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PARENTS' ATTITUDES AND CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS
OF PARENTING STYLES IN DELINQUENCY

A Thesis

by

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February 1986

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OF PARENTING STYLES IN DELINQUENCY

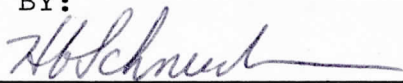
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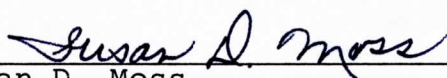
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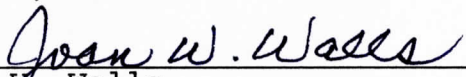
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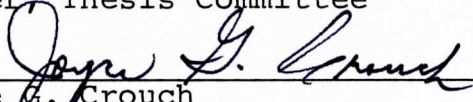
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ABSTRACT

PARENTS' ATTITUDES AND CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS
OF PARENTING STYLES IN DELINQUENCY

(February 1986)

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Research has indicated family factors play a critical role in juvenile delinquency. Lack of family stability, low socioeconomic status, and poor parenting skills have been related to delinquent behavior. The parents' and child's reported perceptions and attitudes have been a useful means for examining the family system and its contributing role in delinquency. Yet, research had yielded conflicting findings and skepticism concerning the validity of parents' reports for their child-rearing attitudes. Few studies have cross-validated the parents' reports with children's reports of parents' behavior.

This study investigated the relationship between delinquency and parenting styles, children's perceptions of parenting styles, and discrepancies that may exist between parents' and children's reports. Twenty

community-based delinquents and 39 nondelinquents were matched by grade. The grade average for both the delinquent sample and nondelinquent sample was 7.3. The mothers for both groups also participated in the study. Fathers were excluded because more than half of the delinquents lived in single-parent households. The children completed the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) and the mothers independently completed the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). The children also completed the Delinquency Checklist (DCL) and 11 items from the PARI referring to parents.

The delinquents more frequently came from broken homes, the parents were less educated, and had a lower socioeconomic status. Significant differences were found on the DCL, with the delinquents scoring higher on the antisocial behaviors than the nondelinquents. Five of the eight scales of the CRPBI were significant. The delinquents scored higher on Control by Guilt, Hostile Control, and Instilling Persistent Guilt. The delinquents scored lower on Acceptance and Positive Involvement. On the PARI, four of the six scales were significant. Parents of delinquents scored higher on Irritability, Deception, and Deification and lower on Encouraging Verbalization.

For both groups, there was reasonable agreement between the child's and mother's report. Both parents and children in the delinquent sample reported parents having less effective parenting skills and using more authoritarian child-rearing attitudes; whereas, the nondelinquents reported their parents having more positive parenting behaviors and the parents having more democratic attitudes towards child-rearing.

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INTRODUCTION

Juvenile delinquency is a pervasive problem within society. Historically, psychologists, sociologists, and criminologists have studied numerous aspects of delinquency. Many studies have indicated that family factors play a critical role in delinquency. The parent-child relationship and more specifically, the mother-child relationship has consistently been identified as an important antecedent in the development of antisocial characteristics. Authoritarian child-rearing attitudes and inconsistent discipline have been correlated to delinquent behavior. Many studies which link parental behavior with the child's behavior rely on a single source for both sets of variables. It is important that the delinquency studies examine the influence of parenting from the parent's perspective as well as incorporate the child's perspective. Various types of delinquent behavior must also be taken into account when exploring the relationship of parenting attitudes with delinquency.

Review of the Literature

The results of Canter's (1982) study indicated the importance of examining different categories of

delinquency as opposed to examining only one general measure of delinquency. Canter interviewed 1,725 adolescents, ages 11 to 17, to determine whether sex differences in family bonds were correlated to sex differences in self-reported delinquent behaviors. The self-report delinquency measure included a summary measure for general delinquency and six subcategories of delinquent behavior believed to differentiate males and females. The six subcategories were: (a) status offenses, (b) crimes against persons, (c) index offenses (i.e., aggravated assault, sexual assault, automobile theft), (d) home-related delinquency, (e) felony theft, and (f) minor theft. The family bond measures contained questions about social integration, personal commitment, and a measure of family structure. The study defined broken homes as any family composite other than the biological mother and father. Canter found males reported greater involvement in all types of delinquent behavior. The family bond measures were modestly, but significantly correlated with delinquency, thus supporting the hypothesis that family bonds act as a control against delinquency for both sexes. In general, the family bonds were stronger for females, but for males, inhibitory effects were stronger for serious

crimes. Contrary to prior research, the impact of broken homes was similar for males and females. Canter reported significantly more delinquent behavior for adolescents from broken homes than for adolescents from intact homes. The impact of broken homes may be even greater on males in the status offense category, which is believed to reflect a lack of parental supervision and control in broken homes.

Family Factors Contributing to Delinquency

Parent-child relationships and home atmosphere have been useful in distinguishing delinquents from nondelinquents. A British study conducted by Wilson (1980) investigated various degrees of social handicaps and their effects on delinquency. Social handicap was defined by an instrument which recorded father's social class, size of family, adequacy of school clothing, school attendance over two terms and parental contact with school. The sample was divided into two subsamples, one in the inner city and one in a suburban housing residential area. The methods of parenting and the behavior patterns of boys and girls were compared for the two subgroups. The author made three hypotheses: (a) delinquency would significantly increase with the degree of social handicap in both subsamples, (b) delinquency would significantly increase as parental laxness increased in both subsamples, and (c)

increases of delinquency with increases of parental laxness would be greater than with increases of social handicap. The boys' self-reported misbehaviors were checked for reliability by comparing police records, teachers' reports, and parents' interviews. This confirmed the boys' general truthfulness. The results of this study indicated parental supervision was the most important variable in predicting delinquency. A close association was found between social handicap and parental supervision with laxness increasing as social handicap increased.

Christensen, Phillips, Glasgow, and Johnson (1983) used innovative techniques which combined cognitive behavioral measures and family systems theories to examine parental characteristics and interactional dysfunctions in families with child behavior problems. Self-report data and naturalistic observations of the families were used. This study included data collected from both the mother and father--a necessity for a family systems analysis. The study included measures of marital discord, parental psychopathology, and three parental cognitive factors. These factors were: knowledge of behavioral principles, tolerance for child deviance, and expectations regarding their child's behavior. The analysis indicated that a negative relationship existed between marital adjustment and child

behavior problems. A negative relationship was also found between observed parental negative behavior toward the child and parental perception of the child's behavior problems. This study supported the family systems theory: marital discord and dysfunctions in the parent-child interactions are correlated with the children's behavior problems.

Rank's (1983) study examined the relationship between broken homes and delinquency. The investigator interviewed 2,242 children using a self-report measure covering the following 10 dependent variables: (a) running away, (b) truancy, (c) fighting, (d) vandalism, (e) theft, (f) trespass, (g) automobile theft, (h) entry, (i) assault, and (j) threat. Respondents were categorized as delinquents if at least one incident was reported in 1 of the 10 dependent variables; others were categorized as nondelinquents if no incidents were reported. The independent variables were based on with whom the adolescents lived (six possible combinations of family contents) and the structure of the family (both biological parents, one or both deceased, separated or divorced). The investigator found certain types of broken homes were significantly related to specific types of delinquency. Specifically, running away, truancy, and automobile theft were related to a specific type of broken home where both biological

parents were absent. Running away was least likely in the intact family, followed by a family in which one biological parent was absent, then a family in a reconstituted home, and finally by a family characterized by the absence of both biological parents.

McCord (1979) collected data on 201 males over a five year period of their childhood. The subjects were selected from a treatment program designed to prevent delinquency. Seven independent variables were used to assess the child's home atmosphere. One of the variables measured was the mother's attitudes toward her son. These attitudes were broken down into four classifications: actively affectionate, passively affectionate, ambivalent or passively rejecting, and actively rejecting. Parental supervision and parental expectations regarding the boys' activities were combined into four categories: supervision generally present along with high expectations for the child to accept responsibilities, supervision generally present without evidence of high expectations placed on the child, occasional supervision, and supervision absent. Parental conflicts were evaluated by a variable depicting parental conflicts concerning the child, values, money, alcohol, and religion. The conflicts were stratified into four classifications: no indication, apparently none, some, or considerable. A child was

classified as having an aggressive parent if either parent was classified as aggressive or if the father was classified as "consistently punitive." Parental aggressiveness was measured by the lack of restraint used when angry. The fathers were labeled "consistently punitive" if they regularly used physical force or were verbally abusive. Other measures included mother's self-confidence, father's deviance (alcoholic or criminal record), and family structure (father absent). Court records were used approximately 30 years later to provide information on the different types of crimes and ages at conviction. The two dependent variables measured were the number of convictions for serious property crimes and the number of convictions for serious personal crimes. Analysis of the data revealed lack of mother's affection, lack of adult supervision, parental conflict, parental aggression, lack of mother's self-confidence, and father's deviance were significantly related to criminal behavior. Father's absence was the only variable out of the seven measuring the child's home atmosphere that failed to distinguish criminals from noncriminals. Similarities and differences were found among the variables which were related to different types of crimes. Lack of maternal affection, lack of supervision, and deviant fathers were related to property crimes and lack of supervision,

mother's lack of self-confidence, exposure to parental conflict, and aggression were related to personal crimes. Family social status during childhood, father's occupation and desirability of the neighborhood were not predictive in distinguishing adult property crimes or personal crimes.

Poor parent-child relationships often have been shown to lead to the development of antisocial characteristics in the child. Richman and Harper's (1979) study examined the relationship between child-rearing attitudes and frequency of acting-out behavior within a structured residential treatment setting. A sample of 54 male adolescents with a mean age of 15 years was selected from a state juvenile evaluation program. The adolescents' perceptions of parental child-rearing were assessed by Schaefer's Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) which consisted of three child-rearing dimensions: Acceptance vs. Rejection, Psychological Control vs. Psychological Autonomy, and Firm Control vs. Lax Control. The Behavior Problem Checklist and The Conduct Disorder Scale were used to rate the adolescents' delinquent behavior. Fifty-four adolescents were divided into a low acting-out group and a high acting-out group which was determined from their behavior at the residential setting. Richman and Harper found high acting-out adolescents perceived

their parents differently than adolescents who exhibited increased self-control during the residential treatment which used firm and consistent treatment approaches. The higher acting-out group perceived their mothers as more accepting of their behavior, more lax in behavioral control and making fewer attempts to control through guilt than those adolescents who displayed increased self-control. Those continuing to act out experienced fewer overt behavioral controls from either parent and perceived their fathers as attempting to use more guilt and anxiety to control their behavior. This suggests that these adolescents had not experienced disapproval from their parents for their inappropriate behavior; whereas, the adolescents who responded to the treatment may have developed some sense of social conscience. The results of this study indicated differences in child-rearing may have been more important than the treatment or the setting of the treatment.

Fischer's (1983) article summarized many of the studies dealing with delinquency and parenting techniques. Parental supervision was found to be an important variable in predicting adult criminality and has been highly associated with delinquency. Low income and parental criminality have been associated with poor parental supervision. It has also been found parents of delinquents rely heavily on aversive methods of

control and lack consistent, positive child management practices. Fischer believes parents of potentially delinquent children could benefit from programs designed to assist them in child-rearing.

Grove and Crutchfield (1982) reported that many studies of deviance found the family plays a critical role in juvenile delinquency:

In summary, the literature consistently indicates that (1) one-parent homes, (2) poor marriages, (3) lack of parental control, (4) ineffectual parental behavior (which may be associated with a pathological state of the parent and/or the use of physical punishment), (5) association with delinquents as opposed to nondelinquents, and (6) very poor parent-child relationships are associated with delinquency (however it is defined).
(p. 304)

The authors interviewed 620 parents who had children approximately 13 years of age. Three factors of equal strength emerged as powerful predictors of male delinquency: race (higher percentage of whites than blacks), marital status (higher percentage of broken families than intact families), and poor parent-child relationship. Physical punishment was also related to boy's misbehavior. The most powerful predictor of delinquency for girls was parents' feelings toward them. Marital status was found to be unrelated for the girls. Parents tending not to get along with their children and who were dissatisfied with how their children behave tend to act in ways promoting misbehavior. This

initiates a cycle whereby the child's misbehavior tends to promote negative feelings and actions on the part of their parents.

Loeber and Dishion (1983) completed a systematic review of prediction studies on delinquency. These authors found the most significant predictors of delinquency from highest to lowest were: the parents' family management and techniques (supervision and discipline), the child's conduct problems, parental criminality, and the child's poor academic performance.

Child's Perception of Parenting

Numerous inventories have been designed to assess the child's perceptions of his/her parents' behavior. The inventories have been found to be valid by other measures such as the parents' perception of their own parenting techniques and by observational data.

Medinnus (1965) designed a study examining delinquent adolescents' and nondelinquent adolescents' perceptions of their parents by using The Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire (PCR) developed by Roe and Siegelman (1963). This questionnaire has a separate form for the mother and father. The questionnaire consists of 10 scales: Loving, Protecting, Demanding, Rejecting, Neglecting, Casual, Symbolic-Love Reward, Direct-Object Reward, Symbolic-Love Punishment, and Direct-Object Punishment. Medinnus hypothesized there

would be a significant difference between the institutionalized delinquent boys and the matched nondelinquent boys with nondelinquents having more favorable attitudes. Secondly, a greater difference would exist between the two groups with regard to the perceptions of the fathers than the mothers. The first hypothesis was supported by findings from various scales of the PCR. Seven of the 10 scales differentiated the two groups on the father's forms and 3 of the 10 scales differentiated the two groups on the mother's forms. The results also supported the second hypothesis with the delinquent group consistently having unfavorable attitudes toward their fathers and was especially pronounced on the Rejecting and Neglecting scales.

Schaefer (1965a) developed the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) on a sample of normal boys, normal girls, and delinquent boys. A separate form is available for the child to fill out for each parent. A 10 item scale was developed for each of the 26 concepts describing specific, observable behaviors such as lax discipline, possessiveness and hostility. The results from the study justified a separate analysis for maternal and paternal behavior. If the forms for mothers and fathers had been combined, the differences would have been obscured. The analysis of the normal boys' group revealed their parents use

more parental control, except for control through guilt. The results also indicated a significant difference exists between the delinquents' description of their mothers and fathers. Schaefer also found nondelinquents reported more agreement between the reports of their mothers and fathers than did delinquents. The delinquents perceived their mothers as more loving and involved and their fathers as less loving and involved. In conclusion, the results of the study demonstrated the discriminative power of the scales for normal and delinquent boys.

Schaefer (1965b) developed a conceptual model for parent behavior comparable to other investigators' analyses of the structure of parental behavior. The CRPBI was analyzed and three factors describing parental behavior were isolated from the 26 scales of the questionnaire. The dimensions were labeled: Acceptance vs. Rejection, Psychological Autonomy vs. Psychological Control, and Firm Control vs. Lax Control. This study found the three dimensions which emerged with the CRPBI were similar, but not identical to those derived from children's reports using different questionnaires. The differences may be due to the differences in labeling the same factor or may indicate the factors are overlapping.

Imperio and Chabot's (1980) study administered the revised and shortened version of Schaefer's CRPBI to 90 male delinquents in a residential treatment facility. The revised version of the inventory consists of 18 scales representing the three major factors: Acceptance/Rejection, Psychological Autonomy/Psychological Control, and Firm Control/Lax Control. The same factors emerged with the delinquent population, but the ordering of the factors was slightly different. The results of this study indicated male delinquents perceived both parents negatively with the first factor being reversed to Rejection/Acceptance. The authors believed the degree of rejection may be an important dimension for evaluating parents in regard to male delinquents.

Streit's (1981) research examined the youth's perception of parental behavior and adolescent problem behavior by studying responses on the Youth Perception Inventory which had a scale that successfully discriminated among various types of substance abusers. The Youth Perception Inventory was based on the Schaefer construct. Streit was interested in determining if the youths' perceptions of parental behavior could discriminate between property crimes and violent crimes committed by the youth. The adolescents' perception of parental behavior using the Youth's Perception Inventory

was found to discriminate among juvenile offenders and nonoffenders. It also discriminated among status crimes, violent crimes, and property-related crimes.

Parent's Perception of Child-Rearing

Parental attitudes toward child-rearing and family life have an important influence on the child's behavior and personality development. Schaefer and Bell (1958) developed the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) consisting of 23 five item scales which solicit parental attitudes about marriage, child behavior, and child-rearing. The PARI was designed to measure specific attitudes on authoritarianism. The items are opinion statements with a four point scale asking subjects to respond: (a) strongly agree, (b) mildly agree, (c) mildly disagree, and (d) strongly disagree. Three factors emerged: (a) Controlling-Authoritarianism, (b) Hostility-Rejection, and (c) Democratic-Equalitarian. These measures were found to be related to education, with mothers of higher education having more usually approved of attitudes toward child-rearing.

Using the PARI, Zuckerman, Ribback, Monashkin, and Norton (1958) gathered normative data from a heterogeneous sample of 222 mothers with healthy children and 131 mothers with disturbed children or children who were psychiatric patients and mothers who were

psychiatric patients. The three factors extracted from this study were very similar to the factors from Schaefer and Bell's (1958) original study for the normal sample as well as the clinically heterogeneous group of mothers. The results indicated mother's education was significantly related to parental attitudes; the less educated mothers tended to score higher on the authoritarian factor.

Becker and Krug (1965) were somewhat skeptical about the potential discriminative power of the PARI after reviewing studies using the PARI. The findings indicated when level of education was controlled, few differences were found among several diverse groups. Some consistent findings, however, did emerge: first, mothers with problem children (i.e., poor health) tend to have more overprotective attitudes; second, mothers of normal children hold more strict attitudes than mothers of schizophrenic children; third, mothers of delinquents hold more authoritarian attitudes; and fourth, parents of clinic children diverge more than parents of normal children in their attitudes toward strictness.

Madoff (1959) hypothesized male and female juvenile delinquents' mothers would have more pathogenic child-rearing attitudes than mothers of normal female and male juveniles. Twenty scales from the PARI were

used to compare 50 mothers of institutionalized delinquents with 57 mothers of healthy adolescents. The delinquents' mothers scored higher on the following scales: Deification, Martyrdom, and Excluding Outside Influences. Thus, indicating they perceived their role as self-sacrificing and in return expected unquestioning loyalty and devotion from their children. The mothers of the delinquents also scored higher on the Suppression of Aggression, Dependency, and Intrusiveness scale. In conclusion, the hypothesis was supported with the mothers of delinquents reporting more punitive, controlling, and authoritarian attitudes.

Zuckerman, Ribback, and Bragiel (1960) examined the parental attitudes of parents who had children referred to clinics for behavior problems. The purpose of the study was to determine if parental attitudes differed between parents of child guidance clinic children and parents of normal children, if parental attitudes distinguished between different children's problems and if socioeconomic status, age, and family constellation influenced parental attitudes. The clinic sample included 165 mothers and 140 fathers from two guidance clinics and the normal sample included 181 mothers and 36 fathers. The clinic mothers scored significantly lower on the following scales of the PARI: Deification, Avoidance of Communication, Acceleration

of Development and Rejection of the Homemaking Role. Mothers' education and fathers' occupation were used to examine socioeconomic status. Both of the socioeconomic status factors were negatively correlated to the authoritarian factor; as education increased, maternal attitudes became less authoritarian and controlling. Contrary to theory, the clinic parents scored lower rather than higher on many of the scales. It was believed the clinic parents felt threatened by the inventory and gave answers they felt were socially desirable.

Cross and Kawash (1968) revised and shortened the PARI to assess authoritarian attitudes toward child-rearing and parental warmth. Reversed questions were added for the four scales. This was to counteract the problems noted in several earlier studies in which parents appeared threatened and became defensive and expressed more socially acceptable responses rather than responding more accurately about their child-rearing attitudes. The short form consists of nine five item scales and is less than half as long as the original Form IV. The shortened form was tested on 180 mothers and 166 fathers of boys in a suburban New York public high school. Factor analysis supported the logic of combining the PARI scales into the authoritarian and warmth factors. The relationship between the two attitude factors and authoritarianism was explored by

testing 46 college students with the PARI short form and both forms of the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) stereopathy scales. Both PARI factors were found to be significantly correlated to authoritarianism as measured by a cluster of attitudes (Form I of the SSRC). The overall pattern of results suggested the new short form of the PARI can be a useful technique for assessing authoritarian attitudes toward child-rearing.

Measurement Issues

It is important for delinquent studies to include not only identified delinquents obtained from police records but also those adolescents whose antisocial and delinquent behaviors have not come to the attention of police records. Many of the studies examining delinquency have based their results on institutionalized delinquent populations or have used official statistics. These populations are limited only to those delinquents who have been charged and convicted. Many offenses have gone and will continue to go undetected by the judicial system. The juvenile court system may be biased as to who is apprehended, arrested, referred to court, convicted, and incarcerated (Rank, 1983). Wilson (1980) reported that a bias may exist in police decisions as whether to caution, to charge, or to warn the child and his/her parents informally. Studies defining

their delinquent sample by only using records of convicted youths may have obtained a sample of delinquents not entirely representative of the population of youths who have been caught for similar crimes. Officially recorded statistics from police and court records have been a better indicator of juvenile authorities' reactions to illegal behaviors which reflect differential treatment than they have been of actual offense patterns. Data collected by legal agencies at various stages of the juvenile justice process, such as arrest, intake, or court referrals, are less than ideal for causal explanations of delinquency since many offenses go undetected. For example, the police and juvenile courts have been stricter on delinquents from broken homes and lower socioeconomic status backgrounds than delinquents from higher socioeconomic status backgrounds and intact homes. The court's philosophy has been to use the justice system to provide a protective environment for delinquents who have inadequate family resources to deal with them. Also, the courts have appeared to be stricter if there is a history of other family members who have been in trouble with the law. This is supported by Robins, West, and Herjanic's (1975) Contagion theory which postulates if one family member becomes antisocial, the probability of others being affected is increased. Therefore, findings appear

contradictory because similar populations have not been compared in different studies.

Self-report measurements of delinquency have been valid and more accurate than official records for both delinquent and nondelinquent populations in assessing the children's degree of involvement in antisocial activities. Grove and Crutchfield (1982) found self-report studies indicated the unofficial rate of delinquency was much higher than the rate of official delinquency, and the correlation between social class and self-reported delinquency was much lower than suggested by the official delinquency rate. Findings have been confounded by various family factors and types of delinquency not taken into account in the sampling and the methodology of studies. Rank (1983) reported there may not be the same significant antecedent for all types of juvenile misconduct. The interaction of sex, age, and crime must be taken into account when examining different types of delinquency (Rank, 1983; Wilson, 1980). (Therefore, the degree of delinquency, as well as the type of misconduct, must be taken into consideration in designing delinquency studies.)

Self-report instruments measuring involvement in delinquent behavior have proven to be a valid means in distinguishing delinquents from nondelinquents. One example is the Delinquency Check List (DCL) developed

by Kulik, Stein, and Sarbin (1968). The authors administered a self-report checklist to 505 high school boys and 391 institutionalized delinquent boys. Using a Likert scale to measure their degree of involvement, the boys responded to questions covering a broad range of misbehaviors. The delinquents and nondelinquents differed significantly on four dimensions of antisocial behaviors emerging from the instrument: Delinquent Role, Drug Usage, Parental Defiance, and Assaultiveness. The delinquent boys scored significantly higher than nondelinquent boys on all four dimensions. The delinquent boys were then classified into seven different delinquency types based on their score patterns on the four dimensions.

Statement of the Problem

Previous studies have indicated that family factors play a critical role in juvenile delinquency. The parents' and child's perception of the family have been useful means for examining the family system and the contributing factors of delinquency. Self-report measures, completed by youths, have been a valid means for determining different levels of involvement in delinquent behavior. Studies have cross-validated youths' responses on delinquency self-report measures with official records, parents' reports and teachers' reports,

but have not compared children's perceptions of their parents' behaviors with their parents' views.

The present proposal was designed to investigate the relationship between delinquency and parenting styles, children's perceptions of parenting styles and discrepancies that may exist between parents' and children's reports. The present study assessed parental factors by comparing the parents' and children's reports. The author hypothesized that delinquents would perceive their parents negatively and nondelinquents would perceive their parents positively. Secondly, the author hypothesized that delinquents' parents would have more authoritarian child-rearing attitudes and nondelinquents' parents would have more democratic child-rearing attitudes. Lastly, the author hypothesized there would be a greater discrepancy between the delinquents and their parents in comparison to the nondelinquents and their parents for reported parental behavior.

METHOD

Subjects

Participation in this study was on a voluntary basis for all subjects. The subjects were solicited from Lenoir, North Carolina, a rural community in the foothills of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Two groups of families with adolescents between the ages of 10 and 16 were tested. A total of 59 subjects participated in the study. In the nondelinquent group there were 39 adolescents (15 females and 24 males) and there were 20 adolescents (5 females and 15 males) in the delinquent group. The ratio of male to female subjects was approximately equal in both groups. The delinquent group consisted of adolescents who had recently been involved with the juvenile court system and adjudicated as "undisciplined" and "delinquent." Their offenses included such behaviors as truancy, breaking and entering, running away, sexual abuse, and larceny. These children were not sent away to training school, but were referred for treatment as part of their case disposition and had contact with Foothills Mental Health Center or Caldwell Friends, Incorporated which is a

Big Brother, Big Sister program. The control group consisted of "nondelinquents" who were solicited from two local middle schools. They were selected on the basis of their grade levels in school and were volunteers from seventh and eighth grade classes. The subjects in the nondelinquent group were tested to make sure they qualified as "nondelinquents" and were not involved in any significant delinquent behavior that had not been brought to the attention of the juvenile court system.

The average age of the delinquents was 13.7 years (girls 14.4 years and boys 13.5 years) and the average age of the nondelinquents was 13.0 years (girls 13.2 and boys 12.8). The average grade for the delinquents was 7.3 (girls 8.0 and boys 7.1) and the average grade for the nondelinquents was also 7.3 (girls 7.4 and boys 7.3). The age difference between the two groups who had the same average grade was probably due to the delinquent subjects having been retained more often than the nondelinquent subjects.

Instruments

Delinquency Check List. The Delinquency Checklist (DCL), a 52 item test, developed by Kulik et al. (1968) has been found to distinguish delinquents from nondelinquents (see Appendix A). This test contains statements of four dimensions of antisocial behavior:

Delinquent Role (or gang delinquency), Drug Usage, Parental Defiance, and Assaultiveness. A total delinquency score was also obtained by adding the responses of all 52 items. The adolescents gave a self-report as to the degree of their involvement on a five point scale of "never" to "very often" in a broad range of antisocial behaviors. The maximum scores for Delinquent Role, Drug Usage, Parental Defiance, and Assaultiveness and the total score are: 40, 16, 20, 20, and 208, respectively. The reliability of item analysis of this instrument was tested on three samples of boys. First, a group of 100 incarcerated delinquents and 100 high school boys were compared. Next, another group of 100 incarcerated delinquents were studied. Thirdly, a group of 505 high school boys was tested. The factorial structure of the scale was stable across samples and the results clearly indicated the dimensions were positively intercorrelated. The alpha reliability coefficients for the dimensions were: Delinquent Role (.95), Drug Usage (.92), Parental Defiance (.78), and Assaultiveness (.88). The differences in the cluster scores of the delinquents and nondelinquents on each of the four dimensions were tested for significance by t ratios to study the validity. The two groups clearly differed on each of these dimensions of antisocial behavior.

Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory.

Cross (1969) developed the shortened form of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior (CRPBI) which has been used to examine children's perceptions of maternal and paternal behavior on eight scales (see Appendix B). There are separate, but identical forms for children to fill out pertaining to their mothers and fathers. In this study the children were required only to complete the forms for mothers. From previous research, the author assumed that most children would be living with their mothers and the fathers would be absent and unavailable to participate in the study. The inventory consisted of 64 items with eight items within each of the eight scales describing different characteristics of child-rearing. On each of the eight scales, the scores could range from a maximum of 24 to a minimum of 8. Three factors of child-rearing patterns: Acceptance vs. Rejection, Psychological Autonomy vs. Psychological Control, and Firm vs. Lax Control emerged when factor analyzed. Internal-consistency reliabilities for the original CRPBI were computed with Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for both forms (mother and father), and for three samples: 85 normal boys, 80 normal girls, and 81 institutionalized delinquent boys. The results indicate that the scales are rather homogeneous measures for rather specific components of

parental behavior with coefficients ranging from .40 to .93. The Mann-Whitney test was used to measure the significance between distributions of total scores of the delinquents and nondelinquents for each scale. The scale validity was supported in discriminating between the two groups of delinquents and nondelinquents and justified a separate analysis of maternal and paternal behavior.

Parental Attitude Research Instrument. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was originally developed by Schaefer and Bell (1958) and later revised and shortened by Cross and Kawash (1968) to measure mother's and father's authoritarian attitudes toward child-rearing and parental warmth (see Appendix C). The questionnaire contains 45 questions with nine scales of five items each describing parents' attitudes toward parenting. Three of the scales (Deification, Excluding Outside Influences, and Irritability) had matching reversal scales. The reversal scales were scored so that they matched the scoring of the other scales, with a high score always indicating more of a given variable. In this study, the researcher added the reversed scales with the matching nonreversed scales which then left six subscales for the questionnaire. For the Deification, Excluding Outside Influences, and Irritability scales there was a minimum score of 10

and a maximum score of 40; whereas, for the Encouraging Verbalization, Equalitarianism, and Deception scale 5 and 20 were the minimum and maximum scores, respectively.

Three factors or parenting styles emerged when factor analyzed by Schaefer and Bell (1958): Democratic Acceptance vs. Rejection, Irritability vs. Warmth, and Parental Authoritarianism vs. Democratic Acceptance. The Encouraging Verbalization and Equalitarianism scales were combined to make the Democratic Acceptance vs. Rejection factor. The Irritability and Rejection of the Homemaking Role scales were combined for the Irritability vs. Warmth factor. The Rejection of the Homemaking Role was not included in the shortened form of the PARI developed by Cross and Kawash (1968). Therefore, in this study the Irritability vs. Warmth factor was omitted. The two scales of Excluding Outside Influences and Deification were combined into a Parental Authoritarianism vs. Democratic Acceptance factor.

Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 was used to test internal consistency and test-retest reliability on three samples of 220 adult females. The reliability ranged from .34 to .84. Concurrent validity was supported for the study of parent-child relationships.

The investigator randomly chose 11 items from the shortened version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (see Appendix D) which was to be administered to the adolescent subjects. This was to determine if there was a difference in agreement between the children and parents of the two groups. The questionnaire contained questions from four of the six scales. A discriminant score was calculated by subtracting the children's response from their parent's response for each of the items. A total discriminant score was obtained by adding the 11 discriminant scores together for each subject.

Procedure

Prior to any contact with the delinquent clients the study was presented to the Quality Assurance Board in Lenoir, North Carolina and the consent of the mental health center administrators was obtained. The investigator solicited subjects from the clinicians who worked with the Children and Youth Services who had court adjudicated children in their caseloads. The investigator contacted clients and their parents while they were at the mental health center and asked if they were willing to complete some questionnaires. The parents and children were told the main purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between how children and parents view children's and parent's behaviors.

Participation was completely voluntary. Both the parents and the adolescents were assured of strict confidentiality and that the data would be used for research purposes only. The adolescents and their parents were asked if they would need assistance in reading the questionnaires. If they needed help with the questionnaires, the investigator read the questionnaires to them and had them fill out their responses. The researcher assisted three of the delinquent's mothers in completing the questionnaires.

Before participation in the study the mother and the child signed a consent form (see Appendix E). The parent and the child were given a separate packet of questionnaires to fill out in an empty therapy room or the waiting room at the mental health center. Included in the mothers' packets was a Family Data Sheet (see Appendix F) used to obtain relevant background information for the purposes of matching subjects and analyzing demographic data and a Parental Attitude Research Instrument short-form questionnaire. Included in the packet for the adolescents was a Delinquency Checklist, a Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory short-form, and a modified version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument. The Delinquency Checklist deals with antisocial behavior and touches on some personal areas, such as sexual experiences, but had

been frequently used with delinquents. The adolescents were encouraged to be completely honest in their responses. The adolescents were assured that neither their parents nor anyone else would see their questionnaires. The investigator emphasized that subjects could discontinue at any time if they found the material offensive. The time involvement for the parent and child was approximately 20 minutes each.

To obtain subjects for the nondelinquent group the principals of two local middle schools were first contacted and the purpose of the study was explained to them. After approval from the principals, the investigator talked with a seventh and eighth grade teacher from each school and explained the study to them. The investigator then met with their students and explained the study to them. These students were told that the investigator was completing her Masters degree at Appalachian State University and that she was conducting a study which looked at parent-child perceptions and the relationship to various behaviors. The nondelinquents took packets home to their mothers and asked them to complete them and return them by the end of the week. The packets contained a cover letter (see Appendix G), consent form, Family Data Sheet, and a Parental Attitude Research Instrument. The investigator then met with those students whose parents returned

completed questionnaires and explained the study to them and asked them to participate in the study. They were told that some of the questions touched on some personal issues and were asked to be completely honest in their responses. They were assured that their responses would be completely confidential and would be used only for research purposes. The students were given packets which contained the same questionnaires as the delinquent adolescents received: a Delinquency Checklist, a Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory, and the modified version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument. The students filled out the questionnaires in small groups in an empty classroom.

Design and Data Analysis

The basic design was a 2 (delinquent vs. non-delinquent) x 2 (female vs. male) factorial. The first set of dependent variables was used to confirm the accuracy of the subject's assignment into the delinquent and nondelinquent groups with the Delinquency Checklist. The other dependent variables were the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory measures of the children's perception of their parents' child-rearing practices, the Parental Attitude Research Instrument measures of the parents' attitudes of child-rearing and the discriminant measures of the two groups of

adolescents and their parents on the selected Parental Attitude Research Instrument items. Breakdowns for the delinquent group and nondelinquent group were obtained for the demographic variables of sex, age, grade, number of siblings living at home, number of siblings not living at home, number of other relatives living in the home, number of nonrelatives living in the home, mothers' and fathers' education attainment level, mother and fathers' occupations, and parents' marital status.

RESULTS

Information was collected on the mothers' and fathers' education and the marital status. The information on the fathers was used only to measure the socioeconomic status. Forty-four percent of the mothers and fathers of delinquents had finished high school and received further education compared to 81% of the parents of the nondelinquents. A higher percentage of the parents of the delinquents were single, separated, and divorced than the parents of the nondelinquents. Seventy-four percent of the nondelinquents came from an intact family in which their parents were married, whereas only 15% of the delinquents came from intact families. Ten percent of the delinquents' mothers were widowed and 5.1% of the nondelinquents' mothers were widowed. The parents of the nondelinquents had a higher socioeconomic status than the parents of delinquents according to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1963) socioeconomic measures. The parents of the nondelinquents were likely to have professional or skilled occupations. The major occupational category they came closest to included jobs such as craftsmen and foremen.

The parents of delinquents were likely to have semi-skilled and unskilled jobs. They fit closest into the occupational category which listed laborer and service worker types of jobs.

The first set of dependent variables was used to confirm the accuracy of each subject's classification as delinquent or nondelinquent. The Delinquency Checklist is a self-report questionnaire which contains four dimensions describing various kinds of antisocial behavior and a total score for the test. The two groups were expected to differ on these four dimensions with the identified delinquents scoring higher than the nondelinquents.

A 2 x 2² analysis of variance was performed on each of the four dimensions and the total delinquency score (see Appendix H; Table 1). Each analysis compared delinquency (delinquent children and nondelinquent children) and sex (females and males). Table 1 provides the means, standard deviations, and significance of the delinquent and nondelinquent groups on each subscale and the total questionnaire score. In this study the Delinquency Checklist clearly discriminated between the two groups. The delinquents and nondelinquents differed significantly on all of the scales, with the delinquents scoring significantly higher. Therefore, the Delinquency Checklist supported the subjects'

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Significance for Delinquency

Checklist

	Delinquent		Nondelinquent		Significance
	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)	
Delinquent Role	7.40	(6.24)	3.20	(2.94)	.001
Drug Usage	2.55	(3.61)	.25	(.99)	.001
Parental Defiance	6.55	(4.34)	3.46	(2.32)	<.001
Assaultiveness	.55	(.99)	.02	(.16)	.003
Total Delinquency	29.10	(16.24)	12.23	(8.70)	<.001

assignments into the delinquent group based on their high scores on the delinquency measure and into the nondelinquent group based on their low scores on the delinquency measure. Using the sum of the total scores of the Delinquency Checklist the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 25.95, p < .001$). The main effect of sex was not significant for the total delinquency score or the subscales of the Delinquency Checklist. For the Delinquency Role the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 12.84, p = .001$). The delinquent group scored higher on the questions related to the Delinquent Role which consists of minor delinquencies, such as use of alcohol, school disobedience, sexual intercourse, and gang behavior (i.e., carrying a switchblade, taking part in a gang fight, and riding in a stolen car). The interaction was also significant ($F(1, 55) = 6.10, p = .017$). As Figure 1 indicates, the delinquent boys scored lower than the delinquent girls, while the opposite is true for the nondelinquent girls and boys. Using the four items of the Drug Usage scale the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 14.84, p < .001$). The delinquent group members scored higher on their reported involvement in using and selling drugs. Sex was not a significant factor on this scale. Using the five items of the Parental Defiance scale the

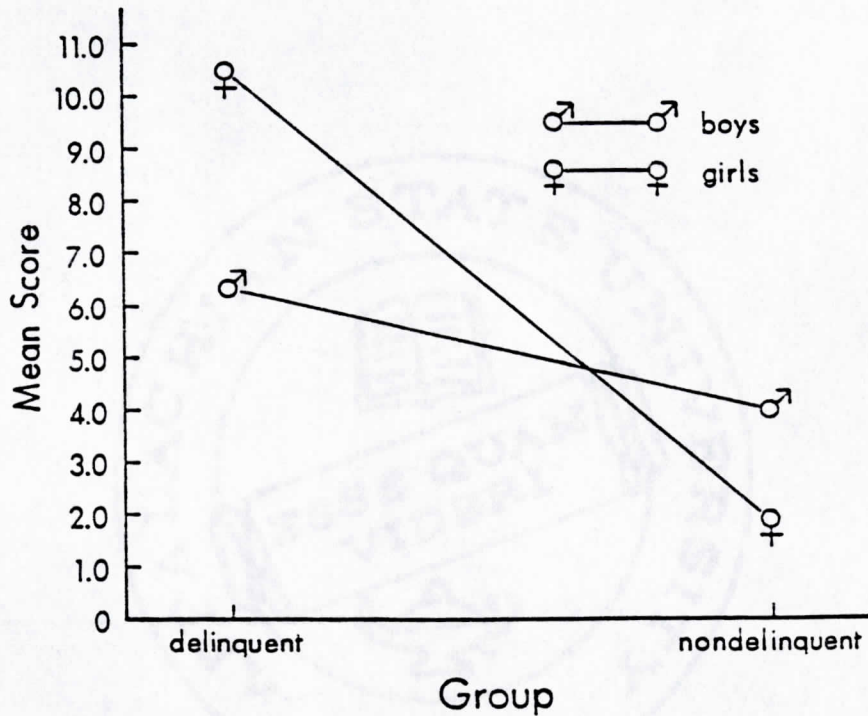


Figure 1. Average score on the delinquency role scale of the DCL for the girls and boys of the delinquent and nondelinquent groups.

main effect was significant ($F(1, 55) = 13.13$, $p = .001$), thus indicating the delinquents defied their parents' wishes and verbally or physically fought with their parents more than the nondelinquents. Using the five items of the Assaultiveness scale the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 9.81$, $p = .003$) thus indicating the delinquents were involved in more aggressive, assaultive antisocial behavior in school and in the community than the nondelinquents. Again, sex was not a significant main effect on this last scale. In general, the delinquent group was more involved in the antisocial behaviors measured by the Delinquency Checklist than the nondelinquent group. The delinquents reported having more involvement than the nondelinquents in such behaviors as: using alcohol and drugs, having sexual intercourse with the opposite sex, going against parents' wishes, shouting, cursing, or hitting parents and teachers, stealing, truancy from school, and running away.

The Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory was used to examine the children's perceptions of their parents' methods of child-rearing. The children's questionnaire allowed the children from the delinquent and nondelinquent group to express how they felt their parents interacted with them. This questionnaire was expected to discriminate between the two groups of

children, with the nondelinquents having more favorable responses towards their parents. A series of 2 x 2 analyses of variance was utilized to compare the main effects of two independent variables: delinquency (delinquent or nondelinquent) and sex (female vs. male) on each of the eight scales (Acceptance, Control by Guilt, Nonenforcement, Child-centeredness, Hostile Control, Lax Discipline, Positive Involvement, and Instilling Persistent Anxiety) (see Appendix H; Table 2). The nondelinquent children perceived their parents more positively and as having more stable, positive parenting styles than did delinquent children. Table 2 provides the means, standard deviations, and significance for these two groups on the eight scales.

On the Acceptance scale the main effect of delinquency was significant, ($F(1, 55) = 6.89, p = .011$), thus indicating the nondelinquent children perceived their mothers as being more accepting than the delinquent children. The Acceptance scale included such questions as: makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her, sees my good points more than my faults, understands my problems, and enjoys spending time with me. The main effect of sex and interaction were not significant for this scale. The main effect of delinquency on the Control by Guilt scale was significant ($F(1, 55) = 12.34, p = .001$). The delinquent

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Significance for Children's
Report of Parental Behavior Inventory

	Delinquent		Nondelinquent		Significance
	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)	
Acceptance	17.30	(4.35)	20.28	(2.42)	.011
Control by Guilt	17.35	(5.33)	13.92	(3.27)	.001
Nonenforcement	13.05	(4.29)	12.51	(2.84)	.533
Child-centeredness	17.95	(6.15)	18.89	(3.08)	.511
Hostile Control	17.25	(5.61)	14.48	(3.20)	.019
Lax Discipline	12.45	(4.21)	13.92	(3.48)	.250
Positive Involvement	16.35	(5.49)	19.33	(2.80)	.007
Instill Persistent					
Anxiety	17.00	(5.23)	14.12	(3.51)	.015

group perceived their mothers as using more guilt in their child-rearing practices than the nondelinquent group. Control by Guilt was measured with questions such as: she thinks I'm not grateful when I don't obey, feels hurt by the things I do, tells me how much she has suffered for me, and says if I love her I'd do what she wants me to do. The main effect of sex and the interaction were not significant. Using the scores on the Hostile Control scale the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 5.82, p = .019$). Delinquents perceive their mothers as using more threatening, hostile methods in discipline than the nondelinquents. The delinquents' responses to the Hostile Control questions indicated the mothers are likely to: decide on their friends, tell them exactly how to do their work, and lose their tempers when they don't help around the house. No significance for the main effect of sex or interaction emerged. The main effect of sex on the Lax Discipline scale was significant ($F(1, 55) = 5.82, p = .039$). Both the delinquent and nondelinquent girls perceived their mothers as more lax in their discipline than the boys in both groups. The girls more so than the boys believed their mothers were easier on them when they did something wrong, could not say no when they kept asking, let them stay up late if they kept asking or could get them to change

their mind about a command if they protested or complained. The main effect of delinquency and the interaction were not significant. The nondelinquent group perceived their parents as being more positively involved in their lives than the delinquent group as indicated by the significant main effect of delinquency on the Positive Involvement scale ($F(1, 55) = 7.92$, $p = .007$). The nondelinquents thought their parents were more likely to have long talks with them about the causes and reasons for things, encourage them to read, talk with them about what they have read, and try to treat them as an equal. Neither the interaction nor main effect of sex were significant. Using the scores on the Instilling Persistent Anxiety scale the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 6.33$, $p = .015$), but the main effect of sex and interaction were not significant. The delinquents perceived their parents as instilling persistent anxiety more than the nondelinquents. Questions used to measure Instilling Persistent Anxiety included: says someday I'll be punished for my bad behavior, thinks and talks about my bad behavior long after it is over, hardly notices when I'm good at home or school, and if I break a promise doesn't trust me for a long time. Nonenforcement and Child-centeredness were the only scales found not to be significant. The Nonenforcement scale consisted of

questions such as: usually does not find out about my misbehavior, doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior, only keeps rules when it suits her, and lets me get away with a lot of things. The Child-centeredness scale consisted of questions such as: likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time, is always thinking of things that will please me, often gives up something to get something for me, and spends most of her free time with her children. In conclusion, the nondelinquents report that their parents have more positive parenting skills and have a healthier relationship with them than the delinquents. The delinquents perceived their relationships with their parents more negatively and perceived their parents as controlling their lives in a negative manner.

This study was designed to assess parental factors in a child's home environment by comparing the parents' and children's reports. The revised and shortened Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was used to assess the child-rearing attitudes of the parents of the delinquents and nondelinquents. The parents of the delinquents were expected to be more authoritarian in their attitudes towards child-rearing than the parents of the nondelinquents. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance was used to compare the main effects of delinquency and sex on each of the six subscales (Encouraging

Verbalization, Equalitarianism, Deification, Excluding Outside Influences, Irritability, and Deception) of the PARI (see Appendix H; Table 3). The main effect of sex was not significant for any of the scales and the interaction of delinquency and sex was also not significant for any of the scales. Table 3 provides the means, standard deviations, and significance level of the differences in responses from parents of the delinquent and nondelinquent groups for the PARI. The child-rearing attitudes of the parents of the delinquents were less democratic and they employed more negative methods of disciplining than the parents of the nondelinquents.

Using the scores of the Encouraging Verbalization scale the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 11.55, p > .001$). The results indicated the parents of nondelinquents encourage more verbalization with their children than the parents of delinquents. The main effect of sex and interaction were not significant for this scale. The main effect of delinquency for the Deification scale was significant ($F(1, 55) = 4.59, p = .036$). The parents of delinquents expect their children to defy them by placing them above everyone else in comparison to the parents of nondelinquents. Neither the main effect of sex nor the interaction were significant. On the Irritability scale

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Significance for ParentalAttitude Research Instrument

	Delinquent		Nondelinquent		Significance
	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)	
Encouraging					
Verbalization	15.10	(4.17)	17.92	(1.96)	.001
Equalitarianism	13.55	(3.01)	13.12	(2.77)	.493
Deification	25.75	(4.14)	23.00	(4.96)	.036
Excluding Outside					
Influences	22.95	(3.25)	21.23	(5.14)	.150
Irritability	32.05	(3.91)	26.53	(5.74)	< .001
Deception	11.25	(3.53)	9.28	(2.82)	.024

the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 14.24, p < .001$), thus indicating the parents of delinquents were more irritable with their children than the parents of nondelinquents. The delinquents' parents scored the highest on this scale compared to the other scales. Again, a significance for the main effect of sex and interaction did not emerge. The main effect of delinquency was significant for the Deception scale ($F(1, 55) = 5.40, p = .024$), but the main effect of sex and interaction were not significant. The parents of nondelinquents believe in using less deception in their child-rearing techniques than do the parents of delinquents. No significant differences were found for the Equalitarianism scale or the Excluding Outside Influences scale. Questions used to measure Equalitarianism included: when asked to do something children should always be told why, children should have things their way as often as parents, and children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjusting and it's not fair. Excluding Outside Influences included such questions as: the child should not question the thinking of his/her parents, a parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes, and children should never learn things outside the home which make them doubt their parents' ideas.

In summary, the parents of nondelinquents allow their children to verbalize their feelings and ideas even if they go against their own beliefs and to discuss family rules if they feel they are unfair. The nondelinquents' parents encourage more verbalization and are more democratic. The parents of the delinquents expect their children to love and respect them more than anyone else, not to question them, and be loyal to them. Their responses suggest they are authoritarian in their child-rearing attitudes. The parents of delinquents were more likely than the parents of nondelinquents to report that they often feel they can't stand their children a moment longer and it is difficult to stay calm and even-tempered all day with children and to not lose their temper.

The 2 x 2 analysis of variance was used to compare the main effects of delinquency and sex and the interaction of the independent variables on the two part factors (Parental Authoritarianism vs. Democratic Acceptance and Democratic Acceptance vs. Rejection) (see Appendix H; Table 4). The parents of the nondelinquents are more accepting and democratic with their children and the parents of the delinquents are more authoritarian with their children.

Using the scores on the scales which make up the Parental Authoritarianism vs. Democratic Acceptance

factor the main effect of delinquency was significant ($F(1, 55) = 4.46, p = .039$). The main effect of sex and the interaction were not significant. The mean and standard deviation for this factor for the parents of the delinquents were 48.70(6.18) and 44.23(8.71) for the parents of the nondelinquents. The Democratic Acceptance vs. Rejection factor was not significant. The results indicate the parents of delinquents have more authoritarian attitudes and less democratic acceptance than the parents of nondelinquents.

The delinquents and nondelinquents were given a sample of the same questions that the parents responded to on the parents' questionnaire to determine if there was more agreement on the attitudes of child-rearing between the nondelinquents and their parents than between the delinquents and their parents. The author hypothesized that there would be less agreement between the delinquents' attitudes of child-rearing and their parents' attitudes.

A 2 x 2 analysis of variance was used to compare the main effect of delinquency and sex and their interaction for the total discriminant score (see Appendix H; Table 5). The main effects and interaction for the total discriminant score were not significant, suggesting that the children from both groups are in general agreement with how their parents responded on their

questionnaires. These results are very limited considering the fact that only 11 items were used in the comparison.



DISCUSSION

Community-based delinquents from this study were compared to delinquents from previous studies with samples from a variety of settings (mental health centers, training schools, and juvenile correctional facilities). Although researchers have used differing techniques to assess the impact of parenting on delinquency, similar results have been obtained indicating delinquency and poor parenting skills are related. This raises the question as to whether or not the researchers were measuring the same phenomena referred to as poor behavior management. They might be tapping different areas of parenting, but still are getting similar findings.

The results of the present study lend support to findings made by previous delinquency researchers. In this study, a higher percentage of delinquents came from broken homes--single, separated, or divorced (75.0%)--as compared to the nondelinquents (20.5%). This was consistent with the research of Rank (1983) who found a correlation between broken homes and delinquency. He found children from more severely disrupted

households had a higher probability of running away. Canter (1982) found broken homes had a significant effect on delinquency for boys and girls. The family bond had an inhibitory effect for both sexes with a stronger influence on more serious crimes for boys. Grove and Crutchfield (1982) found broken homes were related to male delinquency but not female delinquency. Christensen et al. (1983) found children's deviant behaviors associated with marital discord. These studies' findings indicated there is less supervision of children in a one-parent home and this lack of supervision has been highly correlated with delinquency. In a broken home, the single-parent may experience more stress in his/her role as a parent than in an intact family where the responsibilities are shared between both parents.

In the present investigation, the sample was mildly delinquent, yet there were significant differences in the reported antisocial behaviors of the delinquents compared to the nondelinquents. The delinquent group reported more involvement in a wider range of antisocial behaviors than did the nondelinquents. In this study, the Delinquency Checklist was found to be a valid instrument in discriminating between delinquent and nondelinquent groups, which is consistent with findings of previous researchers using this inventory.

The delinquents' and nondelinquents' scores on the four dimensions were comparable to the samples used by Kulik et al. (1968). The Delinquency Checklist discriminated on all four dimensions as well as the total score for males and females. In the delinquents' self-reports, they were more defiant of their parents' authority, more experienced with drugs and alcohol, more troublesome at school, more involved in aggressive, assaultive behavior, more sexually active, and had vandalized and stolen property. Delinquent girls scored significantly higher on the Delinquency Role scale than delinquent boys and the reverse was true for nondelinquents. It appeared delinquent girls were more involved in behaviors that would be considered by cultural standards as age inappropriate. Delinquent girls were more involved in alcohol related activities and more sexually active than delinquent boys. Although the delinquent female population was very small, the higher score on this dimension paralleled other studies' findings on similar categories of delinquency. Canter (1982) found delinquent girls committed more status offenses than delinquent boys. Similar results in this study were found between her status offenses and those categorized as such by this study's Delinquency Role scale. Research has found sex biases for certain types of offenses, such as ungovernability, runaway, and other sex

and home offenses. There may not be a higher incidence of these behaviors among girls, but society may be stricter with girls and more cases may be brought to the attention of officials.

A relationship was found between the two groups of adolescents and how they viewed their mothers' interactions with them. The nondelinquents reported their mothers used positive, consistent child-rearing techniques. The nondelinquents perceived that their mothers had unconditional love for them. Conversely, the delinquents had attributed more negative characteristics to their mothers' interactions with them. They reported their mothers used negative, covert methods of child-rearing. They seemed to perceive their mothers as using conditional love in their interactions with them. They reported their mothers used guilt as a means of disciplining them and were hostile towards them even though they did not necessarily follow through on all of the threats.

The findings on the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory were consistent with previous research in distinguishing between the delinquents' and nondelinquents' perceptions of their parents with the latter having more favorable attitudes towards their parents. Imperio and Chabot's (1980) findings paralleled the present study on five of the eight scales of

the CRPBI. The delinquents in both studies had negative perceptions of their parents. For both studies, low scores were found on Acceptance and Positive Involvement and high scores were found for Control Through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety. The three scales that differed were Child-centeredness, Non-enforcement, and Lax Discipline. These scales were significant in Imperio and Chabot's study, but not in the present study. The difference may be due to the fact that Imperio and Chabot's results were the combined responses of the mother and father forms and was derived from a more delinquent group. The parents of the more severely delinquent youths may have even less effective parenting skill than parents of less delinquent children.

Medinnus (1965), using the Parent-Child Relations questionnaire, found delinquent boys from a state training school differed significantly from the control boys as indicated by responses on the separate forms for father and mother. These findings for fathers could not be compared to this study because only 20% of the delinquents lived with their fathers, the findings were relevant for the mothers.

Using the CRPBI, Schaefer (1965a) found that the nondelinquents scored higher than the delinquents on scales designed to measure parental control, except

the Control Through Guilt scale. In the current study, Control Through Guilt was also higher for delinquents than nondelinquents. Schaefer also found Lax Discipline to be associated with the delinquency groups. In general, delinquents perceived their parents more negatively than nondelinquents with fathers more negatively perceived than mothers.

Streit's (1981) findings indicated that adolescents involved in delinquent behaviors perceived a lack of paternal control and a lack of maternal love. Although these variables cannot be directly compared to the findings of the current study, it does suggest parents of delinquents have weaker parenting skills.

Richman and Harper (1979) found the CRPBI discriminated amongst high acting-out delinquents and low acting-out delinquents in a juvenile treatment program. The mild delinquents of the current study were similar to the low acting-out group of delinquents on their responses of the CRPBI. The high acting-out males perceived their mothers as more accepting, more lax in their behavioral control and making fewer attempts at Control Through Guilt. The more severe delinquent youths' parents appeared to be more lenient and negligent in using disciplining techniques.

There is not an abundance of recent research documenting the child-rearing attitudes of delinquents'

parents in comparison to nondelinquents' parents. There is also a lack of research comparing the attitudes of delinquent children to those of their parents. The majority of the studies that examined parental factors approached the area either through the delinquent's perspective or through the parent's perspective, but rarely did the studies combine the two perspectives. Most studies explored only one aspect of child-rearing, such as supervision. Unfortunately the majority of studies do not use standardized measures which can be used to compare factors across different studies. Researchers, using differing techniques to assess the impact of parenting on delinquency, have found similar results which indicate delinquency and poor parenting skills are related. Although the researcher may be tapping different areas of parenting, similar findings have emerged. In summary, studies have found that lack of supervision, lax discipline, and harsh, punitive punishment are correlated to delinquency.

The findings from the children's reports of their parents' child-rearing behaviors were supported by the reports their parents gave about their own attitudes toward child-rearing. The parents of delinquents did not encourage verbalization with their children. They appeared to have the philosophy that children are to be

seen and not heard. Apparently, they do not believe their children should have the right to speak if they disagree with their parents or to think family rules are unfair. Parents reported they would rather use deceptive means to get their children to do something than explain the reason behind the request. Their counterparts--the parents of nondelinquents--encouraged their children to verbalize their opinions and to talk things out with their parents. The parents of nondelinquents reported they were more willing to compromise and use reasoning as opposed to deception when dealing with their children. The parents of delinquents indicated they often felt more irritable and tended to lose their temper when around their children than the parents of nondelinquents. The parents of delinquents seemed to have an unfavorable attitude about their relationship with their children; they found it difficult to remain calm and even-tempered when spending time with their children. Yet, the parents of the delinquents expected their children to have unconditional regard and love for them. The parents felt they should be the most esteemed person in their children's lives and should not be made to look wrong in their children's eyes. In general, the parents of the nondelinquents seem to enjoy their child-rearing role more. This could be a result of having better parenting skills

than the parents of the delinquents. Research has indicated that parents from lower socioeconomic status have poorer parenting skills because they never learned how to use effective disciplinary methods.

Wilson (1980) interviewed a high risk sample of boys and their parents to ascertain the boys' involvement in delinquency. Lax discipline and parental supervision were strongly correlated to self-report delinquency. The technique of strict supervision of the younger child has been suggested to turn into self-imposed control. Wilson reported lax parenting methods often arise from the result of chronic stress, situations arising from frequent or prolonged spells of unemployment, physical or mental disabilities among family members and long-standing conditions of poverty. These findings are similar to current findings in which lower socioeconomic status of the delinquent sample appeared to play a role in the increased delinquency in the delinquent group. Past findings which suggest lax discipline is a significant factor are contradictory to the current study since Lax Discipline was not found to be significant on the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory. Supervision was not directly measured in the present study, but it was found that the parents of delinquents in general used less effective means of discipline. In part, the differences in the findings

may be due to the fact that the current study's measure of Lax Discipline was by the children's perceptions of their parents' laxness, whereas Wilson measured laxness by the parents' report and home observations.

Grove and Crutchfield's (1982) findings supported the current study's findings and others which suggest single-parent families tend to be of lower SES than intact families and children of single-parent families are more likely to be delinquent. For the total sample of boys and girls, the predictors of delinquency are listed in order of strength: parents' feelings toward their child, race, marital status, lack of knowledge of friends, and physical punishment. The parents' negative feelings toward their child are similar to the current findings which suggest parents of delinquents tend to have more negative feelings about their children, were more irritable, and used methods of hostile control.

McCord (1979) clearly found parents' child-rearing behaviors were related to delinquency and subsequent criminal behavior. Six of the seven variables describing home atmosphere (mother's lack of affection, lack of supervision, parental conflict, mother's lack of self-confidence, parental aggressiveness, and father's deviance) were related to criminal behavior. The

father's absence was the only variable that was not related to criminality.

Previous researchers' findings support the present findings that parents of delinquents have more authoritarian child-rearing attitudes. Zuckerman et al. (1958) found that mother's education was related to parental attitudes as measured by the PARI. Lower education was associated with authoritarian attitudes. Becker and Krug's (1965) review of the PARI research consistently found authoritarian attitudes were correlated with parents of delinquents. Using the PARI, Madoff (1959) found parents of delinquents reported more punitive, controlling, and authoritarian parental attitudes than parents of nondelinquents. Zuckerman et al. (1960) found lower socioeconomic status, as measured by mother's education and father's occupation, was related to controlling and authoritarian parenting attitudes. The present study's delinquent sample, surveyed by the same instruments, also had a lower socioeconomic status. They were also more authoritarian.

Since the current study used community-based delinquents, the level of dysfunctional parenting can be assumed to be greater with institutionalized delinquents. This needs to be investigated using normative instruments exploring whether or not the dysfunctions change as the level of delinquency increases. This

type of information is essential to the success of treatment programs which work with the family system and not just the identified delinquent. To combat the problems associated with delinquency, professionals might begin teaching the parents of delinquents more effective parenting techniques.



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APPENDIX A
Delinquency Checklist

Youth Questionnaire #2

Please indicate to what extent you have broken the following rules and regulations since beginning grade school. If you have:

never broken the rule, circle the "0"
 broken the rule once or twice, circle "1"
 several times, circle "2"
 often, circle "3"
 very often, circle "4"

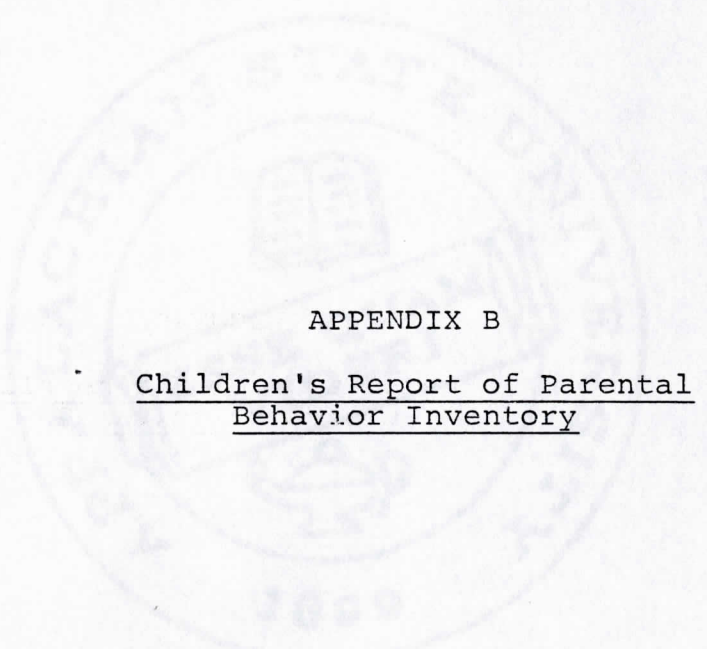
Please answer every item.

	never	once or twice	several times	often	very often
1. Gone against your parents' wishes?	0	1	2	3	4
2. Defied your parents' authority (to their face)?	0	1	2	3	4
3. Shouted at your mother or father?	0	1	2	3	4
4. Cursed at your mother or father?	0	1	2	3	4
5. Struck your mother or father?	0	1	2	3	4
6. Come to school late in the morning?	0	1	2	3	4
7. Skipped school without a legitimate excuse?	0	1	2	3	4
8. Cheated on any test?	0	1	2	3	4
9. Caused teachers a lot of trouble by cutting up in school?	0	1	2	3	4
10. "Run away" from home?	0	1	2	3	4
11. Driven a car without a driver's license or permit? (Do not include driver training courses.)	0	1	2	3	4

	never	once or twice	several times	often	very often
12. Been out past midnight when you were not accompanied by an adult?	0	1	2	3	4
13. Taken part in a "gang fight?"	0	1	2	3	4
14. "Beaten up" on a kid who hadn't done anything to you?	0	1	2	3	4
15. Obtained liquor by having older friends buy it for you?	0	1	2	3	4
16. Bought or drank beer, wine, or liquor? (Include drinking at home.)	0	1	2	3	4
17. Carried a phony ID card?	0	1	2	3	4
18. Drank beer or liquor in a bar?	0	1	2	3	4
19. Played poker or shot craps for money?	0	1	2	3	4
20. Stopped someone on the street, and asked for money?	0	1	2	3	4
21. Broken street lights or windows for the fun of it?	0	1	2	3	4
22. Snuck into some place of entertainment (movie theatre, ball game) without paying admission?	0	1	2	3	4
23. Killed or tortured some animal (bird, cat, dog, frog) just for the fun of it?	0	1	2	3	4
24. Carried a switchblade or other weapon?	0	1	2	3	4
25. Used alcohol excessively?	0	1	2	3	4

	never	once or twice	several times	often	very often
26. Drunk so much that you could not remember afterwards some of the things you had done?	0	1	2	3	4
27. Sniffed "glue" or taken "bennies" for kicks?	0	1	2	3	4
28. Gone for a ride in a car someone had stolen?	0	1	2	3	4
29. Taken little things (less than \$2) that did not belong to you?	0	1	2	3	4
30. Taken things of medium value (between \$2 and \$50) that did not belong to you?	0	1	2	3	4
31. Stolen things from a car (hubcaps, etc.)?	0	1	2	3	4
32. Bought or accepted property that you knew was stolen?	0	1	2	3	4
33. Taken a car for a ride without the owner's permission?	0	1	2	3	4
34. Purposely damaged or destroyed public or private property that did not belong to you?	0	1	2	3	4
35. Had sexual intercourse with a person of the opposite sex?	0	1	2	3	4
36. Had sexual relations with a girl who was at least two years younger than yourself?	0	1	2	3	4
37. Exposed yourself indecently in public?	0	1	2	3	4

	never	once or twice	several times	often	very often
38. Taken things of large value (over \$50) that did not belong to you?	0	1	2	3	4
39. Driven too fast or recklessly in an automobile?	0	1	2	3	4
40. Snatched a woman's purse from her?	0	1	2	3	4
41. Smoked marijuana?	0	1	2	3	4
42. Hit a teacher?	0	1	2	3	4
43. Resisted arrest, or fought with an officer trying to arrest you?	0	1	2	3	4
44. Broken into a store, home, warehouse, or some other such place in order to steal something?	0	1	2	3	4
45. Had sexual relations with someone of the same sex?	0	1	2	3	4
46. Sold marijuana to someone?	0	1	2	3	4
47. Been in a fight which led to a "stomping?"	0	1	2	3	4
48. Driven a car while drunk?	0	1	2	3	4
49. Take part in any robbery?	0	1	2	3	4
50. Taken part in a robbery involving the use of physical force?	0	1	2	3	4
51. Taken part in a robbery involving the use of a weapon?	0	1	2	3	4
52. Used narcotic drugs, other than marijuana?	0	1	2	3	4

The background of the page features a faint, circular seal of Appalachian State University. The seal contains the text "APPALACHIAN STATE UNIVERSITY" around the top and "1899" at the bottom. In the center of the seal, there is an emblem depicting an open book and a lamp of knowledge.

APPENDIX B

Children's Report of Parental
Behavior Inventory

Youth Questionnaire #3

Read each of the following statements and circle the number that best describes your mother. If the statement describes your mother a lot, circle "1"; if the statement describes your mother a little, circle "2"; if the statement does not describe your mother, circle "3".

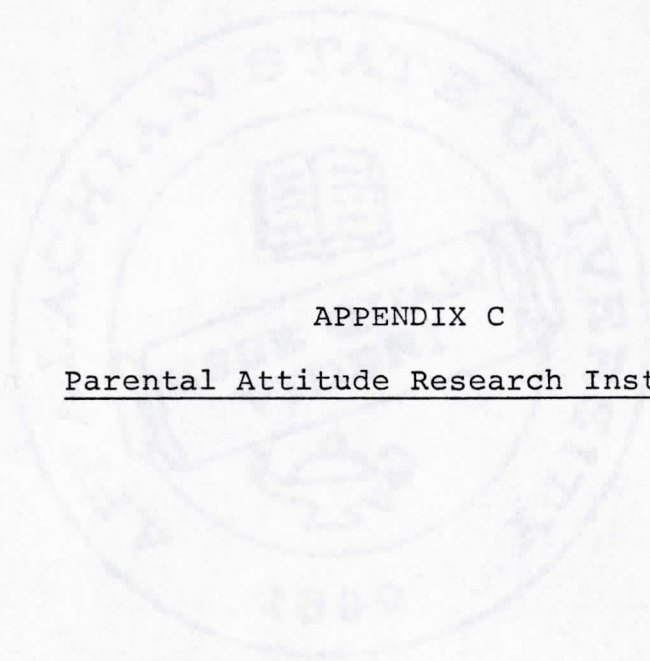
	<u>Like</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Like</u> _____	<u>Not</u> <u>Like</u>
1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her.	1	2	3
2. Feels hurt when I don't follow advice.	1	2	3
3. Usually does not find out about my misbehavior.	1	2	3
4. Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time.	1	2	3
5. Decides what friends I can go around with.	1	2	3
6. Is easy with me.	1	2	3
7. Says I'm very good natured.	1	2	3
8. Worries about how I will turn out because she takes everything bad that I do seriously.	1	2	3
9. Seems to see my good points more than my faults.	1	2	3
10. Thinks I'm not grateful when I don't obey.	1	2	3
11. Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior.	1	2	3
12. Is always thinking of things that will please me.	1	2	3

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Somewhat Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
13. Keeps reminding me of things I'm not allowed to do.	1	2	3
14. Lets me off easy when I do something wrong.	1	2	3
15. Likes to talk about what she has read with me.	1	2	3
16. If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time.	1	2	3
17. Understands my problems and my worries.	1	2	3
18. Feels hurt by the things I do.	1	2	3
19. Doesn't insist that I do my housework.	1	2	3
20. Gives me a lot of care and attention.	1	2	3
21. Tells me exactly how to do my work.	1	2	3
22. Can't say no to anything I want.	1	2	3
23. Tries to treat me as an equal.	1	2	3
24. Says someday I'll be punished for my bad behavior.	1	2	3
25. Enjoys going on drives, trips, and visits with me.	1	2	3
26. Tells me how much she has suffered for me.	1	2	3
27. Doesn't check up to see if I've done what she told me.	1	2	3

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Somewhat Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
28. Often gives up something to get something for me.	1	2	3
29. Doesn't forget very quickly the things I do wrong.	1	2	3
30. Excuses my bad conduct.	1	2	3
31. Often has long talks with me about the causes and reasons for things.	1	2	3
32. Thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after it is over.	1	2	3
33. Smiles at me very often.	1	2	3
34. Says if I loved her, I'd do what she wants me to do.	1	2	3
35. Only keeps rules when it suits her.	1	2	3
36. Makes me feel like the most important person in her life.	1	2	3
37. Is unhappy that I'm not better in school than I am.	1	2	3
38. Lets me stay up late if I keep asking.	1	2	3
39. Encourages me to read.	1	2	3
40. Hardly notices when I'm good at home or in school.	1	2	3
41. Enjoys working with me in the house or yard.	1	2	3
42. Tells me of all the things she has done for me.	1	2	3
43. Does not bother to enforce rules.	1	2	3

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Like</u>	<u>Not</u> <u>Like</u>
44. Enjoys staying home with me more than going out with friends.	1	2	3
45. Loses her temper with me when I don't help around the house.	1	2	3
46. Doesn't insist I obey if I complain or protest.	1	2	3
47. Is happy to see me when I come home from school or play.	1	2	3
48. Thinks that my misbehavior is serious and will have future consequences.	1	2	3
49. Often speaks of the good things I do.	1	2	3
50. Says if I really care for her, I would not do the things that cause her to worry.	1	2	3
51. Lets me get away without doing work I'd been given to do.	1	2	3
52. Makes her whole life center around her children.	1	2	3
53. Wants to control whatever I do.	1	2	3
54. I can talk her out of an order if I complain.	1	2	3
55. Is very interested in what I am learning at school.	1	2	3
56. Says that sooner or later we always pay for bad behavior.	1	2	3

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Somewhat</u> <u>Like</u>	<u>Not</u> <u>Like</u>
57. Has a good time at home with me.	1	2	3
58. When I don't do as she wants, says I am not grateful for all she has done for me.	1	2	3
59. Lets me get away with a lot of things.	1	2	3
60. Spends almost all of her free time with her children.	1	2	3
61. Doesn't let me decide things for myself.	1	2	3
62. Can be talked into things easily.	1	2	3
63. Says I make her happy.	1	2	3
64. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	1	2	3



APPENDIX C

Parental Attitude Research Instrument

Parental Attitude Research InstrumentParental Questionnaire

Read each of the statements below and then rate them as follows. If you

strongly agree, circle "1"
 mildly agree, circle "2"
 mildly disagree, circle "3"
 strongly disagree, circle "4"

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statements will seem alike, but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

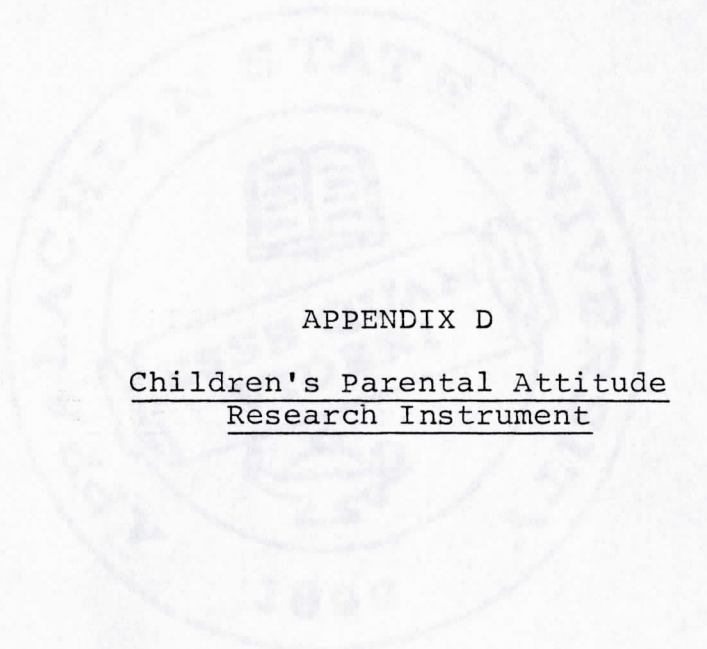
	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
1. Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better.	1	2	3	4
2. When a parent asks a child to do something the child should always be told why.	1	2	3	4
3. A child should be taught that there are many other people he will love and respect as much or more than his own parents.	1	2	3	4
4. Children should never learn things outside the home which makes them doubt their parents' ideas.	1	2	3	4
5. Parents very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer.	1	2	3	4

	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
6. There's no excuse wasting a lot of time explaining when you can get kids doing what you want by being a little clever.	1	2	3	4
7. Children have every right to question their parents' views.	1	2	3	4
8. A child should grow up convinced his parents always know the right thing to do.	1	2	3	4
9. Most parents can spend all day with children and remain calm and even tempered.	1	2	3	4
10. Children should be encouraged to tell parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable.	1	2	3	4
11. Parents should adjust to the children some, rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents.	1	2	3	4
12. Most children soon learn that their parents were mistaken in many of their ideas.	1	2	3	4
13. There is no excusing someone who upsets the confidence a child has in his parents' ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4
14. The things children ask of a parent after a hard day's work are enough to make anyone lose his temper at times.	1	2	3	4

	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
15. Often you have to fool children to get them to do what they should without a big fuss.	1	2	3	4
16. If a parent is wrong, he should admit it to his child.	1	2	3	4
17. A child soon learns that there is no greater wisdom than that of his parents.	1	2	3	4
18. A parent should keep control of his temper even when children are demanding.	1	2	3	4
19. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.	1	2	3	4
20. In a well-run home, children should have things their own way as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4
21. Loyalty on the part of children to their parents is something that parents should earn.	1	2	3	4
22. A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes.	1	2	3	4
23. It's natural for a parent to "blow his top" when children are selfish and demanding.	1	2	3	4
24. It's best to trick a child into doing something he doesn't want to do instead of having to argue with him.	1	2	3	4

	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree	83
25. A good parent can tolerate criticism of himself even when the children are around.	1	2	3	4	
26. Loyalty to parents comes before anything else.	1	2	3	4	
27. Raising children is an easy job.	1	2	3	4	
28. When a child is in trouble, he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents.	1	2	3	4	
29. As much as is reasonable, a parent should try to treat a child as an equal.	1	2	3	4	
30. A parent should not expect to be more highly esteemed than other worthy adults in their children's eyes.	1	2	3	4	
31. It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his parents' views are right.	1	2	3	4	
32. It's a rare parent who can be even tempered with his children all day.	1	2	3	4	
33. You have to fool children into doing things, because they wouldn't understand anyway.	1	2	3	4	
34. When a child thinks his parent is wrong, he should say so.	1	2	3	4	
35. More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them.	1	2	3	4	

	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
36. Most parents never get to the point where they can't stand their children.	1	2	3	4
37. A child has a right to his own point-of-view and ought to be allowed to express it.	1	2	3	4
38. Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and that is not fair.	1	2	3	4
39. Loyalty to parents is an over-emphasized virtue.	1	2	3	4
40. The child should not question the thinking of his parents.	1	2	3	4
41. Raising children is a nerve-racking job.	1	2	3	4
42. When a child is doing something he shouldn't, one of the best ways of handling it is to just get him interested in something else.	1	2	3	4
43. A child should be encouraged to look for answers to his questions from other people even if the answers contradict his parents'.	1	2	3	4
44. A child should always love his parents above everything else.	1	2	3	4
45. There is no reason why a day with the children should be upsetting.	1	2	3	4

A faint, circular seal of Appalachian State University is centered in the background. The seal features the text "APPALACHIAN STATE UNIVERSITY" around the perimeter and "1899" at the bottom. In the center of the seal is a shield containing a book and a lamp of knowledge.

APPENDIX D

Children's Parental Attitude
Research Instrument

Children's Parental Attitude Research InstrumentYouth Questionnaire #1

Read each of the statements below and then rate them as follows: If you

strongly agree, circle "1"
 mildly agree, circle "2"
 mildly disagree, circle "3"
 strongly disagree, circle "4"

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statements will seem alike, but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
1. Children have every right to question their parents' views.	1	2	3	4
2. A child should grow up convinced his parents always know the right thing to do.	1	2	3	4
3. Children should be encouraged to tell parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable.	1	2	3	4
4. Parents should adjust to the children some, rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents.	1	2	3	4
5. In a well-run home, children should have things their own way as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4

	strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
6. A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes.	1	2	3	4
7. Loyalty to parents comes before anything else.	1	2	3	4
8. When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents.	1	2	3	4
9. As much as is reasonable, a parent should try to treat a child as an equal.	1	2	3	4
10. A child has a right to his own point-of-view and ought to be allowed to express it.	1	2	3	4
11. A child should always love his parents above everything else.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX E
Consent Form

Consent Form

If you are willing to help out, please sign this consent form. Your son or daughter will also be asked to participate in the study and sign this form.

Parent's Signature _____

Child's Signature _____

Sherrie Davison
Foothills Mental Health Center
1006 Kirkwood Street, N.W.
Lenoir, North Carolina 28645

APPENDIX F

Family Data Sheet

Family Data Sheet

Name _____ Personal Identity Code _____
 Child's Name _____ Child's Birthdate _____
 Address _____
 City/State/Zip Code _____
 Telephone Number _____

1. List all household members and their ages:

<u>Name</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Relation</u>
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

2. List other family members not living at home:

<u>Name</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Relation</u>
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

3. Circle years of school father completed:

6 7 8 9 10 11 12 Greater than 12

4. Circle years of school mother completed:

6 7 8 9 10 11 12 Greater than 12

5. Father's Occupation _____

6. Mother's Occupation _____

7. Current Marital Status

_____ Single _____ Married _____ Separated
 _____ Divorced _____ Widowed

APPENDIX G

Cover Letter

Dear Parents,

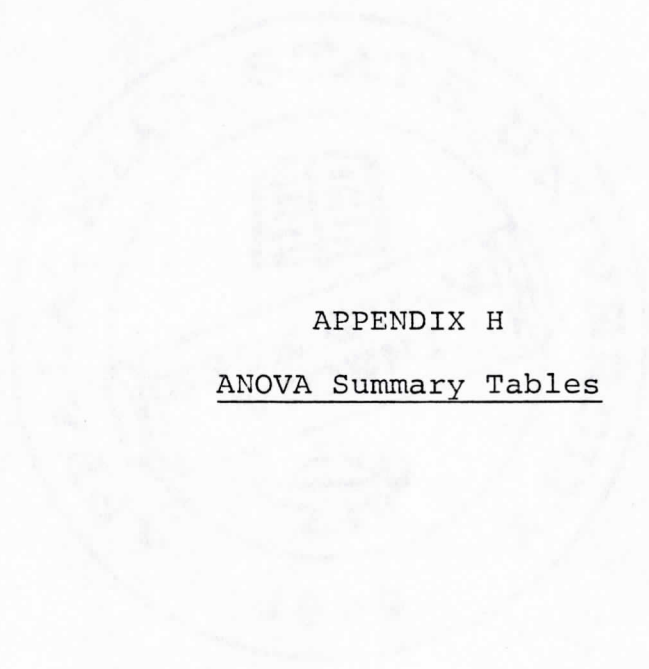
I am a graduate student at Appalachian State University completing my masters degree. I am conducting a study looking at parent-child perceptions and the relationship to various behaviors of children. I need to compare these results with normal, well adjusted children. You and your child have been selected for this purpose.

If you are willing to participate, the study would involve both you and your child filling out a questionnaire. The questionnaire is very short and should take approximately 15 minutes. This is voluntary and all responses will be kept confidential. If you are willing to help, please fill out the enclosed questionnaire, family data sheet, and consent form. Please have your child return it to school in the envelope provided. After I receive your consent, I will be contacting your child next week at school to fill out a questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your help; it is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Sherrie Davison



APPENDIX H

ANOVA Summary Tables

Table 1

ANOVA Summary Table for Delinquency Check List

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Delinquent Role				
Del	1	224.96	12.84	.001
Sex	1	.72	.04	.839
Del X Sex	1	106.96	6.10	.017
Within Group Error	55	17.51		
Drug Useage				
Del	1	72.29	14.84	< .001
Sex	1	3.15	.64	.424
Del X Sex	1	15.36	3.15	.081
Within Group Error	55	4.87		
Parental Definance				
Del	1	129.13	13.13	.001
Sex	1	3.08	.31	.578
Del X Sex	1	20.65	2.10	.153
Within Group Error	55	9.83		
Assaultiveness				
Del	1	3.55	9.81	.003
Sex	1	.00	.00	.951
Del X Sex	1	.03	.08	.770
Within Group Error	55	.36		
Total Delinquency				
Del	1	3612.82	25.95	< .001
Sex	1	24.85	.17	.674
Del X Sex	1	210.42	1.51	.224
Within Group Error	55	139.18		

Table 2

ANOVA Summary Table for Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Acceptance				
Del	1	119.26	6.89	.011
Sex	1	1.72	.10	.753
Del X Sex	1	31.28	1.80	.184
Within Group Error	55	17.29		
Control by Guilt				
Del	1	204.01	12.34	.001
Sex	1	40.41	2.44	.124
Del X Sex	1	.28	.01	.897
Within Group Error	55	16.52		
Nonenforcement				
Del	1	4.87	.39	.533
Sex	1	2.82	.23	.628
Del X Sex	1	1.50	.12	.724
Within Group Error	55	11.89		
Child-centeredness				
Del	1	8.40	.43	.511
Sex	1	14.64	.76	.387
Del X Sex	1	8.40	.43	.511
Within Group Error	55	19.22		
Hostile Control				
Del	1	103.93	5.82	.019
Sex	1	3.19	.17	.674
Del X Sex	1	5.67	.31	.575
Within Group Error	55	17.82		
Lax Discipline				
Del	1	18.18	1.35	.250
Sex	1	59.98	4.46	.039
Del X Sex	1	.64	.04	.827
Within Group Error	55	13.43		

Table 2 continued

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Positive Involvement				
Del	1	123.49	7.92	.007
Sex	1	7.32	.47	.496
Del X Sex	1	9.12	.58	.447
Within Group Error	55	15.57		
Instilling Persistent				
Anxiety				
Del	1	113.39	6.33	.015
Sex	1	5.02	.28	.598
Del X Sex	1	.16	.00	.924
Within Group Error	55	17.91		

Table 3

ANOVA Summary Table for Parent Attitude Research Instrument

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Encouraging Verbalization				
Del	1	99.94	11.55	.001
Sex	1	1.66	.19	.662
Del X Sex	1	1.27	.14	.702
Within Group Error	55	3.64		
Equalitarianism				
Del	1	3.92	.49	.493
Sex	1	11.70	1.42	.239
Del X Sex	1	.17	.02	
Within Group Error	55	8.24		
Deification				
Del	1	104.37	4.59	.036
Sex	1	5.24	.23	.633
Del X Sex	1	9.88	.43	.512
Within Group Error	55	22.70		
Excluding Outside Influences				
Del	1	46.02	2.13	.150
Sex	1	19.20	.89	.350
Del X Sex	1	.17	.00	.928
Within Group Error	55	21.57		
Irritability				
Del	1	399.78	14.24	< .001
Sex	1	1.03	.03	.848
Del X Sex	1	2.00	.07	.790
Within Group Error	55	28.06		
Deception				
Del	1	52.15	5.40	.024
Sex	1	.95	.09	.754
Del X Sex	1	10.40	1.07	.304
Within Group Error	55	9.64		

Table 4

ANOVA Summary Table for Parental Attitude Research Instrument Factors

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Parental Authoritarianism				
vs. Democratic Acceptance				
Del	1	289.00	4.46	.039
Sex	1	44.51	.68	.411
Del X Sex	1	7.40	.11	.737
Within Group Error	55	64.78		
Democratic Acceptance				
vs. Rejection				
Del	1	64.27	3.01	.088
Sex	1	22.21	1.04	.312
Del X Sex	1	.50	.02	.879
Within Group Error	55	21.34		

Table 5

ANOVA Summary Table for Total Discriminant Score (PARI)

	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Discriminant Score				
Del	1	45.80	1.47	.230
Sex	1	65.99	2.12	.151
Del X Sex	1	9.54	.30	.582
Within Group Error	55	31.13		

VITA

Sherrie Lynn Davison was born March 22, 1957 in Cleveland, Ohio. She attended elementary schools in the suburbs of Cleveland and graduated from Rocky River High School in June 1975. In 1979, Ms. Davis received her Bachelor of Arts degree and graduated with Psychology Honors from Hiram College.

From 1979 to 1982, Ms. Davis was employed in various human service positions. As a social worker at Western Reserve Psychiatric Rehabilitation Center, she coordinated clients' hospital treatment goal plans and discharge plans. Working as a research assistant at Hill House Mental Health Rehabilitation and Research, Inc. she was involved in a client-oriented program evaluation project collecting and analyzing data. She then moved to North Carolina and worked briefly as a relief manager for Moore County Group Homes and provided services to mentally retarded adults.

In 1982, Ms. Davis accepted an academic advising graduate assistantship at Appalachian State University and began the Master of Arts program in clinical psychology. She completed her internship at Foothills

Mental Health Center with the Child/Youth Services and continued to work at the center while working on her thesis. She is a student affiliate of American Psychological Association, Southeastern Psychological Association, and North Carolina Psychological Association.

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