



A comparison of adolescent perceptions of parent-child relationships between delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents
by William Duane Haidle

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
Montana State University
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Abstract:

This study dealt with the perceptions of adolescents concerning the parent-child relationship. It was designed to determine differences in these perceptions between non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents. The study was centered around four specific areas, how the adolescent perceived his relationship with his parents, how the adolescent perceived his relationship in the family, how the adolescent perceived his home, and how the adolescent perceived himself.

The review of literature revealed that authorities on adolescent behavior agree that delinquent behavior is learned. Much of this learning of delinquent behavior is a result of failure in the home to provide the necessary normal, growing experiences and support the adolescent needs.

The results of the study indicated that there is a difference in the way non-delinquents and delinquents perceive their parents, family, home, and themselves.

Some of the major conclusions reached are that: (1) parents have a great influence upon the development of their children; (2) parents tend to react to their children rather than listen to the real need the child is trying to express.

Some recommendations offered are: (1) that this study be replicated; (2) differences in male and female responses be investigated; and (3) that a class should be designed for parents of adolescents which would help them understand the needs of the adolescent.

Children now love luxury, they have bad manners, contempt for authority. They show disrespect for elders, and love chatter in place of exercise. Children are now tyrants, not servants of their households.

Above written by Socrates
approximately 2500 years ago

I see no hope for the future of our people if they are dependent on the frivolous youth of today, for certainly all youth are reckless beyond words When I was a boy we were taught to be discreet and respectful of elders, but the present youth are exceedingly wise and impatient of restraint.

Hesiod: Eighth Century B.C.

A COMPARISON OF ADOLESCENT PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT-CHILD
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DELINQUENT ADOLESCENTS

by

WILLIAM DUANE HAIDLE

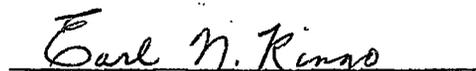
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ABSTRACT

This study dealt with the perceptions of adolescents concerning the parent-child relationship. It was designed to determine differences in these perceptions between non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents. The study was centered around four specific areas, how the adolescent perceived his relationship with his parents, how the adolescent perceived his relationship in the family, how the adolescent perceived his home, and how the adolescent perceived himself.

The review of literature revealed that authorities on adolescent behavior agree that delinquent behavior is learned. Much of this learning of delinquent behavior is a result of failure in the home to provide the necessary normal, growing experiences and support the adolescent needs.

The results of the study indicated that there is a difference in the way non-delinquents and delinquents perceive their parents, family, home, and themselves.

Some of the major conclusions reached are that: (1) parents have a great influence upon the development of their children; (2) parents tend to react to their children rather than listen to the real need the child is trying to express.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Dr. Haim Ginott, in his book "Between Parent and Teenager," had this to say about parent-child relationships:

As adults our responsibility is to set standards and demonstrate values. Our teenagers need to know what we respect and what we expect. Of course, they will oppose our standards, resist our rules, and test our limits. This is as it should be. No one can mature by blindly obeying his parents. Our teenagers' resentment of the rules is anticipated and tolerated. They are not expected to like our prohibitions (1969:150).

The above statement indicates that a conflict between parent and teenager not only exists, but is to be expected. The abundance of literature dealing with the problems of adolescence and the number of books on "how to raise your children" verifies that this problem is widespread and is of major concern to parents, professionals, and teenagers themselves.

Depending upon the viewpoint of the author, the blame for the problem in parent-child relationships is placed upon: parental behavior, community characteristics, interactions with peers, teacher-child interactions, socioeconomic status indices, relations with siblings, and violence on television. While this is not intended to be an exhaustive list, it does indicate that factors from various areas of our life experiences are being postulated as the genesis of behavior in the adolescent which eventuates in a breakdown of the relationship between the parent and the teenager.

It is hard for parents to accept the fact that this "adolescent," who up to this point in time has been so dependent upon them, begins to indicate through words, actions, and deeds that the relationship is too confining, and that he (the adolescent) has some thoughts, feelings, and emotions of his own. Marin and Cohen said that "we as parents do not see our young people very accurately (1971:3)." Instead, we fantasize about our teenagers, projecting onto them our own dreams, phobias, and needs. Commenting about programs we have devised for our young people, Marin and Cohen said:

We watch them at home and in the classroom, they sit still for most of it and go through the appropriate motions, and we are sometimes convinced that we understand them, that we know what they need. But when we put our programs into effect they fail, they alienate the young, and we cannot understand why--for we cannot understand that out of sight and among themselves they become something altogether different from what we see: beautiful strangers, at once far more intelligent and passionate and distressed than we had imagined them to be (1971:3).

It is even more difficult for us as parents to accept the fact that the period of adolescence is a period of searching for a personal identity, and a time of seeking an answer to the question, "Who am I (Ginott, 1969:26)?" While the adolescent may be uncertain of who he is, or what he wishes to be, there is a definite feeling of "what he does not want to be." To the parents, it might seem that they are setting a good example. They have expressed strong feelings about having their child take over the family business, follow in their footsteps, or even be more successful than they have been. Engrossed in their own

dreams and expectations, the parents are unaware that their adolescent may see their lives as pointless, harried, and intolerable. Perceiving his parents in this manner, the adolescent may determine to be as unlike his parents as possible (Ginott, 1969:26; Marin & Cohen, 1971:18).

Concerning the purpose of adolescence, Dr. Ginott said:

The purpose of adolescence is to loosen personality. His personality is undergoing the required changes: From organization (childhood) through disorganization (adolescence) to reorganization (adulthood). Adolescence is a period of curative madness, in which every teenager has to remake his personality. He has to free himself from childhood ties with parents, establish new identification with peers, and find his own identity (1969:25).

Although the preceding statement offers little comfort to the harried parent, it does clarify some of the psychological trauma involved in the adolescent years.

The immediate question that is brought to attention by the previous comments is, "Why do some adolescents become delinquent while others are able to function in a socially acceptable manner?" The obvious reply to such a question is, "There are many factors which influence the adolescent's ability to cope with these problems." While sociological, hereditary, economic, and psychological factors could and do have an influence on the adjustment of the adolescent, it is the purpose of this researcher to investigate the impact of the parent-child relationship upon the ability of the adolescent to cope with this adjustment period.

While being interviewed by the U. S. News and World Report

magazine, Dr. Aaron Beck made the statement that one of the major problems a child has to cope with in early life is "the immediate family group--how to deal with any harmful elements that might be present, such as hostile parents or overly competitive brothers and sisters (Sept. 1973:48)."

To further complicate the adjustment process of the adolescent, our present society requires that a man be able to change jobs in order to take advantage of better opportunities. The result of this mobility is the breakdown of the influence of the extended family (Bricklin & Bricklin, 1970:4). Thus, if the adolescent lives in a family that does not give the necessary psychological support and fails to furnish him with "significant others" to emulate, there is no extended family to which he can turn. He is forced to search for his identify and acceptance among other adolescents.

The importance of having a person or a place through which the adolescent can test or measure himself was expressed by Marin and Cohen when they said:

Much of what the young seek from one another has traditionally been found in large and extended families and tribes: among cousins and generations and crowded households, lodges, and clans. At best the self is shaped and made resonant in childhood, then expanded and expressed among comrades in the community. Real coherence and integration of personality depend upon the quality of the household and familial relations: their warmth, depth, honesty, and liveliness. To make use of the world, one must be resilient and sound, grounded in loving relations. The family's principal gift to the young is neither discipline nor morality, but a sense of self developed through rich connections to whole persons. In that sense the ideal family is a natural mandala,

the wedding of polarities and tendencies, and the young find there--symbolized by parents and relatives--the integration of the disparate elements they feel in themselves: a blending, a correspondence. It is that sense of rich wholeness and one's place in it that turns, in later life, into the way one sees the world (1971:16).

The adolescent responds to himself in the same way he perceives others responding to him. If he sees himself as not being worth much to others, friends and/or family, his self-esteem dissipates and becomes a road block to personal happiness (Briggs, 1970:26). Briggs further suggested that more progress is snagged on interpersonal relationships than we realize.

Supporting the emphasis the authors cited have placed upon the influence of the family on the adolescent, Bricklin and Bricklin said, "The family is the most important social grouping humanity has so far produced (1970:4)."

The ideal home is seen as the proving ground for the adolescent. It is a place where it is safe to test himself and his ideas. A place where he is accepted and loved, and even more important, allowed to change. For the parents to allow this testing and change, and for the adolescent to feel secure enough in the home to attempt this change is an essential element of the family relationship. This type of relationship requires a significant amount of trust between parents and their children. Too often this normal process of testing and change in order to find himself is seen as a form of rebellion on the part of the adolescent, and parents tend to react rather than respond to the

attempts of the adolescent to find himself.

This rebellion, as it is perceived by the parents, is usually part of the searching process through which the adolescent must go. He may in essence be saying, "Can you still love me if I do this?" or the more poignant question, "Do you love me?" This can be the special need of an adolescent raised in a home in which he has felt insecure and uncertain whether his parents loved him. There is a distinct difference between being loved and feeling loved for the adolescent (Briggs, 1970: 61-117).

Another part of the searching process may be the adolescent who is searching for boundaries. He is seeking to know what he can do, and how far he can go. This can be especially important for the adolescent who has become confused by conflicting or non-existent standards or mores in society and the family.

To an increasing number of experts in the field of interpersonal relationships and family relationships, it is becoming more apparent that the child is conditioned by external factors to react in certain ways to certain stimuli. If we can learn how to teach our children to be more human and how to respond to others, rather than reacting to them, we may have taken an important step toward understanding the problem of delinquency.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This dissertation has investigated the perceptions of adolescents concerning their relationship with their parents. A comparison between the perceptions of delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents, and some of the causes of these differences, has been effected. It is hoped that this study clarified some of the problem areas in parent-child relationships and provided insight for dealing with these problems.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

The problem of the delinquent adolescent is not unique to our twentieth-century society. The ancient Hebrew author of the Mosaic law had this to say about rebellious children in the Holy Bible:

If a man have a stubborn and rebellious son, which will not obey the voice of his father, or the voice of his mother, and that, when they have chastened him, will not hearken unto them: then shall his father and his mother lay hold on him, and bring him out unto the elders of his city, and unto the gate of his place; and they shall say unto the elders of his city, this our son is stubborn and rebellious, he will not obey our voice; he is a glutton, and a drunkard. And all the men of his city shall stone him with stones, that he die (Deuteronomy, 21:18-21).

The people of that culture felt so strongly about their children that the writer of Proverbs said, "A foolish son is the calamity of his father (Proverbs, 19:13)."

The writer of Proverbs perhaps has shown some significant insight into the problem of delinquency when he indicated it was a

calamity of the father. There is abundant evidence from researchers in the field of delinquency which substantiates the Hebrew sage that the fault must be laid, at least in part, at the feet of the parents (Marin and Cohen, 1971:2; Young, 1965:2; Cole and Hall, 1965:430; Nixon, 1962:102; Duvall, 1966:192; Briggs, 1970:259; Hurlock, 1956:655; Bricklin and Bricklin, 1970:5-9).

In spite of the plethora of material available today, the problem of delinquency persists. A member of the Governor's Crime Control Commission in Montana, Mr. Steven Nelson, expressed the Commission's concern by saying, "Our probation officers are crying for material which would help them understand family causes in delinquency." Although we are able safely to land men on the moon today and bring them back, it seems our society has been hesitant to acknowledge the fact that being biologically able to raise children is not synonymous with having the emotional maturity and understanding to be good parents.

This study has attempted to define some of the problem areas that have been found by other researchers in the field.

It should be noted that a thorough search of the Dissertation Abstracts from 1968 through 1972 has revealed studies between mothers and sons, measuring of parental attitudes, and adolescent perceptions of parents, but no studies comparing the perceptions of delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents concerning their relationships with their parents. Investigation also revealed that no studies such as this had

been done in the state of Montana, using adolescents from Montana as subjects.

GENERAL QUESTIONS EXAMINED

Some questions considered in the study were:

1. How does the adolescent perceive the quality of his relationship with his parents?
2. Is there a difference in perceived parent-child relationships between delinquents and non-delinquents?
3. What change factors must be recognized as essential to creating a home atmosphere in which the adolescent can grow safely to maturity?
4. Does a poor parent-child relationship create confusion within the adolescent as to self-identity and self-worth?

Some questions considered in the review of literature have been:

1. What is a self-concept? Where does it come from?
2. Does the self-concept an adolescent has determine his choices and influence his decisions?
3. How does pathology in a child-parent relationship affect the adolescents' perception of himself?
4. Is adolescent rebellion against parents just a normal part of the growing-up process? If so, is the emotional degree of the

rebellion a measure of its' normality?

5. How does the absence of a significant other in the family affect the psychological development of the child?

GENERAL PROCEDURES

The procedures followed in this study were:

1. A working definition of what is a delinquent adolescent for the purposes of this study was established.
2. The researcher has conducted an extensive and thorough review of literature as it pertains to parent-child relationships, paying particular attention to those sections dealing with causes of delinquency. The author also researched data to determine what factors must be recognized and understood if changes are to be recommended in parent-child relationships.
3. Questionnaires were developed and submitted to both delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents to determine some of the problems often encountered in parent-child relationships.
4. Personal interviews were held with some of the adolescents to gain first-hand knowledge about their perceptions of their parents. To accomplish this, trips were made to:

Study group:

- (a) Montana Childrens Center at Twin Bridges, Montana
- (b) Mt. View Home at Helena, Montana (State Reform School for

girls)

- (c) Pine Hills School at Miles City, Montana (State Reform School for boys)

Control group:

- (a) Junior and senior high schools at Circle, Montana
- (b) Junior and senior high schools at Terry, Montana
- (c) Junior and senior high schools at Custer, Montana

4. Results of the study have been discussed and recommendations have been made which, it is hoped, will prove helpful to those working with adolescents and their problems.

LIMITATIONS

This study is limited in the following ways:

1. Less effort and time have been devoted to historical perspectives and theoretical background in delinquency in this thesis, since these areas are more than adequately discussed in other publications.

2. This is a theoretical study only. The actual implementation of the findings of the study have not been tested at this time.

3. No adolescents have been surveyed beyond the geographical boundaries of Montana. Only those adolescents who are presently attending one of the schools listed in either the control group or the study group were surveyed and interviewed.

4. Only 10 per cent of those surveyed by questionnaire were interviewed.

5. The majority of sources used in the development of this paper were from the Montana State University Library, a personal library that includes over fifty titles dealing with various aspects of psychology and interpersonal relationships, other libraries through inter-library loans, and extensive use of Dissertation Abstracts resources.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

For the purposes of this dissertation, certain terms have been considered in the following context:

Adolescence. The period of adolescence is defined by Hurlock as, ". . . from the time the child becomes sexually mature--about thirteen for girls and fourteen for boys--to legal maturity (1956: 28)." In the Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms, adolescence is defined as ". . . the transitional stage during which the youth is becoming an adult man or woman (English and English, 1958:14)."

Since adolescence is usually considered that period of time beginning with the onset of puberty up to the reaching of legal age, this researcher will be using the term to mean the years from twelve up to eighteen. This period of time coincides with the time most young

people are in the process of completing their junior and senior high school years, and thus are generally still dependent upon their parents for support and are less able to leave home even if they are dissatisfied.

Delinquent. As defined by the New York Joint Legislative Committee on Court Reorganization, in its draft of a Family Court Act, a delinquent is ". . . a person over seven and less than sixteen years of age who does any act which, if done by an adult would constitute a crime, and requires supervision, treatment or confinement (Wolfgang, Savitz, & Johnston, 1962:26)."

As defined in the Dictionary of Psychological Terms, it is "such behavior by a young person (usually under 16 or 18, depending on the state code) as to bring him to the attention of a court (English and English, 1958:143)."

Since the legal age in the state of Montana is eighteen at the present time, for the purpose of this research the age of eighteen will be considered adulthood.

Family. "The United States Census defines a family as two or more people who live together and who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption (Bricklin and Bricklin, 1970:3)."

Healthy child. The term healthy child is used to refer to the child who exhibits the natural innate characteristics of spontaneity, curiosity, creativity, and a striving for self-realization. The healthy child exhibits ". . . an awareness, a curiosity, a great love of life that thrills and delights him (Axline, 1947:12)."

SUMMARY

The question, "Why does one adolescent become delinquent while another adolescent seems to make the necessary adjustments and moves on into adulthood without getting into serious trouble?" is as pertinent to our society as it was to previous generations. Although there is much material available today on delinquency, it seems that there are many factors which influence the adolescents' adjustment which need more study.

It is the researcher's intent to survey sample populations of non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents to determine if there are differences in their perceptions of parents, family, home, and self-concepts.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this review of literature was to develop, through awareness of the findings of studies and writings on this subject, a better understanding of the dynamics involved in child-parent relationships and the effects of these dynamics upon the adolescent. In order to facilitate this understanding, the literature has been approached with the following questions in mind.

1. What is a self-concept and from where does it originate?
2. Does the self-concept an adolescent has determine his choices and influence his decisions?
3. How does pathology in a child-parent relationship affect the adolescent's perception of himself?
4. Is adolescent rebellion against parents just a normal part of the growing-up process? If so, is the emotional degree of the rebellion a measure of it's normality?
5. How does the absence of a significant other in the family affect the psychological development of the child?

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The Family of the Adolescent

The amount of literature available on adolescence indicates that much attention has been focused upon youth. Richard Poirier emphasized

this when he said, ". . . we are more hung up on youth than any nation on earth . . . (Klein, 1969:172-189)." He went on to say that along with our emphasis upon youth there is a determination among adults that our youth are not to enter adulthood without paying the price adults have placed upon this transition.

In fact, it may be that the adult view of adolescence as a transition period contributes to the problem of adolescence. Anna Freud (1958:255-276) took a negative view of adolescence and suggested that it was a period of stress and should be waited out. However, the time of adolescence is not a period conducive to waiting for either the parent or the adolescent. Changes, both physical and sociological in nature, demand that the adolescent move. This movement can be in either a positive or a negative direction. Duvall described the situation very graphically when she said:

You cannot build a wall around your children. They must forge forth to meet the world on its' own terms. Somehow, someday, they must learn to protect themselves from lifes' hazards without fear. At the same time, you, as a responsible adult, must prepare your child for life with all kinds of people (1966:18).

The immediate question that commands our attention is, "Are all parents responsible adults?" The obvious answer is no. While a person may have the physical maturity to become a parent, this person may not have the emotional maturity to provide a home atmosphere conducive to both physical and mental growth. Outside of a few courses offered in the colleges, there are few programs to help the prospective parent

achieve the level of mental maturity needed to be a responsible parent. Briggs (1970:xiii) called this "an unfortunate oversight in our culture." She pointed out that vast sums are spent to teach academic or vocational skills, but the nurturing care of our greatest resource, children, is left to chance. The investment of time and money in training programs for parents could possibly be one of the greatest deterrents to juvenile delinquency. This is especially true when the cause of delinquency is attributed to a learning process. Wolfgang, Savitz, and Johnston said:

In attempting to uncover the roots of juvenile delinquency, the social scientist has long since ceased to search for devils in the mind or stigma in the body. It is now largely agreed that delinquent behavior, like most social behavior, is learned and that it is learned in the process of social interaction (1970:292).

If behavior is learned, it would seem that a logical solution to the problem would be to train parents to be better parents. This is not to suggest that this researcher is advocating the entire problem of juvenile delinquency can be resolved through this type of action. It is simply saying that if the child-parent relationship can be improved the natural consequence will be a more compatible and understanding relationship in which the adolescent would feel more free to seek advice and help from the parent.

Bandura and Walters (1959:4) emphasized that while sociological factors such as poor housing, inadequate recreational facilities, and low standards of living can contribute to the learning of anti-social

behavior, they only provide conditions under which anti-social behavior can grow. The problem as they saw it stemmed from the parents' inability to establish close personal relations with other people. Another finding reported in this study was that parents of aggressive boys showed less warmth toward and less acceptance of each other than did the parents of the boys in the control group.

In a study of adolescents who had left their homes, conducted by Morse (1965:212), the finding that emerged most often was that there had been a breakdown of family relationships. Happy child-parent relationships were the exception rather than the rule. The breakdown of the family relationship can be the cause of difficulty for the adolescent in establishing a relationship with desirable peer groups. Strang (1957:363) reported findings from her study that indicated a positive relationship between the home atmosphere and the type of peer group or street gang the adolescent joined. Continual arguing and disagreement between the parents and between the parents and their children, along with suspicion and fault-finding, creates a situation in which it is difficult for the adolescent to find himself.

The conflict between parents can be amplified through the presence of an adolescent. The parent who is physically an adult but emotionally a child often sees the adolescent as a source of competition or a threat rather than someone to be loved and nurtured. Theodore Lidz said that in such families a father could be sexually attracted to

his daughter and flee into an extramarital affair. The mother could see her daughter as a competitor and try to demonstrate her greater attractiveness to young men (Caplan and Lebovici, 1969:109). The effect of this immature behavior upon the adolescent is negative (Bricklin and Bricklin, 1970:25). The fact that children are quick to note the faults of adults is noted by Strong (1957:376). Yablonsky said:

Today's violent delinquent is a displaced person--suspicious, fearful, not willing or able to establish a concrete human relationship. The formation of the violent gang, with its impermanence, its' possibilities for hollow glory, its' limited expectations of any responsibility on the part of its' members, is all inviting to youths who have difficulty fitting into a more integrated and clearly defined world (1962:4).

The effects of pathology in the parent-child relationship are noted by Duvall when she said her studies had revealed, "School dropouts often come from unhappy families that give them little support or encouragement (1966:65)." The child needs a place where it is safe to test himself, especially during the time of adolescence when changes both physical and psychological in nature are demanding to be acknowledged and tried. The safety and warmth of the atmosphere of the home is crucial to the emotional growth of the adolescent.

Finch, Pognanski, and Waggoner (1971:22) emphasized the effect of the home atmosphere upon the adolescent suicides. They said, "It is not unusual to find the suicide attempt triggered by a parental remark of 'drop dead,' or 'you're a pain to have around.'" The adolescent's perceptions of not being wanted is confirmed by the parental remark. Other findings of this study indicated that, ". . . suicidal

teenagers came from families characterized by disorganization, parental disharmony, cruelty, abandonment, dependency, and delinquency."

More specific evidence of the effects of poor interfamily relationships is reported by Margolin and Teichner (1968:296-315) in their study of adolescent suicide attempts. The findings of this study indicated that the mothers in the cases investigated were described as, "angry, depressed, and withdrawn." The mothers were preoccupied with their own depression and pushed their sons into the role of the husband. The fathers, in these cases, were found to be " . . . weak, rejecting, or absent." The results of this study are supported by the findings of Bigras, Ganthier, Bouchard, and Tasse (1966:275-282), who found that the mothers of adolescent girls who attempted suicide were described as " . . . cold, rejecting, and rigid." The father was found to be " . . . passive, weak, rejecting, or absent."

When the child perceives either or both of his parents as being cold and rejecting, this creates feelings of alienation and insecurity in the child. Bandura and Walter (1959:85) reported that, "Much of a child's dependency has as its major goal the eliciting of affection from his parents." When this need for affection is spurned by the parents, the child can interpret this as meaning that it is inappropriate to need or expect affection.

The stability of the marital relationship of the parents contributes in either a positive or a negative sense to the adolescent's

perception of his place or role in the home. Blaine (1966:15) said, ". . . the threat of separation or divorce can be the cause of a powerful unconscious fear that he (child) will be deserted or abandoned by one or both parents." The emotional impact resulting from this feeling of uncertainty is an important factor in the conduct of the child. Ginnott emphasized that the ". . . personality of the child is colored by the emotional atmosphere of his home (1965:193)."

In some cases, a marriage is perpetuated on the premise that breaking up the home will be too emotionally traumatic for the children to endure. Evidence presented by Remmers and Radler (1957:98) indicates that such a premise may be false. When incompatible parents stay together "for the sake of the child," the emotional tension in the home is often reflected in the child's behavior. Kaplan and Pokorny (1971: 328-337) reported data indicating that broken homes are not necessarily related to self-derogation. The cause was found to be in the characteristics of the broken home.

Some of the characteristics of the broken home which were seen as contributing to pathology in the broken home were reported by Hetherington (1973:46-52). Her study revealed that in the broken homes included in her survey the mothers were ". . . overprotective and solicitous of their preadolescent daughters." The study also indicated that the absence of the father in the home was a factor in the type of relationship the girl established with males. Girls from broken homes

more often tended toward a flirtatious or seductive type of relationship.

In their study of adolescent aggression, Bandura and Walter (1959:69) found that, "In some instances, the parents of the aggressive boys rejected the boy because he possessed characteristics that they were unable to accept in themselves." In contrast, the control group in the Bandura and Walter (1959:81) study gave very few indications of being rejected. Control fathers in this study were found to have spent more time with their sons and the relationship with their sons was open and friendly. The evidence would seem to support the premise that children have a strong need to be loved and wanted. In spite of the rejection of parents, for whatever cause, adolescents generally do not express feelings of hatred towards their parents. Offer (1969:57) found that teenagers did not feel that their parents' judgment of them was harsh. Even though they are rejected by their parents, or perceive their parents as rejecting them, they are hesitant to pass a harsh judgment upon their parents. This does not mean to imply that the adolescent will not enter into delinquent behavior because he is hesitant to judge his parents. Delinquent behavior, in many cases, is a desperate attempt to draw the parents' attention. Even a negative form of attention is better than being ignored. In such children, attention, even in negative form, becomes a substitute for affection.

Communication within the home between members of the family is

a contributing factor to the feelings of rejection and alienation. Much of the communication comes in a non-verbal form, especially when there is little effective communication between family members. Sabbath (1969:272-289) coined the term the expendable child to describe the situation when parents have non-verbally communicated that the child is a burden and they wish he really had not been born.

The expendable child was referred to in order to better illustrate the desperate feeling that comes to the child who receives this message, whether it comes in a non-verbal manner, by being rejected, ignored, put down, or by parents who do not hear or understand. The loneliness experienced by this adolescent is overwhelming. He has the feeling that no one knows, understands, is interested, or even cares about him. Duetsch said:

Many suffer the worst form of loneliness; these are the ones who are not able to communicate their feelings on that score. This is extremely common among adolescents, who may share their secrets, but not their most painful sensation--that of loneliness (1967:66-67).

In a speech on November 15, 1973 at Montana State University, Paul Harvey said, "Lack of communication is an increasingly detrimental factor in the bringing up of our children." This statement was supported by Blaine (1969:9) who also pointed out that working mothers, and fathers working at two jobs, contribute greatly to this problem. Not only is there less time to practice communicating, there is less physical energy to devote to it. Cervantes (1965:218-223) found that one of the

differences between high school graduates and dropouts was a lack of communication in the home. In her study of adolescent self-esteem, Matteson collected data that indicated that, ". . . dysfunctional communication affects all relationships in the family to some degree (1974:35-47)."

Part of the problem in communication can be found in the practice of locking family members into certain roles. This is not necessarily accomplished by direct verbal assignment; however, it can be and is done this way at times. More often the child is guided into these roles by the parent. Bricklin and Bricklin (1970:5) said they found that a father will unconsciously trap his child into a deficient, rebellious role so the child will express the anger the father feels toward society. This is accomplished by the father without his being consciously aware of what he is doing.

A direct verbal assignment of a role may come from parental comments such as, "I was that way myself," or "He's the dumb one in the family." Bricklin and Bricklin point out that in such a case it is important to understand why the child accepts this role. They said, "A simple explanation is that the scapegoat usually has no conscious awareness of what's really going on, particularly if he's a young child, and thus does not know how to fight against those patterns which have laced him into the scapegoat role (1970:8)." Another reason brought out by the authors for accepting the role is that even a negative role is

better than no role at all, ". . . at least he knows who he is." Other members of the family will help the scapegoat perpetuate his role in order to assert their supposed superiority, flaunting before him and others his oft claimed inferiority.

Other problems in communications may be found in factors, such as inconsistent communication. The parental instructions or standards change from one time to the next. Or the fathers' demands can be inconsistent with the demands the mother has outlined for the adolescent. Another variation of this could be parental demands which are inconsistent with the standards of the society in which they live. A mother may add to the confusion in interfamily communications when she demands her husband assume a role of leadership in the family and then usurps his role of leadership in the decision making process.

Parents communicate their values to their children knowingly or unknowingly. Strang (1957:361) said if parents have high values and live by them, their example will encourage the adolescent to set and maintain a high standard for himself. Especially when the adolescent is confronted with conflicting standards and practices in society. Even the emotional trauma of moving to a new city can be offset by the attitude of the parents about the move. Barrett and Noble (1973:181-188) found their data did not differ significantly between children who had recently moved into a neighborhood and children who had lived there for some period of time if a positive attitude had been demonstrated

by the parents about the move. The results of this study were supported by Strang's comments when she indicated that children are strongly influenced by their parents, ". . . especially during the stages of development in which the child feels dependent upon the parent and identifies closely with him (1957:114)." Even in later adolescence the teenager tends to follow the values of his parents.

The results of a study conducted by Schvaneveldt would seem ironic if the end results were not so often tragic. This study showed that ". . . both parents and adolescents desired more and better communication, understanding, tolerance, and more lenient rules and regulations (1973:171-178)." In spite of the proliferation of knowledge, the scientific discoveries, our knowledge of both physical and emotional needs, and our demonstrated need to communicate better, we have not been able to address ourselves effectively to the problem of communication within the family. This may be, in part, due as Duvall has said, "You do not deal with teenagers in an emotional vacuum. Both of you are in a storm center of shifting emotions. You share an emotional climate that has fast-moving fronts of feelings--theirs and yours (1966:22)." It would not be improper to add that this is true of communication with every member of the family.

Briggs summed it up nicely when she said, "Each child, though thoroughly unique, has the same psychological needs to feel lovable and worthy (1970:4)." She emphasizes an important point when she pointed

out that being loved and feeling loved are not synonymous. The parent can say he loves his child, but the child does not feel loved. The child needs to receive the message that he is loved.

Adolescent Rebellion

One of the most traumatic experiences for the parents is when their adolescent begins to assert himself, even against their strongest demands and warnings. This rebellion, as it is perceived by the parents, is a frightening experience for the parents because they see themselves as losing control. In some cases, they may not be able to enforce their demands physically; but even if they could at this point in the adolescents' development, it would not change the adolescents' mind or attitude.

What is perceived by the parents as rebellion may not actually be a desire for rebellion on the part of the adolescent. Alissi said that what is termed as rebellion by the adult world may be more accurately described as ". . . a threat to an established order essential to the well-being of adults (1972:491-510)." The rebellion then is more of a reaction on the part of the parents to the acuity of the questions the adolescent is asking about himself, his parents, and about life in general. Alissi went on to say that it is through asserting himself that the adolescent finds his identity and meaning in life.

Further evidence to negate the emphasis placed upon adolescent rebellion was cited by Strachan (1972:67-71) when he reported findings

indicating that adolescents who run away, become truants, or are beyond control ". . . are usually not expressing any psychopathology or even antisocial sentiments. In fact for many youths the act of running away or truancy is psychologically the healthiest thing they could do." It may be the only way these adolescents have of asserting themselves or finding themselves. Parental restrictions at home may prohibit any effort on their part to achieve any measure of independence or identity. An interesting point brought out by Strachan is that these are status crimes among adolescents and are punishable only because they are juveniles.

Salzman pointed out the dilemma of the adolescent when he said:

. . . criticized by the adults for being too dependent, at the same time he is being pressed to remain dependent until he is capable of sustained financial work life. He is pushed toward having a "mind of his own," while denounced for his premature independent viewpoints (1973:249).

Caught in between two worlds, the world of the child and the adult world, it seems that the alternatives left to the adolescent by the adults are few. Too often, instead of offering support, adults are guilty of blocking what few alternatives are open. His only means of fighting back is to rebel, or as Blaine put it, ". . . to be a non-conformist in order to irritate, perplex, and annoy the adult (1966:81)."

The insistent, natural, driving press toward finding himself and his identity is met with unyielding resistance. Marin and Cohen (1971:8) pointed out that many times schools, family, and community

combine to insulate the adolescent from actually experiencing life. Especially the life experiences they need to learn and grow. In fact, there is a great deal of pressure upon the adolescent to postpone the transition into adulthood and independence. Handlin and Handlin (1971: 220) emphasized that in spite of evidence indicating that adolescents arrive at physical maturity earlier than in the past, social and parental pressure is to delay the transition into adulthood.

Silverstein (1973:88-89) saw rapid social change as causing conflict between parent and child. He attributed the reason for the conflict to the parent and child being in different stages of development. He further emphasized the point that ". . . the content which the parent acquired at the stage where the child now is, was a different content from that which the child is now acquiring." The experiences and the knowledge from these experiences may be judged by a different set of values than the adult would judge them by, thereby coming up with a completely different set of responses to the experiences.

Munns found evidence in her study that ". . . children conform more to a system of peer group values than to parental values (1972: 519-524)." This would seem to contradict the findings of Strang (1957: 361), cited earlier in this chapter, which said the parental values are the most important. However, a closer examination of the study conducted by Munns reveals that adolescent males ". . . saw themselves and their friends as holding quite different values from

those of their parents, except for theoretical, social, political, and religious values in which they saw themselves like their fathers." This would seem to invalidate the first statements of Munns about an existing difference. However, a moment of reflection may provide an answer for the seeming contradiction. The contradiction may exist in the definition of these terms and in the means of accomplishing the ends desired.

An example of this is the adolescent who may turn to drugs to achieve the desired results. The discovery, through the use of drugs, of an idyllic world far removed from the harsh reality of the real world can bring a real temptation to use drugs. This is especially true when the influence of the youth culture and the peer group is to be part of the group which often includes the use of drugs. Marin and Cohen said:

In their own world they become increasingly pressured by the invitations and judgments of their friends; lacking a real relation to either themselves or wise adults, they are easily swayed by one another, by fads and propaganda, by unwritten mores and challenges (1971:17).

Added to this pressure upon the adolescent is the changing values within our present society. Themes currently being used for movies and television shows would have been taboo a few years ago. Language that was forbidden except in men's locker rooms is now used unabashedly in the classroom, movies, and on television. Silverstein said, ". . . the sexual revolution, the drug revolution and the revolutionary youth revolution represent the extremes of a fundamental reversal

of values in the middle class (1973:65)." While change is essential to growth, it seems apparent from the authors and studies cited above that change can have a negative as well as a positive effect upon the adolescent. Especially if it comes in such a way that the adolescent loses sight of his values and his identity.

Richer's (1968:462-466) study emphasized the importance of this concept. In summarizing his study, he said:

. . . with the increased availability of resources and alternative sources of rewards accessible to the youth, the less likely parental dictates are to be followed and the more conflict-ridden the relationship with the parents is likely to be."

The present day adolescent can find encouragement and reward from friends and the peer group. This is especially true for the adolescent who does not find them at home. In this type of situation, the influence of the youth culture can have an enormous effect upon the adolescent. He is sorely tempted to find the ideal world through shortcuts (drugs) and live by the values of the peer group. Leslie Fiedler summed up the results of adolescent need to find reward outside the influence of the home.

Not only do they reject the Socratic adage that the unexamined life is not worth living, since for them precisely the unexamined life is the only one worth enduring at all. But they also abjure the Freudian one: "Where id was, ego shall be," since for them the true rallying cry is, "Let id prevail over ego, impulse over order"(Klein, 1969:207).

Without the influence of adults with wider experience and understanding of life, the adolescents' perspective can become distorted, in spite of

the urge to grow. He can do much harm to himself physically and emotionally. Without healthy parental example, the adolescent may confuse freedom with liberty. He may demand immediate gratification of his impulses, without understanding the consequences of such gratification.

Parents wise enough to understand the adolescent need for experience, identity, reward, and acceptance will find a way to provide the guidance and support the adolescent needs, without humiliating the adolescent. At the same time, the parents will allow the adolescent to experiment with the freedom and independence so necessary for the growth that is taking place within him.

While the adolescent may not understand or be conscious of it, he may also be testing for new boundaries. Growth that has occurred and expanded freedom demand a re-definition of boundaries. This can be a frightening and a lonesome experience for the adolescent. In fact, he may desire parental help in redefining the boundaries, yet he would not acknowledge his desire for help. Theodore Lidz explained the dilemma this way:

. . . the youth may also deeply resent the parents' failures to set limits. He fights against delimitation, but at times he also wishes to be relieved of the responsibility of deciding what chances he can take, how far to go along with the gang, how far to venture sexually. The boy or girl can interpret parental compliance and their willingness to accede to his wishes as lack of interest (Caplan and Lebovici, 1969:109).

There is an inherent desire for the security of parental help, but there is also a hesitancy to specifically ask for help. To do so

would be an admission that the hard fought for freedom is too much for him. Such an admission might result in parental withdrawal of the opportunity to experience and grow. Teenagers attempting to cope with this dilemma were described by Remmers and Radler:

Teenage boys and girls, torn between their desire for independence and their craving for security, often make reasonable demands in unreasonable ways and so tend to seem more childish than they really are. In addition, proving that they can be independent is often more important to them than actually being independent (1957: 100).

Parental attitudes toward the adolescent can be of critical importance during this period of time. If they are reassuring and accepting to the adolescent and his efforts to establish himself, his confidence will grow. If they are critical and ridicule the adolescent, his confidence is shaken and he may turn to the peer group for help.

Havighurst, Bowman, Liddle, Matthews, and Pierce reported ". . . this group of boys and girls have failed in their efforts to grow up by playing the game according to the rules of society As a result of this failure, they seek illegal and socially undesirable substitutes for growth (1962:67)." This person may become a part of a street gang and find his growth in a rebellion against society.

The atmosphere of the home can play an important part in the adjustment made by the adolescent during this time. As was cited earlier in this chapter, the parents presenting inconsistent demands upon the adolescent increase the tendency for rebellion. Bandura and Walter (1959:201) found the most rebellious boys in their study came

from homes where parents were inconsistent in their demands and restrictions. They also found that these parents were not aware of where their sons were, what they were doing, or who they were with. Mothers made fewer demands and expected less compliance to their demands. Data collected in the same study indicated that while sons in the control group resented parental restrictions and demands, they were much more willing to accept them (1959:203). Resentment to parental controls was expressed in milder form than the aggressive boys. This would give credence to Caplan and Lebovici's (1969:109) statement that parental hesitancy to set boundaries or limits is perceived by the adolescent as not caring.

While rebellion can be a frightening experience, especially for the parents, an understanding of the dynamics of the rebellion may alleviate some of the fears. Parental understanding of the growth taking place, the search for an identity, the testing of self, the need for freedom, and the need for adventure can be an important step in this direction. Marin and Cohen said, "What they are after is . . . an acknowledgment of their growth, some sign that parents recognize and accept them as independent and adventurous persons (1971:18)." To this might be added the need to find out if it is alright to be me.

Parental anxiety over the teenagers' ability to take care of himself can be a cause of problems for the adolescent. Caplan and Lebovici described it in this manner:

Parents may not only find it difficult to relinquish authority but also to contain their anxieties over a teenagers' ability to take care of himself. Anxiety leads to anger and may be vented as rage against a child who arouses the anxiety (1969:108).

Thus, the anxious parent is not only unwilling to relax his hold on the adolescent, he compounds the problems of the adolescent by adding his own problems to those of the adolescent. The effect of this is to drive the adolescent away from his most important source of help during this period of time, his parents. Bandura and Walters (1959:32) found that a child unable to receive emotional support and help from his parents also had trouble internalizing the parental standards. They suggested that a failure to internalize these standards often resulted in antisocial behavior and in inadequate ways of handling feelings that led to this behavior.

Strang (1957:81) stated that in their attempt to have parental restraints relaxed the adolescent often finds himself in a no-man's-land. He has lost the privileges of childhood and is not really accepted in the adult world. The parents, while they reluctantly agree to more freedom for the adolescent, are not ready to accept the adolescent as a contributing member of the family. Suggestions and opinions offered by the adolescent are not accepted on an equal basis with adult suggestions and opinions. This can also be a source of discord and problems within the home. A study reported in Caplan and Lebovici's (1969:109) works indicated that denying an adolescent boy the opportunity to practice his adult role within the family can result in an attempt to break

up the family social system. Parents seeing this need to practice a role as a challenge to their parental roles and authority force the adolescent to practice his new role in antisocial ways.

The attitude of the parents toward the adolescent, as he experiments and searches is a critical factor. It can be the determining factor in where the adolescent looks for acceptance. Morse (1965:209) found that one of the most serious problems adolescents who had run away from home had was a lack of ". . . sympathetic adults to whom they could turn for understanding and advice." Part of the problem in the failure of adults to be sympathetic and understanding may come because of a lack of trust in the adolescent. Because the adolescent has standards and values that differ from those of the parent the parents reject the adolescent. Caplan and Lebovici (1969:108) reported evidence of this cause and effect relationship in a study conducted by Lidz.

The degree of the rebellion may vary at different stages during the adolescent period. A study conducted by Offer (1969:51) indicated that both parents and teenagers felt most disagreements occurred during the seventh and eighth grades. This might be interpreted as indicating that the first periods of growth towards maturity require more effort on the part of the adolescent to make parents realize the need for changes in roles and acceptance. Data from the study cited above indicated that parents saw high school age adolescents as being less difficult and new relationships were established.

If the parents can keep in mind that the rebellion is a natural process through which the adolescent is going, and provide understanding and security, much of the trauma associated with this period can be avoided. Menninger said, "Revolt against parental ties and authority is a very natural thing for young people, and a healthy sign that they are beginning to mature (1966:82)." Blaine said, "Rebellion does help the developmental process and contributes to the eventual achievement of an identity (1966:85)."

That parental attitudes can either hinder or facilitate the development of maturity for the adolescent is agreed upon by many experts in the field of adolescent behavior. Many attempts have been made to describe the dynamics of this cause and effect relationship, but it has been most poignantly expressed by a high school girl who wrote:

During adolescence, one's whole outlook on life changes. He sees things with his own eyes and not through the eyes of his parents. He must judge the world by his own standards. At this point, he has two philosophies of life, we might say: that of his parents and his own. These two philosophies are in constant conflict until the youth can get them straightened out in his own mind. This has been one of my main problems. I find my own ideas in conflict with those of my parents and this results in a disturbing situation (Strang, 1957:120).

The Identity Crisis

While the parents may perceive many events in life as mundane and repetitious, for the adolescent they are a first-time experience. It is an activity to which he looks forward and anticipates doing. The

exuberant recounting of such an experience by the adolescent is often belittled or ignored by the parents. The accomplishments of the experience are inferred to be commonplace, or the lack of accomplishment considered sub-normal. The attitude is a "so what" attitude which infers to the adolescent that what he has accomplished is not very important in the adult world.

The importance of these events for the adolescent is too often overlooked by the parents. Duvall pointed out an important fact for parents to keep in mind when she said, "Teenagers live at a new time of life, for them (1966:26)." It is an exciting time of new experiences and of finding an identity. Parental reactions to adolescent experiences can be an important part of the identity search, since it is through these experiences and through the reaction of others to him that he finds his identity. Remmers and Radler found data in their study indicating that, ". . . teenagers are consistently more sensitive to the feelings and opinions of adults and of other teenagers than they are to any voice from within (1957:225)."

The search for an identity is propounded to be the principle task of the teenager by Ginnott (1969:26). He further stated that the adolescent is more certain of what he does not want to be, than he is of what he wants to be at this point in his life. He is afraid of not finding an identity or being a nobody, i.e., being a chip off the old block.

The adolescent is experiencing growth, both within himself and in his encounters with the world in which he lives. The growth from the inside demands expression and acceptance. Marin and Cohen said that if this need for expression and acceptance is not met, the need will turn inward upon the adolescent and become rage. They indicated that the most important need for adolescents is ". . . to discover themselves as persons in the world, makers of value, . . . (1971:7)." For the adolescent, the question influencing his view of self is not, "Are my parents expectations of me realistic?"; it is more a question of his personal adequacy. Fromm (1955:62) said the need for a sense of identity is imperative. He gave dimension to this urgent and vital need when he said ". . . man could not remain sane if he did not find some way of satisfying it."

In order for the identity process to begin, the individual must become aware of himself as a separate entity from the family and from the peer group. The family and the peer group are both sources through which the identification is verified, but the adolescent must begin to see himself as a unique individual. Fromm (1955:62) indicated that in order for awareness of self-identity to occur the individual has to emerge from the group. The degree of self-awareness occurring is dependent upon the degree of emergence from the group.

This process is better understood when viewed in light of Jourard's definition of self-identity. He said it is, ". . . a person's

beliefs concerning the ways in which other people think about him (1963:1972)." The identity process then is validated by the individual's perceptions of how he relates to his world. It is discovering who he is and what he is, especially in the adult world. This issue was described by Leon Salzman when he wrote:

The issue of identity in the sense of discovering who and what one is and how one stands in relation to one's self in the adult world, therefore becomes of crucial concern He must overcome his total dependency at a time when he is not yet able to achieve a satisfactory self-sustaining way of life. At the same time his parents are both reluctant to and incapable of releasing him for more independent existence since they are hanging on to his remaining juvenile needs because of their need to remain the source of his sustenance. This dilemma accounts for a great deal of rebelliousness in the adolescent who is neither unable to overcome his ambivalence nor to encourage his parents to identify theirs (1973:248).

The difference between self-identity and self-concept as defined by Jourard (1963:162) is that self-identity is outer directed while the self-concept is inner directed. He made this differentiation when he said, "the self concept comprises all the beliefs the individual holds concerning what kind of person he is; i.e., conclusions concerning his mode or typical reaction patterns to typical life situations." The same author and work cited earlier had defined self-identity as how a person believes other people think about him. However, he goes on to say in his definition of self-concept that many of the beliefs held by the individual have been acquired from parents, friends, spouse, and so on. While both the self-concept and the self-identity are considered a system of beliefs, the major difference seems to be in defining the

self-concept as a system of beliefs about himself as a person, inner directed, while the self-identity is a system of beliefs about how he thinks others see him, outer directed.

Sullivan (1953:280-284) emphasized that the self-concept is determined by the way he organizes his experience to avoid or diminish anxiety. How a person perceives himself, his adequacy, self-confidence, self-value, determines how he will respond to the situation. Strang indicated that the self-concept is influenced by a number of different perceptions the individual has about himself, such as" . . . his physical self, his personal appearance, dress and grooming, by his abilities and disposition, his values, beliefs, and aspirations (1957: 68)."

While it is important that the adolescent has a positive perception of himself and that he feels good about who he is and what he is, it is important that his aspirations and beliefs about himself be realistic. Menninger (1966:55) said this is imperative to the building of self-confidence. An unrealistic picture of self can lead to unrealistic self-expectation and ultimately to failure. For example, a boy with severely deformed legs and feet can be very interested in football. It would be an unrealistic self-expectation to become a star football player. A more realistic picture would be for this boy to picture himself as team manager and later on, if the interest still prevailed, a coach or assistant coach. This realistic view of self includes

knowing about and acknowledging your good points and your bad points, your strengths and your weaknesses.

Experimentation is very much a part of this process of knowing yourself. Adolescents need the opportunity to experiment with themselves in order to find this identity. However, parental guidance should protect the adolescent from serious or lasting injury when possible during this experimentation with ideas, other people, and relationships. The adolescent should also learn to accept responsibility for his actions. Konopka (1973:291-316) stressed this when she said:

They should be able to try out various roles without being obligated to pursue a given course--in school or in the world of work. They should also have the opportunity to practice with limited hurt if they fail, because while their inexperience does not make them inferior to adults, it does make them different. On the other hand, youth should understand that genuine participation and genuine responsibility go hand in hand"

The relationship of self-acceptance and the acceptance of others is a positive relationship (Rogers and Diamond, 1954). All that a person believes about himself, both as a person and his place in this world, is determined by how the person perceives others as seeing him. This also influences his perceived value and his aspirations. It influences the friends he chooses and determines how he will handle situations.

The adolescents' perception of himself is an important determining factor in the direction and goal he sets for himself. Briggs said:

Self-esteem is a quiet sense of self-respect, a feeling of self-worth. When you have it deep inside, you're glad you're you. With high self-esteem you don't waste time and energy impressing others; you already know you have value (1970:3).

How the adolescent sees himself is determined largely by the feedback he receives from others--parents, friends, and teachers, and by the treatment he receives from these sources. Briggs calls these sources ". . . a stream of reflection . . . which becomes his self image (1970:17-20)." The child cannot see himself directly. The responses of others to him literally shape and control his self-image. How he perceives the judgment of others upon him will determine the kind of identity he builds. The role he accepts is determined by the perceived adult image of himself.

Strang (1957:90) found evidence in her study that indicated a disparity between the kind of person they perceive themselves to be and the kind of person they would like to be. These subjects were found in the low-achievement group. Further data from the study indicated that these subjects also showed a discrepancy between the kind of future they would like and a future that was realistic for them. From this evidence it would seem reasonable to assume that their perceptions of how others saw them was inaccurate, or they were not really sure of the identity or role which they were trying to fulfill. The result being that the restless urge to grow and to be was not being fulfilled causing them to yearn for unrealistic goals and expectations. This concept was supported by Strang when she pointed out:

The self-concept is also related to one's level of aspiration. The "ideal goal" is associated with the ideal self, the "action goal," with the realistic self-concept. Although level of aspiration is an individual matter, people tend to set their levels of aspiration relatively high when they are dissatisfied with their present status, or when they are confident and successful.

It is difficult to state the above concept as an absolute, as there is some evidence cited by the same author which indicates that a poor self-concept can also be the cause of low aspirations, poor motivation, failure orientation, or an unrealistic view of the situation. There is agreement though that the above situations are related to personal feelings of insecurity and personality problems.

There is what seems to be a circular cause and effect relationship between the adolescent and his world. As cited above, the person's perception of himself is determined in large part by how he perceives others as seeing him, and how he sees himself. Yet, Jersild (1962) emphasizes that the individual's attitude toward others reflects his attitude toward himself. This indicates that if we as others fail to give adequate recognition and identity to the adolescent, he is unable to respond to later efforts at socialization.

Evidence of this inability to establish close relationships with others was reported by Bandura and Walters (1959:35). Their study showed that a common characteristic among aggressively antisocial boys is their inability to establish and maintain close relationships with others. In fact, they are likely to show a marked resistance to entering into this type of relationship.

Sullivan (1953:245-262) attributed this problem to failure during the preadolescent period to establish a close relationship with someone of the same sex. He went on to suggest that this type of relationship is very important to the child. Without it he does not become aware of inaccurate ideas about himself and others. He does not have the opportunity to determine the effect of his behavior upon his peer group, thus he does not have the chance to modify or correct behavior unacceptable to them.

Not only is the close personal relationship with someone of the same sex important to the socialization process, the adolescents' identification and acceptance in a peer group is important. Silverstein (1973:190) said that parents and teachers often fail to recognize the importance of the group membership upon the adolescent. Yet, the adolescent often spends more of his waking hours with the group or clique than he does with his parents. Parental deprecation of the clique can cause a withdrawal by the adolescent from the parent into the safety and the acceptance of the clique. The status derived from membership in the group is prized very highly. When membership in a clique is achieved by the adolescent, the reputation of the clique also becomes his, and personal behavior will be adjusted to fit the reputation.

While it is evident that the attitude of others--peer group and friends--have a lot to do with the adolescents' perception of himself,

there is a great deal of evidence which indicates that the influence of the home and the parents has a lasting effect upon the adolescent. Satir (1967:45-54) asserted that adolescent disturbances reflect dysfunctional marriages. She also claimed there is a positive relationship between disturbed families, dysfunctional communication, and low self-esteem. Solomon pointed out the positive effects of a healthy inter-family relationship when he said:

. . . a strong harmonious family identity is a necessary ingredient for a healthy ego. This can only be accomplished if the parental roles of both mother and father are carried out with stability and consistency during the early formative years (1972: 511-518).

When parental roles are not carried out in a manner which allow the adolescent to discover himself, the consequences can result in antisocial behavior. In a study of psychiatric patients' perceptions of their mother, Palmer (1971:420-431) found that these mothers were perceived as being less warm and less emotionally supportive. These patients perceived personal reinforcement as dependent upon some external locus rather than upon his own personal worth.

In her study, Deutsch (1967:61) found the source of a boy's resentment against his father was often caused by the inability of the father to protect the son from a mother who was possessive and demanding. She indicated that the end result of such resentment often is a generalization of the feeling of resentment to all men, seeing them as weak and worthless. Such overpossessive and demanding mothers were also seen to

be a contributing factor in adolescent failure in the socialization attempts. These mothers see their sons as an extension of themselves and hope the son will compensate for their own failures and disappointments.

The role of the parents is unique in the development of the adolescents' identity. Duvall (1966:67) stated that parents influence their children more than any other people do or can. Her basis for this position lies in her argument that the parents have known their child first and longest and are closest to them emotionally. The findings of Bruch, Junce, and Eggeman (1972:555-558) would not support this position, as their data differed from the usual data. In their study of inner-city students and upper-middle class students, they found the students of both groups rated their parents similarly. They also found that self-esteem ratings were not significantly related to parental ratings.

In spite of the findings of this study, the majority of the authors cited in this study are agreed upon the importance of the parental role in the development of the adolescents' self-identity and self-concept.

Silverstein (1973:77) emphasized that middle-class parents, attempting to help their adolescent avoid the futility of their own life, pressure their young into achievement in the areas of art, culture, and intellect. The result of this exploitive pressure has been for the adolescent to experience a dissonance between the expressed claims of

love and warmth by the parent and the unspoken but obvious pressure to achieve these goals in order to deserve this love. Thus, casting a serious doubt upon the adolescents' personal worth as he is right now. Menninger (1966:53-54) gave these reasons for lack of self-confidence in the adolescent--unrealistic parental goals for the child, personality disturbance in the parents, lack of affection, and a poor family.

According to Coleman (1964:44), there are two key factors in the determination of adequate self-direction by the adolescent. One key factor is the rapidly changing society in which the adolescent is growing. The self-identity is dependent upon personal possessions, social status, interpersonal relationships, and group identification. However, all of these factors are subject to change, while parental judgment and help is often based upon the experience the parent had at that time of his life.

The second factor Coleman pointed out as significant in the determination of self-direction by the adolescent is the courage it takes to be oneself. This kind of action may bring the individual into conflict with the peer group. It also requires a determination of personal values and goals, the making of choices, and assuming responsibility for these choices.

The effect of the culture upon the adolescents' self-concept was discussed by Kagan when he said, "The child's self-concept consists in part of his evaluation of the degree to which his attributes match those

that the culture has designed as desirable (1971:60-61)." The value he places on certain attributes are influenced by the values the culture has placed upon this quality. This would emphasize why, for example, an adolescent who excels as an athlete would gain much self-confidence from his talent, while a boy who is musically talented would begin to have serious doubts about his identity and lose much confidence in himself.

Jourard (1963:170) pointed out that ". . . people behave with consistency in order to maintain or to justify their present beliefs about their personality." When a person believes he has certain traits he will behave in a manner that will justify his continued belief in his possession of these traits. From the statement cited above, it appears that parents, teachers, friends, peer group, and society in general can lock an individual into a certain role because of their reactions to him, this being what he believes he is. The tragedy is that if these are negative reactions, he is locked into a negative role and his actions will help him to perpetuate this negative role.

A further comment from Jourard (1963:170) will help to understand why this cause and effect relationship works in the individual.

A person must believe certain things about himself (a) in order to maintain self-esteem, or to avoid guilt and shame, (b) in order to maintain his sense of identity, and (c) in order to believe he is acceptable to other people.

A negative self-concept is better than no self-concept. Being a delinquent will at least bring him an identity in a peer group of delinquents.

He must be someone and be valued by someone.

While the effects of a negative self-concept and poor parent-child relationships were touched upon in the discussion on self-concept, the importance of this effect upon the adolescent warrants further discussion. Lecky claimed that preserving one's perception of one's self intact is the prime motive in all behavior (1945). This indicates that when one deals with adolescent behavior he is often dealing with the symptom of the problem, not the cause, since the behavior is a result of an inner conflict the adolescent feels.

Failure to resolve this inner conflict concerning who and what he is can result in feelings of insecurity and anxiety. Strang pointed out that ". . . satisfaction and happiness are closely associated with the self concept; they are a natural consequence of the harmonious functioning of the total personality (1957:112)." When the adolescent fails to achieve this harmony between the ideal self and the real self, anxiety takes over. Quoting from Strang, ". . . the greater the chasm the greater the possible anxiety (1957:112)." An unrealistic view of himself, his potential, and his future can cause the adolescent a great deal of anxiety from which he may attempt to escape. However, such attempts to find relief from this anxiety are futile until he can establish some degree of stability and certainty in his sense of identity.

Change of locus or situation can be a very threatening experience

to such an individual. Briggs (1970:40) pointed out that the person who has lived with rejection and failure is more threatened by change than those who have been loved and successful. The person who has lived with rejection and failure sees no reason for the change to bring anything but more bad experiences. The adolescent who has been successful sees no reason why the change cannot result in good experiences.

This position was supported in a study comparing adolescents of inner-city, low-income families with adolescents of non-inner-city families having a moderate to high income conducted by Payne, Platt, and Branch (1972:164-170). Non-inner-city adolescents with moderate to high incomes were found to be more willing to accept change. This suggests that as stated in the previous paragraph the more confidence the adolescent has in himself and his ability the more adaptable he is to change. Rigidity of thought and action indicates an insecurity and fear of change. It is almost like the person is hanging on desperately to what little self-concept he has, regardless whether it is good or bad.

Another factor emphasized in the literature as having an effect upon the development of the adolescent self-concept is the school. Offer found that ". . . students ranked school and studying as their most important area of conflict (1969:32)." The determination of their vocational and educational goals was seen as a major problem by many students. Silverstein added to the understanding of this situation when

he said:

In getting a formal education the average young American is undertaking a more difficult, and certainly a longer, job than his father or mother did, and that it is very likely that he is working harder at it (1973:39).

Increased pressure to achieve and succeed and the demands of the school system for the adolescent to make an early choice about his education and vocation can make the adolescent feel like a failure because he is not able to meet these demands. The submissive, passive adolescent may yield to parental and school pressure, allowing himself to be molded into whatever the parents and the school deem most desirable. The adolescent, who is unsure of himself, is fighting to find his own identity, or has some definite interests of his own to follow may find himself at odds with both parents and school systems. Schaefer (1969: 233-242) found that creative adolescents perceived themselves as independent, uninhibited, and asocial. Unreasonable parental pressure to conform to their ideals and values can drive the adolescent into delinquent behavior in order to assert himself.

The parental influence upon the adolescents' view of himself is important both in the immediate effect upon the adolescent and in the long term effect. Crandall, Preston, and Robinson (1960:243-251) found that the influence of healthy or unhealthy parent-child relationships not only affected the adolescents self-concept, it affected his attitude toward his family and in his behavior. Heilbrun found that ". . . the individual's attitude and behavior depends upon his response to his

perceptions of his family (1960:169-173)." A study conducted by Becker found the same emphasis upon the family effect (Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964:169-204).

In a study of the personal adjustment of college females, Fish and Biller (1973:415-420) found a positive relationship between the degree of adjustment made and the degree of paternal positive involvement during childhood. While there are many studies measuring the effects of maternal nurturance and love on the child, studies measuring the effect of the father are not as abundant. In the study cited above, Fish and Biller found that subjects with a negative self-perception were more likely to perceive their relationship with their father during childhood quite negatively. Peter and Barbara Wyden (1968) found that fathers can be a determining influence over the homosexual development of the child through his acceptance or rejection of the child and the role he plays within the family structure.

Research generally contradicts the idea of there being generally significant differences between the children of working and non-working mothers. If the mother likes her work, the mother-child relationship is likely to be warm and satisfying (Leslie (1967:572-573). Hudgins and Prentice (1973:145-152) found that there was a relationship between moral thought and mother and daughter relationships. The non-delinquent girl and her mother had a higher level of moral thought than did the delinquent girl and her mother. The study also indicated that

the mothers of delinquent girls varied more in their level of moral development. Delinquent girls also showed a lower level of maturity in their thinking. This would seem to indicate that the security of the relationship between the mother and daughter has an effect upon the ability of the adolescent to experiment and grow into maturity.

A study conducted by Matteson (1974:35-47) found support for the hypothesis that adolescents with low self-esteem did not perceive themselves as being able to communicate with their parents as well as did adolescents with high self-esteem. The adolescent may perceive the non-communication as parental rejection or as not having enough worth to warrant communication. Briggs (1970:18) pointed out that the child is very conscious of the attitudes of others towards him, whether or not these perceptions are accurate, this consciousness is making an assessment of what he thinks others are thinking of him.

Kagan (1971:61) pointed out that in the process of personality development, feelings of being unworthy, incompetent, or being basically evil were related to the belief that the person was similar to a parent whom they regarded as unworthy, incompetent, or unloving. These findings were the result of intensive interviews with seriously disturbed adults, some of which were exhibiting schizophrenic reactions. Rosenberg (1965:18) said that low self-esteem is often accompanied by depression. These children avoid interpersonal relationships. Feelings of anxiety, loneliness, and threat are common. They perceive their

parents as not being interested in them.

Two types of delinquency were found by Havighurst, Bowman, Liddle, Matthews, and Pierce (1962:66) in their study of adolescents in a community. The first type is the aggressive, uncontrolled behavior which may even include murder. These children have little or no inner moral control. Parent-child relationships in this case were found to be parental neglect, lack of love, and inconsistent punishment.

The second type of delinquency found in the study was due to strong feelings of anxiety which resulted in the child committing strange acts. The child was described as overinhibited, conscience ridden over misbehavior, real or unreal. This child, because of the guilt feeling--conscious or unconscious, will commit acts which will result in his being punished, since he sees punishment as a means of dispelling guilt. These types of maladjustment are often considered to be the result of inconsistent punishment.

The development of self is dependent upon some kind of coherent experience through which the adolescent is able to come to terms with the world and his place in it. Marin and Cohen (1971:2) pointed out the difficulty of this process when they said, "The young are simultaneously constricted and adrift; they lack real teachers and real fathers" In spite of the knowledge that has been gained in the area of human personality indicating the need for growth and experience to attain identity and maturity, pressure to achieve continues to grow.

Bandura and Walter (1959:247) emphasized that "Successful socialization therefore requires the gradual substitution of internal controls and directions for external sanctions and demands." In the midst of the social pressure to conform to the social norms, the individual process is forgotten. The concept of the assembly line, so viable in the industrial world, threatens to become the law of social development.

The pressure placed upon the adolescent was described in this way:

. . . the general trend of the society has been and will continue . . . to put greater demands on its average individual citizen. He must operate in more complex situations than before. He attempts to do many things his predecessors never attempted, that were indeed beyond their capacities. To succeed in what he attempts, he has to exercise progressively higher levels of competence and responsibility (Silverstein, 1973:36).

In contrast to this description of societal expectations of today's adolescent is the definition Briggs gave to an essential element for adequate healthy functioning in our complex society. "Self-confidence means inner sureness. It says that at the core you trust your capacities and you act accordingly (1970:22)." This does not come from wealth, education, social class, or always having mother at home. It comes from the quality of the relationship that exists between the child and those that play a significant role in his life (Briggs, 1970:5).

In order for the adolescent to develop the self-confidence and self-concept essential for adequate functioning in our complex society he must have parental support. Medvene (1973:94-96) found that parental

rejection and excessive punishment were predisposing factors toward a negative self-image for the adolescent. Adolescents from this type of home often do not have the confidence to accept the responsibility essential for emotional growth. The possibility of failure is too great and such a loss would be too emotionally damaging. Safety is seen as being very protective of the present situation. Duvall (1966: 67) said the adolescent can also become discouraged by previous failures and stop trying. The adolescent loses valuable experience, emotional growth, and opportunity for discovery of self-identity.

Significant Others

Included in the adolescents' search for himself is the need for adequate or significant others for the adolescent to emulate. Jourard gave this definition of a significant other, ". . . when his beliefs and feelings about us make an important difference to us and when he has a status which implies his opinions and judgments must be considered as authoritative (1963:1964-5)." If the parents do not fulfill the role as a model to emulate, the adolescent will turn to other sources for models. While significant others outside the home are important to every adolescent, the failure of the parents to provide the necessary model leaves a void of experience and learning in the adolescents' development.

Menninger (1966:14) emphasized that how a boy gets along with other boys depends upon the relationship he had with his father. How

a girl gets along with other girls depends on the relationship she had with her mother. A study conducted by Won, Yamamura, and Ikeda (1969: 43-47) yielded data indicating that parental influence is a more important source of variation in behavior than peer group influence. The adolescent escape from parental indifference into a gang may be an attempt to find approval and status. He will identify with and emulate gang members who play an important role in the gang.

In some cases, the father does not provide an adequate role model for his son. Gottlieb, Rieves, and Ten Houten (1966:46) pointed out that a father performs his occupational roles outside the home. Even his social interactions with his peers usually takes place outside the home. The son does not have the opportunity to observe his father in these types of roles and, therefore, does not have a model to emulate.

Offer (1969:52) found that one-third of the parents surveyed in his study felt neither parent was close to the child. Further evidence indicated that by the end of the high school years, those adolescents who had been closer to their mother, now began to identify with the father and felt they could talk more freely with the father. Even when the relationship with the dominant parent was seen as rejecting, Medvene (1973:94-96), found the adolescent to be more emotionally unstable. Siegleman (1965:558-564) found that college students who were classified as introverts remembered their parents as rejecting.

When the parents are perceived as cold and rejecting, the adolescent does not have an adequate model to emulate; he also lacks the confidence to seek an identification. While the gang may provide a certain sense of security and models to emulate, too often these models do not provide a mode of behavior conducive to a healthy adjustment to society.

SUMMARY

Changes in our society have ordered that present adolescents live with different demands than previous generations. Duvall (1966:13) said the difference is not in undisciplined living but in their efforts to meet the demands of the world which they have inherited. Deutsch (1967:86) said that most of our adolescents are idealistic but have a tendency to turn to realism. The incessant push toward realism may be a cause of conflict within the adolescent. If the adolescent is struggling with inner conflict, the pressure to acknowledge the real world may create even greater rigidity and anxiety.

An emotionally healthy adolescent can change because he has enough self-confidence to change. Bricklin and Bricklin (1970:4) pointed out that when an adolescent is secure within himself and the family, he is able to relate to others. The individual who has the most trouble is the one who has irrational needs. These irrational needs can be the result of a failure to fulfill the need for parental

love and support. The family is the most important source of emotions. Family members are seen as the ones most important to impress. They are also the most feared. They can provide models, security, love, and understanding, all of which are essential to adolescent growth and change.

Chapter 3

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to compare adolescent perceptions of their child-parent relationships between delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents. The researcher also gave opportunity for personal comments and reactions through personal interviews with both students surveyed and with administrators and teachers. An instrument was prepared and personally administered to the samples randomly selected from the three state institutions and the three public school systems. This questionnaire asked the subjects to evaluate how they saw the family relationships, such as their parents' relationship with each other, their parents' relationship with their children, their own relationship with their parents, how they think others see them, and how they see themselves.

In this chapter, the instrument and the related literature were examined in the following manner:

1. The population was defined and the procedure for sampling was presented.
2. The method of collecting data was discussed.
3. The method of data organization was outlined.
4. The precautions taken for accuracy were described.
5. The chapter summary was presented.

POPULATION DESCRIPTION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The populations sampled in this investigation were taken from two sources. The study group samples, delinquents, were taken from the three state institutions: Mountain View Home, Helena, Montana; Montana Childrens Center, Twin Bridges, Montana; Pine Hills School, Miles City, Montana. Since these institutions are supported by the state of Montana for the purpose of providing a place for adolescents who have been unable to function in a socially acceptable manner, for the purposes of this study, it was assumed their presence in one of the above named institutions was cause to classify the adolescent as part of the delinquent or study group.

The control group samples, non-delinquents, were taken from three public school systems: junior and senior high schools at Circle, Montana; junior and senior high schools at Terry, Montana; junior and senior high schools at Custer, Montana. These school systems are within the geographical boundaries of the state of Montana.

The samples of subjects surveyed were randomly selected from a list of names showing the enrollment of the school or institution. The selection process was completed through cooperative efforts of the researcher and the principal or the superintendent.

To insure the reliability of the data, the researcher requested the principal of each public school to remove the name of any adolescent from the list who was currently under probation or who had a history of

being in trouble with the local law enforcement personnel.

The results of this study were reported in Chapter 4.

HYPOTHESES TESTED

This study compared adolescent perceptions of the following areas:

1. There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their parents from non-delinquent adolescents:
 - a. in the quality of the husband-wife relationship;
 - b. in the trust the parents have in their children;
 - c. in the discipline practices of the parents;
 - d. in parental agreement with their children's interests, friends, and activities;
 - e. in the impartial treatment of all the children in the family.
2. There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their family from non-delinquent adolescents:
 - a. in doing things together as a family;
 - b. in communication between parents and children;
 - c. in the affection shown between parents and children;
 - d. in the parental decision-making process.
3. There is no difference between the perceptions of delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents in the quality of the home.

4. There is no difference in the perceptions of delinquent and non-delinquent adolescent self-concepts.

METHOD OF COLLECTING DATA

The researcher prepared a questionnaire to provide information in each of the areas of investigation listed in the introduction of this chapter. The content validity of this questionnaire was checked by several members of the faculty, the researcher's committee members, and by a pilot study conducted in a public school using twenty-four subjects.

The questionnaire and a cover letter were personally delivered and administered to the subjects selected in each participating school or state institution.

From the sample randomly selected at each school or institution, subjects were randomly selected for interviews personally conducted by the investigator. It had been previously determined, in conference with the researcher's committee, that at least 10 per cent of the sample would be interviewed by the researcher. These interviews were conducted in such a manner as to provide opportunity for the subjects to give more detailed comments concerning their perceptions of the home and family relationships. Comments from these interviews will be reported in Chapter 5.

Informal interviews with teachers and administrators in the public schools and the state institutions were conducted by the researcher. These interviews were designed to gain insight into the perceptions of those who work with adolescents and their problems. Personal comments by these people will be referred to or included in Chapter 5.

METHOD OF ORGANIZING DATA

Tables present the following information:

1. The total number of subjects surveyed, delinquent and non-delinquent.
2. The total number of responses to each item on the questionnaire for each group, delinquent and non-delinquent.
3. Independence of responses between each group to various items on the questionnaire was tested by the chi square measure with .05 as the criterion for significance.
4. Intragroup and intergroup responses to various items are tested by the chi square measure, with .05 as the criterion for significance.

Preceding each table is a description of the significant factors in the table and their implications. Recommendations for changes offered by the adolescents have been listed in the appendix.

Chapter 5 will discuss the findings of this study and offer recommendations for future studies. The suggestions offered in the discussion should provide alternative methods for parents to use in relating to their children. This should be especially true for those families experiencing difficulty with their children.

PRECAUTIONS TAKEN FOR ACCURACY

All figures compiled from the questionnaire were double checked to guard against error. All computations were done through the computer to eliminate mathematical errors.

SUMMARY

This study was conducted within the geographical boundaries of the state of Montana for two reasons: (1) the researcher is a native of Montana and is interested in discovering what problems adolescents in Montana have with their parents; and (2) since Montana is considered a rural state, the researcher is interested in determining if the same factors predispose towards delinquency as in a more metropolitan area.

Chapter 4

QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

In this chapter, the researcher presented, described, and discussed the results of the developed questionnaire which was administered to sample populations from three public school systems and three state institutions.

The public schools from which sample populations for the control, non-delinquent, group were drawn were:

1. The Junior and Senior High School, Circle, Montana
2. The Junior and Senior High School, Terry, Montana
3. The Junior and Senior High School, Custer, Montana

The three state institutions from which sample populations for the study, delinquent, group were taken were:

1. The Mt. View Home, Helena, Montana
2. The Montana Children's Center, Twin Bridges, Montana
3. The Pine Hills School, Miles City, Montana

Method of Sampling

The sample populations were randomly selected from the total population of the adolescents in the various schools and institutions. Approximately thirty names were randomly selected from each of the schools or institutions included in the study. The researcher requested that the names of any adolescents younger than twelve years or older than seventeen be removed from the roster prior to the selection process.

Another control used during the sampling process to obtain valid data was to request that the principal or the counselor in the public schools remove the name of any adolescent from the enrollment list who was currently on probation with the law or had been on probation in the past.

When the names of the sample population had been established, the subjects were taken into a classroom and instructed on the use of the questionnaire. After the instructions were completed, the subjects were asked to answer the questions on the questionnaire. While the subjects were completing the questionnaire, the researcher randomly selected 10 per cent of the group for personal interviews.

At all times, and in every case, the questionnaire was administered by, and the interviews conducted by, the researcher himself.

Sample Population Description

The sample population drawn from the public schools and the institutions named above is described below according to total numbers, age, grade in school, place of residence, size of town, and the categories of employment reported for the father.

Number of subjects sampled. The total number of subjects included in the sample population was 192. Of this, ninety-nine were males, comprising 51 per cent of the total population. There was a total of ninety-three females, for 49 per cent of the population.

A summary of the control, non-delinquent, group shows there was a total of one hundred subjects in this group. Of this, fifty-one were males, making up 51 per cent of the group. The forty-nine females comprised 49 per cent of the group.

The total sample population surveyed for the study, delinquent, group was ninety-two. The male-female breakdown for this group was forty-eight males, for 52 per cent, and forty-four females, for 48 per cent.

Table 1 gives a summary of the sex distribution of the total population.

Table 1

Total Sample Population Surveyed, Non-Delinquent and Delinquent

	Males	Per cent	Females	Per cent	Total	Total per cent
Non-delinquents	51	51	49	49	100	52
Delinquents	48	52	44	48	92	48
Total	99	52	93	48	192	100

Range of age. The range of age for the total sample population was from twelve through seventeen years. The mean age for the total group was 15.04 years. For the control group, the mean age was 14.69. The mean age for the study group was 15.42.

As is noted from the mean ages cited above, the delinquent

population tended to be almost a year older than the non-delinquent population. No reason can be given for this difference in age, except to suggest the possibility that more delinquent adolescents may have repeated grades in school. Thus, while surveying the same grade levels, the population of the study group tended to be a little older than the control group.

The mode age level for the total group was fourteen years. When broken down into delinquent and non-delinquent categories, the mode age for the control group was thirteen years. The mode age for the study group was fourteen years.

Table 2

Age Distribution Chart for Total Sample Population

	12	13	14	15	16	17	Total	\bar{x}
Non-delinquent	9	23	18	12	16	22	100	14.69
Delinquent	2	18	31	19	12	7	89	15.42
Total	11	41	49	31	28	29	189	15.04

Grade in school. The range of grade in school for the total population was from grade seven through twelve. The mean grade in school for the total group was 9.34. For the control group, the mean grade was 9.21, while the study group mean grade was 9.47. The grade most often reported for the total group was grade nine. The mode grade for the control group was grade seven. For the study group, the mode

grade was grade nine.

The difference of .26 between the mean grade level of the two groups could possibly be attributed to the fact that the control group has 45 per cent of its responses under grades seven and eight. The study group has 57 per cent of its responses under grades nine and ten. If grade level eight is included for the study group, the three grades would represent 77 per cent of the total responses for this group. The number of responses in these three grades (eight, nine, and ten) represent only 47 per cent of the total for the control group.

Table 3 shows the distribution of the responses for the total sample population to the various grade levels.

Table 3

Grade Level Distribution for Total Sample Population

	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total	\bar{x}
Non-delinquent	22	21	9	15	14	14	95	9.21
Delinquent	2	18	32	19	12	7	90	9.47
Total	24	39	41	34	26	21	185	9.34

Place of residence. The place of residence for the sample population provides added dimension for understanding the home situation. Out of the control group, 53 per cent reported living in town, while 91 per cent of the study group reported living in town.

Table 4 shows the responses of the subjects to this question.

Table 4

Distribution of Total Population of Living
In Town or On A Farm

	In Town	On a Farm	Total
Non-delinquent	48	42	90
Delinquent	83	8	91
Total	131	50	181

Size of town. The size of the town the subjects live in showed some interesting variations. Although only 58 of the subjects from the control group responded to this item, 81 per cent of these responses indicated they lived in towns with a population from 500 to 2,000 people. Of the study group, 42 per cent reported living in a town with a population over 10,000 and 35 per cent said they lived in a town with a population of 2,000 to 10,000 people.

Table 5

Distribution of Responses for Total Population
for Size of Town Lived In

	Under 500	500 to 2,000	2,000 to 10,000	Over 10,000	Total
Non-delinquent	11	47	0	0	58
Delinquent	5	15	30	36	86
Total	16	62	30	36	144

Father's employment. The type of work the father was engaged in provided some perspective to the home situation of the sample population. The control group indicated that 76 per cent of their fathers were in business for themselves; 17 per cent said their fathers were laborers. Of the study group, 67 per cent indicated their fathers were laborers, while .09 per cent said their fathers were businessmen.

Table 6 gives a more detailed breakdown of the responses to this question.

Table 6

Responses of Total Sample Population For the
Type of Work My Father Does

	Unem- ployed	Retired	Laborer	Skilled	Business- man	Profes- sional	Total
Non-delinquent	0	1	16	5	72	1	95
Delinquent	4	2	48	5	6	5	70
Total	4	3	64	10	78	8	165

Method of Data Presentation

The data gathered through the use of this questionnaire has been discussed under the following four categories:

1. Adolescent perceptions of their parents
2. Adolescent perceptions of their family
3. Adolescent perceptions of their home
4. Adolescent perceptions of themselves

In the discussion of each of these categories, comparisons were made between the responses of the non-delinquent and the delinquent adolescents.

Treatment of data. The data compiled from the questionnaire was subjected to a chi-square test of independence. This statistic was chosen because the researcher wished to determine if the responses of the subjects were independent of the two categories, non-delinquent and delinquent.

It might be well to note at this point that the researcher is aware that the value of some of the chi squares computed is somewhat questionable, since there are some cells with zero responses. However, it was decided not to collapse the cells in a statistical method, because the fact that there are zero responses in a particular category by a particular group is as important as if there were a number of responses in the cells. Collapsing the cells would reduce the diversity of types of answers and thus reduce the dimension of attitudes recorded. The researcher will note the occurrence of zero cells in the discussion of the data.

It might also be noted at this time that in response to various items on the questionnaire, at times, the chi square for the two groups, non-delinquent and delinquent, had a significant value. When the data was broken down into the male and female sub-groups, the value of the chi square was not significant. This can be attributed in part to the

fact that the value of chi square is related to the size of the sample. If an actual difference exists between the responses of the two classifications, non-delinquent and delinquent, this difference will tend to increase as the sample size increases. If no actual difference exists between the responses of the two groups, the chi square will tend to remain unchanged as sample size increases.

Since this study was designed to determine the perceptions of adolescents, it is impossible to assign absolute values to the response categories offered to the subjects. The response categories of often, most times, sometimes, hardly ever, and never are subject to individual interpretation by each of the adolescents surveyed in the sample population. The response has only the value the subjects have assigned to it, because that is how he perceives his particular situation.

All chi square values have been computed and the values compared to the .05 level of significance.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Adolescent Perceptions of Their Parents

The null hypothesis from which this researcher worked was written up in the form of several sub-hypotheses, each of which was tested through different questions on the questionnaire. Each sub-hypothesis in this section will be dealt with separately.

Hypothesis 1a. This hypothesis stated; "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their parents from non-delinquent adolescents:

a) in the quality of the husband-wife relationship."

In order to test this hypothesis, the subjects were asked to evaluate the husband-wife relationship. The question placed before the subjects was:

My parents get along
with each other:

Extremely well--never fight
Pretty well--rarely fight
Fairly well--fight occasionally
Not very well--fight often
Extremely poorly--always fighting

The null hypothesis was not supported on this issue, as the chi square of 30.060 seems to indicate that the responses are associated with the categories of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response for the control group was "pretty well," with fifty-five responses totaling 57 per cent of the total responses for this group. If the response "extremely well" is included, the two categories include 80 per cent of the total responses for the control group. The mode response for the study group was "pretty well," receiving thirty-one responses, for a total of 39 per cent. If the response "extremely well" is included, this encompasses only 49 per cent of the total responses for the study group. The study group had 51 per cent of its responses in the last three categories of "fairly well," "not very well," and "extremely poorly," while the control group had only 20 per cent of its

responses in these three categories.

When the data was broken down into the male-female sub-groups, the chi square for the male groups was not significant. The chi square of 25.031 for the female sub-groups was significant.

Table 7 shows the number of responses to each of the response categories for the total population and for the male and female sub-groups.

Table 7

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys, for Parents Getting Along
With Each Other

	Extremely well	Pretty well	Fairly well	Not Very well	Extremely poorly	χ^2
Non-delinquent	22	55	17	01	01	
Delinquent	08	31	16	17	07	30.060
M Non-delinquent	13	28	08	01	00	
M Delinquent	07	17	06	05	02	7.669
F Non-delinquent	09	27	09	00	01	
F Delinquent	01	14	07	12	05	25.031

Critical value 9.49

Hypothesis 1 b. The second part of this hypothesis was concerned with the trust relationship between the parent and the child. The hypothesis tested was, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their parents from non-delinquent adolescents:

b) in the trust the parents have in their children."

Subjects were asked to rate this trust according to the way they perceive it. The statement and the alternative responses was:

	Always
	Most always
My parents trust me:	Sometimes
	Hardly ever
	Never

The distribution of the responses for the total sample population resulted in a chi square value of 56.775. This would seem to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent.

As was noted in the treatment of data section, the value attached to the response choices of "always," "most always," "sometimes," "hardly ever," and "never" are subject to interpretation. As cited earlier, it is the perception of the respondent which gives each answer a value, since it is the way he perceives his situation. Since this was discussed in an earlier section of this chapter, no further reference will be made to these values, except as they apply to the general discussion of the data.

The mode response for the control group was "most always," with 62 per cent of the total responses. If the "always" category is included, it comprises 84 per cent of the total responses for the control group. The mode for the study group was "sometimes," with 38 per cent of the responses. If the next highest category of "most always" is included, the two responses would encompass 59 per

cent of the study group responses. The study group has 31 per cent of its responses in the last two categories of "hardly ever" and "never," while the control group has only 5 per cent of its responses in these two categories.

When the data was broken down into the male-female sub-groups, the chi squares remained significant for both males and females. The mode response patterns for the sub-groupings followed the same pattern as did the data for the total population. It is interesting to note that 39 per cent of the delinquent females indicated their parents hardly ever or never trusted them, while only 23 per cent of the delinquent males responded in these two categories.

Table 8 shows the distribution of responses to this question.

Table 8

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys, for My Parents Trust Me

	Always	Most always	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	22	62	11	04	01	
Delinquent	09	19	35	18	10	56.775
M Non-delinquent	07	35	06	02	01	
M Delinquent	05	12	19	08	03	22.823
F Non-delinquent	15	27	05	02	00	
F Delinquent	04	07	16	10	07	36.063

Critical Value 9.49

The element of trust between parent and adolescent was also tested from the perspective of the adolescent. The subjects were asked to respond to:

	Always
	Most always
I trust my parents:	Sometimes
	Hardly ever
	Never

The responses to this question resulted in a chi square of 38.833. This value is significant, but the value of the chi square may be influenced by the two cells with zero responses. However, the control group had 95 per cent of its responses under "always" and "most always," while the study group had only 60 per cent of its responses in these two categories. While both the control and the study group mode response was "always," the study group had 36 per cent of its responses in the categories "sometimes," "hardly ever," and "never." Only 5 per cent of the responses from the control group fell in the category "sometimes," and there were zero responses in "hardly ever" and "never."

The male-female breakdown of the data yields a chi square in both sub-groups, which indicates an association of responses with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response for the sub-groups is the same as for the total group "always," except for the delinquent females, whose mode response is "sometimes." It is interesting to note that this group had 56 per cent of its responses in the last three categories of "sometimes," "hardly ever," and "never."

The non-delinquent females had 94 per cent of their responses in the "always" and "most always" categories.

Table 9 shows the distribution of responses to this question.

Table 9

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys, for Trusting Parents

	Always	Most always	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	68	27	05	00	00	
Delinquent	31	24	19	10	07	38.833
M Non-delinquent	33	16	02	00	00	
M Delinquent	21	15	06	03	03	10.617
F Non-delinquent	35	11	03	00	00	
F Delinquent	10	09	13	07	07	31.079

Critical Value 9.49

Hypothesis 1 c. This sub-hypothesis dealt with adolescent perceptions of parental discipline practices. The hypothesis stated was, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their parents from non-delinquent adolescents:

c) in the discipline practices of the parents."

This sub-hypothesis was tested by asking the adolescents to respond to:

My parents' discipline is: Too strict
Quite strict
Strict but fair
Soft-lax
No discipline

The chi square computation for this item yielded a value of 41.928, which is significant. Again, it is necessary to point out that there is a cell with zero responses, which may have increased the value of the chi square. While both the control and the study group have a mode response of "strict but fair," the control group has 75 per cent of its responses in this category. The study group has only 41 per cent of its responses in this category. The study group had 13 per cent of its responses under "no discipline," and 16 per cent under "too strict," while the control group had only .01 per cent under these categories.

The chi squares for the male-female sub-groups had a value which indicated that a difference in perceptions between the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent could exist. The mode response of these groups remained in the response category of "strict but fair."

Table 10 indicates the distribution of the responses to the question.

Table 10

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys, for Parents Discipline

	Too strict	Quite strict	Strict but fair	Soft -lax	No discipline	x^2
Non-delinquent	01	04	75	20	00	
Delinquent	15	13	38	14	12	41.928
M Non-delinquent	01	00	42	09	00	
M Delinquent	05	06	23	06	08	22.696
F Non-delinquent	00	04	33	11	00	
F Delinquent	10	07	15	08	04	21.909
Critical Value	9.49					

In order to gain understanding about the discipline practices in these homes, subjects were asked:

If I am bad, my parents punish me most often by:	Talking to me about my behavior
	Withdrawing privileges, like shows, TV, etc.
	Scolding me
	Spanking me
	Beating me up

The results of the chi square test applied to this data yielded a value of 28.721. However, the value of the chi square may have been increased by the presence of a zero cell. The mode response for the control group was "talking to me," with 45 per cent of the responses. The mode response for the study group was "withdrawing privileges," with 35 per cent of the responses. Fifteen per cent of the delinquent group indicated that they were punished by "beating me up." It might be well to insert here again that these terms are subject to the interpretation the adolescents assigned to them when they responded to the question. It might also be well to note that the perceptions of the adolescent could be very accurate on this matter.

The data for the male and female sub-groups yielded chi squares with significant values. The mode for the non-delinquent males was "scolding me," while for the delinquent males the mode was "talking to me." The mode response for the non-delinquent females was "talking to me." The delinquent females reported "withdrawing privileges" as the punishment most often used.

Table 11 gives a summary of the data collected from this question.

Table 11

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys for Type of Punishment

	Talking	Withdrawing	Scolding	Spanking	Beating	χ^2
	privileges				me up	
Non-delinquent	45	20	33	01	00	
Delinquent	30	31	12	03	13	28.721
M Non-delinquent	21	08	22	00	00	
M Delinquent	20	12	05	03	07	21.400
F Non-delinquent	24	12	11	01	00	
F Delinquent	10	19	07	00	06	14.900

Critical Value 9.49

Hypothesis 1 d. This sub-hypothesis dealt with the perceived amount of agreement between parents and adolescents. It was stated as, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their parents from non-delinquent adolescents:

- d) in parental agreement with their childrens' interests, friends, and activities."

This sub-hypothesis was tested through several questions. The first question is:

My parents feel my interests are important:	Always
	Most always
	Sometimes
	Hardly ever
	Never

The computed chi square value of 25.219 indicates an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. Again, it must be noted that a zero cell may have influenced the value of chi square.

The mode response for the control group was "most always," having 56 per cent of the responses. The study group had a dual mode of "most always" and "sometimes," each of which had received 31 per cent of the responses. If the category of "sometimes" is included for the control group, the two categories would encompass 77 per cent of the responses. The study group had 22 per cent of its total responses to the question under the last two categories of "hardly ever" and "never." The control group had only 2 per cent of its responses in these categories.

The chi square values computed for the male-female sub-groups were significant. The mode for the female groups was "most always." The non-delinquent males responded most often to "most always," while the delinquent males indicated the response "sometimes" was most appropriate.

Table 12, page 86, summarizes the responses to this question.

The second question asked was to test the agreement between parent and adolescent:

My parents agree with my hair styles:

Yes

No

Table 12

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Parents Feel My
Interests Are Important

	Always	Most always	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	21	56	21	02	00	
Delinquent	15	27	27	14	05	25.219
M Non-delinquent	06	30	14	01	00	
M Delinquent	11	13	17	05	02	13.069
F Non-delinquent	15	26	07	01	00	
F Delinquent	04	14	10	09	03	19.183

Critical Value 9.49

The responses to this question did not yield a chi square value that was significant for the total population or the sub-groups. The null hypothesis of no difference would seem to be supported in this case. The control group had 77 per cent of their responses under "yes," while the study group had 64 per cent of its responses under that category.

It might be of interest to note that the female sub-groups did not differ much in their responses to this question. The male subgroup distribution indicated hair styles tend to be more of an area of disagreement than for girls. The delinquent males had 47 per cent of their responses under "no," while the delinquent females had 22 per cent of their responses under "no." The non-delinquent males had 32 per cent of their responses under "no," while the non-delinquent females

group responded "yes," while only 70 per cent of the study group responded "yes."

The chi square values for the male-female sub-groups maintained a level of significance when the data was broken down. Again, the chi square value for the male sub-groups was higher, 6.739, than it was for the female sub-groups, 4.556. This seems to indicate that delinquent males tend to see this as more of an area of disagreement with their parents.

Table 15 shows the response distribution to this question.

Table 15

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Parents Agree
With Clothes Worn

	Yes	No	χ^2
Non-delinquent	48	02	
Delinquent	61	26	11.781
M Non-delinquent	48	02	
M Delinquent	34	11	6.739
F Non-delinquent	42	07	
F Delinquent	27	15	4.556

Critical Value 3.84

Another way this sub-hypothesis was tested was in the area of movies attended. Subjects were asked to respond to:

My parents agree with the movies I attend:

Yes

No

This data indicates a chi square value of 7.595. This would seem to give basis for the conclusion that there is an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The control group responded under the "yes" column 80 per cent of the time, while the study group responses under "yes" totaled only 61 per cent.

The chi square value of 4.763 for the female sub-groups remained significant, but the value for the male sub-groups of 2.411 was not significant. The level of significance for the female sub-groups may be attributed in part to the fact that 85 per cent of the non-delinquent females responded "yes," while only 63 per cent of the delinquent females responded "yes."

Table 16 indicates the distribution of responses to this item.

Table 16

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Groups, Girls, Boys for Parents Agree
With Movies Attended

	Yes	No	χ^2
Non-delinquent	78	19	
Delinquent	51	33	7.595
M Non-delinquent	38	12	
M Delinquent	24	17	2.411
F Non-delinquent	40	07	
F Delinquent	27	16	4.763

Critical Value 3.84

The last question used in the testing of this sub-hypothesis was:

	Always
	Most always
My parents approve of my	Sometimes
friends:	Hardly ever
	Never

The computed chi square value of 69.464 would seem to be quite significant, but again the value may have been increased by a zero cell. The mode response for the control group was "most times," receiving 66 per cent of the total responses. The mode response for the study group was "sometimes," having 36 per cent of the responses. The first two categories of "always" and "most always" contained 89 per cent of the responses for the control group. The study group had only 31 per cent of its responses under these two categories.

When the data was broken down into the male-female sub-groups, the chi square values remained significant. The mode response for the sub-groups remained the same as it was for the total group.

Table 17 summarizes the data for this question.

Table 17

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-Delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Parents Approve of Friends

	Always	Most times	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	23	65	10	01	00	
Delinquent	07	21	32	23	07	69.464
M Non-delinquent	08	35	07	01	00	
M Delinquent	04	13	16	11	02	25.080
F Non-delinquent	15	30	03	00	00	
F Delinquent	03	08	16	12	05	46.545
Critical Value 9.49						

Hypothesis 1 e. This sub-hypothesis was concerned with the perceived equal treatment of each child in the family. It was stated as, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their parents from non-delinquent adolescents:

- e) in the impartial treatment of all the children in the family."

This sub-hypothesis was tested by asking the question:

My parents treat me as fairly as they	Yes
treat my brothers and/or sisters:	No

The distribution of responses to this question resulted in a chi square value of 13.259, which seems to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The control group had 82 per cent of its responses under the "yes" column. The study group had 57 per cent of its responses under the "yes" column.

When the data is separated into the male-female sub-groups, the chi square values change. For the males, the chi square value of 2.194 seems to indicate that there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. The data from the female sub-groups resulted in a chi square value of 21.693, which is a higher value than for the total group. This would seem to indicate that the impartial treatment of children is perceived as more of a problem for the females than for the males. In the case of the females, it would seem there is grounds to assume an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent

and delinquent, and that the null hypothesis is incorrect.

Table 18 indicates the response pattern for this question.

Table 18

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Boys, Girls For Parents Treat All
Children Equal

	Yes	No	χ^2
Non-delinquent	81	18	
Delinquent	52	40	13.259
M Non-delinquent	40	10	
M Delinquent	31	17	2.194
F Non-delinquent	41	08	
F Delinquent	21	23	21.693

Critical Value 3.84

In order to provide more information concerning the impartial treatment of children by the parents, the question was asked:

In order of birth, I am child number: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8

The chi square value of 18.982 computed from this data seemed to show a level of significance. This would seem to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The control group had 70 per cent of its responses under response categories 1, 2, and 3. The study group had only 48 per cent of its responses under these three response categories. The study group had 52 per cent of its responses under the categories of 4, 5,

and 6, while the control group had 30 per cent of its responses in these three categories. The mode response for the control group was child number 1. The study group had a dual mode of child numbers 2 and 4.

When the data was broken down into the male-female sub-groups, the chi square values failed to reach a level of significance for either of the groups. The mode response for the non-delinquent males was child number 2. For the delinquent males, the mode response was child number 4. The mode response for the non-delinquent females was child number 1, while the mode response for the delinquent females was child number 2.

Table 19 shows the response pattern to this question.

Table 19

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys for Order of Birth

	1	2	3	4	5	6	χ^2
Non-delinquent	25	21	20	19	07	02	
Delinquent	16	20	10	20	13	17	18.982
M Non-delinquent	10	14	10	11	02	01	
M Delinquent	09	09	06	11	06	07	8.639
F Non-delinquent	15	07	10	08	06	01	
F Delinquent	07	11	04	09	07	06	9.988

Critical Value 11.07

Adolescent Perceptions of
Their Family

The second hypothesis tested was concerned with adolescent perceptions of the family.

In order to provide more background information for understanding the family situation of the adolescents, a table indicating the number of years the adolescents had lived in the home has been included. The range of years lived in the home is from five through seventeen. The mean number of years for the control group was 14.61, with the mode response of 17 years. The mean for the study group was 14.24 years, with a dual mode response of 14 and 15 years. The mean for the total group was 14.44 years.

This data was not subjected to the chi square test of independence. Instead, the data has been depicted on a line graph which shows the number of responses to the years lived in the home. The data from the two groups shows a marked similarity in responses. Some of the variations that occur in the number of responses may be a result of the age distribution of the sample populations (see Table 2, page 70).

Table 20, page 96, presents the information described above.

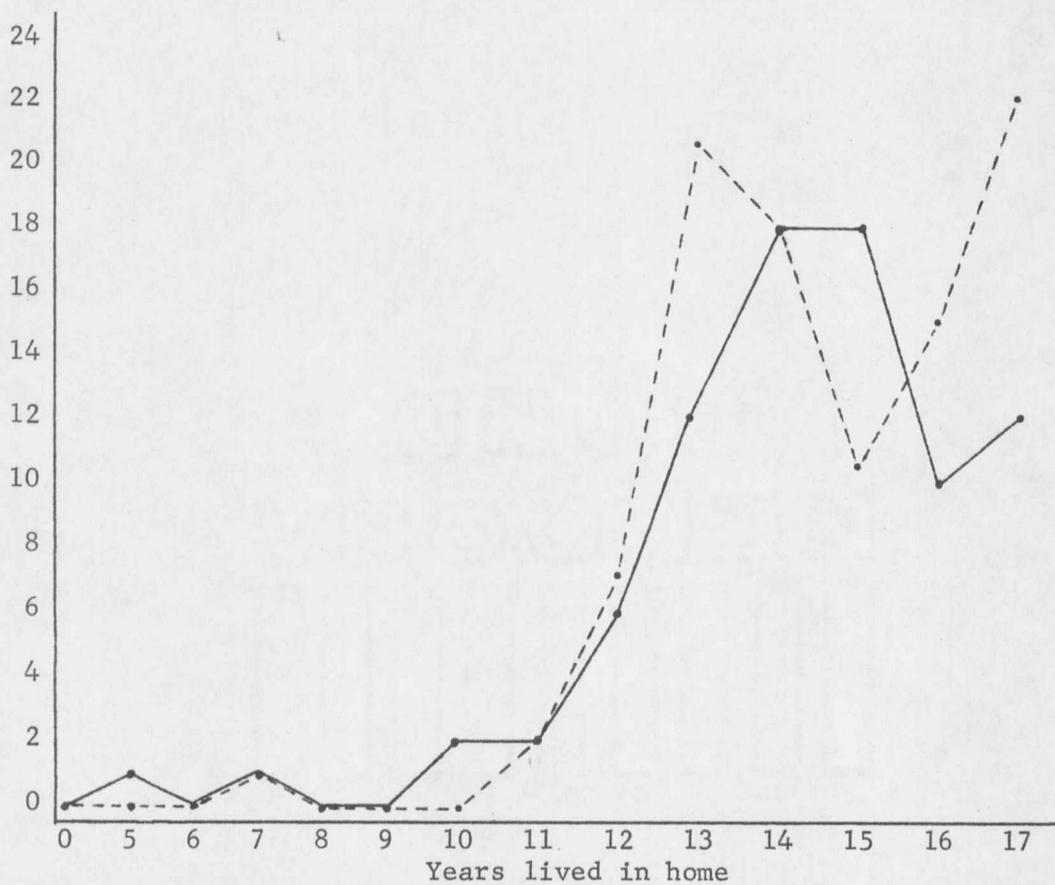
Another aspect of the family relationship researched through this questionnaire was the parents with which the adolescent lived.

The results of this research indicated that 87 per cent of the control group reported living with both natural parents. The study group had only 25 per cent of their responses indicating they lived

Table 20

Number of Years Lived In the Home, Non-delinquent
and Delinquent for Total Group

Number
of responses



-----Non-delinquent

—————Delinquent

Mean years for:

Non-delinquents 14.61

Delinquents 14.24

Total group 14.44

with both natural parents. The study group also had 27 per cent of its responses under "mother only" and another 25 per cent under "mother and stepfather." The control group reported only .06 per cent living with the mother only and had zero responses under "mother and stepfather."

Again, this data was not subjected to the chi square test, but the line graph shows some apparent differences in responses.

Table 21, page 98, shows the distribution of responses.

With the above information forming a background for understanding, the data collected on adolescent perceptions of the family will be more meaningful.

Hypothesis 2 a. This hypothesis stated, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their family from non-delinquent adolescents:

a) in doing things together as a family."

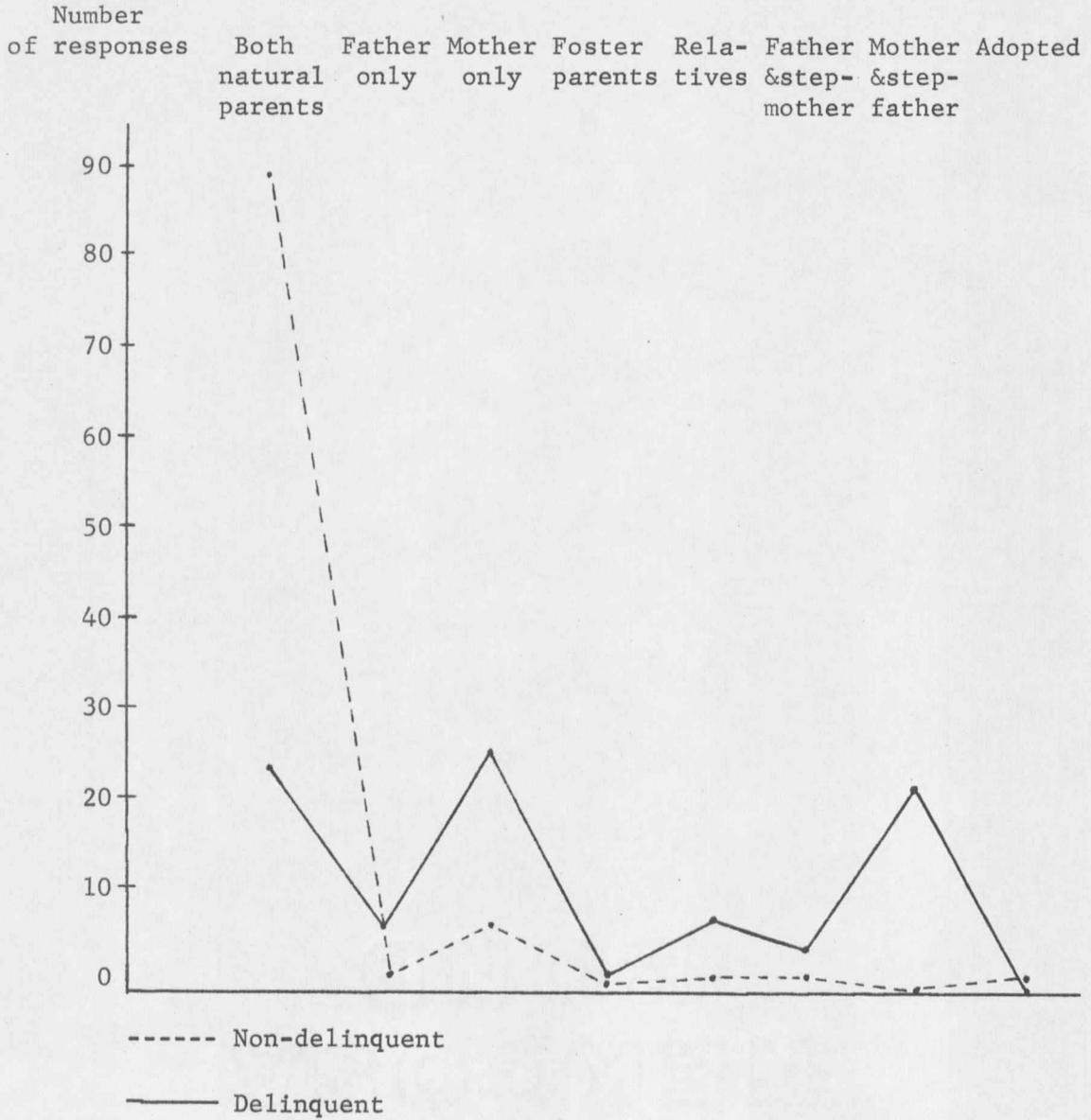
This sub-hypothesis was tested by asking the question:

	Very often
	Often
We do things together	Sometimes
as a family:	Hardly ever
	Never

The value of the chi square computed from this data was 18.873. This would seem to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent or delinquent. The mode response for both groups was "sometimes." However, the control group had 80 per cent of its responses under "sometimes" and "often," while the study group

Table 21

Responses of Delinquent and Non-delinquent, Total Group,
For Parents In the Home In Which They Live



had 60 per cent of its responses under "sometimes" and "hardly ever."

The breakdown of the data into the male-female sub-groups showed a variation in the value of chi square. The response distribution of the male sub-groups did not yield a chi square of significant value. However, the chi square value for the female sub-groups indicated that the null hypothesis of no difference could be questioned. The mode response for the non-delinquent female was "sometimes," while the mode response for the delinquent females was "hardly ever." For the female control group, the mode response represented 43 per cent of the total responses. The mode response for the delinquent females represented 36 per cent of the total responses.

Table 22 indicates the response breakdown for this question.

Table 22

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Doing Things
Together As A Family

	Very often	Often	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	07	39	40	12	01	
Delinquent	13	18	30	25	06	18.873
M Non-delinquent	04	19	19	09	00	
M Delinquent	08	10	20	09	01	5.065
F Non-delinquent	03	20	21	03	01	
F Delinquent	05	08	10	16	05	20.973

Critical Value 9.49

This sub-hypothesis was also tested by asking:

	Every Sunday
	2-3 Sundays per month
My family attends church:	1 Sunday per month
	On special occasions
	(Christmas, Easter, etc.)
	Never

This data, when subjected to the chi square test, yielded a chi square of 24.095. This value seems to indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference between delinquent and non-delinquent could not be accepted. The mode responses for the control group were under "every Sunday" and "2-3 Sundays per month." These two categories received 59 per cent of the control group responses. The mode for the study group was "special occasions only." If the responses under "never" are included for the study group, the two categories would comprise 70 per cent of the study group responses.

The data for the male-female sub-groups yielded a chi square value which was significant for both groups. The mode for the non-delinquent males was "every Sunday." For the delinquent males, the mode response was "never." The mode for the non-delinquent females was "2-3 Sundays per month," while the mode for the delinquent females was "special occasions only."

Table 23, on page 101, gives a summary of the response distribution for this question.

Table 23

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Church Attendance

	Every Sunday	2-3 Sundays per month	1 Sunday per month	Special occasions only	Never	x^2
Non-delinquent	29	29	06	22	13	
Delinquent	12	11	04	33	30	24.095
M Non-delinquent	16	15	02	11	06	
M Delinquent	08	05	04	14	15	12.405
F Non-delinquent	13	14	04	11	07	
F Delinquent	04	06	00	19	15	16.786

Critical Value 9.49

The subjects were also asked to respond to this question to test family cohesiveness:

My mother works at a job outside the home:

Yes

No

The chi square value of 6.565 for the total group indicates there is an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. Seventy per cent of the control group indicated their mother did not work outside the home. Fifty-one per cent of the study group said their mothers did not work outside the home.

It is interesting to note that while the chi square value for the total group was significant, the chi square values for the male-female breakdown were not significant. This would seem to be a case

as described in the introduction, where the value of chi square increases as the size of the population increases, because there is some difference in responses (refer to section on Treatment of Data, pages 74 and 75).

Table 24 shows the response pattern to this question.

Table 24

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys for Mother Working or Not Working

	Mother working	Mother not working	χ^2
Non-delinquent	29	69	6.565
Delinquent	44	46	
M Non-delinquent	15	35	3.637
M Delinquent	24	23	
F Non-delinquent	14	34	2.221
F Delinquent	20	23	

Critical Value 3.84

Hypothesis 2 b. The next sub-hypothesis was, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their family from non-delinquent adolescents:

b) in communication between parents and children."

This hypothesis was tested by asking the question:

My parents and I are able to talk
about my personal problems:

Always
Most times
Sometimes
Hardly ever
Never

The variation of responses to this question resulted in a chi square value of 17.848. This would tend to indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference between non-delinquent and delinquent should not be accepted. The mode response for both groups was "sometimes." However, if the second highest number of responses are included, the control group would have 70 per cent of its responses under "sometimes" and "most times." The study group would have 54 per cent of its responses under "sometimes" and "hardly ever." The study group had 18 per cent of its responses under "never," while the control group had only .03 per cent of its responses under this category.

Again, the chi square values for the male-female breakdown were not significant. However, there was enough difference between the responses of the control and the study group that when the population was increased the chi square increased also.

Table 25 summarizes the data received from this question.

Table 25

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Talking With
Parents About Personal Problems

	Always	Most times	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	10	33	36	17	03	
Delinquent	11	14	27	21	16	17.848
M Non-delinquent	06	18	18	08	01	
M Delinquent	08	06	16	11	05	9.310
F Non-delinquent	04	15	18	09	02	
F Delinquent	03	08	11	10	11	8.755
Critical Value 9.49						

The sub-hypothesis on communications between parents and adolescents was also tested by asking the question:

I understand my parents:	Always
	Most times
	Sometimes
	Hardly ever
	Never

The computed chi square value of 32.055 would seem to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. However, the value of the chi square may have been influenced by a zero cell. The mode response for the control group was "most times," receiving 72 per cent of the responses. The mode response for the study group was "sometimes," which received 37 per cent of the responses. The study group had 15 per cent of its responses under the two categories of "hardly ever" and "never," while the control group had only 4 per cent of its responses under these categories.

The chi square values for the data when broken into the male-female groups remained significant. The mode for the male non-delinquent and delinquent groups was under the category "most times." The mode for the non-delinquent females was "most times," while the mode response for the delinquent females was "sometimes."

Table 26, page 105, shows the response pattern to this question.

The subjects were also asked to give their perceptions of parental understanding of them. The question was asked:

Table 26

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For I Understand My Parents

	Always	Most times	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	08	72	16	04	00	32.055
Delinquent	14	30	34	09	05	
M Non-delinquent	04	39	06	02	00	12.928
M Delinquent	07	21	16	03	02	
F Non-delinquent	04	33	10	02	00	21.518
F Delinquent	07	09	18	06	03	

Critical Value 9.49

My parents understand me:

- Always
- Most times
- Sometimes
- Hardly ever
- Never

The response pattern to this question yielded a chi square value of 30.626. This would seem to indicate that the response was associated with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response for the total group followed the pattern set by the previous question. The category of "most times" received 50 per cent of the responses for the control group, while the response "sometimes" received 38 per cent of the study group responses. The study group had 20 per cent of its responses under "hardly ever" and "never." The control group had only 5 per cent of its responses under these two categories.

The chi square value for the male sub-groups did not reach a level of significance. The mode response of "sometimes" was true of non-delinquent and delinquent males. However, the chi square value for the female group reached a level of significance indicating an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response for the non-delinquent females was "most times," while the mode response for the delinquent females was "sometimes."

Table 27 summarizes the data from this question.

Table 27

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquent and Non-Delinquent
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Parents Understand Me

	Always	Most times	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	07	49	37	04	01	30.626
Delinquent	10	19	35	14	14	
M Non-delinquent	05	21	22	03	00	8.021
M Delinquent	07	13	17	07	04	
F Non-delinquent	02	29	15	01	01	27.328
F Delinquent	03	06	18	07	10	

Critical Value 9.49

Hypothesis 2 c. This hypothesis stated, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their family from non-delinquent adolescents:

c) in the affection shown between parents and children."

In order to test this hypothesis, subjects were asked to respond to this question:

	Very often
	Often
My parents show affection towards me:	Sometimes
	Hardly ever
	Never

The response pattern to this question resulted in a chi square value of 16.722. This seems to demonstrate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response of "often" contained 53 per cent of the control group responses. The mode response of "sometimes" received 40 per cent of the study group responses. The control group had 93 per cent of its responses under the three categories of "very often," "often," and "sometimes." The study group had 84 per cent of its responses under these three categories.

The chi square value of the male sub-groups did not reach a level of significance. However, the chi square value for the female sub-groups had a value of 18.440, which was significant. The mode response for the non-delinquent females was "often," while the mode response for the delinquent females was "sometimes."

Table 28 on page 108 gives a summary of the data from this question.

Table 28

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Parents Show
Affection Toward Me.

	Very often	Often	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	15	53	25	06	01	
Delinquent	16	24	36	09	06	16.722
M Non-delinquent	07	26	16	02	00	
M Delinquent	08	18	17	02	03	4.464
F Non-delinquent	08	27	09	04	01	
F Delinquent	08	06	19	07	03	18.440

Critical Value 9.49

This sub-hypothesis was also tested by asking the question:

How do you feel about your parents:	Love them
	Respect them
	They are OK
	Don't think much of them
	Dislike them

The data from this question did not result in a chi square value beyond the level of significance, even though there were two zero cells which could have increased the value of chi square. Thus, there is insufficient evidence in this case to reject the null hypothesis of no difference. The mode response of "love them" was true of both non-delinquents and delinquents. This mode carried through the data breakdown for the male and female sub-groups. It might be of interest to note that 8 per cent of the study group responded in the two categories of "don't think much of them" and "dislike them," while the control

group had zero responses in these two categories.

Table 29 gives the response pattern for this question.

Table 29

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For How You Feel
About Your Parents

	Love them	Respect them	They are OK	Don't think much of them	Dislike them	χ^2
Non-delinquent	71	22	07	00	00	
Delinquent	62	14	09	03	04	9.319
M Non-delinquent	32	14	05	00	00	
M Delinquent	34	09	03	00	02	3.559
F Non-delinquent	39	08	02	00	00	
F Delinquent	28	05	06	03	02	9.256

Critical Value 9.49

Hypothesis 2 d. This sub-hypothesis stated, "There is no difference in the way delinquent adolescents perceive their family from non-delinquent adolescents:

d) in the parental decision making process."

This sub-hypothesis was tested by asking the question:

When a decision has to be made in my family, the one who always has the last word is:	My mother
	My father
	Both parents

When the data from this question was computed, it resulted in a chi square value of 23.540. This would seem to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent.

It is interesting to note that the response pattern of the control group is inverted from that of the study group. Fifty-three per cent of the control group reported that both parents were involved in the decision making. Forty-seven per cent of the study group reported that mother made the decisions in the family. The percentage of responses for the two groups under "my mother" may have been influenced by the fact that 27 per cent of the study group reported living with the mother only (see Table 21, page 98), while only 6 per cent of the control group reported living with the mother only.

The response pattern remained the same when the data was broken down into male and female sub-groups. The chi square values also maintained a level of significance, although the chi square value for the female groups was higher than it was for the male groups.

Table 30 indicates the response distribution for this question.

Table 30

Chi Square Distribution for Delinquent and Non-delinquent
For Total Group, Boys, Girls For Parental Decision Making

	Mother	Father	Both parents	χ^2
Non-delinquent	17	30	52	23.540
Delinquent	42	27	21	
M Non-delinquent	09	14	27	8.991
M Delinquent	21	12	14	
F Non-delinquent	08	16	25	16.786
F Delinquent	21	15	07	

Critical Value 5.99

In order to gain perspective on the perceived parent-child relationship, the researcher also asked the question:

	My mother
	My stepmother
The parent I get along with best is:	My father
	My stepfather
	Both parents
	Neither parent

The chi square value of 12.225 from this question is just 1.155 over the level of significance. Since there were some zero cells, the chi square value computed would be highly suspect, and there would be insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no difference.

There are, however, some interesting patterns to the responses. The mode response for the control group was "both parents," receiving 48 per cent of the responses. The study group had only 27 per cent of their responses under "both parents." Forty-six per cent of the study group reported getting along with mother best. There were zero responses for either group under "my stepmother" and only four responses out of 191 under the response "my stepfather." This is interesting since 25 per cent of the study group reported living with a mother and stepfather (see Table 21, page 98). Three per cent of the study group reported they did not get along with either parent.

The chi square values of the male-female breakdown were not significant. The mode response pattern for the sub-groups remained the same as it was for the total group.

Table 31 indicates the response distribution to this question.

Table 31

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Parent I Get Along With Best

	Mother	Step- mother	Father	Step- father	Both parents	Neither parent	χ^2
Non-delinquent	36	00	14	01	48	00	
Delinquent	42	00	19	03	25	03	12.225
M Non-delinquent	16	00	08	01	26	00	
M Delinquent	24	00	08	02	13	01	7.182
F Non-delinquent	20	00	06	00	22	00	
F Delinquent	18	00	11	01	12	02	7.357

Critical Value 11.07

Adolescent Perceptions of Their Homes

Hypothesis 3. This null hypothesis stated, "There is no difference between the perceptions of delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents in the quality of their home."

This hypothesis was tested by asking the subjects to respond to this question:

My home is a: Happy place
 Unhappy place

It is important to emphasize that the responses of the adolescents to this question are based upon how they perceive the home. Other family members may have responded differently to this question.

The computed chi square value of 19.482 indicates that the null hypothesis of no difference could not be accepted for this question. While the mode response for both groups saw the home as a "happy place," the control group had 92 per cent response in this category. The study group had only 65 per cent of its responses in this category.

The chi square value of 2.546 for the male sub-groups dropped below the level of significance, indicating that the null hypothesis could be true for the males. The chi square value of 18.480 for the female sub-groups was significant. The non-delinquent females had 94 per cent of their responses under "happy place." The delinquent females had only 52 per cent of their responses under this category. This would seem to indicate that females have different perceptions of their home than do males. There would also seem to be a difference in perceptions of the home between non-delinquents and delinquent females.

Table 32 indicates subject responses to this question.

Table 32

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Home Is A Happy Place

	Happy place	Unhappy place	χ^2
Non-delinquent	92	08	
Delinquent	57	31	19.482
M Non-delinquent	46	05	
M Delinquent	35	11	2.546
F Non-delinquent	46	03	
F Delinquent	22	20	18.480
Critical Value	3.84		

Another question the subjects were asked to respond to was:

	Always
	Most always
I enjoy being with my parents:	Sometimes
	Hardly ever
	Never

The chi square value of 19.078 computed from this data would seem to indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference should not be accepted. It must be noted at this point that a zero cell may have increased the chi square value for the groups. The mode response for the control group was under the category of "most always," having 47 per cent of the responses. The mode response for the study group was "sometimes," with 36 per cent of the responses. Eleven per cent of the study group said they "hardly ever" or "never" enjoyed being with their parents. Only 2 per cent of the control group responded in the "hardly ever" category and had zero responses in the "never" category.

The chi square value for the male sub-groups was not significant indicating that for the males the null hypothesis of no difference should not be rejected. The mode for the non-delinquent males was "most always," having 41 per cent of the responses. The delinquent males had a dual mode of "always" and "sometimes," both of which had 35 per cent of the responses for that group.

The chi square value for the female sub-groups of 21.693 indicates an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response for the non-delinquent

females was "most always," receiving 53 per cent of the responses. The delinquent females mode response was "sometimes," with 37 per cent of the responses. The delinquent females had 10 per cent of their responses under the categories of "hardly ever" and "never." The non-delinquent females did not have any responses under these last two categories.

Table 33 shows the distribution of responses to this question.

Table 33

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Enjoy Being With My Parents

	Always	Most always	Some- times	Hardly ever	Never	χ^2
Non-delinquent	28	47	23	02	00	
Delinquent	29	19	33	07	03	19.078
M Non-delinquent	18	21	10	02	00	
M Delinquent	17	13	17	00	01	6.640
F Non-delinquent	10	26	13	00	00	
F Delinquent	12	06	16	07	02	21.693

Critical Value 9.49

Adolescent Perceptions
of Themselves

Hypothesis 4. This null hypothesis stated, "There is no difference in the perceptions of delinquent and non-delinquent adolescent self concepts."

This hypothesis was tested by asking the subjects to respond to this question:

Write down two words you would use to describe yourself.

The responses were rated on a positive or negative basis by the researcher. Words like lazy, or insecure, were rated negative. Words like intelligent, and friendly, were rated positive. The chi square value of 14.956 for this question indicates that the null hypothesis of no difference should not be accepted. The control group mode response was positive, receiving 72 per cent of the responses. Although the mode response for the study group was positive, this category had only 50 per cent of the responses for this group.

The chi square value of 3.050 for the male sub-groups was not significant. However, the chi square value of 11.566 for the female sub-groups indicated an association of response with the classification of delinquent or non-delinquent. The mode response for the non-delinquent females was positive, having received 65 per cent of the responses. The mode response for the delinquent females was negative, having 62 per cent of the responses.

Table 34, page 117, shows the number of responses in each category.

Table 34

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Words Used To
Describe Self

	Positive	Negative	χ^2
Non-delinquent	127	50	14.956
Delinquent	76	75	
M Non-delinquent	68	18	3.050
M Delinquent	45	24	
F Non-delinquent	59	32	11.566
F Delinquent	31	51	

Critical Value 3.84

Another question asked the subjects to respond to this question:

Compared with my school- mates, I see myself as:	Being much better than they are
	Being better than they are
	Being about the same as they are
	Being not as good as they are
	Being much worse than they are

The data from this question resulted in a chi square value of 13.412, which seems to indicate an association of response with the classification of non-delinquent and delinquent. The mode response for both groups indicated they saw themselves as being about the same as their schoolmates. The control group had 88 per cent of its responses in this category, as opposed to 67 per cent for the study group. The study group had 22 per cent of its responses in the last two categories of "being not as good" and "being much worse." The control group only had 7 per cent of its responses in these two categories. The study group also had 14 per cent of its responses in the two categories of

"being better" and "being much better." The control group had only 5 per cent in these two categories.

The chi square value for the male sub-groups maintained its level of significance, while the chi square value for the female sub-group dropped below the level of significance. The mode response pattern remained the same as it was for the total group. It might be of interest to note that outside of two delinquent male responses, there were no other responses to the category of "being much better than they are."

Table 35 gives a summary of the data to this question.

Table 35

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Comparing Self
With Schoolmates.

	Much better	Better	Same	Not as good	Much worse	χ^2
Non-delinquent	00	05	88	06	01	
Delinquent	02	08	62	15	05	13.412
M Non-delinquent	00	03	45	02	01	
M Delinquent	02	08	29	07	02	10.762
F Non-delinquent	00	02	43	04	00	
F Delinquent	00	00	33	08	03	7.401

Critical Value 9.49.

Another question asked the subjects to:

Write down two words your parents would use in describing you.

Again, the words submitted by the subjects were rated on a positive or negative basis. The chi square value of 60.488 would seem to give basis for not accepting the null hypothesis of no difference. Eighty-one per cent of the control group responses were positive, while 60 per cent of the study group responses were negative.

The chi square values for the male-female sub-groups remained significant, although the value for the female sub-groups remained much higher than it did for the males. This may be attributed in part to the fact that 67 per cent of the delinquent females responses were negative, while only 52 per cent of the delinquent males responded in a negative manner.

The data compiled from this question shows an interesting variation from the data compiled in Table 29, page 109, on how the adolescents feel about their parents. In response to this question, 67 per cent of the study group said they loved their parents. Now, when asked how the parents would describe them, the delinquent adolescents respond with 60 per cent negative responses.

Another interesting comparison that can be made is with the data from Table 28, see page 108. Here the adolescents were asked to rate the amount of parental affection shown to the adolescent. Eighty-four per cent of the study group responded under the three categories of "very often" 18 per cent, "often" 26 per cent, and "sometimes" 40 per cent. The 60 per cent negative response in Table 36, page 120, again

brings out a very interesting variation in adolescent perceptions.

Table 36 shows the response pattern to this question.

Table 36

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Words Parents
Would Use In Describing You

	Positive	Negative	χ^2
Non-delinquent	158	37	60.488
Delinquent	60	91	
M Non-delinquent	77	22	14.838
M Delinquent	33	36	
F Non-delinquent	81	15	46.926
F Delinquent	27	55	

Critical Value 3.84

The subjects were also asked to respond to this question:

Write down two words you think your schoolmates might use in describing you.

This data, treated in the same manner as described above, yielded a chi square value of 16.730. This would seem to indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference should not be accepted. While the mode response for both groups was positive, the control group had 86 per cent positive responses, as opposed to 61 per cent positive responses for the study group.

The chi square values for the male-female sub-groups remained significant, although the value for the male sub-groups was higher than

it was for the female sub-groups.

Table 37 indicates the response pattern to this question.

Table 37

Chi Square Distribution For Delinquents and Non-delinquents
For Total Group, Girls, Boys For Words Schoolmates
Would Use In Describing You

	Positive	Negative	χ^2
Non-delinquent	152	34	
Delinquent	83	54	16.730
M Non-delinquent	74	18	
M Delinquent	33	29	11.680
F Non-delinquent	78	16	
F Delinquent	50	25	5.185

Critical Value 3.84

SUMMARY

The researcher attempted in this chapter, through the use of a questionnaire, to develop a greater understanding of the perceptions held by non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents.

Adolescent perceptions of their parents. The data collected would seem to indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference between non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents was not supported in these areas: (1) parents getting along with each other; (2) in the trust relationship between parents and children; (3) in parental discipline

practices; (4) in the agreement between parents and their children; and (5) in the impartial treatment of all children in the family.

Adolescent perceptions of their family. Results of the questionnaire would seem to indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference between non-delinquent and delinquent responses could not be accepted in these areas: (1) doing things together as a family; (2) in the communication between parents and children; (3) in the demonstration of parental affection for the adolescent; (4) in parental cooperation with each other in making decisions.

Adolescent perceptions of their home. The data compiled from the questionnaire indicates that the null hypothesis of no difference between non-delinquent and delinquent perceptions of the home was not supported.

Adolescent perceptions of themselves. The results of the data from the questionnaire indicate that the null hypothesis of no difference in non-delinquent and delinquent perceptions of themselves should not be accepted.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the researcher will present a general thesis summary, discuss the conclusions resulting from this study, and present recommendations for future research.

SUMMARY

This dissertation dealt with adolescent perceptions of parent-child relationships, and centered specifically on possible perceptual differences between non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents. It was the purpose of this researcher to identify areas of conflict between the parent and the adolescent and how the adolescent perceives his parents, family, home, and himself.

In order to implement this study, the term delinquent was defined, pertinent literature was reviewed, a questionnaire was developed and administered, and interviews were conducted.

The review of literature was centered around the source and development of the self-concept, and the effects of the parents and home life upon this development.

The literature indicated that the self-concept was a system of beliefs a person has about himself as a person. How he perceives himself, his adequacy, his self-confidence, and his self-value. All of these determine how he will respond to a particular situation.

The development of the self-concept is influenced by parental reactions to the adolescent, peer group reactions, success in dealing with new life experiences, how he thinks others see him, and his ability to cope with the issues of life.

People will behave in ways consistent with their self-concept and will act in a manner which will help them maintain their self-concept. The self-concept is so important to the individual; he will even nurture a negative self-concept rather than risk being without a self-concept.

How the adolescent perceives himself determines to a great extent his attitude towards others and towards life in general. It can affect the degree of adjustment the person makes even in later adolescent years.

Since parents are with the child from birth till the time he leaves the home, they have the greatest opportunity to influence the development of the child. If the parents fail to give or provide opportunity for the adolescent to grow emotionally, the adolescent will turn to other sources, such as street gangs for support and experience.

When an adolescent is experiencing the urge to grow and experience, it is often misinterpreted by the adult world as rebellion. This often creates a chasm between the adolescent and his parents at a time when he really is in need of support, guidance, and acceptance.

The next step in this study was to administer a questionnaire to develop greater understanding of adolescent perceptions of parent-child relationships. In addition to the questionnaire, interviews were conducted with at least 10 per cent of the subjects.

The questionnaire was designed to investigate adolescent perceptions of four specific areas: how the adolescent perceives his parents, how the adolescent perceives his family, how the adolescent perceives his home, and how the adolescent perceives himself. The data collected will be summarized under the four categories named above.

Adolescent Perceptions of Their Parents

This category was investigated through several questions. Evaluation of the data from these questions indicated that there is a difference between the perceptions of non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents, and that these differences are significant for the following issues:

1. The marital relationship of the parents
2. The trust the parents had in the adolescent
3. The trust the adolescent had in the parents
4. The degree of parental discipline
5. The types of discipline used
6. Parents' feeling that the adolescents' interests are important

7. Type of music the adolescent listed to
8. Type of clothing worn by the adolescent
9. Type of movies the adolescent attended
10. Parental approval of friends
11. Parents having favorite children
12. Order of birth

The only area in this category which did not indicate a significant difference in the perceptions of non-delinquents and delinquents in their relationship with their parents was the hair styles worn by the adolescent.

Adolescent Perceptions of Their Family

Investigation of this category was conducted through several items on the questionnaire. The data collected from these items indicated a difference in perceptions of non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents about their family. The delinquent group rated these items differently than did non-delinquents:

1. Frequency of doing things together as a family
2. Church attendance as a family
3. Mother working at a job outside the home
4. Ability to discuss personal problems with parents
5. Adolescent understanding the parents
6. Parents understanding the adolescent

7. The frequency of parental affection shown toward the adolescent
8. Parental decision making.

The items which did not show a significant difference between the perceptions of non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents were:

1. How the adolescent feels about his parents
2. The parent with which the adolescent gets along the best

Adolescent Perceptions of the Home

Adolescent perceptions of this category were investigated through several questions. Responses of the adolescents to these items indicated that there is a difference between the perceptions of non-delinquents and delinquents in the following areas:

1. The quality of the home situation
2. Being with the parents

Adolescent Perceptions of Themselves

This category was investigated by having the subjects write down words they would use to describe themselves, and words they think their parents and friends would use in describing them. The results indicated that there is a difference in the perceptions of adolescents, as the delinquent group used more negative words in these areas:

1. Words the adolescent used to describe himself

2. Comparing himself with his schoolmates
3. Words the parent would use in describing the adolescent
4. Words schoolmates would use in describing the adolescent

CONCLUSIONS

Based upon this study, the following conclusions were made:

1. Non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents' perceptions of the quality of their relationship with their parents differ significantly in the areas of compatibility, trust, discipline, parent-child agreement, and equal treatment for all children in the family.
2. Non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents' perceptions of the quality of their family relationships differ significantly in the areas of involvement in family activities, inter-family communication, understanding, affection shown by parents for their children, and parental decision making.
3. Non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents' perceptions of the quality of their home life differ significantly.
4. Non-delinquent and delinquent adolescents' perceptions differ significantly in how they see themselves, how they think their parents see them, and how they think their schoolmates see them.
5. Even adolescents who rated themselves on a positive basis feel their parents are not satisfied with them as they are.
6. Delinquent adolescents are quick to take the responsibility

for their actions and are hesitant to blame the parents for their trouble. Usually, the blame is placed on an external factor like alcohol, step-father or mother, a job, or other factors that interfere with the relationship.

7. Communication is seen by the adolescents, both delinquent and non-delinquent, as a major problem. The parent reacts to the situation rather than listening to the need of the adolescent.

8. Trust between the adolescent and the parent is conditional. There are some things the adolescent feels he cannot share with his parents.

9. Adolescents do not feel that the type of work the father is engaged in influences how they feel about their father.

10. The home atmosphere and the parental attitude toward the adolescent have a great influence upon the development of the self-concept of the adolescent.

11. The self-concept the adolescent has determines his choices and decisions.

12. Delinquent behavior is learned, often from assigned roles in the family or through lack of parental support and encouragement.

13. Happy parent-child relationships are an exception rather than a rule with delinquent adolescents.

14. Economic, social, or physical factors in the home usually do not predispose toward delinquency.

15. Delinquent behavior is often a result of perceived parental rejection and unconcern.

16. Parental values can be communicated to the adolescent on a subconscious level by the parents.

17. Rebellion is a natural part of the maturing process for the adolescent. Wise parents will relieve the emotional pitch of the rebellion by an attitude of support, acceptance, and by providing an atmosphere of security for the adolescent.

18. Change and adjustment to new roles and life situations can occur best when the adolescent has confidence in himself.

19. The family of the adolescent is the most important source of emotions. They are the most important for the adolescent to impress and the most feared by the adolescent.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based upon this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. The findings of this study should be developed into a monograph on parent-child behavior.

2. Further study should be conducted to assess the reason for the differences between the responses of males and females to attitudinal measures.

3. This study should be replicated to see if similar findings would occur with a different group of subjects.

4. More emphasis should be placed upon preparing parents to be parents of adolescents. This could be a sequel to the pre-natal classes that are conducted for expectant parents.

5. Further study should be conducted to assess the implications of family church attendance upon delinquency.

6. Further study should be conducted in the area of the trust relationship between parents and their children.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER

I am interested in learning more about how teenagers see their parents. In order to do this, I am asking you to fill out the following questionnaire as honestly as you can.

The questions ask you to evaluate how you see the family relationships, such as your parent's relationship with each other, your parent's relationship with their children, your parent's relationship with you, and how you think others see you.

All answers will be kept in strictest confidence. No one but yourself will know how you answered the questions.

Read each question carefully before answering. Check only the most correct answer for each multiple choice question.

On the last page of the questionnaire, you are asked to describe how you perceive various relationships by the use of two words. Use two separate words, such as careful - thoughtful, or careless - lazy, or any other combination of words which you feel best describes how you see the relationship.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this questionnaire.

Sincerely,

W. Duane Haidle
Graduate Student
Educational Services
Montana State University
Bozeman, Montana 59715

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Age: (circle one) 12 13 14 15 16 17
2. Sex: Male _____
Female _____
3. Present grade in school: (circle one) 7 8 9 10 11 12
4. My parents are: Married and living together _____
Separated _____
Father and/or mother dead _____
5. We live: In town _____
On a farm _____
6. If in town, the size of the town is: Under 500 _____
500 - 2,000 _____
2,000 - 10,000 _____
Over 10,000 _____
7. My present home is with: Both natural parents _____
Father only _____
Mother only _____
Foster parents _____
Relatives _____

7. (continued) Father and Stepmother _____
 Mother and Stepfather _____
8. I have lived with my parents: _____ years.
9. My father's occupation is: _____
10. My mother works at a job outside the home: Yes _____
 No _____
11. How many: Older brothers _____
 Older sisters _____
 Younger brothers _____
 Younger sisters _____
12. In order of birth, I am child number: (circle one) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
13. My family attends church: Every Sunday _____
 2-3 Sundays per month _____
 1 Sunday per month _____
 On special occasions (Christmas, Easter, etc.) _____
 Never _____
14. When a decision has to be made in my family, the one who always has the last word is: My mother _____
 My father _____
 Both parents _____

15. My parents get along with each other:

Extremely well--never fight _____

Pretty well--rarely fight _____

Fairly well--fight occasionally _____

Not very well--fight often _____

Extremely poorly--always fighting _____

16. My parents and I are able to talk about my personal problems:

Always _____

Most times _____

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

17. My parents understand me:

Always _____

Most times _____

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

18. My parents approve of my friends:

Always _____

Most times _____

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

19. My parents discipline is:

- Too strict _____
- Quite strict _____
- Strict but fair _____
- Soft - lax _____
- No discipline _____

20. If I am bad, my parents most often punish me by:

- Talking to me about my behavior _____
- Withdrawing privileges like shows, TV, etc. _____
- Scolding me _____
- Spanking me _____
- Beating me up _____

21. My parents treat me as fairly as they treat my brothers and/or sisters:

- Yes _____
- No _____

22. I enjoy being with my parents:

- Always _____
- Most always _____
- Sometimes _____
- Hardly ever _____
- Never _____

23. We do things together as a family:

- Very often _____
- Often _____
- Sometimes _____
- Hardly ever _____
- Never _____

24. My parents agree with:

My hair styles: Yes _____
 No _____

The music I listen to: Yes _____
 No _____

The clothes I wear: Yes _____
 No _____

The movies I attend: Yes _____
 No _____

25. I trust my parents:

Always _____

Most always _____

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

26. My parents feel my interests are important:

Always _____

Most always _____

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

27. My home is a:

Happy place _____

Unhappy place _____

28. My parents show affection towards me:

Very often _____

Often _____

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

Always _____

Most times _____

29. I understand my parents:

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

Always _____

Most always _____

30. My parents trust me:

Sometimes _____

Hardly ever _____

Never _____

Love them _____

Respect them _____

31. How do you feel about your parents?

They are OK _____

Don't think much of them _____

Dislike them _____

- My mother _____
- My stepmother _____
32. The parent I get along with best is: My father _____
- My stepfather _____
- Both parents _____
- Neither parent _____
- Being much better than they are _____
- Being better than they are _____
33. Compared with my schoolmates, I see myself as: Being about the same as they are _____
- Being not as good as they are _____
- Being much worse than they are _____
34. Write down two words you think your parents might use in describing you:
- _____
35. Write down two words you think your schoolmates would use in describing you:
- _____
36. Write down two words you would use to describe yourself.
- _____
37. If your parents could be different, how would you want them to be?
38. How do you think your parents would want you to be if they could change you?

APPENDIX C

Responses to Question 37

Question 37: If your parents could be different, how would you want them to be?

Responses of the boys in the study group to the question, "If your parents could be different, how would you want them to be?"

I wouldn't want them different.

I would like them to think more like I think.

Not so strict is all.

Don't know.

Smoke a little dope now and then, keep their hates of me to themselves.

Not to preach and to say what they think.

I wouldn't. I like them the way they are.

They were still together and never drank.

Just the way they are now.

I would like to be able to communicate better with my mother.

Be back together and not fight as much.

A happy family.

To understand why I do the things I do.

I wouldn't.

More nice, more rich, younger, more understanding.

I would like them to have me do anything I want to do.

I would want my dad to cut down on his drinking.

The same as what they are.

I think a little more respectful.

Not so strict.

More understanding towards me.

A little stricter at certain times, trying to understand.

Same as they are now.

Hip, be with us kids now and understand us more.

They don't need to be different.

I'd want my mom to quit drinking. That's all I ever want.

A little more strict because I wouldn't be in so much trouble.

Like us in the now generation.

To be nicer, not as strict as they are.

Together and never to fight again.

I would like them to quit gripping all the time and let me do more things.

The same.

It would depend on what the thing would be happening at the time.

I wouldn't want them to be different.

A lot different.

Responses of the girls in the study group to the question, "If your parents could be different, how would you want them to be?"

They are ok, drugs are the main thing we argue about.

Not so strict, and fair to everyone.

More understandable and trust me more.

My stepmother could quit being so strict and mean.

I don't want them to change.

I would like them to be not so worried about my friends and have trust in me.

More trusting, and quit throwing up the past.

Not be so strict or beat on me so much.

Happier with me, and try to understand the way that is me.

To accept the friends I want and to trust me.

I would like them to change their life and join the today generation.

I wouldn't want them changed.

I don't want my parents to change.

I'd like for them to at least try to understand me and not to be so two-faced. Example--if I broke a favorite record of theirs, I'd have to pay--if vice versa--they say so what!

Let me pick my own friends. Let me grow up and not stay a baby or little girl all my life.

Let me go.

More understanding so that I may communicate with him.

I'd want him married with a mother for our family.

They can't be and I don't want them to be.

Not to argue as much, a little less strict, trustful.

I would want them to be better than they are.

I would like them to treat me like the rest of the family.

Less strict and more fair between us all.

Just to have both parents and to live with them.

Happy and a little more fair.

I don't want them to change.

Really nice.

I don't want to change her [mother].

I would want them to love me like my mother did, and to treat me and my sisters as well as they do their own. I would want them to be less religious and hypocritical.

I like them the way they are.

Happy, forgetful.

I'd like my parents just once to try and see things my way.

Don't know.

My parents are just great.

I don't want my mother to be different. I love her just the way she is.

I wouldn't want them any different.

More nicer to us, being together more, not treating us as a 6 year old when it comes to going out.

Quite drinking.

I don't want them to change.

Together and don't drink.

I would like them to stay the way they are.

I would want 2 parents, sweet, considerate yet stern.

I wouldn't want them to beat on me as much as they do. Would want them to be a lot nicer.

Responses of the boys in the control group to the question, "If your parents could be different, how would you want them to be?"

To trust me more.

I would like them to change their style a little bit more this way.

Not quite so strict.

My dad not to get mad so easy.

A little more understanding.

A little more strict.

I think my mother, when talking to other people, tries to get up a conversation too often, as if she's supposed to do all the talking. I think she also embarasses her kids too much. I wish my father would stop drinking.

Not have to work as much.

I like the way they are now.

I like them to stay the same as they are.

Let them so I get to do more things.

I wouldn't want them to be different.

Richer and less strict.

Not a bit different.

Giving a few more privileges to something they don't know about.

I like my parents the way they are.

Agreeing with my tastes, such as music and hairstyle.

No changes.

To tell more things,

I would want them to love each other a lot more and solve their religious problem!

Would want them to go on more vacations and have more fun.

They are ok the way they are now. I would not want to change them.

Not so religious.

More trusting--I think.

I like them the way they are.

To do more camping and stuff.

I don't know.

More active like go fishing every other Saturday.

Younger and my mom not so hot-tempered.

The same as they are right now.

Stop to hear things out before they punish.

Let me go more places.

Strict and fair to all the children.

More relaxed on discipline.

I wouldn't want them to be different.

I wouldn't want them to be different.

I wouldn't want them to be different.

Want them to slow down and get explanations before anger.

Wouldn't want them any different.

In better health.

Don't yell at me and at each other constantly.

A lot more lax on letting me use the car.

More understanding.

Not to change very much.

Go more places.

Responses of the girls in the control group to the question, "If your parents could be different, how would you want them to be?"

A little bit more understanding on some of the things I do.

Let me go more.

Going on trips more and different places more.

I don't like them to fight, but they don't fight much. Otherwise, I don't want them to change.

Just the way they are.

I don't want my parents to change because I love them just the way they are.

Less worried about little unimportant things.

I don't really know, I like them the way they are. Except, I wish that I could sometimes show them more that I love them. They're okay!

Go to ballgames more often, participate in the activities their kids are in, to go and watch them.

Maybe more understanding in some cases.

More understanding. My father not so mean when he's sick.

A little less strict, more fun loving.

Mom shouldn't nag so much and I would like to attend church every Sunday as a family.

More understanding about our different views.

More understanding.

I wouldn't want them to change. They're the only parents I'll ever have and they're perfect now.

I would want my parents to live in Christ, to have a personal relationship with him and to know and experience what its like once you have Him.

More lenient.

Not as strict as they are.

Younger, spend more time on family get-togethers.

If I had both of them, I would want them the same.

Letting me do things differently.

I would want my mother's heart trouble to go away so we could do more things as a family. I wouldn't want my father to lose his temper so easily.

I would want them to trust me more.

Not too strict. Be more understanding on how to cope with today's problems instead of referring to their past.

I like them the way they are.

Better planners, less worried about what the neighbors think (just my mother).

To get along better and to be more understanding.

More strict in discipline in younger children, and also with me. Over-come her (my mother's) emotional depressing moods.

To understand more, some of the things I want to go to and do. And to understand why certain things are important to me.

No different.

I like them the way they are.

More understanding of the things I feel.

I wouldn't want them to change. I like them the way they are.

More understanding about my faults and not criticize my friends and not compare one of my friends with another.

Really, I don't think I would want them to be different. I sometimes think that I would want them to be different in some ways but I really think I am more happy just accepting them as human beings who have their faults like everybody.

I wish my mom wouldn't complain at all. I wish my dad would talk more and not keep his thoughts to himself so much.

Not quite so strict.

I don't want them different.

More strict.

I like her the way she is.

So you could talk with them more.

I wouldn't want them to change.

To let me do as I want, not all the time. They could scold my sister more, she gets away with murder!

Let me go to more dances, let me go out with boys, let me ride around in cars.

APPENDIX D

Responses to Question 38

Question 38: How do you think your parents would want you to be if they could change you?

Responses of the boys in the study group to the question, "How do you think your parents would want you to be if they could change you?"

They would want me to be like my brother.

A goody goody school boy--other words a redneck.

A better kid that obeys and honors all rules and laws of society and them.

I don't know.

Short hair. Red neck. Cowboy farmer. Good boy. Follow in Daddy's tracks. Be better than the people on the hill--go to school--don't have sex at my age.

A little straighter.

Thinking more often and put some of my ideas into effect.

Friendly and nice.

The way I'm now.

I think they would like me to be able to stay out of trouble and get along with my step mother.

Have short hair and attend school regularly.

Nice, not troubled, bold.

Not to smoke pot and to stay home all the time.

Real religious.

Good, staying out of trouble, getting a job or going to college.

Kid who goes to work and school with short hair. Or, otherwise, a square!!!

They would want me to be any job that I decided was right for me.

Stay out of trouble.

More helpful, more trustful, and reliant.

Talk to them more openly.

Get along better and not raise so much hell and run a good life.

Father all work. Mother some work--some play.

Don't know.

Redneck. By this I mean cut my hair. Keep shaved, turn my music into country western and get rid of my clothes and my platform shoes.

They would want me to be good and mind her.

To keep out of trouble.

Don't know.

Out of trouble in school or working.

A real nice boy who acts like an angel.

They would want me to stay out of trouble and be good so I wouldn't go to jail so much.

Nice to people and be good all the time.

They would want me to get a good job and stay or dress clean, and don't hang around some of your friends.

I don't know.

Good, respectful, manners, etc.

Smart, short hair, dress clothes.

Stay in the house, don't go out at nights. Sit at home and watch T.V.

Have more feeling about other people. Make sure I stayed out of trouble so I wouldn't be in a place like this.

A lot different.

Responses of the girls in the study group to the question, "How do you think your parents would want you to be if they could change you?"

More responsible, not so impulsive, choose my friends better.

More truthful and a lot more trust in me.

A goody two shoes.

An old maid who would stay at home and wait on them hand and foot.

Be more responsible. Pay for my actions. More respect towards them. Show more love for them. Show they can really deeply trust me.

Church everyday, stay in the house 24 hours a day, a baby!

Perfect, total respect and thoughtfulness. Straight A's in school.

Want me to be an angel.

Popular, cute, more careful.

Jesus freak.

To be in their world and try it. Change my personality and be more careful.

My parents don't want me changed. Well, maybe on the small things like music, clothing, and to go out a little more than I do.

My parents wouldn't want me if they changed me. They would rather I changed on my own so then I could help myself. Sure they would send me places so I can get help, but I still love them wherever I go!

First of all, they'd want me to be a Jesus freak like them. I'm not-- it's just not for me. I'm Catholic, not Assembly of God. They'd want my hair short and for me not to wear blue jeans and old shirts and for me to find some crew-cut type boyfriend, not long hair.

A goodie goodie and stay home and go to school every day.

Forgetful.

They want me to drop my boy friend and all my friends just to make them happy and they'd want me to act like a girl, but I won't! I don't like my parents' friends or the way they dress, but I don't bitch about it either!

A goody, goody.

Just be good and be their daughter, to love and be with.

I really don't know.

Stay home and help just a little more.

A regular jock! They'd like me to be like my 3 year old sister, probably not even that priveleged [sic].

Not having any friends.

They would probably want me to forget about Twin Bridges and start a new life somewhere else.

Stay home and not drinking.

They would want me to be good and not get into trouble.

A good girl. A person who don't get her mouth into everything. A perfect little girl. Work harder.

Not run away as much as I do. Maybe get along with them better if I straightened up a little.

They would want me to stay home all the time and run with kids that sat around all the time. Never get old enough to be on my own. Never have a boyfriend. Happy but impossible.

Go straight, never do this or that.

Care more for my place in society--college and things like that.

He would want me to be innocent and always stay home.

They can't change me, they know this, I know it, but they can help me change myself.

Just stay at home--never go out, do all the housework, only go to church every Sunday.

Want me to stop running away.

Stay away from older guys and go to school and come in early like I'm supposed to.

Be good all the time. Never get into trouble. Join in school activities! Be fair with them, tell the truth always never lie and to be fair with them.

My dad would want me to stay away from anybody that isn't white. Not to have been involved with drugs.

Probably perfect.

To be more smart, pretty, fix my hair, wear dresses, etc.

Good.

A good girl.

They would want me to be more like them, or like they think they are, very religious. To run around with kids with good reputations. Not to drink or smoke at all. They would like me to love and respect them more.

Responses of the boys in the control group to the question, "How do you think your parents would want you to be if they could change you?"

Not to get into trouble and be kind to others.

To be more respectful, show more appreciation toward others and to respect my elders.

Study hard.

Being able to carry more responsibilities.

Harder working.

More considerate.

About the same.

A little more understanding.

Better than what I am.

They would want me to be bigger.

More quiet.

They would want me healthy all the time so I wouldn't have to take pills.

Never smoke or drink, have short hair and be a good student.

They like me just as I am.

A little more obedient.

They would like me to study harder in school, they would like me not to waste so much money.

Agreeing with their tastes.

No changes.

More smart, get my English assignments done.

Want me to get straight A's instead of A's and B's.

They would want me to be more like they are.

Be more religious.

Less trouble to myself.

I doubt if they would want to change me.

Shorter hair.

Taller, smarter, work more.

They wouldn't.

The same.

Just like I am.

More thoughtful for the rest of the family.

I do not know.

Probably want me to respect them more.

Better behaved.

They would want me to be the same.

Good looking, smart, kind, clean.

I don't know.

More consistent in getting things done and more humble toward younger brother.

They would want me to stay home once in awhile.

Wouldn't want me to change.

Better personality and behavior.

Not to be so lazy.

The same.

More agreeable.

Not to change very much.

Work more.

Responses of girls in the control group to the question, "How do you think your parents would want you to be if they could change you?"

A little bit easier to get along with at times.

They would cut my hair the first thing.

A little bit nicer and a little bit happier all the time.

Maybe to be smarter than what I am right now. And to be more careful.

Just the way I am.

My parents would probably want me to understand some of their problems if they could change me.

Quarrel less among brothers and sisters probably.

Probably a little more conscientious about school, etc. and also more brave in doing things.

See many of my attitudes change toward things.

Probably the same because I don't really know. I never did ask them.

Have more consideration towards some of their ideas.

Do more work around the house and be like my brothers. Don't fight.

Have me do more to help them, more trustworthy.

Be more helpful around the house and quit smoking.

More disciplined, not such a grouch. Smile all the time.

They probably wouldn't, since I am what I am.

I don't think they would, because they raised me how they wanted me to be.

Participate in fewer things.

Stay home more.

Not as stubborn as I am. They would want me to be easy going.

They would only have to show me once, to know how to do something.

I don't know.

More loving, understanding to the things they want me to do.

More helpful around the house and for me to be a little more healthy.

Not be quite so wild.

Be a better Christian. More love and respect towards my brothers and sisters. Take life a little easier instead of worrying about whether I'm going to heaven or hell.

They wouldn't want me to change, they love me the way I am.

Less self-centered, more good-natured, more industrious, a better manager of time.

So that I'd spend more time with them and maybe be a little more helpful.

Probably none. She wants me to be the way I direct myself.

To do better in school and to get along with my elders better. Also to do more things they want me to.

Not so lazy.

Don't fight with my brothers.

I think they would want me to get better grades and to be kinder to my sisters and other people.

I think they like me the way I am and wouldn't want to change me.

Probably be more understanding to how they feel.

I don't think they would want to change me. I think they would rather accept me in the way that I am and learn to cope with my faults.

I don't think they want me to change.

Maybe a little more helpful.

Be more trustworthy.

More honest.

More helpful with chores.

More athletic. Less stuck up.

More mindful, be more helpful.

Do as they say or don't do anything but work as a slave.

They would want me to have some friends.

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