A Comparison of the Responses of Children and Their Parents to the Preschool Personality Questionnaire.

Robert Roy Allen
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A COMPARISON OF THE RESPONSES OF CHILDREN AND THEIR PARENTS TO THE PRESCHOOL PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE

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A COMPARISON OF THE RESPONSES OF CHILDREN

AND THEIR PARENTS TO THE PRESCHOOL

PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
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in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Psychology

by

Robert Roy Allen
B.A., University of Nevada, Reno, 1973
M.A., University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1976
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish criterion validity for the Preschool Personality Questionnaire (PSPQ). The PSPQ is a 200-item forced choice, self report inventory for four- through six-year-olds. One hundred and sixty of the items are scored on 14 factor analytically derived scales. The PSPQ is a downward extension of the Cattell-IPAT personality questionnaires.

For the study, the PSPQ was administered to 107 children, and predictions of their responses were made by their parents and teachers. The proportion of agreement between parents and children on the individual items was calculated, and compared with the proportion of agreement between randomly matched sets of parents and children. Also, the proportion of agreement between teachers and children, and between parents and children, on special sets of observable items was calculated. In addition, correlations between parents and children on the factors were obtained. Finally, an ANOVA was performed to determine if factor scores differed for boys and girls, and if the sex of the test administrator influenced the scores on the factor scales.

The results indicated that while parents and teachers had roughly similar ideas about how their children would respond, the children did not in fact, respond as expected. Only one of the scales, based on a masculinity/femininity factor, received substantial support. It was determined that boys and girls scored differently on certain factors, and that the sex of the test administrator was an important consideration. Implications of the findings were discussed.
INTRODUCTION

The Preschool Personality Questionnaire (hereafter abbreviated as the PSPQ) is a factor analytically derived trait measurement instrument for children between the ages of four and six years (Appendix 1). It is the latest in a series of downward extensions of the Cattell-IPAT personality questionnaires which include the Sixteen Factor Personality Questionnaire (for ages 16 and up), the Junior-Senior High School Personality Questionnaire (for ages 12 to 18), the Children's Personality Questionnaire (for ages 8 to 12), and the Early School Personality Questionnaire (for ages 6 to 8). It consists of 200 items which each require a choice between two alternatives. One hundred and sixty of the items are scored on 14 independent, factorially derived scales which cover such dimensions as secure passivity vs. insecure activity, reactive assertiveness vs. reactive nonassertiveness, affectionate demonstrativeness vs. undemonstrativeness, and phobic apprehensiveness vs. adventuresomeness.

In Lichtenstein's (Note 1) standardization of the PSPQ, he pointed out that at that time there was no widely available personality questionnaire designed specifically for children aged four to six. Measurement of preschool personality variables has traditionally been done with rating scales and other types of observation techniques (Johnson, 1976). However, questionnaires are popular in research and clinical measurement of adult personality variables, due to the relative speed and ease of their administration and scoring (and
sometimes interpretation). Thus there is reason to believe that there would be a ready market for a questionnaire aimed at the preschool population if one were available. Despite the early promise of the PSPQ, it has not yet been published.

In anticipation of its publication, this study was designed to investigate the question of the PSPQ's validity. Earlier work has demonstrated reasonable factor validity for the instrument, but potential users may be more concerned about the ability of the PSPQ to predict behavior in real life situations. For example, Sines (1978) in his review of the Early School Personality Questionnaire, noted that it has attracted little interest from researchers. He suggested that potential users would be encouraged by more evidence of criterion-related validity. This study was intended as a step toward demonstrating criterion validity for the PSPQ.

As a self-report technique, the PSPQ produces a picture of personality based on how the child sees himself. It was felt that the validity of those perceptions could best be tested by comparing them with the perceptions of those who know the child best, his parents. Accordingly, a study was designed in which parents independently predicted their child's responses to the PSPQ.
The PSPQ describes personality through the measurement of traits. At the simplest level, a trait is "any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual varies from another" (Guilford, 1959, p. 6). Some theorists (e.g., Allport, 1937; Cattell, 1946) have taken this a step further by suggesting that traits represent mental structures that predispose one to respond to situations in certain ways. Since the presence of traits is necessarily inferred from observations of consistencies in behavior, care must be taken to avoid circular reasoning in this dissertation.

Many students of behavior have disputed the need for the concept of traits at all (Skinner, 1953; Mischel, 1968), arguing that situational characteristics are the primary determinants of behavior. Even Mischel (1971) has admitted that individuals differ greatly and consistently in their responses to the same situation. The concept of trait does not imply a rigid, automatic type of response, nor does it deny the possibility of modification of the response tendency through experience. Advocates of traits and situationists have moved toward a middle ground by recognizing that behavior is influenced by characteristics of both the situation and the behaver (Dollard & Miller, 1950; Cattell, 1973; Block, 1981).

The measurement of traits through standardized tests implies that different people exhibit the same traits to different degrees. The idea of common traits is implicit in the adjectives that we use to
describe personality characteristics. Cattell (1950) distinguishes between unique traits that appear in only one person, and common traits which are possessed in varying degrees by all people. He also distinguishes between surface traits and source traits. Surface traits are clusters of responses that seem to go together, and source traits are hypothesized causal entities which determine the surface manifestations.

In order to determine the nature of personality and arrive at a common scheme for measuring and describing personality characteristics, it is necessary to determine what the source traits are. Since they are not directly observable, they must be identified by noting and interpreting correlations among observable responses. In a casual way, this method is the basis of all personality theories. Its haphazard application is responsible for the great diversity of theories which purport to describe the same thing.

The most powerful tool available today for empirically and systematically examining intercorrelations among variables is the mathematical technique of factor analysis. The development of this technique and advances in computer technology have made possible the analysis of far greater numbers of variables than even the most brilliant and intuitive of scientists could hope to manage unassisted. Still, a great deal of intuitive skill and experienced judgement is needed to determine which variables are worth examining and how the factors derived are to be interpreted.

In his quest to find the basic variables in personality, Cattell
(1946) began with Allport and Odbert's (1936) list of 4500 personality terms. After combining synonyms, he arrived at a list of 171 trait names with which a sample of 100 men were rated by their associates. Intercorrelations and factor analyses of these ratings were followed by further ratings of 208 men on a list of 45 trait names. Through factor analysis of these later ratings, Cattell arrived at a list of 12 relatively certain and 4 or 5 less certain source traits. In the last 35 years, Cattell and his factor analysis colleagues have exploited a variety of other sources of information about personality, and have increased the list to 23 normal and 12 abnormal traits in adults.

Comparison of these source traits with those derived by independent factor analysis researchers (including Guilford, Howarth, Comrey, Adcock, and others) shows some overlap, but not enough to justify a claim that Cattell's factors represent the true root variables of personality (Harman & French, 1973). Nevertheless, personality measurement based on empirically derived factors, even though of unknown validity, represents a significant advance in the technology of questionnaire development, the history of which is littered with vast numbers of arbitrarily constructed instruments, whose construct validity rests entirely on the judgment of their creators.

Following his preliminary delineation of the personality sphere in 1946, Cattell factor analyzed responses of 370 students to a questionnaire consisting of 80 representative items. He derived 15 fairly clear personality factors to which he added an intelligence factor,
and thus in 1949 created the experimental forerunner of the 16 PF. Eleven more factor analyses, using different populations and improvements in mathematical techniques have produced an impressive amount of evidence supporting the factor validity of the 16 PF, although not enough to silence all of its critics (e.g., Howarth, 1976).

Shortly after the emergence of the 16 PF, attempts were begun to determine if the factors obtained for adults are also valid for younger populations (Cattell & Gruen, 1953, 1954; Peterson & Cattell, 1958). Armed with some confirmation and additional information about the nature of personality traits in young people, an experimental questionnaire intended for ages 10 to 16 was developed consisting of one intelligence and eleven personality scales (Cattell & Beloff, 1953). Further research indicated that items appropriate for children as young as 8 years were not relevant for youth as old as 18, and so subsequent work was focused on development of separate questionnaires for two age groups. Eventually after several factor analysis studies, satisfactory consistency in factor scores was found and the Junior-Senior High School Personality Questionnaire (Cattell & Cattell, 1958) and the Children's Personality Questionnaire (Porter, Cattell, & Schaie, 1959) were published.

Extension of the personality questionnaire to subjects younger than eight years old necessitated the change from written to oral administration. Exploratory studies were hindered by the need for as many as eight sessions to administer all forms of the experimental
instruments. Thirteen successive factor studies were required before sufficiently robust factor structure and enough items that generalized well across samples were found for the six to eight year age group. Finally, in 1963 the Early School Personality Questionnaire was published (Coan & Cattell, 1963).

At last we have arrived at the subject of this dissertation—the PSPQ. The earliest beginnings of the PSPQ were in 1956 in the work of Cattell and Peterson (1958). Their study employed data from three sources: L-data (observations of behavior in everyday situations), and T-data (carefully measured responses to contrived laboratory situations), as well as Q-data (questionnaires). The choice of items for the questionnaire experiment was guided by the earlier work with eleven-year-olds (Cattell & Gruen, 1954) and a factor analytic study of preschool children by Koch (1942). Following a pretest with 20 children, an initial questionnaire consisting of 104 items was pared to 90 items and administered to 80 four- and five-year-old children at the University of Illinois Nursery School.

Although the L- and T-data did not provide much support for the hypothesized factor structure in preschool children, the Q-data yielded 13 satisfactory, simple-structure factors. The next study took 44 of the more promising items from the earlier study grouped into 26 parcels, and added 20 ability items. In 1964 this questionnaire was given to a sample of 115 five- and six-year-old children. The resulting factor analysis yielded four ability factors plus 14 personality factors which closely resembled the 13 of the earlier study
Prior to the next experiment, Dreger and associates collected an extensive pool of new items, covering diverse aspects of preschool behavior, affect, and cognition from the point of view of child psychologists. After a pretest on a small sample, those items that were responded to in the same direction by all or nearly all subjects were discarded. The remaining 156 items were added to the 44 from the earlier studies.

This 200 item questionnaire was administered to a sample of 180 four-, five-, and six-year-olds (which included some subjects from an earlier experiment) in Illinois. In order to factor analyze the responses, the original 44 items were grouped into 13 parcels, 40 of the new items were grouped into 12 parcels (according to inferred psychological meaning), and 21 items were thrown out (due to lack of discrimination value). The analysis yielded 22 factors, apparently including the previously found 13 plus 9 new ones. Second and third order factors were also extracted although no attempt was made to interpret them (Cattell & Dreger, 1974).

At this point a boundary study was designed to check out the "proto-PSPQ" and identify its factors with the Early School Personality Questionnaire. In all, 616 completed records were obtained from first-grade children, using 360 ESPQ and PSPQ items plus 200 new ESPQ extension items (Cattell & Dreger, 1976). The 360 PSPQ and old ESPQ items were grouped into 52 parcels for the analysis which yielded 17 factors. It was concluded that 10 of the factors from the PSPQ matched...
factors from the ESFQ. A later analysis of this data by items rather than parcels yielded 26 factors.

Meanwhile, other researchers were doing work to strengthen and explore other aspects of the PSPQ. Echeverri (Note 2) had the PSPQ translated into Spanish and administered it to 180 children in Medellin, Columbia. A factor analysis of her data yielded 23 factors, 10 of which were particularly stable. She concluded that despite the translation and different culture of her subjects, the same general traits emerged from their responses.

Leonard (Note 3) attempted to develop a social desirability scale for the PSPQ. He gave half of the items to each of two samples of 30 children, and asked them to respond first with their true beliefs, and second as they thought most children would respond. He obtained some interesting results, but in the end he did not succeed in producing a workable social desirability scale.

Another study (Johnson, Note 4) demonstrated some criterion validity for the PSPQ. Responses of 32 boys and 32 girls were compared on a factor described as "homebound feminine passiveness vs. adventurous masculine aggressiveness." Johnson concluded that the scale was valid in the sense that it successfully discriminated between boys and girls.

In a different approach to establishing some criterion validity for the PSPQ, the PSPQ was compared with the Preschool Behavioral Classification Project Instrument (Baker & Dreger, 1973). Twenty-four children from a clinic population took the PSPQ, and at the same time
their parents responded to the PBCP. Correlations between factors from the two instruments were above .70 in many cases, but the sample used in this experiment was not large enough to give much weight to the findings.

In the early 70's Lichtenstein (Note 1) undertook the standardization of the PSPQ on a new, representative sample. He tested 204 four-year-olds, 204 five-year-olds, and 208 six-year-olds recruited mostly from Baton Rouge area schools and day care centers. Two factor analyses were performed on the sample as a whole. The first (which also included responses from 300 other, previously tested subjects) yielded 30 factors (Note 5). In addition, separate factor analyses were performed for each of the three age groups. Nine of the weakest factors obtained in the second analysis were discarded in order to construct a scoring scheme with 14 independent, reliably scorabible factor scales, using 160 of the 200 PSPQ items. The descriptions of those factor scales are contained in Table 1.

As part of this research, measurements of test-retest reliability were made. For the first trial, 10 PSPQ items were administered twice to a sample of 30 children with a lapse of approximately one month. A correlation of .87 was found between the two administrations. The second trial was intended to check the reliability of the factors. The entire questionnaire was given twice to a sample of 148 preschool children with a lapse of about 3 weeks. Test-retest correlation coefficients for the factors ranged from a low of .41 for Factor U, to a high of .72 for Factor P.
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**Note:** Factors H, J, K, L, M, N, Q, S, and T were not used

Taken from Lichtenstein (Note 1)
Also, boys' and girls' factor scores for Factor C (the masculinity/femininity scale) were compared to determine if Johnson's (Note 4) findings would be replicated on the larger sample. Boys did indeed score much higher on this scale. Factor C was also noted to be the most strongly represented factor in each of the three age groups.
ORIENTATION OF THIS RESEARCH

The investigation of personality traits in preschool children rests on the assumption that children younger than six years old exhibit stable patterns of personality. It is well known that during the first few years of life, children develop at a much more rapid rate than adults, and their interests, modes of expression, and cognitive abilities change accordingly. If traits are to have any meaning, there must be at least a minimal level of stability in the expression of the traits.

To begin with, it must be established at what point in life stable patterns of personality first appear. Based on analysis of trait variances in family members, Cattell (1973) argued that traits are inherited to some degree, and he provided tentative estimates of the degree of their heritability. As part of a broader study of temperament in infants and children, Thomas and associates (1970) demonstrated stability of individual differences in response patterns in infants as young as two months.

McDevitt and Carey (1978), using a parent rating scale, found significant stability over six months in the temperament of children between three and seven years of age. Emmerich (1964, 1966), using a factor analytically derived rating scale, found remarkable stability in social behavior over two years in nursery children starting at three years of age. He noted however that expression of one factor seemed to undergo a dramatic developmental transformation. According to Coan
(1972), the essential character of personality traits changes very little in the course of a lifetime, but development brings about changes in the form and level of expression of traits. The evidence suggests that it would be reasonable to expect children as young as four to exhibit measurable personality traits.

An important question that has discouraged the development of questionnaires for young children is whether or not they are capable of reliably reporting information about themselves. Radke (1946), in a study of parental attitudes, used a direct interview with children just under four years of age. She was impressed with the clarity and coherence of their reports, as well as the degree to which they agreed with those from their parents. Although other researchers have not had the same success, Asher and associates (1979) reported development of a sociometric technique for four-year-olds with which they found a test-retest reliability of .81 over four weeks. The reliability estimates for the PSPQ cited earlier also support the idea that four-year-olds are capable of answering questions reliably.

Yarrow (1960) notes that there has been a reluctance to use the interview with children under six years of age due to fears that they do not have sufficient comprehension, language facility, or motivation to communicate, but he points out that the little research available supports the use of the interview with children as young as four years. Lichtenstein and Dreger (Note 6) specifically confirmed the feasibility of using questionnaires with four-year-olds, and they asserted that the children's responses are actually more valid representations of their
true thoughts and feelings than are responses from older subjects. This is consistent with the findings of Getzels and Walsh (1958), who hypothesized that social desirability bias is a function of the socialization process. They found a consistent increase in the expression of social desirability bias in subjects from ages 8 to 13. Of course, it is important to remember that the PSPQ interpretations are derived indirectly, and do not depend on complete objectivity in the subjects' self-appraisals.

The primary hypothesis of this study was that there would be significant agreement between the responses of children to the PSPQ and the predictions of those responses by their parents. Also, it was believed that in many cases, a parent's prediction on a given item might be based on a mental model of how their child would respond to similar situations, rather than knowledge about how the child would respond to the specific item. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that the factor scores for the parents' predictions would correlate highly with the factor scores based on their children's responses. Strong positive findings in these areas would be compelling evidence of the validity of the PSPQ and the reliability of self-report data from pre-school subjects. It was recognized however, that deviations between parent predictions and child responses are likely to be due to errors on the parents' part as well as failure of the children to report on themselves accurately.

Most research that requires accurate information about children relies on ratings by teachers. Campbell and Steinert (1978), in a study
of child pathology, found that teachers were more consistent raters than mothers. Cattell and Coan (1957) admitted that parents' knowledge of their children is greater than teachers', but they pointed out that it is also more likely to be biased. For the present study, teachers predicted responses to 17 items for part of the sample of children (see Appendix 2). It was not practical to have them make predictions for all 200 items, both because of the extensive demands on their time and because the PSPQ taps many areas about which they would have little information.

Parents are notoriously poor at reporting objective information about their offspring (Pyles, Stoltz, & Macfarlane, 1935). Actually though, to the extent that the information sought is clear and objective, parents may be more dependable respondents. Fiske (1978) argues in favor of the use of lay observers of behavior, but emphasizes that interrater reliability is much better for specific, concrete variables than judgement of global variables. In a similar vein, Thomas and associates (1963) have found that clear, simple questions about contemporaneous events yielded parental responses of a high degree of validity.

Of course it is too late to change the PSPQ items to fit this criterion, but it is possible to examine separately the accuracy of the parents' predictions on the most observable of the PSPQ items. To that end, the PSPQ items were rated according to whether or not the parents would be likely to be able to predict their child's responses on the basis of first hand observation of the behavior in question.
The judging was performed by a panel of five experts, and items that were endorsed by at least four of the experts formed a pool of 20 "observable" items (see Appendix 3). The accuracy of parental predictions on those items was used as a check on one source of parent errors.

A point that has already been alluded to, is the possibility of bias on the part of the parents. It was hoped that it would be minimal since their responses were solicited as predictions of their children's responses rather than information about them per se. Still, as Maccoby and Maccoby (1954) stress, validity studies consistently show that respondents tend to idealize about behavior when there is much ego involvement or any expectation of social approval or disapproval. This was borne out in a study comparing information obtained from parental interviews and counselor observations (McCord & McCord, 1961). The authors concluded that the information obtained from the interviews was marred by the tendency of the parents to make their picture of family life conform to cultural stereotypes. In the present study it was impossible to eliminate response bias completely on the part of either the parents or the children. However, it was possible to glean some clues about the relative degree of bias exhibited by parents and children. Extreme scores on a few of the factors would indicate un-attractive personality traits. It might be reasoned that if the parents' scores on a given factor extend farther in the undesired direction than the children's scores, then either the parents would be exhibiting less bias on that factor than their children, or neither would be showing bias.
In most psychological research, the parents' point of view has been obtained by asking the mother. Sometimes that is justified by explaining that the father was unavailable (as in Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957), but more often researchers seem to take for granted that fathers do not know anything about their children that the mothers do not know. Nash (1965) convincingly states the case that the role of fathers ought to be examined more closely. Their input thus was an invaluable extra source of information in this study.

Some investigators have produced evidence that more accurate information on some child-related topics can be obtained from fathers than from mothers (Eron, Banta, Walder, & Laulicht, 1961; Kohn & Carrol, 1960; Nakamura & Rogers, 1969). Still, mothers do spend more time interacting with their children (Weinraub, 1978), and it is generally agreed that on the whole they are better predictors of their children's behavior than fathers (Nakamura & Rogers, 1969; Guerney, Shapiro, & Stover, 1968). In this study the relative accuracy of predictions by mothers and fathers was examined for the individual items and for each of the factors.

To summarize, the primary hypothesis of this study was that parent predictions would show significant agreement with their children's responses to the PSPQ on both individual items and factors. It was expected that the degree of agreement would be even higher for the pool of "observable" items and also that teachers would be able to predict a limited number of items for their students. It was hoped that information would also be obtained concerning the relative accuracy of
reports by fathers and mothers, and the degree of social desirability bias shown by parents and children, but no hypotheses were offered on these questions.
METHOD

Subjects

Almost all subjects came from East Baton Rouge Parish in the state of Louisiana. A few came from surrounding parishes. All of the children were attending either preschool or elementary school. In most cases participation in the study was solicited by sending permission slips home to the parents of children enrolled in private day care centers. Of the 112 children for whom parental permission was obtained, testing was completed on 107. Permission was withdrawn part way through the study in the other 5 cases.

Complete sets of predictions for both parents were obtained in 94 cases. There were 10 children from single-parent families, including 9 single mothers and one single father. In three cases records were obtained from mothers, but the fathers were unwilling to participate. In no case was it necessary to discontinue testing due to a lack of cooperation on the part of the child.

All of the children used in the study were at least four years of age when testing commenced and younger than seven years of age by the time testing was completed. The subject pool was weighted in favor of the younger ages, partly in order to provide a more rigorous test of the hypotheses, and partly because they were more accessible. Age of the subject was determined by subtracting the child's birthdate, as reported by his parents, from the date of the first part of the test administration. Child subjects included 55 males and 52 females; 53
four-year-olds, 34 five-year-olds, and 20 six-year-olds (see Table 2).

Fifteen of the subjects and their parents (14% of the sample) were non-white as judged by the examiner. The occupation of the principal wage earner in each family was recorded. A high percentage of the parents were employed in fields related to the petro-chemical industry. Analysis of the occupations using the National Opinion Research Center's prestige ratings (Hodge, Siegal, & Rossi, 1964) shows the sample to be biased in favor of the upper-middle class (see Table 3). Little effort was made to obtain a representative sample, and in fact it would probably have been impossible to find enough children from low-income families in private day care centers.

Teacher predictions were obtained for 44 of the children, including 29 four-year-olds, 11 five-year-olds, and 4 six-year-olds. Fourteen different teachers participated, all of them females.

Procedure

Data collection was performed by the author and three assistants. The assistants were all upper-level psychology undergraduate students at Louisiana State University. They received training in test administration procedures, observed the author giving a questionnaire to a child, and then were supervised by the author while giving at least one test. The author tested 73 of the subjects, and the one male and two female assistants tested 7, 20, and 7 subjects respectively.

The children were given the questionnaire in two sessions. After parental permission was obtained, an examiner visited the day care center and administered the first 100 questions to the child. All of
### TABLE 2

**DISTRIBUTION OF CHILD SUBJECTS BY AGE AND SEX**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
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<tr>
<td>4 Year Olds</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Year Olds</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Year Olds</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>55</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>107</td>
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## TABLE 3

**OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF MAIN WAGE-EARNER IN HOUSEHOLD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.O.R.C. Score *</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>90 and Above</td>
<td>Physicians, Professors, Nuclear Physicists</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 to 89</td>
<td>Attorneys, Engineers, Teachers, Ministers</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 to 79</td>
<td>Reporters, Welfare Workers, Bookkeepers, Policemen</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 to 69</td>
<td>Plant Technicians, Plumbers, Salesmen, Mechanics</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 60 or Unemployed</td>
<td>Store Clerks, Domestics, Students, Disabled</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

107 100

* National Opinion Research Center Occupational Prestige Ratings (Hodge, Siegal, & Rossi, 1964)
the testing was done on an individual basis, in a private room relatively free of distractions. In some cases toys were used to help secure the cooperation and maintain the interest of the subjects. After the child was given the first half of the questionnaire, his teacher was asked to fill out the shortened form (Appendix 2) predicting his response on 17 items.

As soon as conveniently possible after the first half of the questionnaire was administered, an appointment was made for the examiner to visit the subject's home for the second testing session. The lapse between the two sessions ranged from 1 to 32 days with a mean of 11 days. In 16 cases, all of the test administration took place at the subject's home, in two sessions. During the home visit, the second 100 questions were administered to the child and the parents were asked to make their predictions. Again the child testing was done in a private room, outside the hearing of any family members, and as free of distractions as possible. The parents were asked to make a prediction on each item. Parents were sequestered in separate rooms to prevent them from colluding on their predictions.

After all parts of the test administration were complete, the children were asked if it was all right for their parents to see how they responded to the questions. If they agreed, the parents were allowed to see their responses. Permission was readily obtained from all but five children. All of the children who withheld their permission were six-year-olds. Finally, the parents were given an opportunity to ask questions, make comments, and generally discuss their experience.
After completion of the study, summaries of results were sent to all teachers and parents who participated.

**Analysis of Data**

First, all sets of responses to the questionnaire were examined to make sure there were no obvious response sets or other evidence of failure to cooperate with the task. It was not necessary to eliminate any records for these reasons. Response records were coded with numbers for convenience and to assure subject confidentiality.

Records of the parents' predictions were compared with their child's responses, and the proportion of correct predictions was noted. Also, the proportion of agreement between parents was noted. Then each set of parents was randomly matched with another child, the same age and sex as the child for whom they made predictions. The proportion of agreement between the predictions and responses for the randomly matched parents and children was recorded.

Next, the children's responses and the parents' predictions for the pool of observable items were extracted from the data. The agreement between parents and accuracy of parents' predictions of their children were expressed in terms of proportions. Also, the accuracy of the teachers' predictions and their agreement with the mothers' predictions were found and proportions computed. The practicability and value of evaluating the predictions with intraclass correlations was also considered, but rejected once the modest size of the proportions was seen.

Then, the responses of all the children and parents were converted
to factor scores, using the factor weights derived in Lichtenstein's standardization study (Note 1). If a question was responded to in the indicated direction, it was assigned the factor weight. Questions that are not part of any factor were ignored. The factor scores for a given individual consisted of the sums of the assigned factor weights for each factor.

An analysis of variance was performed to determine if there were significant differences in factor scores as a function of the sex of the child, the sex of the examiner, or the interaction of those two variables. The ANOVA was done in response to a suspicion on the part of the author that boys might be more willing to admit to less masculine and less mature attitudes and preferences with a female examiner than with a male examiner. Also, it was done to evaluate the advisability of establishing separate norms for boys and girls, as has been done for some factors on other Cattell personality questionnaires.

Finally, means and standard deviations were calculated for each factor, for the mothers, fathers, and children. Correlations were computed between the factor scores for children and parents, broken down according to the sex of the parent, the sex of the child, and the age of the child. Significance levels for the correlations were determined.
RESULTS

The proportion of children's responses correctly predicted by parents was discouragingly low. Overall the proportion of correctly predicted responses was .602 (see Table 4). While this figure is highly significant measured against a chance level of .500, it certainly does little to generate criterion-validity support for the PSPQ. When the accuracy of the parents' predictions was compared with the proportion of correct predictions for randomly matched sets of parents and children, the picture was even less encouraging (see Table 5). The overall proportion of correct predictions for randomly matched pairs was .573, so parents' knowledge of their own children was apparently not much help in predicting their responses. Put another way, the average parent correctly predicted about 120 of their own child's responses, but their predictions also matched another child of the same age and sex on almost 115 questions.

Having established that there is a great discrepancy between a child's responses to the PSPQ and the parents' expectation of how the child will respond, the question is what accounts for the discrepancy? Do parents not understand their children? Are young children unwilling or unable to respond reliably? Are children's or parents' responses subject to some remarkably strong bias? Or do children just see themselves and their behavior in a much different perspective than their parents see them?

Initially it appeared that the parents predicted responses for
### TABLE 4
PROPORTION OF AGREEMENT BETWEEN PARENTS AND CHILDREN ON ALL ITEMS

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<tr>
<th></th>
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### TABLE 5
PROPORTION OF AGREEMENT BETWEEN RANDOMLY MATCHED PARENTS AND CHILDREN ON ALL ITEMS

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<td>Fathers</td>
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Proportions in parentheses are Table 4 values minus Table 5 values.
their six-year-old children more accurately than for their four-year-old children. That might be expected if the discrepancy between predictions and actual responses was due to immaturity on the part of the children. The proportions ranged from .588 for the four-year-olds to .635 for the six-year-olds. However, the proportions for the randomly matched sets of parents and children ranged from .561 for the four-year-olds to .611 for the six-year-olds. Thus the six-year-olds were actually predicted with slightly less accuracy than the four-year-olds.

On the whole, the accuracy of the parents' predictions was barely better than chance level. The issue of the relative accuracy of fathers and mothers was rendered moot by the fact that neither was at all accurate. As tables 4 and 5 show, there was a very modest trend in favor of the mothers. The tables also reveal that girls were predicted with slightly better accuracy than boys by both mothers and fathers. Apparently mothers and fathers see their children in fairly similar ways. For the 94 cases in which both parents made predictions for their child, the proportion of agreement between parents' responses was .714 (see Table 6).

Many of the questions on the PSPQ involve preferences that a parent might find very difficult to anticipate. One might suppose that at least some of the inaccuracy of the parents' predictions was a function of the abstractness of the questions. Apparently that was not the case. On the 20 questions which were judged to be especially concrete and observable, the proportion of agreement between
### TABLE 6

**IMPORTANT PROPORTIONS BASED ON INDIVIDUAL ITEMS**

| Proportion of Agreement between mothers and fathers on all items | .714 |
| Proportion of Agreement between mothers and fathers on observable items | .732 |
| Proportion of Agreement between teachers and mothers | .658 |
| Proportion of Agreement between teachers and children | .583 |

### TABLE 7

**PROPORTION OF AGREEMENT BETWEEN PARENTS AND CHILDREN ON 20 "OBSERVABLE" ITEMS**

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<td>.598</td>
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</table>
parents' predictions and children's responses was only .590. The proportion of agreement between parents was .732 on these items.

The teachers did not do any better at predicting their students' responses. On the 17 items that teachers were expected to be able to predict responses for, the proportion of agreement between teachers and mothers was .658, but the proportion of agreement between teachers and children was only .583. The evidence indicates that parents and teachers see children in roughly similar terms, but the children describe themselves altogether differently. This impression was supported by the reactions of many of the parents upon reading their child's responses. Frequently parents expressed amazement and amusement at their child's responses in such areas as neatness and receptivity to affection. The author even noticed instances when a child's behavior during testing directly contradicted responses to questions.

It was hypothesized that if parents could not predict individual items with great accuracy, at least the factor scores for their predictions would approximate the factor scores based on the responses of their children. By and large, this expectation was also disappointed. As Table 8 shows, there was significant agreement between fathers and mothers on eight of the factor scales, but there was little similarity between the children and parents, with the notable exception of Factor C, the masculinity/feminity scale. This variable, which was supported by the earlier cited research by Johnson and by Lichtenstein, received still more support in this study.

Factors B, I, R, and V also received a limited amount of support
## Table 8 - Significant Correlations on Factors Among Parents and Children

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<td>Mothers X 6 Year Olds</td>
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* a = p < .05  b = p < .01  c = p < .005  d = p < .001  e = p < .0005  f = p < .0001
from parent/child correlations. Neither mothers nor fathers showed a clear advantage over the other in predicting traits. Mothers did a little better on some and fathers did a little better on others.

In general, parents seemed to exhibit more social desirability bias than children. Factor scores for parents' predictions were significantly higher than the scores for children on Factors B, D, and W, indicating that parents described their children as more secure, cheerful, fastidious, socialized, and compliant, while children described themselves as more negative, morose, rebellious, untidy, and indifferent. On the other hand, parents' factor scores were also much higher for scale G, which indicates that they see their children as more paranoid, depressed, and defensive than the children see themselves.

The analysis of variance was performed to examine the influence of the examiner's sex and to determine if separate norms were needed for boys and girls on any of the factor scales. It was found that boys and girls tended to attain higher factor scores on Scales B, F, and R when they were tested by an examiner of the same sex. Also, five scales were found in which there was a significant difference between boys and girls, and in three of them (A, C, and F) the differences were extreme enough to warrant separate norms (see Table 9). Of course it is appreciated that boys and girls should score differently on Scale C.
### TABLE 9
ANOVA RESULTS RELATING TO THE SEX OF THE CHILD AND THE EXAMINER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Direction of Difference</th>
<th>Significance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Main Effect</td>
<td>Girls scored higher than boys</td>
<td>p &lt; .0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Girls scored higher with a female experimenter, boys scored higher with a male experimenter</td>
<td>p &lt; .0185</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Main Effect</td>
<td>Boys scored higher than girls</td>
<td>p &lt; .0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Main Effect</td>
<td>Girls scored higher than boys</td>
<td>p &lt; .0145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Main Effect</td>
<td>Girls scored higher than boys</td>
<td>p &lt; .0004</td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Girls scored higher with a female experimenter, boys scored higher with a male experimenter</td>
<td>p &lt; .0032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Main Effect</td>
<td>Boys scored higher than girls</td>
<td>p &lt; .0067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Boys scored higher with a male experimenter, girls scored higher with a female experimenter</td>
<td>p &lt; .0134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See Appendix IV for complete ANOVA results.
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to generate support for the criterion validity of the PSPQ. Successive factor analytic studies have established a reasonable amount of construct validity for the PSPQ, but if the questionnaire is to have any real practical utility, there must be some indication that it can successfully predict some aspect of a child's behavior. If parents cannot predict how their child will respond to a question, even when the question concerns a concrete behavior with which both child and parent are familiar, then it seems unlikely that the child's responses can be used to predict behaviors that are less closely associated with the questions.

It may be argued that questionnaire responses generally do a very poor job of predicting concrete behavior in adults also, and yet they are used enthusiastically by clinicians and researchers. A questionnaire for adults that was capable of accounting for 25% of the variance in a behavior of interest would probably find acceptance. Still, even by the generous standards that are common today, the PSPQ falls far short of a passing grade.

Parents and children disagreed not only on the specifics of how the children think and behave, but also on the general trends of their behavior as represented by the factor scores. The exception was factor C. It is not clear why parents were able to predict sex-typed responses but not other behaviors. Either parents pay much closer attention to this trait or children comply more closely with their
parents' expectations in this area.

Although the parents' predictions did not match their children's responses, the parents agreed with each other on many of their child's behaviors, and teachers agreed with them also. There was undoubtedly some response bias present, but parents apparently have similar views on how their children think and behave, and these views were reflected in their predictions.

The question then is, why were the children's responses so different from what was expected by adults who know them well? It would be tempting to conclude that children tend to respond to the questionnaire haphazardly. However, if that were the case, test-retest reliability for the questions would be close to zero, and repeated factor analyses of responses from different samples of children would not produce similar factor structures. It is clear that children respond to the questions as they do for some reason that makes sense to them, and that the questionnaire is measuring something about the children.

The PSPQ is a self-report inventory, and as such the subject's responses reflect his unique view of himself, or at least how he would like to represent himself to others. The results of this study suggest that social desirability bias on the part of the children was probably not responsible for much of the discrepancy between the parent predictions and the child responses. Thus unless there was some other remarkably strong source of response bias that was not considered, we are left with the conclusion that children have a profoundly different view of themselves than their parents do.
It is easy to understand how the limited experience of a young child and the roles he plays in his family and with peers would cause him to approach some questions very differently than would an adult. PSPQ question #76 for example, asks the child to judge whether he takes a long time or a short time for a bath. If an adult were asked the same question, he would most likely be able to draw on an extensive pool of experience and second hand information in determining what constituted a long bath. The child however, might be more likely to respond according to whether he found his most recent bath tedious or enjoyable, or perhaps according to whether or not his parents encouraged him to hurry when bathing.

Still it seems remarkable that differences in perspective could account for the great discrepancies between parent predictions and child responses. Most of the time children's responses to their parent's instructions indicate that they at least understand what their parent is talking about. Also, most of what children say seems comprehensible to an adult. The work of some child researchers, such as Heinz Werner and Piaget, supports the conclusion that children do have a very different way of looking at the world.

If it is accepted that children do have a unique perspective, two additional points may be gained from this study. First, great care ought to be taken in interpreting traits derived from factor analysis of children's responses. Factors are usually described according to the meaning that the questions that compose them suggest to adult researchers. If the questions mean something very different to a child,
the meaning of the factor derived from the responses may not be obvious to an adult. The second point is that there may be some utility for the PSPQ after all. Since the PSPQ still stands virtually alone as a self report technique for preschool children, it may be one of the best ways for adults to gain information about how preschool children see themselves.

This study left unanswered some old questions about the PSPQ and raised some new ones. Future researchers might generate more information about the PSPQ and the perspectives of children by factor analyzing the predictions parents make about how their children respond to the PSPQ. It would be interesting to see if the predictions yield the same general factors as the responses.

Also, it would be interesting to have close family members make predictions of subjects' responses to the ESPQ or even the 16 PF. It may be that the difficulty in making accurate predictions has nothing to do with the age of the subjects. Another direction that future research might take would be to have young children make predictions for each other's responses to the PSPQ. It may be that they share a special sort of logic or view of the world, and so would be more capable than an adult in predicting each other's responses or factor scores.

The results of this study may discourage future use of the PSPQ. They do not however rule out a future use for the questionnaire. At present there is still no widely available self report instrument designed for use with preschool children. If other researchers agree that it would be useful to have such an instrument, they will perform
the necessary work to determine what the PSPQ measures and what it can predict. After all, criterion validity studies of the MMPI's clinical scales have produced discouraging results, and yet it is the most widely researched and most popular clinical questionnaire in existence.
REFERENCE NOTES


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APPENDICES
APPENDIX I

PSPQ ITEMS

1. Do you sometimes feel afraid even when there is nothing wrong? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

2. When you are playing with other children, do you like to tell them how to do things? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

3. When children fight, do you think grown-ups punish the wrong ones? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

4. Does your daddy lose his temper very often? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

5. Which do you like more (A) books with pictures of cowboys, or (B) books with pictures of railway engines?

6. Would you rather (A) color a book, or (B) climb a tree?

7. Do you like it when people tickle you? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

8. Do you like (A) long stories that go on and on, or (B) a lot of short stories?

9. Do you wish that grown-ups would help you with more things than they do? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

10. Would you rather (A) look through a picture book alone, or (B) with another child?

11. Do people ever say you get too excited? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

12. Do you wish you had more baby brothers or sisters than you have now? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

13. Would you rather (A) listen to grown-ups talk, or (B) play with some other boys and girls?

14. When you get through with breakfast, would you rather (A) go out and play, or (B) lie down for a little while?

15. Would you rather (A) look at books, or (B) play noisy games?

16. Do people sometimes call you a naughty child? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

17. Would you rather (A) wear old play clothes, or (B) your very best clothes?
18. Sometimes people tease you and play jokes on you. Do you ever get angry when they do that? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

19. When you wake up in the dark (A) do you just go back to sleep, or (B) do you have trouble going back to sleep?

20. Sometimes when children get into fights, grown-ups come over and tell them why they shouldn't fight. Do you think children can always stop fighting if someone tells them why they should not fight? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

21. Do people sometimes scold you when you haven't done anything wrong? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

22. Would you rather (A) go to the store with Mommy, or (B) stay home and play?

23. Would you rather (A) listen to pretty music, or (B) watch two dogs have a fight.

24. Which would you rather have come live with you, (A) a little dog, or (B) a new baby?

25. When you go to bed, do you (A) go right to sleep, or (B) do you stay awake for a while?

26. Would you rather (A) look at some new books, or (B) play a noisy game where you pretend to be a wild animal?

27. When you tell someone you can do something, like ride a tricycle, skip rope, jump over a ditch, roller skate, or anything like that, (A) can you really do it, or (B) do you just hope you can?

28. Would you rather (A) go to a birthday party, or (B) stay home and play?

29. Is your teacher nicer to you than she is to the other children? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

30. Sometimes you have seen another boy or girl crying. Does that bother you/does it make you feel bad? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

31. When you get up in the morning, (A) are you all ready to play, or (B) do you still feel sleepy and tired?

32. Would you rather (A) play by yourself, or (B) with other boys and girls?

33. Would you rather (A) hear stories about boys and girls, or (B) have these things happen to you?
34. Does your mother (A) let you do almost anything you want, or (B) are there lots of things she won't let you do?

35. Do you sometimes feel sad because people aren't nice to you? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

36. Would you rather (A) play in your own yard, or (B) in someone else's yard?

37. When you wake up in the morning, (A) do you dress yourself, or (B) does your mommy help you?

38. When children get mean and smash things, do you (A) just laugh, or (B) do you feel bad about it?

39. Do you think (A) everybody likes you, or (B) do only some people like you?

40. Would you rather (A) go out and pick some flowers, or (B) play ball?

41. Sometimes your mother tells you to put your toys away. Do you sometimes forget to do it? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

42. When Mommy tells you to stop doing something, do you (A) just stop doing it, or (B) do you want to do it even more?

43. Do you (A) love Mommy and Daddy both the same, or (B) one more than the other?

44. Do you (A) pick out your own clothes in the morning, or (B) does Mommy tell you what to wear?

45. Do you (A) let others play with your toys, or (B) are you afraid they will break them?

46. When you want to say something, (A) do you just say it, or (B) do you think it over first?

47. When you wake up in the morning (A) do you feel good, or (B) do you feel kind of grouchy and cross?

48. Do you (A) like all of the things your mother gives you to eat, or (B) only some of them?

49. Would you rather (A) play with some other children, or (B) make something with blocks all by yourself?

50. Would you rather (A) watch people dancing to music, or (B) hear a story about airplanes?
51. I'll bet sometimes children play with your toys without asking you. Do you get angry and feel like hitting them when they do that? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

52. Do you know any children who are so naughty or dumb it's no fun to play with them? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

53. Do you get sick very often? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

54. Do people ever say that you don't take care of things? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

55. Would you rather (A) play an easy game that no one wins, or (B) a hard game where you can win?

56. Do you wake up in the morning (A) all by yourself, or (B) does someone wake you up?

57. When you hear a story about a poor little dog that died, or something like that, do you ever feel tears in your eyes? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

58. Can you cross the street (A) all by yourself, or (B) does someone always go along with you?

59. When Mommy says, "Time for bed," (A) do you like to go to bed, or (B) do you want to stay up longer?

60. (A) Do you like to keep your room clean and neat, or (B) do you like to mess it up?

61. Do you like to fingerpaint? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

62. In the morning (A) do you like to get up right away, or (B) do you like to stay in bed after you wake up?

63. When you want a toy and Mommy doesn't buy it for you, do you beg her and beg her to buy it? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

64. (A) Do you sometimes think that Mommy doesn't love you, or (B) do you always think that she loves you?

65. Do you like to shoot a gun? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

66. Do you like to play (A) with just one friend, or (B) with a lot of other children?

67. Does Mommy say it takes a long time for you to get dressed? (A) Yes, or (B) No.
68. (A) Do the other kids sometimes say that you're a poor loser, or (B) don't they ever say that about you?

69. (A) Do you like to go away from home, or (B) do you always like to stay at home?

70. When your friend loses a toy, do you feel like looking for it with him? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

71. When no one is watching, do you like to suck on a baby bottle? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

72. Would you rather (A) paint with brown and black paints, or (B) with green and red paints?

73. In the morning do you like to run to Mommy's bed when you get up? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

74. When you get your hands dirty, (A) do you rush to wash them, or (B) do you just let them stay dirty?

75. When one of your toys breaks (A) do you cry, or (B) do you do something else?

76. (A) Does it take you a long time to take a bath, or (B) do you get it over with right away?

77. Do you obey Mommy most of the time? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

78. Do you like to tease cats or dogs? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

79. When someone tells you that you're a bad child, (A) do you know that you're not bad, or (B) do you believe him?

80. Would you rather (A) play doctor games, or (B) do you like to play other games more?

81. Do you like to light matches? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

82. In the morning (A) do you like to lie in bed thinking about what you want to do, or (B) do you like to get up and run about in the house?

83. Do you sometimes wish that Mommy loved you more? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

84. (A) Does Mommy like to hear about your friends, or (B) doesn't she care to hear about them?

85. When you cut your finger, do you cry? (A) Yes, or (B) No.
86. (A) Does it take you a long time to eat, or (B) do you get through with eating real fast?

87. When a grown-up hugs you, (A) do you feel like pushing him or her away, or (B) do you like it?

88. When you get into trouble (A) is it your fault most of the time, or (B) is it mostly other children's fault?

89. When no one is watching, do you like to mark up the walls with paint or crayons? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

90. When grown-ups kiss you, (A) does it make you feel good, or (B) does it make you feel sort of funny inside?

91. When Daddy comes home, (A) do you like to run to hug him, or (B) don't you want to hug him?

92. (A) Do you sometimes wish you were big and grown-up, or (B) do you like just being a child?

93. Do you like to make up new words that nobody's ever heard of before? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

94. When you see blood, (A) do you get scared, or (B) doesn't it bother you?

95. Do you like to tease other children? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

96. Do you talk back to grown-ups? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

97. (A) Do you, or (B) don't you like to have a night light on when you are in bed?

98. (A) Do you, or (B) don't you like to have Mommy kiss you?

99. When your kindergarten or Sunday school teacher looks at you, do you get scared? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

100. Do you like to sing? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

101. (A) Do you like to sleep in a baby crib, or (B) do you think that's just for babies?

102. When someone pushes you, (A) do you push him right back, or (B) do you cry or not do anything?

103. When you're angry with Mommy, do you sometimes tell her you won't eat? (A) Yes, or (B) No.
104. (A) Do you tell other children when they're doing things that are wrong, or (B) do you just keep quiet?

105. (A) Do you sometimes want to hit your daddy, or (B) don't you ever feel like hitting him?

106. When Mommy and Daddy leave you with a baby-sitter, are you glad? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

107. When Mommy leaves you, (A) do you cry, or (B) doesn't it make much difference to you?

108. (A) Do you hate to comb your hair, or (B) do you really like to comb your hair?

109. (A) Do you like to show other children all the toys you have, or (B) don't you want them to see your toys?

110. Does your head hurt a lot? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

111. (A) Do you like to climb tall trees, or (B) do you like to stay closer to the ground?

112. (A) Do you, or (B) don't you like the food Mommy cooks for you?

113. If you're coloring with crayons, (A) are you pretty good at it, or (B) do you make a mess of things?

114. Do you like Mommy to be with you all the time? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

115. When there's something to do, do you often feel you have to say, "I'm not any good at that?" (A) Yes, or (B) No.

116. (A) Do you like to keep your clothes real neat, or (B) doesn't it make much difference to you?

117. Most of the time do Mommy and Daddy (A) give you gifts that you want, or (B) gifts that you don't want?

118. If other children are watching, (A) do you like to sing, or (B) don't you want them around when you sing?

119. Do you like to make silly faces at people? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

120. If paint messes up your clothes, (A) does it bother you a whole lot, or (B) just a little?

121. When Mommy and Daddy leave you with a baby-sitter (A) are you scared, or (B) doesn't it make you feel that way?
122. When you were little, (A) did you, or (B) didn't you like the food Mommy gave you?

123. Are you pretty good at running races? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

124. When you're through playing with your toys, do you always put them away the way Mommy likes you to? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

125. When other children tease you, (A) do you go away and maybe cry, or (B) do you fight back?

126. When Mommy scolds you or yells at you, do you get very scared? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

127. (A) Do you, or (B) don't you like Mommy to hug you?

128. Which do you like to do more: (A) to jump, or (B) to yell real loud?

129. (A) Do you like to tell other children how to play, or (B) do you want them to tell you how to play?

130. Are you tired a lot? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

131. Do you like to kiss your mommy (A) a lot, or (B) a little only?

132. At night, (A) do you have dreams that scare you, or (B) do you have wonderful dreams?

133. Would you rather (A) squeeze gooshy clay, or (B) squeeze a wood block you can hold in your hand?

134. Do other children call you names and maybe laugh at you a lot? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

135. Do you like to look in a mirror a lot? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

136. Are you terribly afraid of things like spiders and snakes? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

137. Do you like to kiss your daddy (A) a lot, or (B) only a little?

138. Do you like to make mudpies? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

139. When you want to do something and a grown-up says, "No," do you get real angry at him? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

140. Do you sometimes make up big stories that aren't really lies? (A) Yes, or (B) No.
141. When someone tells you he likes you, (A) do you believe him, or (B) do you think he's teasing?

142. If a grown-up yells at another child, do you feel sorry for the other child? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

143. (A) Do you, or (B) do you not like babies?

144. (A) Do you like to open drawers to see what's in them, or (B) are you afraid to open drawers?

145. Do you like to play (A) with children your own age, or (B) with older children?

146. When someone tells you that you're a very good child or that you're nice-looking, (A) do you believe him, or (B) do you think he's kidding?

147. When you try to tell something to Mommy, does she often tell you to be quiet? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

148. Do you like to help Mommy get supper ready? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

149. (A) Are you afraid to go to the doctor, or (B) do you like to go to the doctor?

150. (A) Do you like to take a bath, or (B) do you hate to take baths?

151. When someone gives you a present, (A) do you say "Thank you," or (B) do you usually forget to say "Thank you?"

152. If you're worried about something, (A) do you tell Mommy or Daddy about it, or (B) do you keep it to yourself?

153. When you want something from somebody, (A) do you say, "Please," or (B) do you just ask for it?

154. When someone hits you, (A) do you, or (B) don't you cry?

155. When Mommy doesn't buy a toy you want, (A) are you angry, or (B) are you just sad?

156. Do you like to take some toys to bed with you? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

157. Do you have a piece of cloth or a blanket you like to touch? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

158. When you're tired or hungry, do you like to put your thumb in your mouth? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

159. (A) Do people often say, or (B) don't they say that you talk too much?
160. Do you smile and laugh (A) a lot, or (B) only a little?
161. When visitors come, (A) do you want to run away, or (B) do you like to stay where they are?
162. If you play a game that you've played before, (A) do you like to think of new ways to play it, or (B) do you like to play it the way you learned it first?
163. Would you rather (A) speak softly, or (B) shout?
164. When you once start to do something, (A) do you try to finish it, or (B) do you like to go to something else?
165. Would you rather (A) play ball, or (B) have Daddy read a story to you?
166. On the playground, do you play (A) mostly alone, or, (B) with other children.
167. When you are angry, (A) do you feel more like crying, or (B) more like breaking something?
168. (A) Does your daddy play with you sometimes, or (B) is he too busy?
169. If some boy or girl is going to tell a story about going to the zoo, would you rather (A) be the one to tell the story, or (B) be one of the children who listen to the story?
170. (A) Are you afraid of the dark, or (B) isn't there anything to be afraid of?
171. (A) Do grown-ups often let you talk and listen to you, or (B) do they talk all the time and not listen to you?
172. (A) Do you talk first to a new child, or (B) do you wait for him to speak to you?
173. In dreams, (A) do animals chase you or (B) are your dreams nice?
174. (A) Do you like to listen to long stories, or (B) do you get tired before they are over?
175. (A) Would you rather be a big bird up on a mountain, or (B) a deer in the forest?
176. (A) Do you like to laugh a lot, or (B) do you hardly ever think things are funny?
177. (A) Do you get into fights with your friends sometimes, or (B) don't you ever fight with people?

178. When Mommy says, "Let me help you with that," (A) do you say, "All right," or (B) do you say, "I'll do it myself?"

179. (A) Would you rather listen to your teacher, or (B) do the talking yourself?

180. (A) Can you touch a big bug, or (B) are you afraid to?

181. (A) Do you usually have a good time, or (B) do things often go wrong?

182. (A) Are your ideas usually pretty good, or (B) don't you think you have good ideas?

183. If other children play with your things without asking, (A) do you get mad at them, or (B) do you just let them play?

184. (A) Would you rather climb a tree, or (B) lie in the sun?

185. (A) Do you turn on the TV yourself, or (B) do you wait for Mommy to do it?

186. Which would you rather have: (A) a kitten, or (B) a dog?

187. (A) Do you always get what you want at Christmas, or (B) do you always want something else?

188. Would you rather (A) play at dressing up, or (B) play with a ball?

189. When you play at a swing, do you (A) like to swing yourself, or (B) like to have someone push you?

190. Would you rather have (A) a tricycle, or (B) a doll?

191. Would you rather have (A) a gun, or (B) crayons?

192. Would you rather have (A) a book you can read, or (B) a book you can color?

193. When you're playing, would you rather be (A) a cowboy, or (B) a doctor?

194. When you're playing cops and robbers, would you rather be (A) the cops, or (B) the robbers?

195. Would you rather have (A) a secret house, or (B) a sand pile?
196. When someone reads you a story, would you rather (A) hear something new, or (B) hear a story you already know?

197. Which toy would you rather have, (A) a sheep, or (B) a crocodile?

198. Would you rather be (A) a soldier, or (B) a farmer?

199. When another child hits you, (A) do you hit him back, or (B) do you run away?

200. (A) Do you like to go visiting, or (B) would you rather stay home?
APPENDIX II

PSPQ ITEMS FOR TEACHERS

10. Would you rather (A) look through a picture book alone, or (B) with another child?

15. Would you rather (A) look at books, or (B) play noisy games?

32. Would you rather (A) play by yourself, or (B) with other boys and girls?

61. Do you like to fingerpaint? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

66. Do you like to play (A) with just one friend, or (B) with a lot of other children?

74. When you get your hands dirty, (A) do you rush to wash them, or (B) do you just let them stay dirty?

85. When you cut your finger, do you cry? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

100. Do you like to sing? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

119. Do you like to make silly faces at people? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

129. (A) Do you like to tell other children how to play, or (B) do you want them to tell you how to play?

157. Do you have a piece of cloth or a blanket you like to touch? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

158. When you're tired or hungry, do you like to put your thumb in your mouth? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

164. When you once start to do something, (A) do you try to finish it, or (B) do you like to go to something else?

166. On the playground, do you play (A) mostly alone, or (B) with other children?

172. (A) Do you talk first to a new child, or (B) do you wait for him to speak to you?

189. When you play at a swing, do you (A) like to swing yourself, or (B) like to have someone push you?

199. When another child hits you, (A) do you hit him back, or (B) do you run away?
APPENDIX III

OBSERVABLE PSPQ ITEMS

2. When you are playing with other children, do you like to tell them how to do things? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

15. Would you rather (A) look at books, or (B) play noisy games?

25. When you go to bed, do you (A) go right to sleep, or (B) do you stay awake for a while?

41. Sometimes your mother tells you to put your toys away. Do you sometimes forget to do it? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

44. Do you (A) pick out your own clothes in the morning, or (B) does Mommy tell you what to wear?

49. Would you rather (A) play with some other children, or (B) make something with blocks all by yourself?

54. Do people say that you don't take care of things? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

56. Do you wake up in the morning (A) all by yourself, or (B) does someone wake you up?

58. Can you cross the street (A) all by yourself, or (B) does someone always go along with you?

63. When you want a toy and Mommy doesn't buy it for you, do you beg her and beg her to buy it? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

75. When one of your toys breaks (A) do you cry, or (B) do you do something else?

85. When you cut your finger, do you cry? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

89. When no one is watching, do you like to mark up the walls with paint or crayons? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

107. When Mommy leaves you, (A) do you cry, or (B) doesn't it make much difference to you?

119. Do you like to make silly faces at people? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

124. When you're through playing with your toys, do you always put them away the way Mommy likes you to? (A) Yes, or (B) No.
156. Do you like to take some toys to bed with you? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

158. When you're tired or hungry, do you like to put your thumb in your mouth? (A) Yes, or (B) No.

178. When Mommy says, "Let me help you with that," (A) do you say, "All right," or (B) do you say "I'll do it myself?"

185. (A) Do you turn on the TV yourself, or (B) do you wait for Mommy to do it?
### APPENDIX IV

**ANOVA TABLE FOR SEX OF CHILD AND EXPERIMENTER**

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VITA

Robert Roy Allen was born in Reno, Nevada, on June 28, 1951, one of a pair of twins born to Morris and Louise Allen. He was educated in the Public School system in Reno, and he graduated from Reno High School in 1969. Attending the University of Nevada, Reno on an academic scholarship, he earned a Bachelor of Arts degree in Social Psychology, in 1973. In 1974 he began study at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. After serving as a graduate teaching assistant, he was awarded a Master of Arts degree in Clinical Psychology in 1976. He also served as a graduate teaching assistant at the Louisiana State University, where he is currently a candidate for a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Clinical Psychology.

During the intervening years of graduate study, he served a pre-internship in Pediatric Psychology at Earl K. Long Hospital in Baton Rouge, and a formal clinical internship at the Veterans Administration Hospital in Martinez, California. He also completed psychology practicum experiences at the Counseling and Evaluation Center at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas and the Student Health Service at Louisiana State University, as well as serving as an unpaid consultant at St. Joseph's Children's Home in Baton Rouge. In addition, during 1979 he was employed part time at the Psychology Group in Baton Rouge. Since August 1980 he has worked part time for Dr. Don Lichtenstein, and since May 1980 he has worked part time as a Psychology Assistant at Feliciana Forensic Facility.
EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

Candidate: Robert Roy Allen

Major Field: Psychology

Title of Thesis: A Comparison of the Responses of Children and Their Parents to the Preschool Personality Questionnaire

Approved:

[Signatures]

Major Professor and Chairman

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

[Signatures]

Donald A. Williams

[Signature]

Date of Examination:

2/25/82