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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTRAFAMILY  
VIOLENCE AND SELF-CONCEPT


by

Lawrence L. Galant

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APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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This study was designed to investigate the relationship between self-concept and intrafamily violence. It was expected that persons who were incarcerated for violent crimes against family members would have lower self-concepts when compared to both persons who were incarcerated for nonfamily crimes and a nonincarcerated population. This expectation was based upon Kaplan's (1972) prediction that negative self-attitudes directly influenced by self-concept significantly increase the probability that deviant patterns of behavior will be adopted.

The data for the measurement of self-concept were obtained by using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The Scale measures and reports scores on seven dependent variables: Total P (overall level of self-esteem), physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, social self, and self-esteem.

A sample of 60 prisoners, 30 of whom were incarcerated for family violence and 30 of whom were incarcerated for non-family crimes, were compared with each other on Tennessee Self-Concept Scale scores. In addition, both prison populations were contrasted to a group of 30 nonincarcerated persons. All 90 subjects were matched as closely as possible according to age, sex, race, marital status, occupational status,

education, income, job description, number of family members residing in a single household, and number of guns owned.

The TSCS scores obtained for all three population groups were analyzed by a multivariate Analysis of Variance revealing a statistically significant difference. In addition, univariate Analyses of Variance were conducted for each of the seven dependent variables. Both prison groups had similarly low self-concept scores and were comparable on all Tennessee Self-Concept Scales. The nonincarcerated population obtained significantly better self-concept scores when compared to both prison groups on Total P, personal self, moral-ethical self, family self, social self, and self-criticism. When compared to the nonincarcerated population, prisoners incarcerated for crimes not against family members had a significantly higher score on the self-criticism subscale. However, a comparison of scores obtained on the self-criticism subscale by the nonincarcerated population and the population of prisoners incarcerated for family violence showed a similarity. There were no significant differences in scores obtained on physical self for all three populations.

While data from this study support Kaplan's (1972) self-attitude theory, they offer no support for a negative relationship between self-concept and intrafamily violence. Self-concept, therefore, cannot be viewed as a variable explaining intrafamily violence.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iii
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	vii
 CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Purpose of the Study . . . . .	7
Assumptions . . . . .	10
Limitations . . . . .	11
Definition of Terms . . . . .	11
Research Hypotheses . . . . .	12
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	14
Theories of Aggression . . . . .	14
Instinct and Aggression . . . . .	15
Physiological Aspects of Aggression . . . . .	17
Drive Theories of Aggression . . . . .	19
Social Learning Theory and Aggression . . . . .	24
Intrafamily Violence . . . . .	25
Husband-Wife Violence . . . . .	35
Parent-Child Violence . . . . .	40
Self-Concept . . . . .	48
III. METHOD . . . . .	56
Description of the Subjects . . . . .	56
Selection of the Control Groups . . . . .	57
The Research Instruments . . . . .	59
Personal Data Questionnaire . . . . .	59
The <u>Tennessee Self-Concept Scale</u> : Nature and Meaning of Scores . . . . .	60
Method of Collecting and Recording the Data . . . . .	66
IV. RESULTS . . . . .	69
Matching Procedures . . . . .	70
Demographic Questionnaire Results . . . . .	71
Preparation of Data . . . . .	74

CHAPTER	Page
Multivariate Analysis of Variance . . . . .	75
Analyses of Variance for Total P Scores and the Six Subscales of the <u>Tennessee</u> <u>Self-Concept Scale</u> . . . . .	75
V. DISCUSSION . . . . .	87
VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . .	94
Review of Literature . . . . .	94
Design of Study . . . . .	95
Analysis of Data . . . . .	96
Conclusions . . . . .	97
Recommendations . . . . .	99
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	104
APPENDIX A . PRELIMINARY CORRESPONDENCE . . . . .	116
APPENDIX B . DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRES . . . . .	120
APPENDIX C . TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT ANSWER, SCALE, AND PROFILE SHEETS . . . . .	123
APPENDIX D . CORRESPONDENCE FROM SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT .	127
APPENDIX E . TABLES OF CRIME CATEGORIES . . . . .	130
APPENDIX F . MATCHED TABLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS FOR THREE POPULATION GROUPS . . . . .	132
APPENDIX G . TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE . . . . .	135

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1. Means and Standard Deviations of the Seven Scales Reported in Percentile Scores From the <u>Tennessee Self-Concept Scale</u> . . . . .	76
2. Analysis of Variance For Total P Reported From Percentile Scores on the <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	77
3. Analysis of Variance for Physical Self Reported From Percentile Scores on <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	78
4. Analysis of Variance for Moral-Ethical Self Reported From Percentile Scores on the <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	79
5. Analysis of Variance for Personal Self Reported From Percentile Scores on the <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	81
6. Analysis of Variance for Family Self Reported From Percentile Scores on the <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	82
7. Analysis of Variance for Social Self Reported From Percentile Scores on the <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	83
8. Analysis of Variance for Self-Criticism Reported From Percentile Scores on the <u>TSCS</u> . . . . .	84

CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

The American family has been generally viewed as an institution that meets the needs of the individuals it embraces. It has been assumed and demonstrated that the family provides its members with a fair share of love, gentleness, companionship, affection, understanding and support with which to grow and prosper. In sharp contrast to this view is the realization that the family is also the source of assaults, homicide, and violence.

Until recently, little attention has been given to family violence, and research has been limited. Prior to the late 1960's the term "conflict" received considerable attention in professional journals, perhaps because the term "violence" was considered to be too pejorative. In fact, there is not one article that contains the word "violence" in its title for the entire Index of the Journal of Marriage and the Family from its inception in 1939 through 1969.

The recent trends in the United States crime pattern have all shown a marked tendency for violent crimes to increase. For example, according to the Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1972, the rate of violent crimes per 100,000 inhabitants increased 144% between 1960 and 1970. Specifically, murder and nonnegligent manslaughter was up

60%, robbery was up 186% and aggravated assault increased 92%. To illustrate the magnitude of the problem, according to the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Report for 1971, there were 17,360 Americans murdered that year. In that same year there were 385,190 reported robberies and 364,600 reported aggravated assaults. Clearly, the trends of the last decade indicate that the United States is becoming an increasingly violent society.

What appears to be even more alarming than this is that, according to official FBI statistics, in 1972, murders within the family accounted for about one-fourth of all such offenses. Husbands were victims in 48% of the family murders while wives were victims in 52%. Spouse killings in 1972 accounted for 12.5% of all murders. Parents killed their children in nearly 3% of all homicide offenses. Nine percent of all murder indictments involved other types of in-family killings. One legal researcher estimated that more police calls involve family conflict than do calls for all criminal incidents such as murder, rapes, nonfamily assaults, robberies and muggings (Parnas, 1967).

Violence in the family does not appear to be a recent development. One study in Philadelphia found that in 24.7% of all criminal homicides occurring from 1948 to 1952, victim and offender were members of the same family. An analysis of the data revealed that of the 136 victims who had family

relations with their slayer, 100 were husbands or wives, 9 were sons, 8 were daughters, 3 were mothers, 3 were brothers, 2 were fathers, 1 was a sister and 10 were other relatives (Wolfgang, 1958).

A substantial proportion of assaults occur within the family, especially between husbands and wives. Aggravated assaults, an attack by an individual on another with the intention of inflicting bodily harm, between husbands and wives made up 11% of all aggravated assaults in St. Louis (Pittman and Handy, 1964) and 52% in Detroit (Boudouris, 1971). Levinger (1966) found physical abuse a factor in divorce in 20% of middle class and in 40% of working class families. A study by Gelles (1974) revealed that violence was a regular patterned occurrence in 20% of the 80 families interviewed. Conservative estimates of child abuse run to a figure of between 200,000 and 500,000 cases annually in the United States (Light, 1974).

A 1968 survey conducted for the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, established as a result of this newly awakened concern with violence, carried out intensive investigations for sixteen months and issued thirteen volumes of reports. On the basis of these reports, two conclusions became obvious: (a) the United States is the world leader in violence among advanced industrial societies, and this level of violence is not a recent

development, and (b) the Commission makes it clear that many of the roots of this violence are to be found in the family. Clearly, these conclusions indicate a mandate for researchers to explore the avenues which lead to violence, specifically to intrafamily violence.

The scope and extent of family violence is perhaps greater than one might have expected. However, the explanations offered for its occurrence remain somewhat confused. Although a number of investigations exist that help one better to understand more clearly the extent of intrafamily violence, there is too little empirical evidence to support any theories explaining the phenomenon. Apparently there are two important reasons for this: (a) resistance on the part of the general public to discuss family violence, and (b) the reluctance on the part of professionals in family relations to study the subject because of the widespread belief that intrafamily violence is a relatively infrequent type of individual pathology (Gelles, 1974).

What can account for the large percentage of violence being directed toward family members? Straus (1976) suggested several important factors: (a) the intensity of involvement among family members, where there exists a wide range of events over which disputes can occur; (b) efforts by one or more family members to bring about behavioral change in other family members; (c) differences occurring in ages and sexes within the family dictating different needs and wants;

(d) ascribed leadership roles of males creates high conflict potential because of the inevitability that not all males have the competence needed to fulfill these culturally prescribed roles; (3) the lack of privacy and personal space which prevails in many instances within the family; and (f) the high level of familial stress engendered by events such as the birth and subsequent maturation of children, aging of family members and retirement.

With such demands and pressures as these placed on family members living in close proximity, it is apparent that many individuals find it difficult to cope with the strains and stresses found in daily life. Coser (1956) viewed the family as a group of people engaged in primary relationships with each other where the complete personality and total range of roles are known between each member of the family. Although feelings of sharing and intimacy can be fostered in such relationships, hostile feelings toward one another can also develop and in many instances can escalate into physical violence.

Goode (1971) pointed out that like other social systems the family is a power system wherein persons may use four major techniques to move others to carry out their wishes. These techniques include using (a) money or other material resources, (b) prestige or respect, (c) winsomeness (i.e., likeability, attractiveness, friendship and love), and (d) force or the threat of force. What type of person would



resort to the use of physical force on other family members and why?

Coser (1967) and Durkheim (1951) suggested that structural and cultural elements of society make it more conducive for certain groups to develop the propensity toward violence than others. Both the structural and cultural approaches take the position that deviance is unevenly distributed in the social structure. A possible explanation why violence is more common among people occupying lower socioeconomic positions is that such persons experience greater frustrations in day-to-day living.

Etzioni (1971), Goode (1971), and Gelles (1974) have demonstrated that intrafamily violence occurs at all socioeconomic levels, but it appears to be most acute in those families who do not possess an adequate amount of resources such as money, prestige and power needed to cope with the pressures of everyday life. Because of this, these individuals have few sources of pleasure and contentment when compared to their counterparts in upper socioeconomic brackets. In addition, their lower educational and occupational levels may not allow them to discuss problems in a rational manner; consequently, a greater tendency exists for them to handle family problems through violence.

Although this may be true, structural, cultural and resource factors do not account for the many families in these circumstances who do not, in fact, commit family

violence. Considerable research suggests that a relationship exists between the ways an individual perceives himself and his propensity to commit violent acts, particularly violence against family members (Gelles, 1974, 1976; Steinmetz and Straus, 1974; Whitehurst, 1971, 1975). Studies have found that individuals who react with physical violence have problems related to poor self-concept (Leon, 1969; Toch, 1969; Wood, 1961). In addition, it appears that a low self-concept level may be one key variable that interacts with lower socioeconomic status to produce intrafamily violence.

In his interviews with family members who had been beaten by their spouses, Gelles (1974) discovered that a threat to the aggressor's self-esteem was in evidence. In fact, the researcher posited that a pervasive theme in these interviews was that violence occurred out of threats to the offender's identity. Based on the results of the above investigations, self-concept appears to be related to violent behavior and perhaps, based on Gelles interviews, offers an explanation for intrafamily violence. Therefore, this investigator chose to explore self-concept as a variable related to family violence.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between intrafamily violence and self-concept, as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The

question to which this research is directed can be stated simply: What is the difference in self-concept between non-violent persons and violent persons who aggress against family members?

Self-attitude theory (Kaplan, 1972) provides a link in understanding the relationship between self-concept and intrafamily violence. It suggests that violence correlates with the individual's striving to cope with negative self-attitudes which are developed out of what Kaplan calls "devaluating psychosocial experiences." These experiences arise primarily out of negative childhood and adolescent experiences with significant others, such as parents, in which the individual is not accepted as a person of worth and value.

A number of studies have given support, both directly and indirectly, to Kaplan's conclusions. Consistent with a majority of personality theorists is the assertion that one's self-concept is learned through social interactions with others. In fact, Rogers (1959) assumed a universal need for positive regard not only from others but also from one's self. When this is not possible, the individual develops negative attitudes of self-worth. Maslow (1968) asserted that one must develop belongingness and love needs before self-esteem can be realized. Combs and Snygg (1959) discussed the inadequate person as one who did not possess strong feelings of identification. These authors stated

that "it has been observed that many criminals . . . are fundamentally lonely people who have not had effective relationships with other people" (p. 270).

If personality theorists are correct in their conclusions, then one should be able to demonstrate systematic differences in levels of self-concept between persons who commit family violence and those who do not. Persons who have committed such violence are assumed to have developed negative self-attitudes as a result of being deprived in childhood of certain basic needs such as love, attention and acceptance.

Self-attitude may be distinguished from self-concept in that self-attitude refers to the overall emotional responses of an individual to himself, whereas self-concept refers to the self as an object of cognitive awareness (Kaplan, 1972). Self-attitudes are profoundly and directly influenced by self-conceptions and self-evaluations. Although self-attitude theory does not directly address the specific issue of intrafamily violence, it does provide tangential support for naming negative self-attitudes and showing how they operate to encourage violent patterns of behavior, one of which is the committing of violent acts against family members.

Although Kaplan's self-attitude theory has many ramifications, the core proposition that will be tested in the present study is that negative self-attitudes significantly increase the probability that deviant patterns of

behavior will be adopted. The intent of the present study is to extend past research on the nature of family violence. It appears that testing the core proposition of self-attitude theory can aid in providing a means to study violent members of the family. In addition, Gordon (1968) pointed out that a major rationale for measuring the self-concept of an individual lies in its utility for understanding and predicting conduct.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965) was administered to 30 prisoners who had been arrested and incarcerated for crimes of violence against family members, to a matched group of persons arrested and incarcerated for crimes against nonfamily persons, and to a matched group of persons from the nonincarcerated population.

#### Assumptions

It was assumed that since the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale is written on a sixth-grade comprehension level, everyone taking the test was able to answer the questions. Furthermore, it was assumed that persons in the random population who had never been arrested or incarcerated for intrafamily violence were not violent, while those who had been arrested and incarcerated for intrafamily violence were violent. In addition, it is a self-report test, and it was assumed that both with prisoners and with the random sample of the nonincarcerated population, respondents would answer accurately.

### Limitations

There were several limitations to the present study: (a) the study was limited to persons in the county jail in Gastonia, North Carolina; (b) the study was limited to persons in the matched sample within the nonincarcerated population of Gaston County; and (c) the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was limited by what the test was designed to measure.

### Definition of Terms

The following operational definitions are offered to afford understanding of certain terms in this study:

Physical violence is defined as assault and/or assault and battery. "Battery" is the violation of a person's right to bodily privacy by the unlawful application of force in any amount. "Assault" is threatening a person with battery, instilling in him the fear that battery will occur, or the actual committing of battery against him (Gammage and Hemphill, 1974).

Self-concept is defined as the individual's perceptions of his own behavior as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965).

Self-attitudes are defined as the degree of positive or negative effects brought about in an individual by the consideration of his self-concept (Kaplan, 1971).

### Research Hypotheses

Fitts's (1965) self-concept scale showed that low self-concept is indicated by low scores on the subscales that follow: physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, social self, and overall level of self-esteem. Given that Kaplan's (1975) self-attitude theory predicted that negative self-attitudes significantly increase the probability that deviant patterns of behavior will be adopted, the following hypotheses were generated:

1. Persons arrested and incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower Tennessee Self-Concept Scale scores on each of the six subscale scores compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level in the nonincarcerated population.

2. Persons arrested and incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower overall levels of self-esteem (Total P), as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level in the nonincarcerated population.

Since it is not known whether or not there is a difference in self-concept between incarcerated persons who have allegedly committed violent family crimes and those who have allegedly committed crimes in general, it is further hypothesized that

3. Persons arrested and incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower Tennessee

Self-Concept Scale scores on each of the six subscale scores compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level arrested and incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes.

4. Persons arrested and incarcerated for violent crimes against family members will have significantly lower overall levels of self-esteem (Total P) measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level arrested and incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes.



CHAPTER II  
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of literature will explore studies and ideas related to three areas: (a) theories of aggression, (b) intrafamily violence, and (c) self-concept theory. The purpose of this explication is to emphasize that self-concept, which begins to develop in childhood, bears a relationship to intrafamily violence. Although much of the research lends only tangential support to the relationship between intrafamily violence and self concept, the conclusions either directly or indirectly support the existence of the relationship.

Theories of Aggression

With regard to man's behavior, the term "aggression" has received a plethora of meanings and interpretations. The review of relevant literature on human aggression will therefore focus on theories of aggression in order to facilitate a clearer understanding of the way various researchers have approached this topic. Since aggression and violence are related, it is important to review the theories that exist which attempt to explain this relationship. An early concern among researchers about aggressive behavior was whether or not it was instinctive.

### Instinct and Aggression

One of the first theories of aggression was stated by Freud (1933, 1957). His psychoanalytic interpretation posited an instinctual human drive toward aggression and destruction. Freud believed that man entered the world with two opposing instincts: (a) a death instinct, termed "thanatos," that worked in behalf of the individual's self-destruction; and (b) a life instinct, termed "eros," that promoted the individual's growth and survival.

In order to avoid self-destruction, man must direct his aggressive energies outward by engaging in violent attacks on others. Energy for the death instinct is continuously being generated in the body; and if it is not released in small amounts and in socially acceptable ways, it will accumulate and discharge itself in violent acts. This aggressive instinctual energy, Freud thought, could also express itself indirectly through fantasy, dreams, or through such methods as crying. Such indirect expressions were referred to as catharsis, where the expression of aggressive feelings was thought to lessen aggressive actions. This model of aggression was described as hydraulic, based on an analogy of water flowing into a reservoir behind a dam. The water will overflow the dam unless it is periodically drained.

Some support for Freud's instinctual theory of aggression was provided by Megargee (1966), who hypothesized

that extremely aggressive acts would be carried out by individuals who could not release aggressive energy in small amounts and whose behavior was described as over-controlled, that is, unable to react aggressively in situations requiring it.

A comparison was made between individuals detained in juvenile court for moderately assaultive crimes, such as gang fighting, and extremely assaultive crimes such as murder. Megargee found that extremely assaultive groups were over-controlled and scored very high on psychological tests of self-control. Although several researchers, such as Megargee, provide evidence in support of Freud's notions about catharsis, few regard as credible the idea that individuals possess an inborn impulse which is constantly striving to kill them unless it is released in some manner.

Lorenz, like Freud, posited the existence of an inborn aggressive instinct in man. He also believed that instinctual aggression exists in animals as well. Lorenz claimed that man is endowed with the same fighting instinct as lower animals. However, unlike other animals, man poorly controls his aggression, because he does not possess inborn inhibitions against severely injuring and killing his fellow man. Lorenz offered an evolutionary explanation for this occurrence, suggesting that large and potentially dangerous animals evolved strong aggression inhibiting mechanisms,

while man never develops such mechanisms. This ethologist offered a cathartic drainage approach to overcoming aggression in man. Lorenz has been criticized for drawing inappropriate analogies from animals to humans as a result of overemphasizing the role of evolution, and of neglecting the importance of learning and culture.

### Physiological Aspects of Aggression

The principal regions controlling aggression are believed to lie deep in the temporal lobes and in the subcortical structures of the brain known collectively as the limbic system. The hypothalamus and amygdala, which are part of the limbic system, have been associated with the mediation of aggressive behavior. Mark and Ervin (1970) suggest that dysfunctions in the limbic system may account for the extremely violent behavior witnessed in some individuals. In their investigations they compared the case histories of their violent patients with known limbic brain disease, to violent patients without limbic brain disorders, and to violent prisoners in a large penitentiary. These medical researchers found that their violent patients with limbic dysfunctions shared several characteristics that distinguished them from the other groups of violent patients and prisoners. Among the symptoms that were found in this group of patients was a history of physical assault, especially wife and child beating. These researchers also found

that abnormal electroencephalograms were more common among assaultive persons than in the general population. Moreover, epilepsy was found to be ten times as common among criminals as noncriminals.

In 1966, from atop a tower at the University of Texas in Austin, Charles Whitman, without provocation, shot thirty-eight persons. Prior to this incident, he had killed both his mother and his wife. A postmortem examination of Whitman's brain revealed a highly malignant tumor in the area of the amygdala (Sweet, Ervin and Mark, 1969). However, it must be stated that no definitive proof exists that the tumor found did, in fact, cause the violent behavior. Present research in the area of the limbic system and its relationship to violence suggests that more is unknown than known on the subject.

The normal human being has twenty-three pairs of chromosomes, one pair of which determines the individual's sex. Normal genetic males have one X and one Y sex chromosome, while the normal genetic female has two X chromosomes. One occasional anomaly is the presence of an extra Y chromosome, creating an XYY pattern which has been associated with tallness and a propensity toward aggression. This has been referred to facetiously as the "super-male syndrome." Richard Speck, the murderer of eight Chicago nurses, was reported in professional journals as possessing an extra Y

chromosome, when in fact he had no genetic defect (Bandura, 1973).

Recently doubt has been cast on the relationship between the double Y chromosome and aggressiveness. Kessler and Moos (1970) reviewed the literature on the XYY abnormality and found no convincing evidence for a relationship between the XYY pattern and specific morphological, physiological, or behavioral characteristics. Owen (1972) noted that numerous chromosomal surveys of XYY prisoners yielded a low prevalence of aggressiveness of only 2.3%. Even this low percentage may be an overestimation, since with few exceptions, the studies biased the data by selecting tall males for analysis.

#### Drive Theories of Aggression

Drive theories of aggression were developed to explain the causes of aggressive behavior. As opposed to strictly innate aggressiveness, drive theories proposed that frustration or the blocking of a goal are the key elements producing aggression. Most notable among these theories is the frustration-aggression hypothesis stated by Dollard et al. (1939). According to this hypothesis, a universal causal relation between frustration and aggression was presumed to exist. In its original form, the hypothesis stated that "the occurrence of aggression always presupposes the existence of

frustration and, contrariwise, that the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression" (p. 10).

Although studies exist which indicate that frustration can lead to aggression, the original frustration-aggression hypothesis has been criticized on many grounds. Numerous researchers like Mischel (1976) have pointed out that frustration does not always lead to aggression, and that aggressive reactions can occur without the existence of a prior frustration.

Bandura and Huston (1961) and Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) demonstrated that preschool children could learn to aggress by simply imitating an adult model's aggressiveness. In one experiment, these children observed a model aggress, through insult and direct physical attack, against an inflated plastic Bobo doll. When given the opportunity to aggress themselves, the children imitated both the verbal and physical aggression displayed by the model. In a number of other studies, it was shown that children can learn to aggress both through imitation and reward. When children perceive that a human model's aggressive behavior meets with success, the probability increases that imitation of the observed behavior will occur.

Miller (1941) revised the original frustration-aggression hypothesis to state that every frustration produces an instigation to aggression, but that this instigation may be too

weak to elicit actual aggressive behavior. Learning through external cues in the environment was viewed as precipitating aggression rather than its being solely produced by an instinct to aggress. In addition, aggression was conceptualized as a basic drive that required expression in either a direct or indirect form. Both displacement and catharsis were considered to be means by which aggression could be expressed indirectly.

Displacement can be conceptualized as the release of aggression by a person on less threatening objects. An example of displacement and its potential violent effects on the family can be seen in what has been termed the "authoritarian personality syndrome." Adorno (1950) found that this syndrome develops as a result of severe disciplinary treatment of the child by his parents. It generally involves excessive stress on the rightness of parental rules and values, insistence on complete obedience to these rules, and the use of punishment to reinforce obedience. As a result, the child develops submissiveness toward parental authority in general. However, hostility is generated toward authority figures but cannot be expressed directly. Therefore, it is displaced indirectly toward safer targets such as persons of inferior status and members of minority groups where it takes the form of prejudice.



According to Adorno, authoritarian personalities exhibit self-contempt which is not faced as such and which they try to deny. This self-contempt may be translated into violence against family members, as well as against individuals within the larger society.

The catharsis hypothesis suggests that engaging in activities such as sporting events, recreational pursuits and verbal assaults, either directly or vicariously, will release pent-up aggressive impulses. In this manner, aggressive feelings are drained from the system; consequently, the likelihood of aggressive actions toward other individuals is reduced.

Bandura and Walters (1963), Hokanson (1970) and Berkowitz (1973), in reviewing studies on aggression catharsis, clearly demonstrated that symbolic, verbal and physical aggression, rather than being substitutes for each other, are highly correlated. Straus (1974) tested the hypothesis that verbal aggression between husbands and wives was a substitute for physical aggression. Verbal aggression in this instance referred to such things as yelling and verbally insulting the spouse, as opposed to negotiating through rational discussions. The results of the study rejected the catharsis hypothesis by demonstrating that the more verbal aggression, the more physical aggression.

Television violence has also been viewed as producing cathartic effects in reducing overt acts of physical aggression (Feshbach and Singer, 1971). However, research evidence is inclined to support a social learning view of television violence which maintains that rather than having a cathartic effect on viewers, violent television programs tend to promote aggressive behavior. Hicks (1968) contended that not only do children learn aggressive responses immediately following televised violence, but that they can reproduce many of these responses several months later. Eron et al. (1972) demonstrated that the amount of violence boys see on television was significantly correlated with their aggressiveness ten years later.

Berkowitz (1962), a leading authority on human aggression, saw the emotion of anger as a mediating force in the relationship between frustration and aggression. Anger arousal stimulates the individual toward aggressive actions while stimuli in the environment set them off. Under low anger arousal a powerful stimulus in the environment is needed to bring about aggression. However, in situations where a high degree of anger exists, only a relatively weak stimulus need be present. While the traditional frustration-aggression hypothesis assigned a greater role to internal processes as producing aggression, Berkowitz viewed the role of releases in the form of external cues in the environment as having more to do with producing violence.

Berkowitz and LePage (1967) reported that if an individual is frustrated or angered in the presence of stimuli associated with aggression, then aggression will increase. Two groups of college students in separate rooms were made angry. In one room badminton rackets were left lying around, and in the other room guns were substituted for rackets. Both groups of students were then allowed to administer electric shocks to a fellow student. It was observed that more electric shocks were administered to the subject by the group which had been angered in the presence of guns, as opposed to badminton rackets. The probability that people will aggress depends on their internal readiness to aggress and on external cues that elicit their aggression and provide a target (Berkowitz, 1965).

#### Social Learning Theory and Aggression

Social learning theory rejects the notion that instinctual or drive theories are adequate to explain the propensity toward aggression in humans. Bandura and Walters (1959, 1963) suggested that destructive aggression can be learned in accordance with the tenets of learning theory just like any other response. Habits of violence are acquired in large measure through imitation modeling, or through the direct rewarding of aggressive behavior. Preceding frustration is not necessarily required.

Considerable evidence suggests that physical aggressiveness, combined with punitiveness on the part of parents,

tends to produce physically aggressive children. Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (1957) utilizing carefully executed interviews with 379 New England mothers, concluded that aggression in small children was associated with parental permissiveness for aggression, the use of physically punitive discipline, and maternal lack of self-esteem. These results led the researchers to reject an instinctual view of aggression and to suspect that the intent to hurt others or oneself is a product of learning experiences begun in early infancy.

#### Intrafamily Violence

In 1968, the Harris Poll conducted a national survey for the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. A representative sample of the adult American population was selected, and 1176 persons were interviewed. These data provided estimates on how many Americans have had encounters involving dangerous weapons (Stark and McEvoy III, 1970). A substantial number of American adults have been involved in knife or gun incidents (military combat experiences excluded). One out of every twelve reported that they had, as adults, been threatened or actually cut with a knife. One out of every seventeen said that they had been threatened with guns or had actually been shot at. Furthermore, one adult out of every seventeen admitted having used a gun or a knife against another person.

Several studies and reports indicate that gun ownership is, in many instances, a precipitating factor in family violence. Lachman and Cravens (1969) summarized the history and findings in ten patients examined by the authors both before and after the patients were charged with homicide. The researchers found that an unstable individual who was brought up in an environment in which violent behavior was the most typical response to stress, with weapons at his disposal, was more likely to commit homicide than unstable individuals unfamiliar with weapons, reared in a more restrained environment.

In reviewing the histories of violent people, Abrahamson (1960) noted that their early years were filled with neglect, pain and disappointment experienced in loveless home environments. In situations such as these, Abrahamson suggested that self-regard and self-control are not possible. Consequently, individuals develop who are very touchy and explosive, and who are unable to curb their own rage.

Halleck (1967) supported this contention and suggested that in a situation where children are oppressed by unreasonable and cruel parents, as well as by significant others, a sense of powerlessness and helplessness prevails in these children. One cannot act in a positive or purposeful manner when one feels helpless and powerless. Violent action is one way of having an impact upon a world that is viewed as unresponsive and oppressive.

Many research reports have shown that violence experienced in childhood is positively correlated with the potential for violence in the adult years. That is, the disposition to use violence is a learned behavior, and much of this learning takes place in childhood through actually experiencing violence. The more violent the experiences of the child at the hands of his parents, the more violent he is likely to be to others as an adult, including his own family members (Owens and Straus, 1973).

Palmer (1960) interviewed the mothers of 51 male murderers in order to determine how the life experiences of these men had differed from those of their nearest age nonhomicidal brothers. It was revealed that the murderers received harsher and more brutal treatment as children at the hands of their parents than did the nonmurderers. McCord et al. (1959) discussed the role of parental treatment as it affects the choice of criminal acts. The researchers noted that offenders guilty of crimes against a person appeared to have suffered primarily from the frustration of maternal domination or paternal rejection.

Berkowitz (1962), studying the number of social and social psychological factors involved in the violent reactions of husbands to wives, claimed that males who had a long history of both physical and psychological frustrations as a child, many illnesses and much harsh treatment, coupled with

poor learning of social restraints, tended to be more violence prone.

Attitudes concerning family violence can also be formed out of specific experiences with violence in childhood such as observing violence, being the victim of the violent acts of others, or committing violence. A person can come to accept and approve of much of the behavior around him because he sees others engaging in that behavior, especially if he sees other people obtain desired goals by using that behavior.

Children may be prone to acquire attitudes and beliefs in the same way. Exposure to violent behavior in childhood will have deep-seated and lasting effects on attitudes toward violence. As Singer (1971) pointed out

In new situations where a child is at a loss for what to do he is likely to remember what he saw his parents do and behave accordingly, even occasionally to his own detriment. Indeed, adults when they become parents and are faced with the novelty of the role revert to the type behavior in which they saw their parents engage when they were children, sometimes against their current adult judgements (p. 3).

Apparently, the way an individual perceives himself and his role within the family has a great deal to do with the way in which his own parents treated him. Sears (1970) hypothesized that "parental attitudes toward a child which give him a feeling of being loved, wanted, accepted and respected should induce a similar attitude in him, that is, of his being worthy and successful" (p. 269). To a sample of

84 female and 75 male sixth-grade students, Sears administered five self-concept scales in a wide range of categories: (a) physical and mental ability; (b) social relations with peers, parents and teachers; and (c) personal qualities such as self-confidence. A measurement of parental attitudes was obtained seven years earlier from the subjects' mothers. Results of tests indicated that maternal warmth was a significant determinant of the child's self-concept.

The subcultural theory of violence (Wolfgang, 1958; and Wolfgang and Ferracuti, 1967) suggested that a set of values common to the lower classes supports and encourages physical violence. For this group, violence is seen as a legitimate, natural, and necessary means of handling a variety of situations both in parent-child and in peer encounters. These values include a reliance on physical strength and prowess which has often been referred to as "machismo" and which is primarily seen as male oriented. This interpretation can also be extended to physical violence within the family in the form of handling wives and other family members in violent ways.

Parsons (1947) discussed the aggressive nature of the male role in Western society as a reaction to males being reared chiefly by their mothers. Boys were brought up in households where there were usually no more than two adults and in cases of divorce, separation, or widowhood, only one.



Furthermore, the father typically worked at some distance from the place of residence of his family; hence, the major responsibility for socializing both male and female children traditionally fell on the mother. Parsons' hypothesis was that these structural features of contemporary societies created a problem of masculine identification. He labeled the excessive roughness and toughness on the part of pre-adolescent and adolescent boys as "compulsive masculinity," an effort to clear up possible misunderstandings of their sexual identification.

Erlanger (1974) disputed the subcultural theory of violence and suggested that although a weak correlation existed between social class and the use of physical punishment, it was not sufficiently strong to be of great theoretical or practical significance. Ball-Rokeach (1973), in a national area probability sample of 1429 adult Americans, and in a study of 363 men incarcerated in a Michigan prison for various violent and nonviolent offenses, showed that her data did not support the subculture of violence explanation of violent behavior.

McCord, McCord and Howard (1961) found that parents of physically aggressive boys had meager and cold relationships with their sons, including a lack of supervision, inconsistent discipline, frequent use of threats, with low performance demands placed on them. Moreover, the parents' relationships

with each other reflected a high degree of general conflict with a lack of mutual self-esteem. In addition, the parents did not display affection toward each other and were dissatisfied with their roles in life. Consequently, one may infer that children may not only derive their patterns of violence from their families, but more importantly, perhaps, they may also learn to develop a negative self-concept.

The proneness for an adult to use physical violence in the family can stem from a combination of child-rearing practices among the different social classes and the self-image one develops as a result of those practices. Straus (1971) hypothesized that socialization practices among the different social classes would tend to be congruent with the type of personality needed to cope with the typical life circumstances which the child would face as an adult.

Gecas and Nye (1974) support past research on value differences (Kohn, 1969) in child-rearing practices between working and middle-class parents. Using a separate questionnaire for both husband and wife, these researchers based their findings on a sample of 210 Washington State couples. In analyzing their data Gecas and Nye found that white-collar parents stressed the development of internal standards of behavior and were more likely to discipline their children on the basis of their interpretation of a child's motives for a particular act. Blue-collar parents on the other hand were

more likely to react on the basis of the consequences of children's behavior. In addition, there was a difference in the response of white-collar parents and blue-collar parents toward their children when they accidentally broke something as opposed to when they intentionally disobeyed. College-educated wives and their spouses tended to take advantage of discussion and reasoning with their children when behavior was accidentally disruptive. Discipline was generally reserved for intentional disobedience. Wives and more often husbands with high-school educations or less were more likely to resort to physical punishment and scolding in both circumstances.

Straus (1971) maintained that it should follow that if working-class parents experience more physical aggression and have less opportunity for self-directedness than do middle-class parents, their child-rearing patterns should be congruent with this fact. He found no differences between college students from middle- and working-class families in their parents' use of physical punishment. Straus, therefore, proposed a "linkage theory" to account for this lack of difference. This theory suggested that the college students were being prepared by their parents to attain middle-class socioeconomic positions; thus, the socialization techniques of the parents reflected the values of the middle class as opposed to the working class.

Consequently, from past studies of class differences in parental value teaching, and Straus's linkage theory, it seems possible that middle-class parents tend to teach their children qualities that predispose them to develop positive self-concepts, and working-class parents who have adopted middle-class values do likewise. On the other hand, working-class parents who have not adopted these values tend to teach their children values predisposing them to develop negative self-concepts.

Recent studies have suggested that violence proneness may develop as a result of poor self-concept that the individual maintains prior to his violent behavior. Toch's findings (1969, p. 135), from a study of 69 violent offenders, supported the view that violent response patterns are methods whereby individuals deal with poor self-concepts. Toch (1969) notes that

Although the logic of violence may emerge from the practice of violence, it probably originates most frequently in interpersonal relationships early in life . . . . Self-assertiveness and defensiveness suggest that one's upbringing has been deficient in stability and emotional support, thus making it difficult for positive self-perceptions to develop. In both instances, brittle egos spend their adult years in belated efforts to buttress themselves at the expense of other people, and these efforts become productive of violence (p. 189).

Using tape-recorded interviews, the researcher analyzed the offenders' behavior by primary theme and reported that 28% of them could be classified as "self-image promoting," 13% as "self-image defending," and 14% as "reputation defending."

The significance of a poor self-image as a precursor to violent behavior is clear in Leon's study (1969) of criminals who committed crimes characterized by an excess of violence during the period known as "La Violencia" in the recent history of Columbia. Among the characteristics of the criminals suggested by interviews and by transcripts of certain of the recorded confessions were those which indicate a strong vulnerability to an underlying rejection of the self. This was suggested by the social, cultural, and familial settings of these individuals which imposed harsh and rigid restrictions on them. The family was of such a large size, typically, that as children the criminals could not easily receive individual attention and satisfaction of their need for affection. The inability to establish a satisfactory self-image was viewed as resulting from a father who imposed brutal punishment in order to assert dominance over the family.

Wood's data from Ceylon (1961) were collected by personal interviews of two groups of subjects. One group consisted of males 17 years and older who had committed personal assault or property felonies during the preceding five years. The second group consisted of a representative sample of non-offenders living in the same villages. The offenders were more likely to have had the kinds of experiences that were compatible with receiving negative evaluations from others

and subsequently developing poor self-images. In comparing the offender group to the nonoffender group, Wood found the former less likely to be employed, to have a good education, or to hold prestigious occupational positions. The cumulative evidence suggested that the violent offender group had a relatively low self-concept.

The above studies concentrated on various types of violence including family-related violence. While their conclusions are stated in terms of violence in general, they apply to intrafamily violence as well.

#### Husband-Wife Violence

O'Brien's study (1971) of spouses who were involved in a divorce action revealed a significant incidence of violent family behavior. Under analysis, the violent behavior was found to be most common in families where the husband was not achieving well in the work-earner role, where he held a job that involved a lower occupational status than his father-in-law, and where he demonstrated certain status characteristics lower than those of his wife. Moreover, when the husband sensed that he had lost the respect and affection of his family, physical violence might be used for the reassertion of his authority.

Levinger's findings (1970), based on a sample of 600 couples who were divorce applicants residing in the greater Cleveland, Ohio area, revealed that 36.8% of the wives, but only 3.3% of the husbands said that their partner hurt them

physically. Lower socioeconomic status wives were considerably more likely to complain about financial problems and physical abuse than middle-class wives.

Komarovsky (1962) reported that when husbands were inadequate providers, wives tended to be oversensitive to various faults in their husbands. The husband's reaction to such fault-finding led him to become more anxious about inadequacies, particularly those involving the ability to provide adequately for his family. Several reactions to this can involve drinking, emotional withdrawal or physical violence. In addition, Komarovsky found that "27% of husbands with less than 12 years of education and 33% of wives with less than 12 years of education reported that conflicts were handled through violent quarreling, with occasional beating and breaking things" (p. 363). Among the high-school graduates in her sample, 17% of the husbands and 4% of the wives reported such violence in marital quarreling.

Nye (1957), studying child adjustment in broken and in unhappy unbroken homes, used a sample of 780 students from a 25% regular interval sample of three Washington, D.C. high schools. Respondents were boys and girls in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12. He found that persons from broken but happy homes adjusted far better than did individuals who were from unhappy, unbroken homes. Some social structural differences were found (such as the father's occupational level, the age

of family members, the number of schools attended and the child's aspirational level) between broken and unbroken homes. These differences, however, were negligible. The smaller family in the broken category would appear to place a premium on closer parent-child relationships.

Nye further found that adolescents from broken homes showed less psychosomatic illness, less delinquent behavior, and better adjustment to parents than those from unhappy, unbroken homes. This would suggest that in some cases separation and disruption of the home is desirable. He also discovered that the adjustment of parents individually and to their spouses was superior in broken homes to that in unhappy homes that remained intact.

Much research has demonstrated that delinquents are generally resentful, destructive, suspicious, hostile, impulsive, and lacking in self-control. Many of these traits appear to be defensive in nature, reflecting feelings of inadequacy, emotional rejection, frustration of the need for self-expression, and impaired self-concepts. In summarizing their findings on delinquent behavior, Fitts and Hammer (1969) characterized these youthful offenders as disliking and disrespecting themselves. Moreover, their self-concepts were contradictory, variable, confused and uncertain.

Although family members may experience a better adjustment after divorce, Cline and Westman (1971) found that it did



not end disturbed marital relationships. These researchers found that of 105 females that experienced divorce, 52% had hostile and potentially violent postdivorce interactions requiring at least one court intervention, and 31% required two to ten court interventions in a two year follow-up period. Legal reasons given for the court actions centered around money and children. Of added importance were special alliances between one parent and child against the other parent and continued conflict between divorced spouses.

The use of physical force in the family is related to self-concept for those who feel that homicide may be a better way of ending conflict than a lengthy, ego-destroying break-up followed by divorce. As Goode said (1969), "locked in but suffering from it, couples may engage in fighting that is savage and even lethal" (p. 958).

In studying why physically abused wives stay with their husbands, Gelles (1976) attempted to integrate the subcultural theory of violence with the homogamy theory of mate selection. This theory of mate selection suggests that like marries like or that individuals tend to marry people who are similar to themselves. Thus, Gelles argued that women who grew up in surroundings which included and approved of family violence would be more likely to marry a person prone to the use of physical violence. He further suggested that these women have negative self-concepts and economic hardships and apparently marry those similar to themselves. Thus, it may be

that one's view of himself, coupled with previous learning experiences, can in some measure account for family violence.

Blood and Wolf (1960) suggested that the willingness and ability to use physical violence in the family setting may be considered as a "resource factor." Family members can use this resource to compensate for lack of other resources such as money, knowledge and respect needed to maintain his or her position in the family.

Allen and Straus (1975) found support for what they term "the Ultimate Resource Theory." This involves the idea that husbands who lack certain valued resources such as material possessions and desirable personality traits, tend to substitute physical violence within the family for this resource deficiency in order to maintain a position of superiority. These researchers sampled data collected on 400 couples using university students who filled out questionnaires relating to conflicts and modes of conflict occurring in their families during the students' last years in high school. The analysis of data revealed that the greater the husband's resources, the less his use of physical violence. On the other hand, whenever the wife's resources exceeded her husband's, he was more likely to have used physical force on her.

Aldous (1969) noted the widely held proposition that adequate job-earner achievement is essential in order for men to have a meaningful involvement in the family. There is an association between underachievement on the part of the

husband and his use of violent, harmful behavior in his family life.

Whitehurst (1975) suggested that husbands who turn to violence against their wives do so as a reaction to a serious inability to control specific situations, particularly those involving sex and jealousy. Men of the lower socioeconomic class appear to be most fearful of meaningful interactions with their wives. Those who turn to family violence may do so as a result of a poor self-concept resulting from their inability to control the situation.

Violence in the lower classes is more tolerated by women who play more subservient roles and have less verbal ability in expressing themselves compared to middle-class women. In middle-class marriages, Whitehurst (1971) found that threats of violence were frequent among husbands as a means of controlling their wives. Both middle-class and lower-class violence appear to have a common thread involving the spouses' self-concept.

Gelles (1974) found that individuals who commit family violence have very little contact with friends or neighbors. They also had few social resources in the community to which they could turn for help in matters that involved family violence.

#### Parent-Child Violence

The maltreatment of children has been justified for many centuries by the belief that severe physical punishment was

necessary, either to maintain discipline, to transmit educational ideas, to please the gods, or to expel evil spirits. Calvinistic views of the child saw the devil lurking in the souls of children, hence the expression "beat the devil out of him." Children in the past have been considered miniature adults by their parents and guardians. They were expected to behave as adults, and their behavior was measured by adult standards. When the child fell short of these expectations, he would be punished. The child was thought to have the same needs and desires as adults, and even thought to be born with an innate knowledge of right and wrong (Helfer and Kempe, 1968). Today it is legal in every American state for parents to strike their children. Stark and McEvoy (1970), studying American attitudes toward violence, suggested that most people see a moral obligation for parents to use physical punishment as a means of controlling children if other means fail. In addition, according to a national sample of Americans studied by the Violence Commission, 93% said they experienced physical punishment at some time in childhood, and one-third revealed that spanking occurred frequently.

Child battering or parent-child violence has been and still remains one of society's most repulsive crimes, and now there is every indication that it is on the increase. Gil (1969, 1971) reported that in 1967, a total of 5993 physically abused children was legally reported nationwide. Of those

reported, 53% of the injuries were rated "not serious," 37% "serious without permanent damage," 5% were "serious with permanent damage," and 4% were "fatal." In 1968, a total number of 6617 physical abuse cases were reported. Of this group, more boys under age twelve were reported, more girls over age twelve, 75% over age two, more nonwhites, 13% in special education classes. More than 60% had histories of prior abuse, 30% lived in female-headed households, and the majority of these children came from families with four or more siblings. Sixty-five percent of the cases under age three were fatal or serious. In addition, the educational, occupational and income levels of the abused children's parents were low. In 1969, the American Humane Society estimated that 10,000 cases of parent-child violence were reported in the United States; while in 1970, the number of neglected children who came to the attention of authorities also came to 10,000 (Solomon, 1973). There is a consensus on the part of most authorities that as many as 2.5 million children may be abused or neglected by their parents each year.

There is a distinction between child abuse and child neglect. The former refers to the deliberate injury of a child by a caretaker. This includes such acts as burning, kicking and suffocating. Inevitably, children, as a result of these experiences, suffer irreparable mental, physical and emotional damage (Solomon, 1973). Child neglect does not

include physical brutality as such, but rather involves such things as malnourishment, dehydration, lack of essential medical care during illness, and the failure to attend school regularly. Varying degrees of neglect may go on throughout childhood and can result in permanently retarded development (Young, 1964).

Parents who commit physically violent acts against their children are to be found within all social classes and in all ranges of intelligence and in all cultural, religious and racial groups. However, most instances seem to occur among those occupying lesser socioeconomic positions.

Some authorities argue that parent-child violence occurs as a result of psycho-pathological defects residing within the individual. Fontana (1971) maintained that a great many parents who abuse their children suffer from psychotic reactions, alcoholism, low frustration levels and severe emotional immaturity. Abusive parents have been characterized as highly impulsive and authoritarian. These are symptoms of people who find the world unpleasant and unmanageable and who have a very low opinion of themselves and of others. One researcher, studying a representative sample of child abusers, found them to be characterized by pervasive anger, depression, and compulsive discipline patterns. In addition, he found that physical abuse did not occur only once. Most cases had been ongoing for from one to three years, as revealed by X-ray evidence of prior injury (Zalba, 1971).

In contrast to this viewpoint, Gelles (1973) contended that parent-child violence results from the life stresses endured by the individual such as lack of financial resources, education, friends and employment opportunities. He viewed certain situational factors as precipitating causes of the violence. These factors include threats to parental authority and self-esteem, social isolation, an excess number of children, many illnesses and poor housing conditions.

Several research reports have indicated that a disproportionate amount of parent-child violence occurs in the lower and working classes of the population. Women appear to outnumber men as child abusers. Bennie and Sclare (1969) found that 80% of child abuse cases they saw were from the lower classes represented by unskilled workers. Galdston (1965) found in abusive families, that the father of the battered child was typically unemployed or worked part time, while the mother also worked part time and cared for the child the rest of the time. He also suggested that battering parents have limited educational and financial means.

Helper and Kempe (1968) suggested that abusing parents themselves were often beaten as children and experienced an intense, continuous demand from their parents. This demand was in the form of expectations of submissive behavior, immediate obedience, never making mistakes and showing approval and help for parental actions. Accompanying these

unrealistic parental demands was a seemingly never ending amount of parental criticism. Inevitably, this led to feelings of being unloved, a feeling that no one really cared. As children, their own needs, desires and capabilities were disregarded. Everything in the family was oriented toward meeting the parents' needs to the exclusion of the children's.

In referring to parents that abuse their children, Goode (1971) pointed out that

. . . essentially they approach the task of child care with the wish to do something for the child, a deep need for the child to fill their own lacks, to salve their own hurt self-esteem, to give them love, and a harsh demand that the child behave in a certain way (p. 40).

Blumberg (1974), analyzing parents who abuse their children, reported that 70% or more of all cases of serious child abuse were attributable to the mothers of the children and that the most serious cases involved children under age three. In addition, this researcher found that the abusing parents, almost without exception, were themselves neglected, abused and deprived of love and mothering when they were children. Consequently, this led to problems involving negative self-image.

Child batterers have been found to display many misconceptions and misunderstandings about their children's developmental abilities. Elmer (1967) stated that many parents believe that the child knows the difference between



right and wrong at the age of twelve months or earlier. Because many abusive parents perceive their children to be far more capable and responsible than they really are, these individuals are likely to interpret crying, soiling of diapers, or breaking of toys as a deliberate attempt to misbehave, cause trouble and be spiteful. Silver, Dublin and Lourie (1969) suggested that part of the reason for this behavior is that many child abusers are loners and lack the support of friends. Consequently, they have no basis for comparing their children with those of other mothers.

Young (1964), in analyzing parent-child violence, pointed out that it is common for one parent to dominate the other. This dominance, unfortunately, is based on fear rather than strength. In such families, parents give orders and make decisions, but do not assume responsibility for the consequences. Punishment is given without regard for cause. Young claimed that the key element which distinguishes abusing from nonabusing parents is the calculating and consistent cruelty that is meted out to children without a rational or observable purpose.

Parents who abuse their children tend to be overly possessive of them as a means of consolidating their power. They refuse outside offers of help for their children and strongly resist offers to take the child out of the home. As possessions, their children become victims or scapegoats.

In many such families, one child becomes the target of parental abuse and is singled out as a scapegoat. Steele and Pollack (1968) suggested that scapegoating may occur as a result of the child's being of the wrong sex, resembling a hated relative, causing family problems, or possessing a personality at odds with his parents.

Considerable research suggests that many violent parents try to reverse the roles in a parent-child relationship where the parents become children and expect their children to respond as adults. Rather than developing a sense of basic trust with their parents which is essential for healthy growth and development (Erickson, 1950), these individuals developed a sense of mistrust as a result of not being allowed to count on acceptance, warmth, love and support. In consequence, the image of an uncaring mother is continually being reinforced as the child grows up. Thus, it is not surprising that these parents, through their own children, try to regain the needs that went unfulfilled as they were developing. A striking, yet tragic example of this, coupled with a complete misunderstanding of children, was provided by Steele and Pollack (1968) in the following response made by an abusive mother concerning her child:

I have never felt really loved all my life. When the baby was born, I thought he would love me, but when he cried all the time it meant he didn't love me, so I hit him (p. 309).

### Self-Concept

Over the years, the concept of self has received a wealth of meanings and definitions. Today the term self has come to have two distinct meanings. One meaning defines the self-as-object, inasmuch as it conveys a person's attitudes, feelings and perceptions of himself as an object. This can be viewed, in one sense, as what a person thinks of himself. The second meaning may be called the self-as-process definition, wherein the self is a doer in the sense that it includes an active group of processes such as thinking, remembering and perceiving (Hall and Lindzey, 1957).

Jersild (1952) seemed to offer a clear definition of "self."

A person's self is the sum total of all he can call his. The self includes, among other things, a system of ideas, attitudes, values and commitments. The self is a person's total subjective environment; it is the distinctive center of experience and significance. The self constitutes a person's inner world as distinguished from the outer world consisting of all other people and things (p. 9).

It appears that Freud's (1951) "Ich" or "Ego" was the first appearance of a psychological construct of an awareness of the self as subject and object. Freud's "Ego" closely parallels what is presently thought of as self. The ego is the "who-I-am," "what-am-I-doing" aspect of the personality (Freud, 1933). Raimy's work (1948) contained the first appearance of the term "self-concept" in reference to clinical processes. The term was referred to as "the map which a

person consults in order to understand himself, especially during moments of crisis of choice" (p.155).

For both Cooley and Mead, a person's ability to take himself as an object assumed particular importance in the development of self-conceptions and personality. One of Cooley's major contributions (1902) to our understanding of the formation of the individual's concept of himself was what he termed "the looking-glass self," in which one's self-conceptions are formed by noting the opinions held by others of him. Cooley suggested this when he stated:

As we see our face, figure, and dress in the glass and are interested in them because they are ours, and pleased or otherwise with them according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be; so in manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on, are variously affected by it (p. 183).

Mead (1934) extended Cooley's view that self-conception reflects the views of others by proposing that the self develops from adopting as our own the ideas about our behavior that others have toward it. According to Mead, the individual's view of himself is a product of his social environment. A key element in the view one has of himself is the capacity to organize behavior in light of particular social situations which Mead termed "taking the role of the other." This meant that the person was able to put himself into the position of someone else and to imagine in advance what that person's response to his action was likely to be.

However, the self is not able to reflect everyone's thoughts separately due to the great numbers of people the individual comes to know. Therefore, the self gradually develops general ideas regarding the way the community in his immediate environment feels about him and what they expect from him. Mead used the term "generalized other" in referring to the community's expectations held for us. Mead, in addition, emphasized that an individual's positive concept of himself depends on significant persons in his life who have treated him with concern and respect. On the other hand, if the individual holds negative self-conceptions, then significant others have treated him as an inferior person. Over time, we come to think of ourselves in terms of the way others behave toward us.

Allport (1960) believed that as man develops through childhood, adolescence, and adulthood, he develops esteem toward others. These in turn bring him feelings of security, happiness and trust. This development, Allport called "extension of self." The extension of self plus a feeling of esteem toward others, Allport defined as "affiliative trust." This personality theorist saw a great drive toward affiliation existing in almost every human being. However, it is possible for this "affiliative trust" to turn to deep hatred. Allport believed that self-esteem precedes feelings of affiliation or love toward others. Consequently, one may infer from the

above, that an individual's development of a negative self-concept is a key factor in turning "affiliative trust" into hatred and potentially into violence.

James (1961) dichotomized the self into the "I" (the self as knower) and the "Me" (the self as known). He further developed the "Me" into three separate selves: (a) the material me (including physical body and possessions, immediate family and home; (b) the social me (judgments of a person expressed by others, such as reputation and recognition); and (c) the spiritual me (the consciousness of actively thinking, feeling and behaving). This psychologist viewed the self-image as a composite of all three states of the "Me."

Lecky (1945) developed the view that the individual strives for consistency in all aspects of his life. He proposed and demonstrated that self-appraisals are difficult to change once they are established, because of the person's need for "psychological consistency." Lecky conceived psychological consistency as an organization of values and ideas about the self which are consistent with one another. Family members provide the important factor promoting self-perception. By identifying himself with his parents, the child tries to bring himself and them into a unified and consistent relationship. Although this theorist was optimistic regarding the individual's development of a consistent

positive view of himself in interaction with his family, he believed that one could also develop a consistent negative view of himself in such interactions.

Rogers' self-theory also emphasized a striving by the individual to maintain psychological consistency. He believed that the person behaves in ways that are consistent with his self-concept and experiences. When experiences and needs appear (that are nonconsistent with the individual's self-concept), they are in Rogers' words "disowned." The person's self-perception is influenced by the way others perceive him (Shertzer and Stone, 1968).

Rogers (1961) spoke of the private subjective world of an individual's experience, which he termed "the phenomenal field." It is here that experience is translated into perceptions and interpretations that determine subsequent behavior. Furthermore, Rogers believed that individuals need to experience positive regard from others, especially from parents, and from themselves in order to develop positive self-concepts.

Wylie's review (1961) of the literature on self-concept suggested that self-acceptance is related to adjustment. Generally, a high regard for one's self is reflected in a high level of personal adjustment. Moreover, people who are self-accepting are more accepting of others.

Coopersmith (1967), for example, found in a study of preadolescent boys, that those who had high self-esteem

tended to have parents who were also high in self-esteem. These parents, in contrast to parents of boys low in self-esteem, tended to be more emotionally stable and self-reliant in their attitudes and actions regarding child care. Moreover, these parents provided sound models for their children, gave them consistent encouragement, support, and expressions of acceptance of them through daily concern, affection and close rapport. In contrast, parents of children low in self-esteem were likewise low in self-esteem. In addition, they did not provide parental guidance and displayed a rather harsh and disrespectful treatment of their children.

Murphy's biosocial theory of personality (1947) posited several cogent factors in the construction of one's self-concept. First, education is important because individuals tend to use verbal symbols, to a degree, in attempting to integrate their picture of the self. Second, one also evaluates or esteems himself to the degree that the culture in which he lives promotes a respect for the self. Third, the person is inclined to value or undervalue himself according to the amount of parental approval received. The more approval from parents for actions and behavior, the higher the degree of value placed upon the self.

Alder (1927) postulated that the atmosphere of family life during the early years of development lead to the development of styles of life that are either destructive or



constructive. If parents respect and encourage the individual, then a self-image of positive worth develops. On the other hand, a destructive style of life based on parental disrespect and abandonment engenders in the individual negative attitudes toward the self. From these early learning experiences, a creative self is developed which can be positive or negative.

In his interpersonal theory of psychiatry, Sullivan (1953) introduced the concept "personification" to represent an image a person has of someone else. But Hall and Lindzey (1957) note that "personifications of the self, such as the good-me and the bad-me, follow the same principles as personification of others. Good-me personifications result from interpersonal experiences which are rewarding in character, bad-me personifications from anxiety-arousing situations" (p. 141). Self personification is an important component of the view one has of himself. Personifications learned in infancy and childhood may remain intact and influence a person's adult reactions to people. Children, for example, may see their parents as overbearing, hostile and rejecting, whether they actually are or not.

Self-concept theory and research, in sum, strongly suggests that an individual behaves consistently with the way in which he sees himself. Many studies indicate that some children learn low self-concept as a result of interaction

with their parents and other significant persons in their lives. In viewing family violence, therefore, one may posit that viewing oneself negatively leads to viewing others negatively, which may in turn lead to violence. It is this researcher's view that there is a relationship between low self-concept and intrafamily violence.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

As a result of the limited findings reported in the survey of the literature on intrafamily violence, the present study had as its purpose the examination of family violence by administering the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale to inmates arrested and incarcerated for such offenses. The differences in scores received on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale by inmates who were arrested for intrafamily violence were contrasted with scores of both inmates who were arrested for nonfamily crimes and a nonincarcerated sample of the population. In Chapter III a more detailed description of the design of the study, the methods of procedure, and the method of analysis of data are presented.

#### Description of the Subjects

The subjects in the present study consisted of 90 individuals who were separated into three groups of 30 each. The experimental group consisted of thirty prisoners at the Gaston County Jail in Gastonia, North Carolina, who were arrested and incarcerated for physically violent acts against family members. The subjects were selected during the time they were incarcerated in the Gaston County Jail from answers to the following question: "Did the crime with which you were

charged involve a family member or members?" A family member included anyone related to the prisoners either by blood or by marriage (e.g., wives, husbands, children, mothers, fathers, grandparents and in-laws). If their answers were affirmative, the prisoners were asked if they would volunteer for the study. Approximately 10% of the subjects who were asked to participate declined. The second group of subjects, the prisoner control group, consisted of 30 prisoners arrested and incarcerated for all other crimes. Approximately 10% of the qualified individuals declined participation. The third group of subjects was comprised of 30 individuals found in the nonincarcerated population working in three textile mills in Gaston County. Of those qualified in this population, approximately 5% declined participation. All the subjects chosen for the study participated in answering the demographic questionnaire and in taking the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale on a voluntary basis.

#### Selection of the Control Groups

The following variables were found to play an important role in the genesis of intrafamily violence, and therefore were controlled as closely as possible for all populations: (a) age, (b) sex, (c) income, (d) occupational status, (e) education, (f) race, (g) marital status, (h) number of family members living within a single household, and (i) gun

ownership. The prisoners who were incarcerated for intra-family violence were matched exactly on these characteristics with two control groups: (a) a group of 30 prisoners who were incarcerated for criminal acts (e.g., breaking and entering, larceny, burglary, and assault) against nonfamily members; and (b) a group of 30 nonincarcerated persons from within the area population of Gaston County. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was administered to all three groups.

The prisoner control group volunteers were obtained from the Gaston County Jail in the same way as was the experimental prison group. They were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire based on the above variables. The researcher sampled the nonincarcerated control group from three textile mills in Gaston County. The investigator believed that from this population, control variable characteristics (similar to those of the prisoners who were incarcerated for intra-family violence) were obtainable. The subjects in this control group were secured by explaining to the mill plant managers the purpose of the present research project. The plant managers had agreed to distribute a demographic questionnaire based on the above variables to the employees at their particular mill (see Appendix A). They further explained to these employees that filling out the questionnaire was strictly voluntary, and that some of them would be selected to participate by taking a short test. The

researcher continued to administer the demographic questionnaire to persons in the nonincarcerated population and to the prisoner control group until a match with the experimental prisoner group on the control variables was obtained.

### The Research Instruments

#### Personal Data Questionnaire

The two questionnaires, the one designed for use with the incarcerated subjects and that designed for the non-incarcerated population, were developed in order to control the variables previously mentioned (see Appendix B). The results of these questionnaires were designed to be keypunched and machine sorted in order to facilitate matching the control variables.

With regard to occupational status, which was one of the controlled variables under consideration, the researcher did not expect persons to evaluate accurately their occupational status. Consequently, the question was phrased to ask the respondent to state briefly his primary occupation. Using the occupational status scores developed by Nam, LaRocque, Powers, and Heimberg (1976), the researcher assigned to each occupation a status score. These status scores were then assigned to one of the following groups: (1) 0-25 (very low status and unskilled occupations); (2) 26-50 (low to moderate status, semi-skilled and clerical occupations); (3) 51-75 (moderate to higher status, skilled occupations); and

(4) 76-100 (high status professional and technical occupations). The prisoners' occupational status groups were then matched to the status groups of the nonincarcerated population.

Each volunteer from the nonincarcerated population answering the questionnaire wrote his name, address, telephone number, and testing site on a numbered card. The researcher wrote the name and location of each volunteer from the prisoner control group on a similar card. This number corresponded to the number on the questionnaire in boxes 11 through 13. This was done in order to assure respondents of the privacy of their answers (except to the researcher), and to enable the researcher to contact certain individuals again once it had been decided which respondents were selected to participate in the next phase of the project, taking the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

#### The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Nature and Meaning of Scores

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) was designed to meet the need for "a scale which is simple for the subject, widely applicable, well standardized, and multidimensional in its description of the self concept" (Fitts, 1965, p. 1). The description of the TSCS is derived from the scale developer's manual of procedures and analysis. Samples of the "Answer Sheet," "Score Sheet," and the "Profile Sheet"

for the Counseling Form of the scale (Fitts, 1965) can be found in Appendix C.

There are five scores on the TSCS: The Positive Score, the Self-Criticism Score, the Distribution Score, the Variability Score, and the Time Score. This study was concerned with the first two of these scores and with the five subscale scores of the Positive Score. The TSCS consists of one hundred statements about the self which the subject uses to describe himself. The instrument can be used to describe the whole range of psychological adjustment from healthy to psychotic patterns. The age range is from twelve to adult or a sixth-grade reading ability.

Since the scale is a self-report measure, the researcher assumed that both the prison group and the two control groups could read and understand the instruments. The responses to the items in the TSCS can be recorded on two different forms of the Score Sheet, the Counseling Form and the Clinical and Research Form. The difference between the two is in the scoring and profiling system and not in the hundred items. The Counseling Form will be used in this study, because it is more adaptable for discussion and interpretation.

The Self-Criticism Score. This scale is composed of ten items taken from the L-Scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. These are all mildly derogatory statements which most people accept as being true for them. Individuals who deny most of these statements most often are



being defensive and making a deliberate effort to present a favorable picture of themselves. High scores generally indicate a normal, healthy openness and capacity for self-criticism. Extremely high scores (above the 99th percentile) indicate that the individual may be lacking in defenses and may in fact be pathologically undefended. Low scores (below the 20th percentile) indicate defensiveness and suggest that the Positive Scores are probably artificially elevated by this defensiveness.

The Positive Scores (P). The Positive Scores represent an individual's internal and external frame of reference within which he is describing himself. The row scores on the Score Sheet represent an internal frame of reference wherein the individual seems to be conveying three primary messages: (1) This is what I am; (2) This is how I feel about myself; and (3) This is what I do. The column scores represent a more external frame of reference comprising statements referring to physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self.

The Total Positive (P) Score is the most important single score on the Counseling Form. It reflects the overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores (above the 90th percentile) tend to like themselves, feel that they are persons of value and worth, have confidence in themselves, and act accordingly. People with low scores are doubtful

about their own worth, see themselves as undersirable, often feel anxious, depressed and unhappy, and have little faith or confidence in themselves. They tend to act in a way that reflects these attitudes and feelings.

If the Self-Criticism Score is low, high Positive Scores become suspect and are probably the result of defensive distortion. Extremely high scores (generally above the 99th percentile) are deviant and are usually found only in such disturbed people as paranoid schizophrenics who as a group show many extreme scores, both high and low. On the Counseling Form, the Positive Scores are simply designated as P Scores. Mathematically, the Total P Score is the sum either of all three row scores or of all five column scores discussed below.

The Row 1 P Score--Identity--items are the "what I am" items. Here the individual is describing his basic identity --what he is as he sees himself.

The Row 2 P Score--Self-Satisfaction--comes from those items where the individual describes how he feels about the self he perceives. In general, this score reflects the level of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance. An individual may have very high scores on Row 1 and Row 3 but still score low on Row 2 because of very high standards and expectations for himself. Or vice versa, he may have a low opinion of himself as indicated by the Row 1 and Row 3 scores but still have a

high Self-Satisfaction Score on Row 2. The subscores therefore best interpreted in comparison with each other and with the Total P Score.

The Row 3 P Score--Behavior--comes from those items that say "this is what I do, or this is the way I act." Thus, this score measures the individual's perception of his own behavior or the way he functions.

In Column A--Physical Self--the individual is presenting his view of his body, his state of health, his physical appearance, skills, and sexuality.

The Column B--Moral-Ethical Self--score describes the self from a moral-ethical frame of reference--moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.

The Column C--Personal Self--score reflects the individual's sense of personal worth, his feeling of adequacy as a person, and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body or his relationships to others.

The Column D--Family Self--score reflects one's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member. It refers to the individual's perception of self in reference to his closest and most immediate circle of associations.

Column E--Social Self--is another "self as perceived in relation to others" category, but pertains to "others" in a more general way. It reflects the person's sense of adequacy

and worth in his social interaction with other people in general.

Norms. The standardization group from which the norms were developed was a broad sample of 626 people. The sample included people from various parts of the country, and ages ranged from 12 to 68. There were approximately equal numbers of both sexes, both black and white subjects, representative of all social, economic, and intellectual levels and educational levels from the sixth grade through the Ph.D. degree.

Reliability. Reliability coefficients for the various profile segments of this scale fall mostly in the .80 to .90 range. Other evidence of reliability is found in the remarkable similarity of profile patterns found through repeated measures of the same individuals over long periods of time.

Validity. Statistical analyses have been performed in which a large group (369) of psychiatric patients has been compared with the 626 nonpatients of the norm group. These comparisons demonstrated highly significant (mostly at the .001 level) differences between patients and nonpatients for almost every score that is utilized on this Scale. In addition to these data, other studies by Congdon (1958), Havener (1961), and Wayne (1963) demonstrate similar patient versus nonpatient differences. The content validity of the Scale has been assured by the unanimous agreement of a group

of judges concerning the items to be included. The categories used in the Scale are thus logically meaningful and capable of being communicated to persons responding to the Scale. The Scale, in addition, has a sixth-grade reading level.

#### Method of Collecting and Recording the Data

The researcher received written assurances from the Sheriff of Gaston County that the present investigation would be permitted at the county jail (see Appendix D). The Sheriff also provided a private room for testing purposes and had a guard stationed outside. The room was large enough to test five inmates at one time.

The prisoners were asked individually if they would participate in a research study which would involve taking a twenty-minute test and answering a short questionnaire. The researcher pointed out to the prisoners that the test scores and the questionnaire answers would not be made available either to prison or the court officials and that neither would have any effect on their sentences or conditions of incarceration.

The researcher administered the demographic questionnaire to the experimental group and to the prison control group at the Gaston County Jail. Each of the thirty questionnaires from the experimental group was analyzed to produce a matched sample in the prisoner control group and in the

nonincarcerated population. In addition, each experimental group prisoner was administered the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale after completing the questionnaire.

As this part of the project proceeded, questionnaires were distributed to mill workers in order to receive a matched sample with the prison experimental population. The combined numbers of people participating in the questionnaire at all three mills (approximately 300) afforded an adequate sample. As soon as a matched sample was acquired, thirty persons from those answering the questionnaire at the three mills were asked to participate further by taking the TSCS.

The researcher cautioned all persons taking the TSCS to complete all questions, since the test manual notes that this is necessary for accurate scoring. The TSCS was hand scored by the researcher for each individual taking it. The TSCS provided a special answer sheet which the test taker used and which was also used to calculate scores.

#### Research Design and Method of Analyzing Data

The research design employed a multivariate Analysis of Variance. This testing procedure was used to analyze the following dependent variables taken from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:

1. Total P Score
2. Physical Self Score
3. Moral-Ethical Self Score

4. Personal Self Score
5. Family Self Score
6. Social Self Score
7. Self-Criticism Score

The data were reported in percentile scores from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale that were transformed from the raw data. The independent variables were the population of individuals classified into: (a) prisoners incarcerated for violence against family members, (b) prisoners incarcerated for crimes not against family members, and (c) nonincarcerated persons. Univariate Analyses of Variance were performed on each dependent measure and Scheffe's multiple comparison procedure was used to determine whether the differences occurring in the three group means were statistically significant at the  $\underline{p} < .05$  level.

## CHAPTER IV

## RESULTS

To test the hypothesis that people who commit family violence have a lower self-concept than people who have not committed family violence, self-concept scores from 90 subjects in three groups were compared. Thirty of the 90 participating subjects were prisoners arrested and incarcerated for violence against family members. Another group of 30 subjects consisted of prisoners arrested and incarcerated for all other crimes, except public drunkenness, creating a prisoner control group. The last group of 30 subjects selected for participation in the study comprised a nonincarcerated sample of the population.

The results of a multivariate Analysis of Variance and seven univariate Analyses of Variance on the seven scales of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed that incarcerated persons who commit intrafamily violence do have a significantly lower self-esteem than nonincarcerated persons. However, since the group incarcerated for all other crimes also had (a) significantly lower self-esteem scores than nonincarcerated persons and (b) no significantly different self-esteem scores from the group incarcerated for



family crimes, there can not be a claim that self-concept and family violence are related.

#### Matching Procedures

The 90 subjects were matched into groups of 30 (described below), each as nearly comparable as possible on the variables that follow: age; race; sex; marital status; occupational status; job description; income; education; gun ownership; and number of family members residing in a single household. The 30 subjects incarcerated for crimes against family members (see Appendix E) filled out the demographic questionnaire and completed the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. As this phase of the study was being accomplished, questionnaires were distributed to all other inmates in the prison charged with crimes not involving family members. In this manner, a group of 30 inmates incarcerated for nonfamily crimes was matched with the 30 inmates incarcerated for crimes against family members. Approximately 200 questionnaires were administered to the nonfamily crime category of subjects (see Appendix E) before a match of 30 could be obtained. Since the 30 subjects incarcerated for intrafamily violence were all males, the variable of sex was added as a control for all other subjects. The TSCS was then administered to the subjects in the nonfamily crime group. The investigator explained to both prisoner groups that the questionnaire and TSCS would be used strictly for research purposes and would

have no effect either positively or negatively on their particular crime or sentence. Instructions for taking the TSCS were also explained by the investigator to assure that the Scale was being answered correctly.

The third group, comprised of 30 nonincarcerated subjects, was obtained from three mills in Gaston County. Approximately 300 demographic questionnaires were distributed to employees in these mills by their supervisors and examined by the investigator to secure 30 subjects who matched both the family violence and nonfamily crime prison groups. This group of 30 subjects made up the nonincarcerated sample. The group was administered the TSCS with instructions by the investigator and told that the results would be used for research purposes.

#### Demographic Questionnaire Results

The data used to match all 90 subjects were obtained by the use of a demographic questionnaire administered to persons from the three distinct population groups. The subjects chosen were as comparable as possible on all questionnaire items. The individual responses of each of the three groups were broken down in table form in Appendix F. A summary of that data showing the composition of the combined sample of 90 subjects follows.

The results of the questionnaire item on age answered by all three groups of subjects revealed that 24 of the 90

subjects (27%) were 18-22 years of age; 15 subjects (17%) were 23-27 years of age; another 15 (17%) were 28-32 years of age; and 36 subjects (40%) were 33 years of age or older.

The race of 15 of the 90 subjects (17%) was black; the other 75 subjects (83%) were white. The educational attainment of the subjects demonstrated the following pattern: 6 of the 90 subjects (7%) had completed the seventh grade; another 6 (7%) checked the 8th grade level; 7% (6 of the 90 subjects) had finished the 9th grade; 18 (20%) checked the 10th grade; 27 (30%) had completed the 11th grade; and the remaining 27 subjects (30%) had graduated from high school.

All subjects in both prison groups were employed full time prior to incarceration. Of the subjects in the non-incarcerated population, 100% were also employed full time.

The distribution of income among the subjects showed that 6 of the 90 (7%) earned from 0-100 dollars per week; 54 of the 90 (60%) received 101-150 dollars per week; and 30 of the remaining 90 subjects (33%) earned 151-200 dollars a week.

The employment description component of the questionnaire yielded, in general, very low occupational statuses for all three population groups. The ranking of occupational status was obtained by using the Nam, La Rocque, Powers, and Heimberg Occupational Status Score Scales. On the scores, each occupation is assigned a numerical rank from

1 to 99. The higher the numerical rank, the higher the occupational status. The investigator assigned the subjects to one of four groups based on this ranking. Out of the total of 90 subjects, 69 (or 62%) were assigned a rank of one (0-25 status scores), while the remaining 21 (38%) were given a rank of two (26-50).

The questionnaire item on marital status showed that 24 of the 90 (27%) were single (never married); 42 of the 90 (47%) were married; 15 of the 90 (17%) were separated from their wives; 6 of the 90 (7%) were divorced; and 3 of the 90 (3%) no longer had wives that were living.

Questionnaire responses indicated that 27 of the 90 subjects (30%) resided with 1 to 2 family members; 42 of the 90 subjects (47%) resided with 3 to 4 family members; 18 of the 90 subjects (20%) resided with 5 to 6 family members; and 3 of the 90 subjects (3%) had 7 to 8 family members residing at home with them.

The item referring to gun ownership showed that 63 of the 90 subjects (70%) did not own guns; 21 of the 90 subjects (23%) owned 1 to 2 guns; and 6 of the 90 subjects (7%) owned a total of 3 or more guns.

In summary, the typical respondent in the present study was a white male mill worker of approximately 28 years of age who had completed the 11th or 12th grade. He was either employed full time (nonincarcerated population) or had been

prior to incarceration. While working, he earned 101 to 200 dollars per week. He was married and lived at home, or had prior to the time of incarceration, with one to four family members. Typically, he did not own a gun.

#### Preparation of Data

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was used to test the self-concepts of all subjects in this study. This Scale consists of 100 questions (see Appendix G). Each subject received a test booklet and an answer sheet. Each question had five possible answers: (1) completely false; (2) mostly false; (3) partly false and partly true; (4) mostly true; (5) completely true. The subjects answered each question by circling the number beside the best answer.

The TSCS includes six subscales: physical self; moral-ethical self; personal self; family self; social self; self-criticism. The scores of the six subscales added together form Total P or overall level of self-esteem. Each subject's raw score for each subscale and Total P were then plotted on a profile sheet which was attached to the subjects' answer sheets, but not seen by the subjects. These plotted scores comprised the raw data from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The raw data on the profile sheets were then translated into percentile scores using the table provided on the sheets. The percentile scores obtained on each TSCS for each participant were used for data analysis. A multivariate Analysis of

Variance was conducted for all three groups. In addition, a univariate Analysis of Variance was utilized in the analyses of each of the six subscales from the TSCS.

#### Multivariate Analysis of Variance

The results of the multivariate Analysis of Variance indicated that a significant difference existed between the three populations of subjects on the TSCS. This analysis yielded a significant difference at the  $p < .01$  level. The Roy's maximum root statistic (Harris, 1975) was found to be 1.267. Thus, in utilizing the information available on all of the six subscales and the Total P (overall level of self-esteem) scale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale there was a significant difference found between the three subject groups, prisoners incarcerated for crimes of family violence, prisoners incarcerated for nonfamily violent crimes, and the nonincarcerated population.

#### Analyses of Variance for Total P Scores and the Six Subscales of the Tennessee-Self Concept Scale

The individual univariate Analyses of Variance are presented for the seven dependent variables of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of the seven dependent variables on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale for all three groups. The univariate Analyses of Variance showed a significant difference on six of the seven variables.

Table 1  
Means and Standard Deviations of the Seven Scales  
Reported in Percentile Scores From the  
Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

	Nonincarcerated Population		Prisoners Incarcerated For Violent Acts Against Family Members		Prisoners Incarcerated For Violent Crimes Not Against Family Members	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Total P	52.74	30.81	17.97	20.27	19.65	20.19
Physical Self	46.82	34.01	30.39	28.47	39.09	31.77
Moral Ethical Self	43.78	31.71	11.41	16.94	9.67	11.62
Personal Self	59.73	27.66	25.74	27.67	29.42	25.68
Family Self	57.31	28.98	18.54	22.73	15.10	19.50
Social Self	54.16	30.31	26.83	25.64	34.15	27.40
Self-Criticism	41.64	23.84	51.78	24.08	58.25	26.58

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the Total P (overall level of self-esteem) scale are shown in Table 2.

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	23069.66	11534.83	19.58*
Within Groups (error)	87	51261.15		
Total	89	74330.81		

\*Significant at the  $p < .01$  level

The means of the three groups of subjects on Total P from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale differed significantly. The Scheffe's multiple comparison procedure yielded a critical difference of 15.64, showing that the nonincarcerated population scored higher in self-esteem than either the family violent prisoner population ( $p < .05$ ) or the nonfamily crime group ( $p < .05$ ). The latter two groups did not differ from each other.

Therefore, on the basis of the evidence reported support was found for the hypothesis that persons arrested and incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower overall levels of self-esteem, as measured by the



TSCS when compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level in the nonincarcerated population. However, no support was found for the hypothesis that persons arrested and incarcerated for violent crimes against family members will have significantly lower overall levels of self-esteem measured by the TSCS when compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level arrested and incarcerated for other non-family crimes. These findings led to an attempt to study the six component sub-scales of the TSCS to ascertain whether a relationship with family violence could be found for some sub-scales and not others.

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the physical self scores are shown in Table 3.

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	4040.59	2025.0	2.04
Within Groups (Error)	87	86316.99	992.15	
Total	89	90367.58		

Although the nonincarcerated population obtained higher mean scores on physical self than did both groups of incarcerated prisoners, the difference between all three groups

was not significant. These mean scores are indicated on Table 1.

It can thus be said that in relation to physical self no support exists for the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes. In addition, the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS sub-scores when compared to persons in the nonincarcerated population was not supported.

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the moral-ethical self scores are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance for Moral-Ethical Self  
Reported from Percentile Scores on the TSCS

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	22141.32	11070.66	23.26*
Within Groups (Error)	87	41413.87	476.02	
Total	89	63555.19		

\*Significant at the  $p < .01$  level

Given a significant F value (F = 23.26) for moral-ethical self scores, one can conclude that the three groups of

subjects differed significantly on their mean scores on moral-ethical self on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The Scheffe's multiple comparison procedure yielded a critical difference of 14.06 and this demonstrated that the non-incarcerated population scored higher on the moral-ethical self than either the family violent prisoner population ( $p < .05$ ) or the nonfamily crime group ( $p < .05$ ). The latter two groups did not differ from each other.

On the basis of this information, the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS sub-scores when compared to persons incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes was not supported in relation to moral-ethical self. There does exist support for the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons in the non-incarcerated population; but, because those incarcerated for family violence and those incarcerated for nonfamily crimes do not differ, this supported hypothesis can not have value.

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the personal self scores are shown in Table 5.

Table 5  
 Analysis of Variance for Personal Self  
 Reported from Percentile Scores on the TSCS

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	20875.59	10437.79	14.30*
Within Groups (Error)	87	63519.31	730.11	
Total	89	84394.90		

\*Significant at the  $p < .01$  level

The means of the three groups of subjects on personal self from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale differed significantly. The Scheffe's multiple comparison yielded a critical difference of 17.41 which showed that the nonincarcerated population scored higher on personal self than either the family violent prisoner population ( $p < .05$ ) or the non-family crime group ( $p < .05$ ). The latter two groups did not differ from each other.

These findings indicate that in relation to personal self, no support exists for the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes. Even though support exists for the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons in the nonincarcerated

population, this finding does not truly support a relationship between self-concept and family violence.

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the family self are shown in Table 6.

Table 6  
Analysis of Variance for Family Self  
Reported From Percentile Scores on the TSCS

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	32966.31	16483.15	28.47*
<u>Within Groups (Error)</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>50368.56</u>	<u>578.95</u>	
Total	89	83334.87		

\*Significant at the  $p < .01$  level

Given a significant F value (F = 28.47) for family self scores, one can conclude that the three groups of subjects differed significantly on their mean scores on family self. The Scheffe's multiple comparison procedure revealed a critical difference of 15.50 and this showed that the non-incarcerated population scored higher on family self than either the family violent prisoner population ( $p < .05$ ) or the nonfamily crime group ( $p < .05$ ). The latter two groups did not differ from each other.

In view of these findings with respect to family self the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against

family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes is not tenable. Even though the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores compared to persons of the same socioeconomic level in the nonincarcerated population is tenable, it can not be used to support the hypothesis of a relationship between self-concept and family violence.

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the social self scale from the TSCS are shown in Table 7.

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Table 7  
Analysis of Variance for Social Self  
Reported from Percentile Scores on the TSCS

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Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	12009.11	6004.56	7.74*
<u>Within Groups (Error)</u>	87	67468.65	775.50	
Total	89	79477.76		

\*Significant at the  $p < .01$  level

The means of the three groups of subjects on social self from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale differed significantly. The Scheffe's multiple comparison procedure yielded a critical difference of 17.94 which showed that the nonincarcerated

population scored higher on social self than either the family violent prisoner population ( $p < .05$ ) or the non-family crime group ( $p < .05$ ). The latter two groups did not differ from each other.

Therefore, with respect to social self, the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes is unsupported. However, support does exist for the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons in the nonincarcerated population.

The results of the univariate Analysis of Variance for the self-criticism scale are shown in Table 8.

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Table 8

Analysis of Variance for Self-Criticism  
Reported from Percentile Scores on the TSCS

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Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	2	4202.40	2101.20	3.40*
<u>Within Groups (Error)</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>53795.62</u>	<u>618.34</u>	
Total	89	57998.02		

\*Significant at the  $p < .05$  level

Given a significant  $F$  value ( $F = 3.40$ ) for self-criticism scores one can conclude that the three groups of subjects differed significantly on their mean scores on self-criticism. The Scheffe's multiple comparison procedure yielded a critical difference of 16.02 and this demonstrated that the non-family crime group scored higher on self-criticism than the nonincarcerated population ( $p < .05$ ). However, there was no significant difference found between the nonincarcerated population and prisoners incarcerated for crimes against family members. Also, there was no significant difference found between the population of prisoners incarcerated for family violent crimes and the group of prisoners incarcerated for nonfamily crimes.

In view of these results with respect to self-criticism, the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons incarcerated for other nonfamily crimes is untenable. In addition, the hypothesis that persons incarcerated for violence against family members will have significantly lower TSCS subscores when compared to persons in the nonincarcerated population is not tenable.

In summary, the multivariate Analysis of Variance revealed that a statistically significant difference existed on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale scores of subjects incarcerated for violent crimes against family members, subjects



incarcerated for nonfamily crimes, and a nonincarcerated population.

The results of the univariate Analyses of Variance indicated that prisoners incarcerated for crimes against family members had lower overall self-concept on the TSCS subscales of moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, social self, and self-criticism when compared to a nonincarcerated sample of the population at the same socioeconomic level. This relationship also held true for the two groups with respect to Total P (overall level of self-esteem). No differences were found to exist on the TSCS subscales and Total P when comparisons were made between persons incarcerated for family violence and persons incarcerated for nonfamily crimes. In addition, both these groups and the nonincarcerated population did not differ on the physical self subscale of the TSCS.

Generally then, the univariate Analyses of Variance indicated that persons incarcerated for intrafamily violence have substantially lower self-concepts when compared to a nonincarcerated population at the same socioeconomic level. It was also shown that persons incarcerated for crimes of family violence had similarly low self-concepts when compared to a prison control group at the same socioeconomic level incarcerated for nonfamily crimes. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that low self-concept is differentially related to prisoners incarcerated just for family violence.

CHAPTER V  
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between self-concept and intrafamily violence. Specific data resulting from this study merit further elaboration.

If one were to combine and then separate all of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale scores of both prison groups, it could not be accurately determined which prisoners had been incarcerated for intrafamily violence. As a result of these findings, it may be said that a negative relationship does not appear to exist with respect to intrafamily violence and self-concept. Since self-concept differences cannot be determined between the family violent prisoners and the prisoner control group, it cannot be said that as self-concept scores decrease, intrafamily violence increases. Low self-concept, furthermore, appears to be characteristic of persons who commit crimes in general and not to any specific category of crime such as intrafamily violence. Therefore, Kaplan's (1972) self-attitude theory, which argues that negative self-attitudes significantly increase the probability that deviant patterns of behavior will be adopted, does not shed light on or explain why persons commit violent crimes against family members.

In comparing both prisoner groups with the nonincarcerated population, it can be shown that the nonincarcerated sample had better overall self-esteem (Total P) on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale when compared to both prison groups. This result also held true for subscale scores of the TSCS, with two exceptions. The nonfamily crime prisoners scored significantly higher on the self criticism subscale than the nonincarcerated population. However, of importance to this study is the fact that there were no significant differences between scores of prisoners incarcerated for crimes involving family violence and prisoners incarcerated for non-family crimes. Secondly, there were no significant differences found on the physical self subscale for all three populations tested. These data show that, in general, the nonincarcerated population displayed better self concept scores than either prison group or both prison groups combined.

The last two subscales to be discussed here are the moral-ethical and the family self subscores. Of significance is the fact that the largest discrepancy in subscores found in the comparison of the two incarcerated groups with the non-incarcerated population was in the above two areas.

The moral-ethical scale on the TSCS describes the individual's evaluation of his moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a good or bad person, and his satisfaction with a religious affiliation or lack of it. The family self

subscore of the TSCS reflects the person's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member. The non-incarcerated population scored significantly better on both subscales than the two incarcerated groups. The mean scores of all prisoners incarcerated for crimes involving family violence on the moral-ethical and family self scores were 11 and 18 respectively. The mean scores for the other incarcerated group were 9 and 15 respectively. In contrast the mean scores for the nonincarcerated population were 43 and 57 respectively.

Bieri and Lobeck's study (1961) suggested that religious affiliation was a major influence in the formation of a person's self-concept. These authors stated that, "religion may exert an influence on one's behavior by defining the available social and economic opportunities, and by structuring social relationships within the family" (p. 94). Although the study of religion and its relationship to self-concept was beyond the scope of the current investigation, it could be a source of future inquiry in light of the above findings. Another suggestion for future research is how labeling a prisoner as deviant might affect his overall self-concept. Does the fact of being incarcerated, of itself, lower the self-concept substantially from what it had been prior to incarceration? Would this apply equally to all types of offenders whether they were incarcerated for intrafamily violence or other crime categories?

Goffman (1963) suggested that incarceration, regardless of the crime, stigmatizes the incarcerated individual so as to produce within him a reformulation of his self-concept, i.e., it lowers the view he has of himself. This reformulation is accomplished when the incarcerated individual accepts society's definition of his situation as being deviant. As Goffman stated, "The fully and visibly stigmatized, in turn, must suffer the special indignity of knowing that they wear their situation on their sleeve, that almost anyone will be able to see into the heart of their predicament" (p. 127).

There is strong support for the argument that society labels and defines incarceration as a deviation and, in so doing, defines the situation of being incarcerated as negative. It is also plausible that incarceration can have deleterious effects on an individual's feelings of self-worth. However, the present research is not concerned with factors which may raise or lower a person's self-concept, but with the actual self-concepts evidenced on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale in the three population groups studied. The present investigation does demonstrate that persons incarcerated, for whatever reason, have significantly lower self-concepts when compared with the nonincarcerated population.

Many research reports have focused on self-concept (Adler, 1927; Allport, 1960; Horney, 1950; Mead, 1934; Murphy, 1947; Rogers, 1951; Sullivan, 1953) in attempting to explain certain

aspects of human behavior. Other studies (Bach-Y-Rita; Ervin, 1969; Hall, 1966; Jacobs & Teicher, 1967; Lion; Preston, 1964; Sharoff, 1969; Tabachnick, Litman, Osman, Jones, Cohn, Kasper, Maffat, 1966) have attempted to relate self-concept to various types of deviancy. However, none of the above studies have related self-concept to intrafamily violence.

Closest to the present investigation are several studies examining the scores of delinquents on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The results of these studies (Atchison, 1958; Deitch, 1959; Kim, 1968; Lefeber, 1965) have yielded TSCS scores for delinquents which are similar to those of the two incarcerated populations in the present research effort. The mean Total P scores in these studies typically fell between the 6.5 and 16th percentile levels when transformed from the raw data. The mean score for Total P, in the present study, for the 30 prisoners incarcerated for crimes of family violence was 17 while the Total P for the groups of prisoners incarcerated for nonfamily crimes was 19.

Over the past 18 years a trend is in evidence regarding research reported on the TSCS with delinquent populations considered to be deviant. This trend is supported by the present study when comparing family violent and nonfamily crime prison populations also considered to be deviant. Evidence suggests that Tennessee Self-Concept Scale scores of deviant populations have remained stable over time.

Pursuant to these findings, the present data comparing self-concept levels between prisoners incarcerated for family violence and prisoners incarcerated for nonfamily crimes tend to indicate that the findings cited in the above paragraphs may be generalized to adult incarcerated populations within the demographic and other variables utilized. However, previous research and the present study offer no evidence that persons who are incarcerated for intrafamily violence possess lower self-concepts than persons incarcerated for other criminal acts.

In summary, the present investigation expected to find that persons who were incarcerated for intrafamily violence would have lower self-concepts than those persons incarcerated for all other types of crimes and the nonincarcerated population. It was found that persons who were incarcerated for violence against family members maintained significantly lower self-concepts when compared to a nonincarcerated population. However, this did not prove to be the case when the family violent population of prisoners was compared to the prison control group. Since the self-concept scores of both populations of incarcerated criminals were similarly low, the researcher could not differentiate the family violent group from the nonfamily crime group. Because of these findings, an inverse relationship between intrafamily violence and self-concept could not be established. The

contribution of these results to the existing body of literature on family relations is that one must look to variables other than self-concept in order to explain the occurrence of intrafamily violence in populations similar to those studied here.



## CHAPTER VI

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It has been generally recognized, over the last decade, that intrafamily violence has been and continues to be a phenomenon of modern American life (Etzioni, 1971; Gil, 1969; Steinmitz & Straus, 1974; Straus, 1976). Because of its nature, however, intrafamily violence remains a thorny problem, one not easily open to investigation. In this regard, research to date has been extremely limited with respect to empirical studies.

Review of Literature

In recent years, the study of intrafamily violence has begun to receive much attention. A precipitating factor in this concern has been investigations which reveal that more murders occur between family members than any other category of murder-victim relationship (Boudouris, 1971; Curtis, 1974; Parnas, 1967; Pittman & Handy, 1964; Steinmetz & Straus, 1974; Straus, 1976; Wolfgang, 1958). In addition, recent widespread attention has been focused on child abuse (Fontana, 1971; Gil, 1969, 1971; Helfer & Kempe, 1968; Light, 1974; Young, 1964; Zalba, 1971). It has further been recognized that psychological, social and economic conditions affect family violence (Coser, 1956; Etzioni, 1971; Gelles, 1974, 1976;

Komorovsky, 1962; Levinger, 1970; O'Brien, 1971; Straus, 1974; Whitehurst, 1975).

Of the studies that appear, those addressing themselves to examining self-concept in relation to intrafamily violence have done so indirectly, i.e., using interviews. There are several studies which explicitly suggest that low self-concept is a factor leading to violence among family members (Goode, 1969; Straus, 1976; Whitehurst, 1971, 1975). However, the majority of these investigations have not been supported empirically. This researcher knows of no studies that deal specifically with an examination of self-concept in relation to intrafamily violence. Thus, it was hypothesized that significant differences on a self-concept measure would exist between persons incarcerated for intrafamily violence and a nonincarcerated population. As a control for incarceration, a third group was introduced. This group consisted of persons incarcerated for nonfamily related crimes.

#### Design of Study

Consequently, as a result of extremely limited research, the present investigation attempted to discover the relationship between intrafamily violence and self-concept. The design sought to analyze the scores obtained on a self-concept measure between three population groups. One group of subjects consisted of 30 individuals arrested and incarcerated for intrafamily violence. A second group consisted of 30

subjects arrested and incarcerated for all other types of violence not involving family members. A third group consisted of 30 nonincarcerated subjects. In addition, a questionnaire was devised to match all three subject groups as nearly as possible by controlling certain demographic and other variables. The variables appearing on the questionnaire included: age; race; sex; marital status; number of family members residing in a single household; income; education; employment status; job description; and gun ownership. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was the instrument used in this study. The scales adopted from the TSCS included seven dependent measures: (a) Total P (overall level of self-esteem), (b) physical self, (c) moral-ethical self, (d) personal self, (e) family self, (f) social self, (g) self-criticism.

#### Analysis of Data

After a multivariate Analysis of Variance showed a significant difference between groups of the TSCS, a univariate Analysis of Variance was employed in the analyses of each of the seven subscales from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. These analyses revealed that persons incarcerated for violent crimes against family members maintained lower self-concepts when compared to a nonincarcerated population. It was further demonstrated that persons incarcerated for intrafamily violence did not differ on self-concept scores when compared to

persons incarcerated for nonfamily crimes. Therefore, there could be no claim that low self-concept could explain intra-family violence. A multivariate Analysis of Variance was also conducted for all three groups. The results of this analysis showed that a statistically significant difference existed on the TSCS scores between subjects incarcerated for nonfamily crimes, and a nonincarcerated sample of the population.

### Conclusions

The underlying hypothesis in this investigation was based upon Kaplan's (1972) self-attitude theory which holds that negative self-attitudes, which are profoundly and directly influenced by the consideration of one's self-concept, significantly increase the probability that deviant patterns of behavior will be adopted. Thus, it was expected that there would be significantly lower self-concepts for prisoners incarcerated for intrafamily violence and prisoners incarcerated for nonfamily crimes when compared with the self-concepts of a sample of nonincarcerated persons as measured by the TSCS. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that those subjects incarcerated for violent crimes against family members would have lower self-concepts than those subjects incarcerated for nonfamily related crimes. The conclusions which could be drawn from this investigation were the following:

1. Persons incarcerated for violent crimes against family members had similarly low overall levels of self-esteem when compared to persons incarcerated for crimes not against family members. In addition, the similarities of the two prison groups were such that they differed on none of the individual self-concept subscale scores. Both prison populations had low self-concepts on all scores; and the three lowest scores on the total Tennessee Self-Concept Scale were overall level of self-esteem, moral-ethical self, and family self. Therefore, subjects incarcerated for any reason tend to have low self-concepts. Moreover, persons incarcerated for intrafamily violence do not possess self-concepts that are significantly lower than those of persons incarcerated for crimes not related to the family. In fact, both prison populations had strikingly similar TSCS scores. Therefore, a negative relationship between intrafamily violence and self-concept cannot be established. In other words, low self-concept does not appear to be significantly related to crimes involving family members.

2. The population of nonincarcerated persons had better overall levels of self-esteem when compared to the population of prisoners incarcerated for intrafamily violence. In addition, the nonincarcerated population possessed better self-concept subscale scores on moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self on the Tennessee

Self-Concept Scale when compared to the prisoners incarcerated for violent crimes against family members. Both the non-incarcerated population and the population of prisoners incarcerated for intrafamily violence had similar physical self and self-criticism subscale scores. Therefore, it is concluded that subjects incarcerated for family violence have lower self-concepts than subjects not incarcerated, but their self-concepts are no lower than those of all incarcerated people.

3. In relation to the prisoner population incarcerated for crimes not against family members, the nonincarcerated population had better overall levels of self-esteem on the Tennessee-Self Concept Scale. A significant trend was noted in the direction of better self-concept subscore scales for the nonincarcerated population compared to the prisoners incarcerated for nonfamily crimes on the moral-ethical, personal, family, and social subscales. On the physical self subscale both populations were comparable. However, prisoners incarcerated for crimes not against family members demonstrated a better self criticism subscore when compared to the nonincarcerated population.

#### Recommendations

It was mentioned at the outset of the present investigation that intrafamily violence is in need of more extensive research. Although the investigator of the present study

found that the number of persons incarcerated for crimes against family members constituted only a small percentage of the total number of persons incarcerated, the figure was still high enough to indicate the seriousness of the problem. Only by investigative efforts aimed directly at this population can a clearer understanding of the problem emerge. Although results of this study did not find self-concept to be a valid measurement for distinguishing prisoners incarcerated for family violence from all other prisoners, it does not rule out self-concept as an important aspect of family violence. Data produced by this study suggest areas for future research on the subject of self-concept and its relationship to intrafamily violence. A number of recommendations are made.

1. The current investigation demonstrated that the moral-ethical and family self subscale scores of both populations of prisoners formed the lowest points on the subscales of the TSCS. These data relate to Bieri and Lobeck's study (1961) which suggested that religion may be related to the development of moral-ethical behavior and the structure of relationships within the family. It is recommended that a study similar to the present investigation be carried out emphasizing the religious background or lack of it in the three population groups to see if religion is an important variable in intrafamily violence.

2. It was mentioned earlier that the counseling form of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was used because it proved to be efficacious in working with prisoners and more adaptable for discussing and interpreting results. However, the clinical and research form of the scale, which further analyzes the scores, may add new dimensions to the present investigation.

3. Regional differences may be a factor to consider in future research on intrafamily violence. Since the present investigation was carried out in Gaston County, North Carolina, a Southern textile manufacturing area, it is recommended that future studies using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale with populations incarcerated for crimes of family violence be carried out in other regions of the country. Thus, comparisons could be made to see if the results of this study would reveal significant regional differences.

4. The three populations of subjects in the present study were matched on certain demographic variables which yielded results indicating that the subjects fell into the lower socioeconomic classes. A future study may seek to identify persons involved in family violence in the middle or upper classes of the population and compare their self-concept scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale with those of other nonviolent middle-class or upper-class persons. It is further recommended that this kind of research be



carried out through the use of questionnaires, and interviews, since the populations referred to do not generally find themselves incarcerated for such offenses.

5. Studies utilizing questionnaires and interview procedures have determined that low self-concept may be a key factor operating in the precipitation of intrafamily violence. It is therefore recommended that Tennessee Self-Concept scores of nonincarcerated persons with low self-concept scores be compared with those of persons already incarcerated for violent crimes against family members to see whether or not the scores are comparable and, if not, in what areas they vary.

6. The present investigation confined itself to the study of men incarcerated in a county jail and a non-incarcerated male population. An additional study might investigate females incarcerated for intrafamily violence and contrast their TSCS scores with those of a socioeconomically matched female nonincarcerated sample. A further study could investigate a male/female group of prisoners jailed for violence against family members and compare their TSCS scores with those of a matched male/female nonincarcerated sample.

7. Previous reports suggest that a relationship exists between labeling prisoners as deviant and low self-concept. The present study showed that self-concept scores of both

prison populations were significantly lower than those of the nonincarcerated population. Therefore, it is recommended that a study be done with a group of nonincarcerated persons with low self concepts. These persons could be followed up over a period of time. If at a future date any were incarcerated, they could be retested to see if their self-concept scores had become even lower, thus demonstrating a possible relationship between labeling and the lowering of self-concept.

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APPENDIX A  
PRELIMINARY CORRESPONDENCE

*J. P. Stevens & Co. Inc.*

*Fine Fabrics  
Made in America  
Since 1889*



117

SYNTHETICS DIVISION  
GREENSBORO, NORTH CAROLINA

PLEASE REPLY TO:  
STANLEY PLANT  
STANLEY, N. C., 28164

AUGUST 5, 1976

MR. LAWRENCE GALANT  
533 DOWNEY PLACE  
GASTONIA, N. C. 28052

DEAR MR. GALANT:

I HAVE RECEIVED YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE THAT YOU PLAN ON USING IN YOUR RESEARCH ON FAMILY VIOLENCE AT THE J. P. STEVENS PLANT IN STANLEY, N. C. I AM VERY PLEASSED TO INFORM YOU THAT YOU MAY CONDUCT YOUR RESEARCH AND FEEL FROM OUR CONVERSATION THAT YOUR STUDY IS A VERY WORTHWHILE PURSUIT.

I WILL BE LOOKING FORWARD TO HEARING FROM YOU CONCERNING THIS MATTER. IF THERE IS ANYTHING ELSE I MAY BE ABLE TO DO FOR YOU WITH REGARD TO YOUR STUDY, PLEASE DO NOT HESITATE TO CONTACT ME.

SINCERELY,

*Charles A. Rhyne*

CHARLES. A. RHYNE  
MANAGER  
STANLEY PLANT



**JESCO** Knitwear Corporation  
HGY. 321 North Box 1104 Gastonia, N. C. 28052

August 9, 1976

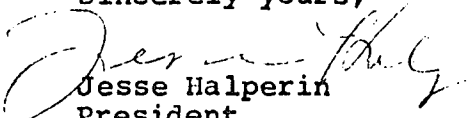
Larry Gallant  
533 Downey Place  
Gastonia, N.C. 28052

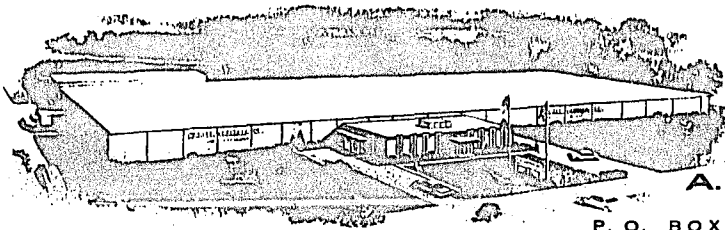
Dear Larry,

As discussed in our interview I have reviewed the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and approve of its use here at Jesco Knitwear. I have also reviewed your questionnaire and approved of it.

You are welcome to distribute your questionnaire at your convenience and if I can be of any further assistance please let me know.

Sincerely yours,

  
Jesse Halperin  
President



119

A. B. CARTER, INC.

P. O. BOX 518 · GASTONIA, NORTH CAROLINA 28052

TELEPHONE: 704/865-1201 · TELEX 57-2314 · CABLE CODE: MEDICO

E. HAINES GREGG, PRESIDENT & TREASURER  
J. BYNUM CARTER, EXECUTIVE VICE PRESIDENT  
ROY HIGGINBOTHAM, JR., SECRETARY  
OTIS L. PEACH, DIRECTOR


September 6, 1976

FELLOW EMPLOYEES:

We have been asked by Professor Larry Galant to participate in a research project he is currently conducting. Professor Galant, a psychology professor at Gaston College, is currently working on his Phd. degree. His dissertation is Family Violence and its Relationship to Self Concept. Professor Galant hopes to uncover data as to why certain acts of violence are performed by people who are convicted of violent acts of a determined age, sex, race, educational background, etc. This in no way implies or suggests that you are involved in violence of any kind. Mr. Galant is trying to match some of the employees at A. B. Carter on the questionnaire with those individuals who commit family violence.

The questionnaire is attached to the back of this letter, and if you wish to participate, please fill it out and return it to your supervisor. If you are selected by Professor Galant you will be given a very simple fifteen minute test in our Conference Room.

Let me emphasize this is purely voluntary and no names or identifying information is passed out in any way. Thank you for your time and consideration. If there are any questions concerning this, contact your supervisor or Tom Kirksey.

  
E. H. Gregg  
President

APPENDIX B  
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRES

Prisoner groups Questionnaire

Questionnaire: Please put an "X" in the space beside the correct choice.

How old are you?

1	
1	18-22 years
2	23-27 years
3	28-32 years
4	33 or over

What race are you?

2	
1	Black
2	White
3	Other

What sex are you?

3	
1	Male
2	Female

Please circle the last grade in school you completed:

4/5	:	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	16+
-----	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	-----

Please answer the following questions about yourself as they applied before you committed the offense you were charged with:

What was your employment status?

6	
1	Employed full time
2	Employed part time only
3	Not employed then

About how much did you earn each week?

7	
1	\$0-100
2	\$101-150
3	\$151-200
4	\$201-300
5	\$301 and up

Please state briefly what your job, if any, was.

8	
---	--

Which one of these described you?

9	
1	Single (never married)
2	Married (living with mate)
3	Separated from mate
4	Divorced
5	Mate not living then

How many family members lived in your house (including yourself)?

10	
1	1-2 people
2	3-4 people
3	5-6 people
4	7-8 people
5	9 or more people

How many weapons did you own?

11	
1	No guns owned
2	1 or 2 guns owned
3	3 or more guns owned

12, 13, 14	
------------	--

Thank you very much for your help and for giving the correct responses.

Non-incarcerated population control group Questionnaire

Questionnaire: Please put an "X" in the space beside the correct choice.

How old are you?

1	
1	18-22 years
2	23-27 years
3	28-32 years
4	33 or over

What race are you?

2	
1	Black
2	White
3	Other

Which one of these describes you?

3	
1	Single (never married)
2	Married (living with mate)
3	Separated from mate
4	Divorced
5	Mate no longer living

What sex are you?

4	
1	Male
2	Female

How many family members, including yourself, live in your house?

5	
1	1-2 people
2	3-4 people
3	5-6 people
4	7-8 people
5	9 or more people

Work:

6	
1	Employed full time
2	Employed part-time only
3	Not employed right now

About how much do you earn each week?

7	
1	\$0-100
2	\$101-150
3	\$151-200
4	\$201-300
5	\$301 and up

Ownership of weapons:

8	
1	No guns owned
2	1 or 2 guns owned
3	3 or more guns owned

Please circle the last grade in school you completed:

[9/10]: 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 16+

Present work: Please state briefly your occupation.

11	
_____	
12, 13, 14	

Thank you very much for giving the correct responses to this questionnaire.

APPENDIX C  
TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT ANSWER, SCALE,  
AND PROFILE SHEETS

TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

ANSWER SHEET

ITEM NO.	PAGES 1 AND 6	ITEM NO.	PAGES 3 AND 4	ITEM NO.	PAGES 1 AND 2
13	1 2 3 4 5	7	1 2 3 4 5	1	1 2 3 4 5
14	1 2 3 4 5	8	1 2 3 4 5	2	1 2 3 4 5
15	1 2 3 4 5	9	1 2 3 4 5	3	1 2 3 4 5
16	1 2 3 4 5	10	1 2 3 4 5	4	1 2 3 4 5
17	1 2 3 4 5	11	1 2 3 4 5	5	1 2 3 4 5
18	1 2 3 4 5	12	1 2 3 4 5	6	1 2 3 4 5
31	1 2 3 4 5	25	1 2 3 4 5	19	1 2 3 4 5
32	1 2 3 4 5	26	1 2 3 4 5	20	1 2 3 4 5
33	1 2 3 4 5	27	1 2 3 4 5	21	1 2 3 4 5
34	1 2 3 4 5	28	1 2 3 4 5	22	1 2 3 4 5
35	1 2 3 4 5	29	1 2 3 4 5	23	1 2 3 4 5
36	1 2 3 4 5	30	1 2 3 4 5	24	1 2 3 4 5
49	1 2 3 4 5	43	1 2 3 4 5	37	1 2 3 4 5
50	1 2 3 4 5	44	1 2 3 4 5	38	1 2 3 4 5
51	1 2 3 4 5	45	1 2 3 4 5	39	1 2 3 4 5
52	1 2 3 4 5	46	1 2 3 4 5	40	1 2 3 4 5
53	1 2 3 4 5	47	1 2 3 4 5	41	1 2 3 4 5
54	1 2 3 4 5	48	1 2 3 4 5	42	1 2 3 4 5
67	1 2 3 4 5	61	1 2 3 4 5	55	1 2 3 4 5
68	1 2 3 4 5	62	1 2 3 4 5	56	1 2 3 4 5
69	1 2 3 4 5	63	1 2 3 4 5	57	1 2 3 4 5
70	1 2 3 4 5	64	1 2 3 4 5	58	1 2 3 4 5
71	1 2 3 4 5	65	1 2 3 4 5	59	1 2 3 4 5
72	1 2 3 4 5	66	1 2 3 4 5	60	1 2 3 4 5
85	1 2 3 4 5	79	1 2 3 4 5	73	1 2 3 4 5
86	1 2 3 4 5	80	1 2 3 4 5	74	1 2 3 4 5
87	1 2 3 4 5	81	1 2 3 4 5	75	1 2 3 4 5
88	1 2 3 4 5	82	1 2 3 4 5	76	1 2 3 4 5
89	1 2 3 4 5	83	1 2 3 4 5	77	1 2 3 4 5
90	1 2 3 4 5	84	1 2 3 4 5	78	1 2 3 4 5
99	1 2 3 4 5	95	1 2 3 4 5	91	1 2 3 4 5
100	1 2 3 4 5	96	1 2 3 4 5	92	1 2 3 4 5
		97	1 2 3 4 5	93	1 2 3 4 5
		98	1 2 3 4 5	94	1 2 3 4 5



**SCORE SHEET**

Counseling Form  
Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

NAME _____	SCHOOL GRADE _____	SEX _____	PAGE _____	DATE _____	TIME STARTED _____	TIME FINISHED _____	TOTAL TIME _____
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**HOW THE INDIVIDUAL PERCEIVES HIMSELF**

IN TERMS OF:	COLUMN A PHYSICAL SELF						COLUMN B MORAL-ETHICAL SELF						COLUMN C PERSONAL SELF						COLUMN D FAMILY SELF						COLUMN E SOCIAL SELF						SELF CRITICISM				ROW TOTALS									
ROW 1.	P-1	P-2	P-3	N-4	N-5	N-6	P-19P-20P-21	N-22N-23N-24	P-27P-28P-29	N-32N-33N-34	P-37P-38P-39	N-42N-43N-44	P-55P-56P-57	N-60N-61N-62	P-73P-74P-75	N-78N-79N-80	P-91	P-92	P-93	P-94					VAPA B.L.T. Range of Col Scores																			
IDENTITY WHAT HE IS	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1		
	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2		
	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3								
	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4		
	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5		
	P _____						P _____						P _____						P _____																									
ROW 2.	P-7	P-8	P-9	N-10	N-11	N-12	P-25P-26P-27	N-28N-29N-30	P-43P-44P-45	N-48N-49N-50	P-61P-62P-63	N-66N-67N-68	P-85P-86P-87	N-90N-91N-92	P-95	P-96	P-97	P-98					95 96 97 98																					
SELF SATIS- FACTION HOW HE ACCEPTS HIMSELF	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1		
	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2		
	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3								
	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4		
	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5		
	P _____						P _____						P _____						P _____																									
ROW 3.	P-13	P-14	P-15	N-16	N-17	N-18	P-31P-32P-33	N-36N-37N-38	P-49P-50P-51	N-54N-55N-56	P-67P-68P-69	N-72N-73N-74	P-85P-86P-87	N-90N-91N-92	P-99	100					99 100																							
BEHAVIOR HOW HE ACTS	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1		
	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2		
	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3								
	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	4	4		
	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	1	5	5	5		
	P _____						P _____						P _____						P _____																									
COLUMN TOTALS	Σ P _____						Σ P _____						Σ P _____						Σ P _____				Total Form Σ P		Row Tot																			
	V. (Range of Score)																						Col Tot. V →		Total																			

**DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES**

NUMBER OF 55 45 35 25 15

TOTALS  $\frac{x_2}{x_1} + \frac{x_1}{x_2} = 100$   
 $D = \frac{x_2}{x_1} + \frac{x_1}{x_2} =$

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COUNSELOR RECORDINGS AND TESTS  
BOX 6184 ACKLEN STA  
NASHVILLE, TENN 37212



Tennessee Self Concept Scale

PROFILE SHEET

Counseling Form

NAME		SEX	GRADE	AGE	ROW	DATE	TIME STARTED	TIME FINISHED	TOTAL TIME			
T SCORE	PERCENTILE SCORES	SELF CRITICISM	POSITIVE SCORES (SELF ESTEEM)					VARIABILITY			D	T SCORE
			TOTAL	ROW 1	ROW 2	ROW 3	COL. A	COL. B	COL. C	COL. D		

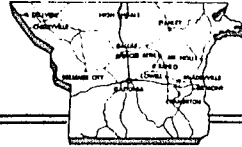
PUBLISHED BY:

WILLIAM H. WITTS 1966

COUNSELOR RECORDS AND TESTS  
DOE BLDG. ACKLEN STA  
NASHVILLE, TENN 37212

APPENDIX D  
CORRESPONDENCE FROM SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT

# GASTON COUNTY



128

SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT  
CHARLES L. WALDREP  
SHERIFF

P. O. BOX 1578  
PHONE DAY 865-6411 - NIGHT 865-8581  
GASTONIA, N. C. 28052

July 28, 1976

Mr. Lawrence Galant  
533 Downey Place  
Gastonia, N.C. 28052

Dear Mr. Galant:

It will be a pleasure to assist you in any way possible in your research with the inmates of this institution. I feel that it will be beneficial to the Criminal Justice System in general to have the knowledge that will be gained by your administering a self concept scale to those who have allegedly committed family violence.

To my knowledge, no research has every been attempted in this area. However, the co-operation must be voluntarily given by those who are to be tested and I would request you to sign a wavier for your personal safety and not holding Gaston County, Gaston County Sheriff's Department, myself as Sheriff, or any other legal claim that, although remote, could possibly occur while doing this research.

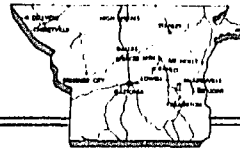
Sincerely,

Sheriff of Gaston County

  
C.L. Waldrep

CLW:ab

# GASTON COUNTY



129

**SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT**  
CHARLES L. WALDREP  
SHERIFF

P. O. BOX 1578  
PHONE DAY 865-6411 - NIGHT 865-8581

GASTONIA, N. C. 28052

September 9, 1976

Dr. Nancy White  
Department of Home Economics  
University of North Carolina  
Greensboro, N.C.

Dear Dr. White,

This letter is being written in order to certify that Mr. Lawrence Galant has conducted research at The Gaston County Jail from August 9, 1976 to September 8, 1976 with inmates who have been arrested and convicted of crimes related to the family and crimes related to non-family. I have supervised Mr. Galant in this endeavor, watching him administer both a questionnaire and The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale to inmates whose crimes involved family violence. I have also participated in helping Mr. Galant distribute questionnaires to all other inmates who have not been involved with family related violence in order to match a group of 30 of these inmates on the questionnaire, with 30 inmates who had committed family related offenses. As this was being accomplished, Mr. Galant preceeded to test the group of non-family prisoner who matched the family violent group, (who had already been tested), on the questionnaire, using again The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. In total Mr. Galant tested 60 prisoners.

I was very pleased to aid Lawrence, in his study and I certainly hope that the results will prove to be beneficial in helping us here at the jail to better understand individuals who commit family related violence.

Sincerely Yours,

Lt. Sam Lockridge  
Chief of Detention  
Gaston County Jail  
Gastonia, N.C.

SL:ab

APPENDIX E  
TABLES OF CRIME CATEGORIES

## TABLES OF CRIME CATEGORIES

## Family Violent Prisoners

<u>Numbers of Incarcerated Prisoners</u>	<u>Crime Category</u>
14	Assault on Spouse
5	Assault on Son or Daughter
4	Assault on Brother
3	Murdered Spouse
3	Assault on a Parent
1	Assault on a Grandparent

## Prisoner Control Group

<u>Numbers of Incarcerated Persons</u>	<u>Crime Category</u>
17	Breaking and Entering (Larceny)
6	Armed Robbery
4	Possession of Stolen Goods
2	Theft of Automobile
1	Destruction of Property

APPENDIX F  
MATCHED TABLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS  
FOR THREE POPULATION GROUPS

MATCHED TABLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS FOR THREE POPULATION GROUPS

<u>Demographic Variables</u>	<u>Demographic Information</u>	<u>Family Violent Prison Population (N=30)</u>	<u>Non-Family Crime Population (N=30)</u>	<u>Non-Incarcerated Population (N=30)</u>
Age	18-22 years	8	8	8
	23-27 years	5	5	5
	28-32 years	5	5	5
	33 and older	<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Race	White	25	25	25
	Black	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Sex	Male	30	30	30
	Female	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Education	7-9 Grade	6	6	6
	10	6	6	6
	11	9	9	9
	12	<u>9</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>9</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Employment Status	Full-time	30	30	30
	Part-time	0	0	0
	Unemployed	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
	Total	30	30	30



MATCHED TABLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS FOR THREE POPULATION GROUPS (cont.)

<u>Demographic Variables</u>	<u>Demographic Information</u>	<u>Family Violent Prison Population (N=30)</u>	<u>Non-Family Crime Population (N=30)</u>	<u>Non-Incarcerated Population (N=30)</u>
Income	0-100	2	2	2
	101-150	18	18	18
	151-200	<u>10</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>10</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Occupational Status	0-25	23	23	23
	26-50	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Marital Status	Single	8	8	8
	Married	14	14	14
	Separated	5	5	5
	Divorced	2	2	2
	Spouse Deceased	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Number of Family Members Residing in Same Household	1-2	9	9	9
	3-4	14	14	14
	5-6	6	6	6
	7-8	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
	Total	30	30	30
Number of Guns Owned	0	21	21	21
	1-2	7	7	7
	3 or more	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>
	Total	30	30	30

APPENDIX G  
TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE

**COUNSELOR RECORDINGS AND TESTS**

Box 6184 o Acklen Station  
Nashville, Tennessee 37212

November 15, 1976

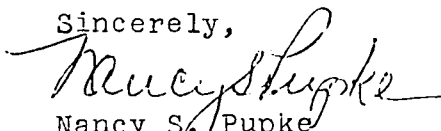
Lawrence Galant  
Gaston College  
New Dallas Highway  
Dallas, North Carolina 28034

Dear Mr. Galant:

You have the permission of the publisher to reproduce one copy of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale in the body or the Appendix of your written research study.

We would appreciate receiving an abstract of your study upon its completion. Thank you.

Sincerely,



Nancy S. Pupke  
Executive Secretary

TENNESSEE  
SELF CONCEPT SCALE

by

William H. Fitts, PhD.

Published by

Counselor Recordings and Tests

Box 6184 - Acklen Station

Nashville, Tennessee 37212

## INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes. You will fill these boxes in later. Write only on the answer sheet. Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. Do not omit any item! Read each statement carefully, then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a circle around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an X mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked time started and record the time. When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked time finished.

As you start, be sure that your answer sheet and this booklet are lined up evenly so that the item numbers match each other.

Remember, put a circle around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

You will find these response numbers repeated at the bottom of each page to help you remember them.

						Item No.
1. I have a healthy body.....						1
3. I am an attractive person.....						3
5. I consider myself a sloppy person.....						5
19. I am a decent sort of person.....						19
21. I am an honest person.....						21
23. I am a bad person.....						23
37. I am a cheerful person.....						37
39. I am a calm and easy going person.....						39
41. I am a nobody.....						41
55. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble.....						55
57. I am a member of a happy family.....						57
59. My friends have no confidence in me.....						59
73. I am a friendly person.....						73
75. I am popular with men.....						75
77. I am not interested in what other people do.....						77
91. I do not always tell the truth.....						91
93. I get angry sometimes.....						93
Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true	
	1	2	3	4	5	

	Item No.
2. I like to look nice and neat all the time.....	2
4. I am full of aches and pains.....	4
6. I am a sick person.....	6
20. I am a religious person.....	20
22. I am a moral failure.....	22
24. I am a morally weak person.....	24
38. I have a lot of self-control.....	38
40. I am a hateful person.....	40
42. I am losing my mind.....	42
56. I am an important person to my friends and family.....	56
58. I am not loved by my family.....	58
60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me.....	60
74. I am popular with women.....	74
76. I am mad at the whole world.....	76
78. I am hard to be friendly with.....	78
92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.....	92
94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross.....	94

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
7. I am neither too fat nor too thin.....	7
9. I like my looks just the way they are.....	9
11. I would like to change some parts of my body.....	11
25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior.....	25
27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God.....	27
29. I ought to go to church more.....	29
43. I am satisfied to be just what I am.....	43
45. I am just as nice as I should be.....	45
47. I despise myself.....	47
61. I am satisfied with my family relationships.....	61
63. I understand my family as well as I should.....	63
65. I should trust my family more.....	65
79. I am as sociable as I want to be.....	79
81. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it.....	81
83. I am no good at all from a social standpoint.....	83
95. I do not like everyone I know.....	95
97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke.....	97

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5



	Item No.
8. I am neither too tall nor too short.....	8
10. I don't feel as well as I should.....	10
12. I should have more sex appeal.....	12
26. I am as religious as I want to be.....	26
28. I wish I could be more trustworthy.....	28
30. I shouldn't tell so many lies.....	30
44. I am as smart as I want to be.....	44
46. I am not the person I would like to be.....	46
48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do.....	48
62. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living).....	62
64. I am too sensitive to things my family say.....	64
66. I should love my family more.....	66
80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people.....	80
82. I should be more polite to others.....	82
84. I ought to get along better with other people.....	84
96. I gossip a little at times.....	96
98. At times I feel like swearing.....	98

Responses -	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
13. I take good care of myself physically.....	13
15. I try to be careful about my appearance.....	15
17. I often act like I am "all thumbs".....	17
31. I am true to my religion in my everyday life.....	31
33. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong.....	33
35. I sometimes do very bad things.....	35
49. I can always take care of myself in any situation.....	49
51. I take the blame for things without getting mad.....	51
53. I do things without thinking about them first.....	53
67. I try to play fair with my friends and family.....	67
69. I take a real interest in my family.....	69
71. I give in to my parents. (Use past tense if parents are not living).....	71
85. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view.....	85
87. I get along well with other people.....	87
89. I do not forgive others easily.....	89
99. I would rather win than lose in a game.....	99

Responses -	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

	Item No.
14. I feel good most of the time .....	14
16. I do poorly in sports and games .....	16
18. I am a poor sleeper .....	18
32. I do what is right most of the time .....	32
34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead .....	34
36. I have trouble doing the things that are right .....	36
50. I solve my problems quite easily .....	50
52. I change my mind a lot .....	52
54. I try to run away from my problems .....	54
68. I do my share of work at home .....	68
70. I quarrel with my family .....	70
72. I do not act like my family thinks I should .....	72
86. I see good points in all the people I meet .....	86
88. I do not feel at ease with other people .....	88
90. I find it hard to talk with strangers .....	90
100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today .....	100

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5