other activities outside home. The scores on other subscales show that husbands of united states have scored significantly high on all the subscales indicating that once in a conflict husbands of united states start off by arguing with their wives and try to avoid the problem, by showing more conflict and avoidance, however in the end they are the ones to initiate and coming up with a positive approach in solving the problems by discussing and talking it over with their partner.

Comparison on the subscales of Marital coping inventory was also studies among Pakistani couples and t-test was computed. The result is displayed in table 12. The values indicate that wives scored significantly higher on the subscales of self-blame and avoidance, while husbands had high significant mean scores on the subscales of conflict and self-interest. This shows that when a marital conflict arises between the couple, a woman is blamed of it and she starts using avoidance instead of solving the problem for not just getting away from her own feelings of self-blame but also to avoid the wrath of the husband. Husband on the other hand find it easier to spend time on the

activities of his own, away from home. In Pakistani culture, a woman in a household is passive and under the dominance of her husband and other family members, she dedicates all her life for others especially her husband and has no time for her own self. Husband on the other hand has dominating role. He sometimes blames his wife for something that goes wrong, especially when a conflict arises. Wife is passive enough to start feeling responsible for it and develop the feeling that it was her fault. In order to avoid husbands' as well as other family member's wrath, she starts avoiding the problem and also avoid talking about it with her husband. Husbands on the other hand get the chance to flee from the problem and the conflicts at home and start spending more time outside with their friend or in other activities that they enjoy.

Husbands' scores were studied separately comparing the husbands of Pakistan and Unites States. The t-test was calculated based on mean scores and standard deviations which are displayed in Table 13. The mean differences showed that Husbands in United States scored significantly higher on the subscales of self-blame, avoidance and self-interest, while the husbands of Pakistan had higher mean value on positive approach. The results indicate that Pakistani husbands solve the marital problems by discussing it with their partner as compared to the husbands of United States, who contrastingly take a marital conflict negatively and argue more with their wives, use self-blame and also try to avoid the problem by indulging in self-interest activities. This gives quite a contrasting picture to the expected results where a typical Pakistani husband is considered non-cooperative in terms of conflict resolution. These results are needed to be understood by exploring further into the matter. An alternative explanation however can be given. There is also a possibility that husbands of Pakistan are not very expressive in discussing their personal marital conflicts. In order to give a promising picture, they are denying the actual facts and are saying that they always discuss the problems with their wives. Instead of portraying reality they are giving socially acceptable responses. Husbands of United States on the other hand openly admit the real situation and confess if they are not able to solve the marital problems effectively.

Scores of wives were also studies separately, comparing the scores of American and Pakistani wives on Marital coping inventory. Mean values showed that wives of Pakistan scored significantly higher on the subscales of self-blame and positive

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approach, while wives of Unites States have higher means scores on the subscales of self-interest, conflict and avoidance. From the interpretation of results it can be inferred that wives of United States argue more with their husbands that results in heightening the conflicts. Once the problems grow bigger they start to avoid discussing it and spend more time alone on personal activities as compared to Pakistani wives. Pakistani wives on the other hand use more self-blame. The results can be explained by looking at the cultural differences. As discussed earlier, a Pakistani wife might be blamed for the conflict in a marital relationship because of her non-dominating position and therefore scores high on the self-blame. Since she does not have a private life of her own, it is not possible for her to indulge in self-interest activities, she therefore prefers to solve the problem by discussing it with her husband and end her feelings of self-blame as soon as possible. An American wife on the other hand can express her anger and disagreement with her husband openly, that can take the form of an overstated argument. In order to avoid the disturbing situation, she finds it easier to avoid discussing it with her husband and also spend time alone on the things she like doing.

Second objective of the study dealt with cross-cultural comparison of Pakistani and American children on perceived parental warmth and Rejection using parental acceptance/rejection questionnaire. The scale has two parts, Maternal and Paternal. The results showed significant and contrasting results cross-culturally on both subscales. T-test was calculated to compare the scores of Pakistani and American children on maternal and paternal scales which are displayed in tables 15 and 16. The values indicated that American children had higher significant scores on subscales of Warmth, Aggression, Neglect, Rejection and Control i.e., they perceived less warmth, more aggression, neglect, rejection and control from their mothers and fathers as compared to Pakistani children. These results can be explained by keeping in mind the cultural differences and family environment of Pakistan and United Sates. As mentioned earlier, American society promotes independence and self-reliance, children are encouraged to have a separate, independent life of their own as they grow up. They are brought up with this philosophy right from the very start. There is a possibility that this makes them feel rejected by their parents since parents are not available to them at all times as they expect and teach the children to learn to handle their issues and problems independently. Parents might not be available at times when they are needed by the children. Along with this, both parents are usually working fulltime in an American culture and it

becomes hard for them to be with the child when he comes home from school. While a child on the other hand has a natural need of parental attention, time and love. Even though the child is brought-up in a culture where parents have their independent career life, he/she feels their absence and can starts perceiving them to be neglecting. Pakistani children on the other hand are raised in a divergent environment where parents spend more time with them. Pakistani culture stresses more on the importance of family and raises a child with the values of group orientation where family members are considered more important than self. Mothers especially are homemakers and are always attending to the needs of the child. She nurtures the child and takes care of him/her as she has maximum time available. Mothers especially do not have other personal leisure or work activities that would make them sacrifice the child's needs. The results found are in concordance with Rohner's theory (1975) that was followed for the research, according to which there are cultural differences in every society that not just make parents treat their children differently but also make children perceive the approach of parents towards parenting differently as well.

Analysis was also done comparing the perceptions of male children cross-culturally on paternal PARQ/C. T-tests were calculated on each subscale and mean and standard deviations were compared (see Table 18). Detailed analysis shows that male children of United States scored higher on all the subscales indicating that they perceive their fathers to be more Hostile, Neglecting, rejecting and controlling as compared to their mothers. This again can be due to the fact that in United States kids are raised with the values of independence and privacy, and when parents want to intervene in few things, they are considered interfering and controlling. A male child particularly is considered and expected to be more independent and outgoing and thus he is the one who feels more controlled and rejected when being intervened by parents.

The analysis was also done separately on female Pakistani girls, comparing the scores on maternal and paternal scales. T-test was calculated for comparing the scores and means and standard deviations are given in table 21. The values show that Females scored higher on the subscales of paternal questionnaire indicating that Pakistani girls perceive their fathers to be less warm, more hostile, rejecting, neglecting and controlling as compared to mothers. The results can be explained according to the prevailing attitudes of sex-discrimination and control on the life and activities of a girl child in

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Pakistani society. This kind of attitude is more displayed by fathers who prefer a boy over a girl and consider a female child a liability. She is considered as someone who would remain at home at all times and help in household chores. Her life is in control of her parents especially father, who puts many restrictions on her activities inside as well as outside home. The participant girls in the present study were in the age, when they start coming of age and restrictions from the family regarding many things increase both from fathers and mothers, and the life of a female is more controlled by the parents than the boys. It is important to note here that this difference in behavior from parents is felt by girls and they feel left out, neglected, controlled and rejected by their parents, particularly by their fathers. Similarly a father is a dominating figure in the family and is supposed to be the one who is disciplinary; he is expected to be more aggressive and controlling than the mother. A child clearly sees this contrast and can start perceiving his/her father to be comparatively more hostile, aggressive and controlling than the mother.

Male and Female children of Pakistan were also compared on Paternal acceptance rejection scale. Results were analyzed by calculating t-test, which is displayed in the table 22. The scores indicate that there were no significant differences found in the mean scores of male and female Pakistani children on the subscales of warmth, aggression, neglect and control. It can be inferred that this non-significance is due to the fact that both male and female Pakistani children perceive their fathers to be treating them equally, expressing similar amount of aggression, warmth and control. Only one subscale had a significant score, i.e., undifferentiated rejection, where mean scores of females were significantly higher. This score indicates that female children feel that they are not being given enough time by their fathers as compared to the male children. It can be inferred that fathers are less available to the female child, or spend less time with them. This again can be justified by looking into Pakistani culture where fathers have more common activities with boys while girls are supposed to start helping their mothers as they grow up. This is something that is felt by the female child since she wants time, attention and affection from their fathers like the male child.

The comparison was also made between male and female children of United States on paternal acceptance-rejection and control. The results were computed by comparing the mean scores significantly. Scores are displayed in table 27. It can be seen

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that Male children scored significantly higher on perceived paternal acceptance/rejection on three subscales i.e., warmth, aggression and control. This indicates that fathers showed more aggression, less warmth and more control towards male children than females. A male child is usually considered more outgoing and social as compared to a female child, and when he is brought-up in a western individualistic culture, he is taught to have a personal life of his own. Fathers on the other hand take the role of the disciplinarian in all cultures; he is the one who puts restrictions on the child and intervenes in his activities outside home. This shows a paradox between what the child is taught and what his father practices for discipline. This can be a reason that American boys start perceiving their fathers to be more controlling and rejecting as compared to the girl child.

Along with this, comparison was also made between male and female children of Pakistan on maternal acceptance/rejection and control. Results were analyzed by computing the significant differences on the mean scores that are shown in table 23. The results show no significant difference in the mean scores of male and female children. It can again be inferred that mothers of Pakistan were perceived to be treating both male and female children equally. This can be because of the reason that mothers generally and in our culture especially are believed to be very nurturing and caring; they give extra care to the child and are available to them all the time. Another important reason of their availability all the time is the fact that most of the mothers in Pakistani culture are homemakers and spend most of their time at home taking care of the family and children.

Results were computed for comparing the scores of male and female American Children on maternal acceptance/rejection. Results are displayed in table 28. The scores show that higher significant mean scores were calculated on two subscales i.e., on Aggression and Undifferentiated rejection. Females scored higher on aggression from mothers while male children had higher significant mean score on undifferentiated Rejection. These results indicate that American females experienced more aggression, while male children perceived their mothers to be less available to them. This can give a contrasting picture to the results of paternal acceptance/rejection. It shows that mothers are less disciplinary and give more freedom to the male child and do not restrict him in his activities. This independence can be perceived as undifferentiated rejection by male

children who perceive that their mothers are not available to him at times as compared to the girl child.

The results were also calculated separately for the sample of United States comparing the scores of Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-rejection. The results were analyzed on the basis of mean scores and standard deviations, which are shown in table 26. The scores on paternal scale were higher on all the subscales of Warmth, hostility, Neglect, rejection and control as compared to maternal scale i.e., Children of United States perceived their fathers to be comparatively more rejecting, hostile, neglecting and controlling than their mothers. It is a universal belief that mothers are considered to be more nurturing and caring than fathers even in western cultures. Although the mother is less available to the child because of her career and other social activities in comparison to eastern societies, she still has the responsibility of taking up the traditional role of taking care of the home, family and children. She is the one who attends to the needs of the child and show more warmth and care as compared to the father. Since a child sees this comparison, he starts perceiving the mother to be more accepting and warm than the father.

Perceived greater warmth of mothers as compared to that of fathers can also be related to the fact that a mother has a unique psychological relationship with her children and she is generally responsible for responding to the child's need for affection. Fathers on the other hand, function as a protector for external danger. He provides shelter. He is generally not as expressive as mothers are. It can be inferred that as mothers are more expressive and more involved in the children's lives than fathers, and therefore fathers are perceived as comparatively more neglecting.

Third objective of the study dealt with cross cultural comparison of American and Pakistani children on the dimension of self-perception using Personality assessment questionnaire (PAQ). PAQ measured the perceived personality attributes of children on seven subscales of hostility, dependency, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, emotional instability and negative world view. Statistical analysis was done using the t-test. Statistical analysis showed clear and significant difference between the personalities of children from United States and Pakistan, as measured by Child PAQ. The results are shown in table 31. Overall results indicated

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that American children scored significantly higher on the subscales of Hostility, Negative self-esteem, Negative self-adequacy, Emotional Instability and Negative world view indicating that they exhibited all these negative traits more than Pakistani Children. Pakistani Children on the other hand scored higher on the subscale of Dependency, indicating that they perceived themselves to be more dependent as compared to American children. It can be concluded that American children have comparatively higher negative personality traits than Pakistani children, with higher hostility, aggression, negative self-esteem, negative world view and emotional unresponsiveness. Same kind of result is found across gender as boys and girls from United States scored higher on the subscales of hostility, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional instability and negative world view (see table 34 & 35) as compared to Pakistani girls and boys. Pakistani girls and boys showed significant scores on only one dimension i.e., dependence (see table 34 & 35). Cultural differences among two societies can help explain the above mentioned result, where Pakistani children are more under the influence of family members and parents. Males are also expected to express less when it comes to emotions. They are brought-up with more indulgence and control from the parents that can make them feeling more dependent, and since they do not express their emotions more, they become less hostile and aggressive. Male children of United States on the other hand are raised in a different environment where parents are less controlling and children are expected to express themselves more. Therefore they show more emotional responses such as aggression and hostility.

These results can also be understood according to Rohner's theory of parental acceptance rejection (1975), the sub theory of which deals with the consequences of parental acceptance rejection. According to this theory, those children who perceive themselves to be rejected by their parents develop negative personality traits. In the present research too, it was found earlier that American Children perceived themselves to be rejected by their parents in comparison to Pakistani children, similarly they are also found to exhibit negative personality traits.

The results were also calculated separately for the sample of United States comparing the scores of male and female children on personality assessment scale. The results were analyzed on the basis of mean scores and standard deviations, which are shown in table 32. The scores on the subscales show significance on only two subscales

i.e., dependency and emotional instability. Here the Females scored higher on the mean score of dependency while male children showed to have more emotional instability.

Similar analysis was done for the sample of Pakistan, comparing Female children of Pakistan comparing the scores of male and female children on personality assessment scale (see table 33). Here too females were also found to be comparatively more dependant, while male children of Pakistan scored significantly higher on emotional unresponsiveness. According to Conger, 1979, rejecting parents, tend to promote hostility in their children, but they do not allow the hostility to be expressed that can result in emotional unresponsiveness and instability. The results of present study can be rationalized by analyzing the cultural differences as well. Females in both Pakistani and American culture feel dependent because parents are more protective when it comes to a girl child, particularly in Pakistan where she is considered as someone who stays home and learns to do the house hold chores. It is considered very odd for her to be independent and go out or do certain things on her own. This can result in developing the traits of dependence in many daily life activities especially mobility and socialization. Boys on the other hand are brought-up in a way that they are expected to be less independent, expressive, and in control of their emotions. This can be a possible reason of their emotional unresponsiveness.

Fourth objective of the study dealt with measuring the relationship of the variables in the present study i.e., how marital coping correlates with perceived parental acceptance rejection and self-perception of children. Similarly the relationship between perceived parental acceptance rejection and self-perception of children was also studied.

Correlations were calculated and studied to find out the relationship between self-perception and paternal as well as maternal acceptance/rejection. The analysis was done by calculating the correlations among the subscales and total scores of Parental acceptance rejection and self-perception scales. The significant values indicate that children's perception of Maternal (see table 37) as well as paternal (see table 36) acceptance rejection is positively correlated with the personality attributes of the child. It means that greater the child perceives himself to be rejected by parents, greater chance he will have of developing negative personality traits. The high positive significant correlations were found in all the subscales indicating that perceived parental

rejection leads to negative personality traits in children. They not only become dependent, but also emotionally instable, unresponsive, aggressive and hostile and also develop negative feelings towards self and the world. The results are supported by not only Rohner's theory of parental acceptance rejection but also by converging evidence from cultural and cross cultural studies and numerous psychological studies in the West and the East including Pakistan (Haque, 1987; sheikh & Zohra, 1994). Hassan (1979) reported that among the family problems the most important were neglect by parents that leads to unhealthy behavioral consequences. Similarly Nasir (1979) found out that children who are hostile and show negative behavioral traits are from the families where parents are neglecting and rejecting. These results correspond also with the findings of Schaffer (1988) who believed that two aspects of parenting, warmth and control are especially important during the preschool and school years. The above mentioned results also correlate with the Rohner's theory of parental acceptance-rejection (1975) and also its personality sub-theory, which states that Anger, negative self-feelings, and the other consequences of perceived rejection make them less emotionally stable than accepted people.

Substantial amount of research have reported important effects of parental warmth on child's personality and mental health (Bowlby, 1965, 1969; Rotter, 1981; Bradley & Caldwell, 1979; Crandall, 1973; Davis & Phares, 1969; Mustaine, 1986; Nowicki & Segal, 1974; Valentine, 1980). It supports the basic postulates of the theory that warmth in parenting has significant, clear and long lasting positive effects on the personality of children.

Lack of warmth, on the other hand, is associated with behavioral problems including delinquency and aggression (East, 1991; Hetherington & Martin, 1979, 1986; Olwens, 1980; Parke & Slaby, 1983). This is found true across cultures too (MacDonald, 1988; Rohner, 1975).

According to Martin (1975) parental coldness is considered another important factor in the development of behavioral problems. Most of the serious personality and behavioral problems, such as antisocial behavior along with some inner psychological problems like high anxiety is more common in children of those parents who are relatively cold with their children. It has also been seen that those parents who combine

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hostility and autonomy in their parenting (are neglecting, lax, indifferent), their children would show signs of antisocial tendencies including bullying, stealing, etc. These rejected children tend to be more anxious, hostile, aggressive, and emotionally unstable, and have low self-esteem as well (Rohner, Saaverda, & Granum, 1980).

The role of fathers as well as mothers is equally important. Peterson et al (1959) talked about the importance of fathers in child rearing, it was found that father's negative attitude towards the child is intimately related to maladjustment tendencies in children.

Another purpose of the study was to study the relationship between marital coping of parents and its effects on personality of children. Correlations were calculated for studying the relationship between the variables. The Personality of the children was correlated with mother's as well as father's marital coping. The results showed positive significant correlation between the subscales of self-perception and the four scales of marital coping in mothers (see table 39) as well as fathers (see table 38) i.e., Conflict, self-blame, self-interest and avoidance. The values indicate that higher the conflict, self-blame, self-interest and avoidance is in parents as a results of a marital conflict, greater possibility it is for a child to develop negative personality traits such as aggression, dependence, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional Instability and negative world view. One dimension of Marital coping however was found to be in negative correlation with self-perception i.e., Positive approach. This indicates that greater the positive approach of parents (discussing the conflict with their partner) towards a marital relationship, less possibility there is for the children to develop negative personality attributes. It is believed that any conflict between parents, may that be marital or any other kind is observed by children. The strategies that parents use in dealing with and solving these conflicts are also very important. If the parent is hostile and aggressive it can negatively affect the child who is an active observer of all that is going on around him/her. He might not be involved physically but is psychologically affected. The results from the present research provided scientific evidence related to it. The results showed that those parents who do not cope effectively with their marital problems and become hostile and start avoiding the conflict instead of trying to solve it effect the personality of their children negatively. A child becomes hostile, dependent,

emotional unresponsive and develop negative views about self and the world (see correlation table 38 & 39).

These results correspond with the findings of earlier researches, for example according to Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, & Wierson, 1990; Kerig, Cowan, & Cowan, 1993, marital conflict negatively affects parent–child relationships. Furthermore, interparental conflict increases children's distress, anger, and aggression (Cummings, Zahn-Waxler, & Radke-Yarrow, 1981; Cummings, Pellegrini, Notarius, & Cummings, 1989) and also their enmeshment in parental problems (Cummings & Davies, 1994). Another research shows that marital conflict is more closely associated with negative child outcomes than with global marital discord (Jouriles, Bourg, & Farris, 1991).

In contrast, Jouriles, Barling, and O'Leary (1987) reported significant correlations between parent–child aggression and behavior problems but no relationship between marital conflict and behavior problems was observed.

By logically explaining the results it can be inferred that marital conflict between parents can make them hostile towards one another, make them indulge into their own personal activities, make them avoid the problem and also one another. A child is an active listener and observer to his/her parents' reactions towards each other. It is a possibility that the child becomes psychologically disturbed and prone to negative personality consequences such as dependence, hostility, negative self-esteem and negative world view and emotional instability. Several researches such as by Cummings et al (1981; 1984,1985, 1988) and Dunn & Munn (1985) indicate that exposure to parental conflict is stressful for children, even if they are very young, observing hostile parental interaction results in psychological and behavioral disturbances.

Correlations were also calculated for studying the relationship between maternal acceptance rejection and marital coping of mothers/wives (see table 40). The positive significant correlations were found between the subscales, indicating that greater the mother uses negative methods i.e., conflict, avoidance, self-blame and self-interest for marital coping, greater is the chance that she will be perceived as rejecting by the children showing less warmth and more control. Negative significant correlations were found between the subscales of positive approach on marital coping inventory and the

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subscales of perceived maternal acceptance rejection, indicating that more the mother discusses the conflicts with her husband, greater is the chance that she is perceived as accepting by the children. Similar nature of correlations were calculated for paternal acceptance/rejection and marital coping of father/husband (see table 41). It can be inferred to the idea that if the parents are dealing with marital conflicts positively, not prolonging it by avoidance or indulging in self-interest activities, makes a harmonious environment at home. A child who is brought up in that environment can see that the parents are happy in their relationships and are also able to give full attention and time to the child. Therefore possibly such parents are perceived as warm and accepting.

CONCLUSION

In the light of the findings of the present study it can be concluded that the effectiveness of parental relationship in promoting the healthy personality of the children may be explained by

(a)   Healthy marital relationship

(b)   Presence of parental warmth

(c)   Absence of parental rejection, aggression, neglect and control.

First variable was Marital coping of parents, which was measured using the Marital coping inventory. Cross cultural comparison of couples on first variable of marital coping shows that American couples were found to be using more negative ways of coping with their marital problems by arguing with their partners, avoiding the problem, and indulging in self-interest activities. Pakistani couples on the other hand were using positive approach where they prefer to discuss the problem with one another and solve the issue as soon as possible.

Perceived parental acceptance rejection was the second variable of the study that was measured by Perceived parental acceptance/rejection and control scale. The results on the cross-cultural analysis showed that Children of United States perceived their parents to be comparatively more rejecting and controlling as compared to Pakistani children. Mothers were perceived to be showing more warmth and less rejection as compared to fathers by the children of both and Pakistan and American families.

Third variable was the self-perception of children which was measured by using the personality assessment questionnaire. The cross cultural comparison on this variables showed that Children of United States showed negative personality traits such as hostility, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, emotional instability and negative world view. Pakistani children on the other hand scored significantly higher on dependence as compared to American children.

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Correlations were also calculated to find the relationship between the variables. Marital harmony was found to lead to positive outcomes in the personality of children and bringing them in good relation with parents. Those families where parents are martially adjusted and coping effectively with marital conflicts have children who develop positive personality traits.

Marital coping was also found to be positively correlated with parental acceptance rejection, indicating that those parents who cope effectively with their marital problems are the ones who are perceived as warm and nurturing by the children.

Parental warmth was found to be associated with healthy personality dimensions, while parental neglect and rejection was found to result in the negative personality characteristics, such as Hostility, Dependence, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, emotional instability, and negative world view This is also explained by Rohner's theory of parental acceptance-rejection(1975) and its sub-theory of personality according to which the difference in the perception of parental warmth and control by children is suggested to affect the personality of the child. Those children who perceive themselves to be rejected have the greater risk of developing a set of maladjusted personality characteristics, as described by the sub-theory of PAR theory.

LIMITATIONS

There were many limitations of the present study, which are mentioned below, the future research emphasizing on these points can improve results, which can be then generalized on the whole population.

1. The data of the present study consisted of families from limited areas of Pakistan (Rawalpindi & Islamabad) and United States (Virginia, Maryland and Washington D.C). The research results cannot be generalized on the overall population because the data was not enough to represent the whole population. The future research including data from other parts of the countries can help verify the results of this research and to generalize the results to the overall population.

2. As long as the children live with their parents, they are under their influence, may that be early childhood or late adolescence. In the present study only those children were included who fell in the age group 7-13, children of this age are important to be studies since this is the time when personalities are developed and parental influence is more than any other age. However these findings cannot be generalized to all the children who are above or below this age group. Children of other age can also be included in the future studies, that would help in generalizing the result on the children of all age groups.

3. Because of the lengthy procedure of analyzing three variables, demographic variables were not analyzed in detail. This can also be contributed as a limitation of the study because demographic variables define very important characteristics of respondents and these characteristics can significantly affect the results of the study.

4. In the present study type of family i.e., nuclear, extended or combine was not taken as a variable for data collection or analysis. While making a cross-cultural comparison, it was observed that families in Pakistan follow a different lifestyle than American families. American families are usually nuclear families while Pakistani families can be nuclear, extended or combine. This is a variable that

could have identified important and significant findings in the research. This can be a limitation since a true comparison with American families could be made only if nuclear families from Pakistan were taken who fulfilled the required criterion.

5. In the present study, convenience sampling was used. Those who participated in the study were volunteers who agreed to be the part of research. The sample therefore cannot be called a random sample. It can be inferred that some kind of bias can also come when dealing with convenience sampling.

6. The scales used in the study were very lengthy and children who had to sit for long interview sessions became tired soon. It can be a limitation since it is possible that they did not respond to the questionnaires attentively in the end.

7. Since it was a cross cultural study, researcher had to interview the families from two different cultures, one of which was from her own country i.e., Pakistan. It is possible that families from the other country (United States) did not feel as comfortable and open with the researcher as they would have with someone from their own culture.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations can be formulated based on the research findings and also the limitations identified:

1. Most importantly, the results are needed to be shared with the families especially where the problem was explored. This can help them understand as how all family members make a close bond and what goes in one relationship can bring drastic positive and negative affects on the rest of the people who are not even an active part of the situation.

2. These results can be used for the counseling of parents who are not effectively dealing with their marital conflicts, since these conflicts are influencing the children very strongly; they need to understand the importance of harmonious relationship not just for their own marital adjustment but also for a healthy child development.

3. Those children who were found to have developed negative personality traits can also be helped as many factors related to its cause were identified. These causes can not only be eliminated but also the effect on the children can be reduced by using intervention strategies and counseling techniques.

4. Follow-up researches are recommended to be done on the same families so that the long term effects of the target variables could be studied. Particularly in terms of how these variables go further as the child grows up especially when he becomes more social and outgoing in the teenage.

8. Future researches can also be done on the other citizens of United States, since the natives are in a very limited number as compared to the immigrants who are now citizens of the country. There are a huge number of families who are half natives and half immigrants having one parent from the native land and other from some other country yet they follow almost about the same life style as natives. Such families can also be included in the future researches.

9. It was observed during the research that families from United States were pure nuclear while of Pakistan had an influence of the relatives and grandparents even if they were not living with them. In such case, studying the influence of parents alone is not sufficient. Researches in the future can be done including the other family members living with parents and children in order to study the other factors involved in marital adjustment, perception and personality of children.

10. Detailed demographic features are also needed to be studied to balance its effects or to see if these also contribute directly to marital adjustment of parents and personality of children. Future researches with this reference can also help in giving a detailed, productive and usable picture.

SUMMARY

The present study is aimed at cross-cultural comparison of comparison marital coping in parents, perceived parental acceptance rejection and self-perception of children. This research studies the families of Pakistan and United States.

For measuring the perceived parental warmth and control, Rohner's PARQ/C questionnaire was used, this questionnaire is based on Rohner's theory of Parental Acceptance-Rejection. This questionnaire has two parts, maternal and paternal, contains 72 items each. This questionnaire measures five dimensions, including less warmth, aggression, neglect, rejection and control. The scores of each subscale is added to give an over all score. Greater the score is greater the child perceives himself to be rejected.

For measuring personality adjustment, Child PAQ is used, it is the questionnaire based on the personality subtheory of Rohner's theory of acceptance-rejection. This questionnaire consists of 7 subscales including, aggression, dependency, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional instability, emotional unresponsiveness and negative world view. The scores on each subscale are added to give a total score on personality adjustment. Greater the score is on the scale, greater the child has mal-adjusted personality.

Both PARQ/C and Child PAQ were acquired from Rohner's center of parental acceptance rejection, in university of Connecticut America, and Urdu versions of the scales, translated by Dr. Haque of university of Karachi were used.

Marital coping was measured using marital coping inventory developed by Bowman. This inventory has five subscales which are, conflict, introspective self-blame, positive approach, self-interest, and avoidance. Score on all the subscales are calculated separately that gives the indication as to how marital conflicts are resolved by couples, greater the score on each subscale, more the coping mechanism is used by the person.

All the questioners were tested on families so as to see if these questionnaires can be used in the study or not, data analysis was also done.

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For original study, 100 families were contacted from Pakistan and United States. Only those families were contacted who had at least one completely by-birth blind child, within the age range (7-13), had both the parents alive and belong to the native intact family of the country. Thus the total sample consisted of 300 subjects the (for distribution of the subjects see Fig: 4, p 46).

Data analysis was done using SPSS 10.0. The analysis of results show that Couple of United sates used more negative ways for dealing with marital problems; they used more self-interest, avoidance and conflict while Pakistani couples used more positive approach. Females of Pakistan on the other hand used more self-blame while females of United States used more self-interest in case of a conflict. Husbands of United States were found to be more hostile and avoiding than Pakistani husbands who used positive approach in solving the marital issues.

Results in perceived parental acceptance rejection questionnaire showed that children of Pakistan perceived their parents to be more accepting and less controlling than the children of United States. Children perceived their mothers to be more accepting, while mothers of Pakistan were perceived to be more warm and nurturing. Male and female differences showed that In Pakistan females perceived their fathers to be more rejecting while in west, male children perceived their fathers to be more hostile and controlling.

Personalities of children were also found to be different cross-culturally, Pakistani children perceived themselves to be having less negative attributes. Pakistani children however were found to be more dependent than American children. Male children were found to be more hostile while female children as more dependent.

There was a high correlation found between the subscales indicating that Higher the marital coping, more warm the parents are perceived by children and intern more positive personality attributes are developed in them. The results indicate that Pakistani couples are using more positive approach thus are perceived more warm and less controlling. This also leads to the finding that Pakistani children have positive personality characteristics as compared to American children.

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It is thus concluded that in a home a healthy environment is established not only by a healthy parent child relationship but also how children perceive their parents and also how harmonious the marital relationship is between parents. Even if the family is an intact unit, there are many other factors important too and this includes the life styles and values of the family. The cultural differences also play a very important role and the culture is needed to be studies properly before inferring the results or generalizing them.

In the future studies the limitations can be removed by taking larger sample size, studying demographic variables in detail and studying the effect of other family members on the functioning of a family.

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ANNEXURE

MARITAL COPING INVENTORY

Age:

Education:

Most people in close relationship notice that certain problems tend to come up over and over again. For example, you and your partner may disagree over housework issues, in-laws, interference, your partner's jealousy, drinking, children, communications or sexual matters, Problems of these kinds may occur even in satisfying marriages. Think of the most serious recurring problem that you have with your partner

How serious do you consider this problem to be? Please circle

Not Serious	Slightly Serious	Moderately serious	Quite serious	Extremely Serious
1	2	3	4	5

Listed below are many ways people may deal with marital problems. Keeping in mind the problem you have identified, indicate how often you tend to do each of these things when dealing with your problem, by circling the word on the scale provided after each item. Note that the answer words on the scale are sometimes in a reversed order, so read the items and answer words carefully. Please try to answer all the questions.

When I am dealing with this problem, I...

	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Often	Never
1. Sit down and talk things out with my partner					
2. Yell or shout at my partner					
3. Buy presents for my partner or do special favors for him or her					
4. Blame myself					
5. Put more energy into my work					
6. Feel sorry for my self					
7. Tell my partner that s/he is childish, self-centered, domineering or moody					
8. Try not to think about the problem					
9. Have difficulty falling asleep or staying asleep					
10. Remind my partner of things s/he has said or done in the past that made me unhappy					
11. Do more things with my partner that both of us find enjoyable					
12. Spend more time on my hobbies					
13. Do more things with my partner that s/he enjoys					
14. Demand that my partner do things differently					
15. Try to initiate discussion with my partner					

	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Often	Never
16. Sleep more than usual or have trouble getting out of bed in the morning					
17. Am sarcastic to my partner					
18. Experience more health problems than usual					
19. Avoid initiating physical contact with my partner					
20. Spend more time with friends					
21. Tell myself the difficulties are not important					
22. Avoid initiating physical contact with my partner					
23. Feel more tired than usual					
24. Wait for time to remedy the problem					
25. Argue more than usual with people					
26. am more physically affectionate than toward my partner					
27. Feel depressed and blue					
28. Take on new, time-consuming responsibilities at work or in the community					
29. Deny that anything is wrong or change the subject if my partner brings up the problem					
30. Hit or bash things					
31. Feel anxious, tense and unsettled					
32. Develop new time-consuming hobbies or interests (e.g., an evening course)					
33. Remind myself of good times my partner and i have had in the past					
34. Cry when i am by myself					
35. Am irritable around my partner					

	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Often	Never
36. Tell myself that i will deal with the problem in the future but that now isn't a good time					
37. Remind my partner of good times we have had in the past					
38. Feel hopeless about the situation					
39. Put down my partner in front of others					
40. Keep busy when i am at home with my partner					
41. Make more effort to look attractive when i am with my partner					
42. Criticize my partner for things other than what is really bothering me					
43. Keep my hurt feelings to myself					
44. Pay more attention to my partner					
45. Feel that i am a failure					
46. Try to figure out what is causing the problems					
47. Tell my partner how much i love and care about him or her					
48. Tell my partner that the problem is all his or her fault					
49. Get more exercises, or put more energy into physical activities					
50. Try to make my partner see a funny side to the situation					
51. Go over and over the problem in my mind without seeming to get anywhere					
52. Pick fights with my partner over small issues					
53. Set aside a time with my partner so that we can discuss the problem					

	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Often	Never
54. Try to see a funny side to the situation					
55. Worry about my health					
56. Socialize more than usual without my partner					
57. Give my partner ultimatums such as insisting that things be done my way or i will...					
58. Find I can't concentrate on my work or other interests					
59. Try to solve the problem myself without talking about it with my partner					
60. Decide to get even with my partner					
61. Feel guilty					
62. Suggest to my partner that we "make up"					

CHILD PARQ/C: Father

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way fathers sometimes act toward their children. I want you to think about how each one of these fits the way your father treats you.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is *basically* true about the way your father treats you then ask yourself, "Is it almost *always* true?" or "Is it only *sometimes* true?" If you think your father almost always treats you that way, put an *X* in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if the statement is sometimes true about the way your father treats you then mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically *untrue* about the way your father treats you then ask yourself, "Is it *rarely* true?" or "Is it almost *never* true?" If it is rarely true about the way your father treats you put a mark in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true then mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you feel your father really is rather than the way you might like him to be. For example, if he almost always hugs and kisses you when you are good, you should mark the item as follows:

Hugs and Kisses when I am good

Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true

My Father	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
1. Nags or scolds me when I am bad				
2. Pays no attention to me				
3. Does not really love me				
4. Talks to me about our plans and listens to what I have to say				
5. Tells me what I should do				
6. Complains about me to others when I do not listen to him				
7. Takes a real interest in me				
8. When I go out, asks when I will come back				
9. Wants me to bring my friends home, and tries to make things pleasant for them				
10. Ridicules and makes fun of me				
11. Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother him				
12. Yells at me when he is angry				
13. Makes it easy for me to tell him things that are important to me				
14. Tells me how should I behave in front of others				
15. Treats me harshly				
16. Enjoys having me around him				
17. Makes me feel proud when I do well				
18. Believes in Discipline and acts on it too				
19. Hits me, even when I do not deserve it				

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	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
20. Forgets things he is supposed to do for me				
21. Sees me as a big nuisance				
22. Praises me to others				
23. Has given me a lot of freedom				
24. Punishes me severely when he is angry				
25. Makes sure I have the right kind of food to eat				
26. Talks to me in a warm and loving way				
27. Tells me how to do many things				
28. Gets angry at me easily				
29. Is too busy to answer my questions				
30. Seems to dislike me				
31. Says nice things to me when I deserve them				
32. Does not object on my going out				
33. Gets mad quickly and picks on me				
34. Cares about who my friends are				
35. Is really interested in what I do				
36. Makes sure that I do whatever he wants				
37. Says many unkind things to me				
38. Pays no attention when I ask for help				
39. Thinks it is my own fault when I am having trouble				
40. Makes me feel wanted and needed				
41. Has no restriction on going out in the evening with friends.				
42. Tells me I get on his nerves				
43. Pays a lot of attention to me				

	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
44. Tells me how proud he is of me when I am good				
45. Tells me who to meet as a friend				
46. Goes out of his way to hurt my feelings				
47. Forgets important things I think he should remember				
48. Makes me feel unloved if I misbehave				
49. Makes me feel what I do is important				
50. Encourages me for my activities				
51. Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong				
52. Likes to spend time with me				
53. Tries to help me when I am scared or upset				
54. Has given me complete freedom				
55. Shames me in front of my friends when I misbehave				
56. Tries to stay away from me				
57. Complains about me				
58. Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it				
59. Wants that everything I do is according to a discipline				
60. Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do				
61. Cares about what I would like when he makes plans				
62. Lets me do things I think are important, even if it is hard for him				
63. Thinks other children behave better than I do				

	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
64. Wants other people to take care of me (for example, a neighbor or relative)				
65. Lets me know I am not wanted				
66. Is interested in the things I do				
67. Tries to make me feel better when I am hurt or sick				
68. Tells me how ashamed he is when I misbehave				
69. Lets me know he loves me				
70. Treats me gently and with kindness				
71. Makes me feel ashamed or guilty when I misbehave				
72. Tries to make me happy				

CHILD PARQ/C: Mother

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way fathers sometimes act toward their children. I want you to think about how each one of these fits the way your father treats you.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is *basically* true about the way your father treats you then ask yourself, "Is it almost *always* true?" or "Is it only *sometimes* true?" If you think your father almost always treats you that way, put an X in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if the statement is sometimes true about the way your father treats you then mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically *untrue* about the way your father treats you then ask yourself, "Is it *rarely* true?" or "Is it almost *never* true?" If it is rarely true about the way your father treats you put a mark in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true then mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you feel your father really is rather than the way you might like him to be. For example, if he almost always hugs and kisses you when you are good, you should mark the item as follows:

Hugs and Kisses when I am good

Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true

My Mother	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
1. Nags or scolds me when I am bad				
2. Pays no attention to me				
3. Does not really love me				
4. Talks to me about our plans and listens to what I have to say				
5. Tells me what I should do				
6. Complains about me to others when I do not listen to him				
7. Takes a real interest in me				
8. When I go out, asks when I will come back '				
9. Wants me to bring my friends home, and tries to make things pleasant for them				
10. Ridicules and makes fun of me				
11. Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother her				
12. Yells at me when he is angry				
13. Makes it easy for me to tell him things that are important to me				
14. Tells me how should I behave in front of others				
15. Treats me harshly				
16. Enjoys having me around her				
17. Makes me feel proud when I do well				
18. Believes in Discipline and acts on it too				
19. Hits me, even when I do not deserve it				

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	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
20. Forgets things she is supposed to do for me				
21. Sees me as a big nuisance				
22. Praises me to others				
23. Has given me a lot of freedom				
24. Punishes me severely when she is angry				
25. Makes sure I have the right kind of food to eat				
26. Talks to me in a warm and loving way				
27. Tells me how to do many things				
28. Gets angry at me easily				
29. Is too busy to answer my questions				
30. Seems to dislike me				
31. Says nice things to me when I deserve them				
32. Does not object on my going out				
33. Gets mad quickly and picks on me				
34. Cares about who my friends are				
35. Is really interested in what I do				
36. Makes sure that I do whatever she wants				
37. Says many unkind things to me				
38. Pays no attention when I ask for help				
39. Thinks it is my own fault when I am having trouble				
40. Makes me feel wanted and needed				
41. Has no restriction on going out in the evening with friends.				
42. Tells me I get on his nerves				
43. Pays a lot of attention to me				

	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
44. Tells me how proud she is of me when I am good				
45. Tells me who to meet as a friend				
46. Goes out of her way to hurt my feelings				
47. Forgets important things I think she should remember				
48. Makes me feel unloved if I misbehave				
49. Makes me feel what I do is important				
50. Encourages me for my activities				
51. Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong				
52. Likes to spend time with me				
53. Tries to help me when I am scared or upset				
54. Has given me complete freedom				
55. Shames me in front of my friends when I misbehave				
56. Tries to stay away from me				
57. Complains about me				
58. Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it				
59. Wants that everything I do is according to a discipline				
60. Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do				
61. Cares about what I would like when he makes plans				
62. Lets me do things I think are important, even if it is hard for him				
63. Thinks other children behave better than I do				

	Almost always true	Sometimes true	Rarely true	Almost never true
64. Wants other people to take care of me (for example, a neighbor or relative)				
65. Lets me know I am not wanted				
66. Is interested in the things I do				
67. Tries to make me feel better when I am hurt or sick				
68. Tells me how ashamed she is when I misbehave				
69. Lets me know she loves me				
70. Treats me gently and with kindness				
71. Makes me feel ashamed or guilty when I misbehave				
72. Tries to make me happy				

CHILD PAQ
Personality Assessment Questionnaire

_____
Name (or I. D. number)

_____
Date

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way people feel about themselves. Read each statement carefully and think how well it describes you. Work quickly; give your first impression and move on to the next item. Do not dwell on any item.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is basically true about you then ask yourself, "Is it almost always true?" or "Is it only sometimes true?" If you think the statement is almost always true put an X in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if you feel the statement is only sometimes true mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically untrue about you then ask yourself, "Is it rarely true?" or "Is it almost never true?" If it is rarely true then put an X in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you think you really are rather than the way you would like to be. For example, if you almost always feel good about yourself then mark the item as follows:

	TRUE OF ME		NOT TRUE OF ME	
	Almost Always True	Sometimes True	Rarely True	Almost Never True
I feel good about myself	☒	☐	☐	☐

NOW TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

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		TRUE OF ME		NOT TRUE OF ME	
		Almost Always True	Sometimes True	Rarely True	Almost Never True
1.	I think about fighting or being unkind	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	I like my parents to feel sorry for me when I feel ill.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	I like myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	I feel I can do the things I want as well as most people	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	I have difficulty showing people how I feel	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	I feel bad or get angry when I try to do something and I cannot do it	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	I feel life is nice	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	I want to hit something or someone	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	I like my parents to give me a lot of love	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	I feel I am no good and I never will be any good	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	I feel I cannot do things well	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	It is easy for me to be loving with my parents	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	I am in a bad mood and grumpy without any good reason	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	I see life as full of dangers	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	I get so angry I throw or break things	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	When I am unhappy I like to work out my problems by myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	When I meet someone I do not know, I think (s)he is better than I am	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	I can compete successfully for things I want	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	I have trouble making and keeping good friends	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	I get upset when things go wrong	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	I think the world is a good, happy place	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	I make fun of people who do stupid things	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	I like my parents to give me a lot of attention	☐	☐	☐	☐

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		TRUE OF ME		NOT TRUE OF ME	
		Almost Always True	Sometimes True	Rarely True	Almost Never True
24.	I think I am a good person and other people should think so too	☐	☐	☐	☐
26.	It is easy for me to show my family that I love them	☐	☐	☐	☐
27.	I am cheerful and happy one minute and gloomy and unhappy the next	☐	☐	☐	☐
28.	For me the world is an unhappy place	☐	☐	☐	☐
29.	I pout or sulk when I get angry	☐	☐	☐	☐
30.	I like to be given encouragement when I am having trouble with something	☐	☐	☐	☐
31.	I feel pretty good about myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
32.	I feel I cannot do many of the things I try to do	☐	☐	☐	☐
33.	It is hard for me to show the way I really feel to someone I like	☐	☐	☐	☐
34.	It is unusual for me to get angry or upset	☐	☐	☐	☐
35.	I see the world as a dangerous place	☐	☐	☐	☐
36.	I have trouble controlling my temper	☐	☐	☐	☐
37.	I like my parents to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick	☐	☐	☐	☐
38.	I get unhappy with myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
39.	I feel I am a success in the things I do	☐	☐	☐	☐
40.	It is easy to show my friends I really like them	☐	☐	☐	☐
41.	I get upset easily when I come across hard problems	☐	☐	☐	☐
42.	Life for me is a good thing	☐	☐	☐	☐

(C) & (B) بچوں کی پرورش کے متعلق سوالنامہ

CHILD REARING -CONTROL: Mother/Father (Urdu Version)

ہدایات :-
(Instructions)

اس سوالنامہ میں درج سوالات اس بات کی نشاندہی کرتے ہیں کہ ماں / باپ اپنے بچوں کے ساتھ کیسا برتاؤ کرتے / کرتی ہیں۔ ہر سوال کو غور سے پڑھیں اور بتائیں کہ ماں / باپ نے آپ کی پرورش کس طریقہ سے کی جب آپ 7 تا 12 سال کے تھے / تھی۔

یاد رہے کہ سوال کا کوئی صحیح یا غلط جواب نہیں ہے۔ جواب دیتے وقت آپ کے پیش نظر ماں / باپ کا حقیقی رویہ ہونا چاہیے نہ کہ آپ اپنی خواہش کے مطابق تصور کریں کہ ماں / باپ کو ایسا رویہ اختیار کرنا چاہیے۔

جواب دینے کا طریقہ :-

ہر سوال کے سامنے بائیں جانب جواب کے لئے چار خانے بہتر تیب ' اکثر و بیشتر ' ، ' کبھی کبھی ' ، ' بہت کم ' اور ' کبھی نہیں ' دیے گئے ہیں آپ سمجھتے / سمجھتی ہیں کہ ماں / باپ نے آپ کی پرورش اسی طرح سے کر رہے تھے / کر رہی تھی۔ جیسا کہ سوال میں بتایا گیا ہے تو اپنے آپ سے مزید سوال کریں کہ ماں / باپ ' اکثر و بیشتر ' آپ کے ساتھ ایسا برتاؤ کرتی تھیں / کرتے تھے ' کبھی کبھی ' ان کا برتاؤ ایسا ہوتا تھا۔ اگر ماں / باپ تقریباً ہمیشہ آپ کا ایسا برتاؤ کرتی تھی / کرتے تھے تو آپ کالم ' اکثر و بیشتر ' کے نیچے ✓ ' کا نشان لگائیں۔ اگر ان کا برتاؤ کبھی کبھی ایسا ہوتا تو پھر ' کبھی کبھی ' کے نیچے ✓ ' کا نشان لگائیں۔ اگر آپ سمجھتے / سمجھتی ہیں کہ ماں / باپ ایسا برتاؤ آپ کے ساتھ کبھی بھی نہیں کرتی تھی / کرتے تھے جیسا کہ سوال میں گیا ہے تو آپ ' کبھی نہیں ' کے نیچے نشان لگائیں ' اور اگر ماں / باپ ایسا برتاؤ بہت کم حد تک کرتی تھی / کرتے تھے تو آپ ' بہت کم ' کے نیچے ✓ ' کا نشان لگائیں۔

مثال :-
(Example)

اگر آپ سمجھتے / سمجھتی ہیں کہ آپ کے ابو / امی آپ کو ہمیشہ پیار کرتے تھے ، جب آپ اچھا کام کرتے تھے / کرتی تھی تو جواب یوں دیں۔

کبھی نہیں	بہت کم	کبھی کبھی	اکثر و بیشتر	
___	___	___	✓	1- امی / ابو مجھے پیار کرتی تھی / کرتے تھے جب میں اچھا کام کرتا تھا / کرتی تھی۔

کبھی نہیں	بہت کم	کبھی کبھی	اکثر و بیشتر	
——	——	——	——	1۔ اذ/اِنی میرے بارے میں اچھی باتیں کہتے تھے اُ رہتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	2۔ جب میں بد تمیزی کرتا/کرتی تو وہ/وہی مجھے برا بھلا کہتی تھی/کہتے تھے
——	——	——	——	3۔ اذ/اِنی مجھ پر توجہ نہیں دیتے تھے/دیتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	4۔ اذ/اِنی حقیقت میں مجھ سے محبت نہیں کرتے تھے/کرتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	5۔ اذ/اِنی مجھے اس بات سے آگاہ کرتے/کرتی کہ مجھے کیا کر نا چاہیے۔
——	——	——	——	6۔ اذ/اِنی گھریلو معاملات میں مجھ سے بات چیت کرتے تھے/کرتی تھی اور میری رائے پر توجہ دیتے/دیتی۔
——	——	——	——	7۔ جب میں اذ/اِنی کی بات نہیں سنتا/سنتی تو میری شکایت دوسروں سے کرتے تھے/کرتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	8۔ اذ/اِنی مجھے گھر پر ودیلیں لینے تھے/لیتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	9۔ جب میں باہر جاتا/جاتی تو وہ/وہی پوچھتے تھے/پوچھتی تھی کہ آخر کس وقت واپس آنا ہے۔
——	——	——	——	10۔ اذ/اِنی میرے دوستوں کو گھر لاتے/لاتی پر میری ہمت افزائی کرتے تھے/کرتی تھی اور ان کو خوش کرنے کی کوشش کرتے/کرتی۔
——	——	——	——	11۔ اذ/اِنی میرا مذاق اڑاتے/اڑاتی اور مجھ پر ہنستی تھی/ہنستے تھے۔
——	——	——	——	12۔ اذ/اِنی مجھے پر اس وقت تک توجہ نہیں دیتے تھے/دیتی تھی جب تک کہ میں ان کیلیے پریشانی کا باعث نہ بنوں۔
——	——	——	——	13۔ اذ/اِنی جب بد مزاج ہوتے تھے/ہوتی تھی تو مجھ پر چیختے چلاتے/چیختی چلاتی۔
——	——	——	——	14۔ اذ/اِنی مجھے بتاتے تھے/بتاتی تھی کہ مجھے لوگوں سے کس انداز میں پیش آنا چاہیے۔
——	——	——	——	15۔ میں اذ/اِنی پر آسانی سے بھروسہ کر کے اپنی اہم باتیں بتا سکتا تھا/سکتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	16۔ اذ/اِنی مجھ سے سختی سے پیش آتی تھی/آتے تھے۔
——	——	——	——	17۔ اذ/اِنی مجھے اپنے پاس رکھنا پسند کرتے تھے/کرتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	18۔ اذ/اِنی نظم و ضبط پر یقین رکھتے تھے/رکھتی تھی اور اس پر کاربند رہتے تھے/رہتی۔
——	——	——	——	19۔ جب میں اچھا کام کرتا تھا/کرتی تھی، تو وہ/وہی میری ہمت افزائی کرتی تھی/کرتے تھے۔
——	——	——	——	20۔ اذ/اِنی مجھے بلاوجہ مارتے تھے/مارتی تھی۔
——	——	——	——	21۔ اذ/اِنی وہ کام کرنے سے منع کرتے تھے/کرتی تھی جو انہیں میرے لیے گوارا نہ ہو۔

22۔ امّی ابّی مجھے ایک برا اور بُرا بچہ خیال کرتے تھے/ اکرتی تھی۔

23۔ امّی ابّی نے مجھے کافی آزادی دے رکھی تھی۔

24۔ امّی ابّی دوسروں کے سامنے میری تعریف کرتے تھے/ اکرتی تھی۔

25۔ جب امّی ابّی غصہ میں ہوتے/ اہوتی تو مجھے سخت سزا دیتی تھی/ ادیتے تھے۔

26۔ امّی ابّی ہر بات کا اطمینان کر لیتے تھے/ اکرتی تھی کہ مجھے مناسب کپڑے پہننے کو ملتا ہے۔

27۔ امّی ابّی مجھے بتاتے تھے/ ابتاتی تھی کہ کوڈ کام مجھے کس طرح کرنا ہے۔

28۔ امّی ابّی مجھ سے گرمجوشی اور محبت بھرے انداز میں بات کرتے تھے/ اکرتی تھی۔

29۔ امّی ابّی مجھ پر جلدہ جلدہ غصہ کرنے لگتے تھے/ الگتی تھی۔

30۔ میرے سوالوں کے جوابات دینے کے لئے امّی ابّی کے پاس وقت نہیں ہوتا تھا۔

31۔ میں اپنے متعلق یہ جانتا تھا/ اکرتی تھی کہ امّی ابّی مجھے پسند نہیں کرتے/ اکرتی تھی۔

32۔ امّی ابّی کی طرف سے باہر آنے جانے پر میرے لیے کوئی پابندی نہیں تھی۔

33۔ امّی ابّی میری تعریف کرتے تھے/ اکرتی تھی جب میں اس کی مستحق ہوتا/ اہوتی۔

34۔ امّی ابّی مجھ پر غصہ کرنے کے بعد کافی لاد و پیار اختیار کرتے تھے/ اکرتی تھی۔

35۔ امّی ابّی کو من باتوں کی فکر رہتی تھی کہ میرا دوست کون ہے۔

36۔ امّی ابّی اس بات کو یقینی بناتے تھے/ ابناتی تھی کہ مجھے وہی کرنا ہے جو کچھ کہا گیا۔

37۔ امّی ابّی حقیقی معنوں میں میرے کاموں میں دلچسپی لیتے تھے/ الیتی تھی۔

38۔ امّی ابّی مجھے سخت با تیں کہتے تھے/ اکہتی تھی۔

39۔ جب میں امّی ابّی سے مدد طلب کرتا تھا/ اکرتی تھی تو مجھے نظر انداز کرو دیتے/ اکرو دیتی۔

40۔ امّی ابّی کہتے تھے/ اسمجھتی تھی کہ میری مصیبت کا ذمہ دار میں خود ہوں۔

41۔ شام کے وقت دوستوں کے ساتھ باہر آنے جانے کیلئے امّی ابّی کی طرف سے مجھ پر کوئی پابندی نہیں تھی۔

42۔ امّی ابّی مجھے اس بات کا احساس دلاتے تھے/ ادلاتی تھی کہ مجھے چاہنے آپ جتنے تھے اور میری ان کو ضرورت ہے۔

43۔ امّی ابّی مجھے کہتے تھے/ اکہتی تھی کہ میں ان کے اعصاب پر سوار رہتا ہوں۔

44۔ امّی ابّی مجھ پر خاص توجہ دیتے تھے/ ادیتی تھی۔

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45۔ اما ابّا ی مجھے کہتے تھے اکثر کبھی کہ جب میں اپنے کام کرتا ہوا کرتی ہوں
تو وہ فخر محسوس کرتے اکرتی ہیں۔

47۔ اما ابّا ی میرے جذبات کو بار بار ٹھیس پہنچاتے تھے پہنچاتی تھی۔

48۔ اما ابّا ی ان اہم واقعات کو بھلا دیتی تھی ا جاتے تھے جس کو میں چاہتا اچاہتی
کہ وہ یاد رکھے۔

49۔ اما ابّا ی مجھے اس بات کا احساس دلاتے تھے اولاتی تھی کہ اگر میں نے شرارت کی
تو مجھے پیار نہیں کیا جائے گا۔

50۔ اما ابّا ی میری مصروفیت کے سلسلے میں بہت افزائی کرتے تھے کرتی تھی۔

51۔ اما ابّا ی مجھے اس بات کا احساس دلاتی تھی اولاتے تھے کہ
میں نے جو کچھ کیا نہ وہ اہم ہے۔

52۔ جب میں کوئی غلط کام کرتا اکرتی تو وہ اما ابّا ی مجھے
ڈراتی اور دھمکی دیتے تھے اوتی تھی۔

53۔ اما ابّا ی میرے ساتھ وقت گزارنا پسند کرتے تھے اکرتی تھی۔

54۔ مجھے اما ابّا ی کی طرف سے کبھی آزادی تھی۔

55۔ جب میں خوف پریشانی میں مبتلا ہوتا ا ہوتی
تو وہ اما ابّا ی میری مدد کرتے تھے اکرتی تھی۔

56۔ جب میں ناشائستہ حرکتیں کرتا اکرتی تھی تو اما ابّا ی
میرے دوستوں کے سامنے مجھے شرمندہ کرتے اکرتی۔

57۔ اما ابّا ی مجھے دور رہنا چاہتے تھے ا چاہتی تھی۔

58۔ اما ابّا ی میری شکایت کرتے تھے اکرتی تھی۔

59۔ اما ابّا ی چاہتے تھے ا چاہتی تھی کہ میرا لباس ایک
نظم و ضبط کے ذریع ہو۔

60۔ اما ابّا ی میری رائے کا احترام کرتے تھے اکرتی تھی اور اس کے اظہار
میں میری بہت افزائی کرتے اکرتی۔

61۔ اما ابّا ی دوسرے بچوں کے مقابلے میں مجھے کم تر سمجھتے ا سمجھتی
خواہ میں نے کتنائی چھوٹا کام کیوں نہ کیا ہو۔

62۔ اما ابّا ی گھریلو معاملات میں میری پسند کو خیال رکھتے تھے ا رکھتی تھی۔

63۔ اما ابّا ی وہ کام مجھے کرنے دیتی تھی ا دیتے تھے جسے میں اہم
سمجھتا ا سمجھتی چاہے وہ ان کے لیے کتنائی پریشانی کا سبب کیوں نہ بنے۔

64۔ اما ابّا ی میرے مقابلے میں دوسرے بچوں کو بار بار کی کو بہتر سمجھتے ا سمجھتی تھی۔

65۔ اما ابّا ی مجھے رشتے دار پڑوسی کے سپرد کرتی تھی ا کر دیتے تھے۔

66۔ اما ابّا ی مجھے اس بات کا احساس دلاتی تھی ا دلاتے تھے کہ وہ مجھے پسند نہیں کرتے اکرتی۔

67۔ میں جو کچھ کرتا ہوتا اکرتی تھی وہ اما ابّا ی اس میں دلچسپی لیتے ا لیتی۔

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کبھی نہیں	بہت کم	کبھی کبھی	اکثر و بیشتر
ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

67- جب میں تکلیف پیشمانی میں مبتلا ہوتا /ہوتی تو امّی /ابی مجھے
دلاسہ دیتے تھے /دیتی تھی اور کہتے /کہتی ہے کہ تم ٹھیک ہو جاؤ گے۔

ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

68- امّی /ابی مجھے کہتے /کہتی کہ جب تم غلطی کام کرتے /کرتی
ہو تو مجھے شرمندگی ہوتی ہے۔

ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

69- امّی /ابی مجھ پر جتلاتے تھے /جتلاتی تھی کہ وہ مجھ سے بہت
پیار کرتے /کرتی ہیں۔

ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

70- امّی /ابی مجھ سے نرمی اور رحم دلی کا برتاؤ کرتے تھے /کرتی تھی۔

ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

71- جب میں غلطہ کام کرتا تھا /کرتی تھی، تو امّی /ابی مجھے شرمندہ کرتے /کرتی
پہ جرم کا احساس دلاتے /دلاتی۔

ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

72- امّی /ابی مجھے خوش رکھنے کی کوشش کرتے تھے /کرتی تھی۔

ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ	ــــــــ

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(D) شخصیت سے متعلق سوالنامہ

کبھی نہیں	بہت کم	کبھی کبھی	اکثر بیاوقات
———	———	———	———

1۔ دوسروں سے لڑنے کو میرا جی چاہتا ہے۔

2۔ میں یہ چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ جب میں بیمار ہوں تو میرے ماں باپ میرے لئے پریشان ہوں۔

3۔ میں اپنے آپ کو پسند کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔

4۔ میں محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ میں دوسروں کو کچھ نہیں کرسکتا/سکتی ہوں جو دوسرے لوگ کرسکتے ہیں۔

5۔ مجھے لوگوں کو یہ بتانے میں دشواری ہوتی ہے کہ میں کیا محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔

6۔ جب میں کوئی کام کرنے کی کوشش کرتا/کرتی ہوں اور نہیں کرسکتا/سکتی، تو مجھے برا محسوس ہوتا ہے یا مجھے غصہ آجاتا ہے۔

7۔ میں محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ زندگی ایک اچھی چیز ہے۔

8۔ میری طبیعت کسی چیز یا کسی شخص کو مارنے چاہتی ہے۔

9۔ میں چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ میرے والدین مجھے بہت پیار کریں۔

10۔ میں محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ میں اچھا/اچھی نہیں ہوں اور کبھی بھی اچھا/اچھی نہیں بن سکوں گا/سکوں گی۔

11۔ میں محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ میں کسی کام کو کسے طریقے سے نہیں کرسکتا/سکتی۔

12۔ یہ میرے لئے آسان ہے کہ میں اپنے ماں باپ سے محبت کروں۔

13۔ بغیر کسی معقول وجہ کے میرا موڈ خراب ہوجاتا ہے۔

14۔ میں زندگی کے خطرات سے گھر پور دیکھتا/دیکھتی ہوں۔

15۔ میں استقرار میں آور جاتا/جاتی ہوں اور ایک چیز دل کو بیٹھتا/بیٹھتی اور دورہ/دورہ آتوڑتی/ہوں۔

16۔ جب میں پریشان ہوتا/ہوتی ہوں، تو اپنی مشکلات کو خود حل کرتا چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں۔

17۔ جب میں کسی سے ملتا/ملتی ہوں تو سوچتا/سوچتی ہوں کہ دوسرے مجھ سے بہتر ہیں، مگر کاش میں ایسے برے میں کچھ نہیں جانتا/جانتی۔

18۔ میں جن چیزوں کو حاصل کرنا چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں ان کے لئے جدوجہد کرکے کامیابی حاصل کرسکتا/سکتی ہوں۔

19۔ مجھے اپنے احساسات بتانے اور دوسری باتوں کہنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔

20۔ جب مجھے کام خراب ہوجاتے تو میں پریشان ہوجاتا/جاتی ہوں۔

کبھی نہیں	بہت کم	کبھی کبھی	اکثر اوقات	
——	——	——	——	21۔ میں سوچتا/سوچتی ہوں کہ دنیا ایک اچھی اور خوشگوار جگہ ہے۔
——	——	——	——	22۔ میرے ارد گرد ایسے بہت سارے لوگ ہیں جو مجھ سے پیار کرتے ہیں۔
——	——	——	——	23۔ میں چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ میرے ماں باپ مجھ پر زیادہ توجہ دیں۔
——	——	——	——	24۔ میں سوچتا/سوچتی ہوں کہ میں ایک اچھا لڑکا/اچھی لڑکی ہوں اور دوسرے لوگ بھی میرے بارے میں ایسی ہی رائے قائم کرتے ہیں۔
——	——	——	——	25۔ میں سوچتا/سوچتی ہوں کہ میں ایک کامیاب شخص ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	26۔ یہ میرے لئے آسان ہوتا ہے کہ میں اپنے گھر والوں کو بتا سکوں کہ میں ان سے محبت کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	27۔ میں ایک منٹ میں خوش ہوتا/ہوتی ہوں اور دوسرے منٹ میں اداس اور پریشان ہو جاتا/جاتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	28۔ دنیا میرے لئے ایک خوشگوار جگہ ہے۔
——	——	——	——	29۔ جب میں ذہنی طور پر پریشان ہوتا/ہوتی ہوں تو جلد ہی میں چڑچڑا ہو جاتا/جاتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	30۔ میں چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ جب بھی میں کامیاب ہو پاؤں تو میری زیادہ حوصلہ افزائی کی جائے۔
——	——	——	——	31۔ میں اپنے متعلق اچھا محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	32۔ میں محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ میں وہ بہت ساری چیزیں نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی ہوں جو میں کرنا چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	33۔ مجھے کسی سے یہ کہنے میں دشواری پیش آتی ہے کہ میں اسے پسند کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	34۔ غصہ کرنا اور پریشان ہونا میرے لئے غیر اہم ہے۔
——	——	——	——	35۔ میں دنیا کو ایک خطرناک جگہ تصور کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	36۔ مجھے اپنے غصے کو برداشت کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
——	——	——	——	37۔ جب میں پریشان یا بیمار ہوتا/ہوتی ہوں تو میں چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ میرے لئے ماں باپ میرے خاطر پریشان ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	38۔ میں اپنے آپ سے خوش ہوتا/ہوتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	39۔ میں محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ میں جو کام کرتا/کرتی ہوں ان میں کامیاب ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	40۔ یہ میرے لئے آسان ہے کہ میں اپنے دوستوں کو بتا سکوں کہ میں حقیقت میں ان کو پسند کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	41۔ جب مجھے مشکل مسائل کا سامنا کرنا پڑتا ہے تو میں جلد ہی پریشان ہو جاتا/جاتی ہوں۔
——	——	——	——	42۔ زندگی میرے لئے ایک اچھی چیز ہے۔

MARITAL COPING INVENTORY

عموماً لوگ اپنے قریبی تعلقات کے بارے میں پریشان رہتے ہیں مثلاً آپ اور آپ کے شوہر بیوی کے گھر یلو کاموں میں ایک دوسرے سے اختلاف کرسکتے ہیں ۔ سسرال والوں کی بداخلاقی آپ کے احساسات کو مشتعل کرسکتی ہے ۔ آپ کا ساتھی آپ سے حسد کرسکتا ہے ۔ آپ کو اپنے خاوند بیوی کے متعلق سگریٹ، شراب نوشی، نشہ کرنا، بچوں کو توجہ نہ دینا اور جنسی تعلقات میں ناہمواری جیسے مسائل درپیش ہوسکتے ہیں ۔ جن کے ذریعے سے لوگ روزمرہ کی ازدواجی زندگی کے مسائل سے نبٹتے ہیں ۔ ذہن میں اس مسئلہ کو رکھتے ہوئے جس کی آپ نے نشاندہی کی ہے ۔ واضح کریں کہ آپ اپنے مسائل کے حل کے لیے کسی ایک طریقے کو کس حد تک کرتے رہتے ہیں ۔ مہربانی کرکے تمام سوالوں کے جواب دیں ۔ شکریہ!

جب ہم میاں بیوی روزمرہ کی ازدواجی زندگی کے مسائل حل کر رہے ہوتے ہیں تو

کبھی نہیں	کبھی کبھار	بعض اوقات	اکثر اوقات	ہمیشہ	
------	------	------	------	------	۱۔ میں اس کے متعلق بیٹھ کر اپنے خاوند بیوی سے بات کرتا رہتا رہتی ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۲۔ اپنے خاوند بیوی پر چیخنی چلاتی رہتا ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۳۔ اپنے خاوند بیوی کے لیے تحفے تحائف خریدتی رکھتا ہوں یا اسے خاص توجہ دیتا رہتا ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۴۔ اپنے آپ کو مورد الزام ٹھہراتی رہتا ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۵۔ اپنے کام میں اور زیادہ محنت کرتی رہکرتا ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۶۔ اپنے اوپر افسوس کرتی رہکرتا ہوں ۔
------	------		------	------	۷۔ اپنے خاوند بیوی کو کہتی رہکرتا ہوں کہ اس کی عادتیں بچگانہ ہیں، وہ خود غرض، بے سے بہرہ اور موذی ہے ۔
------	------	------		------	۸۔ کوشش کرتی رہکرتا ہوں کہ اس مسئلہ پر نہ سوچوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۹۔ کم خوابی یا بے خوابی کا شکار ہو باتی رہتا ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۱۰۔ اپنے خاوند بیوی کو ماضی کی تلخ باتیں یاد کراتی رکرتا ہوں ۔
------	------	------	------	------	۱۱۔ دونوں مل کر ایسے کام کرتے ہیں جن سے ہم دونوں لطف اندوز ہوتے ہیں ۔

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۱۲۔ اپنے مشاغل پر زیادہ وقت صرف کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۱۳۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی کے ساتھ مل کر زیادہ تر وہ کام کرتی/کرتا ہوں جن سے وہ خوش ہوتی/ہوتا ہے   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۱۴۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی سے تقاضا کرتی/کرتا ہوں کہ وہ اپنے رویّے کار کو تبدیل کرے   ------- ------- ------- -------

۱۵۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی کے ساتھ بحث شروع کرنے کی کوشش کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۱۶۔ معمول سے زیادہ سوتی/سوتا ہوں اور بستر سے اٹھنے میں دشواری پیش آتی ہے۔   ------- ------- -------

۱۷۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی پر طنزیہ جملے کستی/کستا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۱۸۔ صحت کے مسائل بڑھتے جاتے ہیں۔   ------- ------- -------

۱۹۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی سے میل جول میں پہل کرنے سے کتراتی/کتراتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۰۔ سہیلیوں/ دوستوں کے ساتھ زیادہ وقت گزارتی/گزارتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۱۔ اپنے آپ سے کہتی/کہتا ہوں کہ مسائل زیادہ اہم نہیں ہیں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۲۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی کے ساتھ جنسی تعلقات سے انکار کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۳۔ معمول سے زیادہ تھکن محسوس کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۴۔ مسئلہ کے حل کے لئے وقت کا انتظار کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۵۔ لوگوں سے معمول سے زیادہ بحث کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۶۔ اپنے شوہر/بیوی کے ساتھ میل جول میں زیادہ لگاوَ کا مظاہرہ کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۷۔ اداسی اور مایوسی کا شکار ہو جاتی/ہو جاتا رہتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۲۹۔ گھر میں یا گھر سے باہر زیادہ وقت طلب کاموں میں مصروف ہو جاتی/ہو جاتا رہتا ہوں۔   -------

۳۰۔ اگر میرا خاوند/بیوی اس مسئلہ کا ذکر کرے تو اس کے ہونے سے انکار کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   -------

۳۱۔ توڑ پھوڑ کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۳۲۔ خوف زدہ، مضطرب اور بے چین رہتی/رہتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۳۳۔ وقت گذاری کے لئے نئے مشاغل، اپنا لیتی/لیتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۳۴۔ ان خوشگوار لمحات کو یاد کرتی/کرتا ہوں جو میں نے اور میرے شوہر/بیوی نے اکٹھے ----   ------- ------- -------

۳۵۔ تنہائی میں روتی/روتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۳۶۔ اپنے خاوند پر بگڑتی/بگڑتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۳۷۔ خود سے کہتی/کہتا ہوں کہ اس مسئلہ سے مستقبل میں نبٹ لوں گی/گا۔ ابھی اس کے لئے وقت مناسب نہیں۔   -------

۳۸۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی کو ان خوشگوار لمحات کی یاد دلاتی/دلاتا ہوں جو ہم دونوں نے اکٹھے گذارے تھے۔   ------- ------- -------

۳۹۔ حالات سے ناامید ہو جاتی/ہو جاتا رہتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- ------- -------

۴۰۔ دوسرے لوگوں کے سامنے اپنے خاوند/بیوی کی بے عزتی (بےتُک) کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- ------- -------

۴۱۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی کی موجودگی میں اپنے آپ کو زیادہ پرکشش کرنے کی کوشش کرتی/کرتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- -------

۴۲۔ اپنے خاوند/بیوی کی موجودگی میں اپنے آپ کو مصروف رکھتی/رکھتا ہوں۔   ------- ------- -------

کبھی نہیں	کبھی کبھار	بعض اوقات	اکثر اوقات	مدام	نمبر	بیان
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۳	اپنے خاوند/بیوی پر بے جا تنقید کرتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۴	اپنے مجروح جذبات کو اپنے تک اپنے خاوند سے چھپتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۵	اپنے خاوند/بیوی کو زیادہ توجہ دیتی رکھ دیتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۶	خود کو ناکام سمجھتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۷	مسئلہ کی وجہ کی نشاندہی کرنے کی کوشش کرتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۸	اپنے خاوند/بیوی کو بتاتی رہتا ہوں کہ میں اس سے کتنی محبت کرتی رکھتا ہوں اور اس کا کتنا خیال رکھتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۴۹	اپنے خاوند/بیوی سے کہتی رکھتا ہوں کہ اس مسئلہ میں تمام غلطی اسی کی ہے۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۰	اپنے خاوند/بیوی کو اس بات کا مزاحیہ پہلو دکھانے کی کوشش کرتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۱	کسی نتیجے پر پہنچے بغیر بار بار ذہن میں اس مسئلہ کو دہراتی رہتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۱	چھوٹی چھوٹی باتوں پر اپنے خاوند/بیوی سے جھگڑتی رہتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۲	اس مسئلہ پر بات کرنے کے لئے اپنے خاوند/بیوی سے وقت طے کر لیتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۳	حالات کا خوشگوار پہلو دیکھنے کی کوشش کرتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۴	اپنی صحت کے بارے میں پریشان رہتی رہتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۵	اپنے خاوند/بیوی کے بغیر اکیلی ہی لوگوں سے میل جول بڑھاتی رہتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۶	اپنے خاوند/بیوی کو خبردار کرتی رکھتا ہوں کہ تمام کام میری مرضی سے کرو ورنہ..........!
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۷	لگتا ہے کہ میں اپنے کام میں اور دوسری دلچسپیوں پر توجہ مرکوز نہیں کر سکتی رکھتا۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۸	خاوند/بیوی کے ساتھ اس مسئلہ پر بات کئے بغیر اس کو حل کرنے کی کوشش کرتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۵۹	اپنے خاوند/بیوی کے ساتھ برابری کی سطح پر رہنے کا فیصلہ کرتی رکھتا ہوں۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۶۰	احساس گناہ ہوتا ہے۔
-------	-------	-------	-------		۶۱	اپنے خاوند/بیوی سے کہتی رکھتا ہوں کہ ہم اس مسئلہ پر قابو پا لیں گے۔