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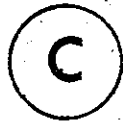
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A Developmental Study of Behavioural
Differences in Adolescents with Regard
to the Type of Parental Discipline



by

David J. Tobin

B.A. McGill University, 1977

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
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ABSTRACT

Attempts to delineate the factors involved in creating an individual's personality is an extremely complex undertaking. The present study focused on one of these dimensions, parent-child relationships. Specifically, the purpose was to discover whether relationships exist between certain aspects of parental authority patterns and the personality of their children.

Two hundred and ninety-seven adolescents between the ages of 12 and 20 years participated in the study, while they were attending a summer camp. Each adolescent was required to fill out a questionnaire dealing with their perceptions of their parental upbringing. In addition, the subjects were asked to complete a personality test. Subjects were assigned to specific patterns of parental authority on the basis of their scores on the questionnaire. Adolescents perceived as being raised in each of the four parental authority groups had their personality scores collated to determine if there were any similarities or differences between these various groups. There were 7 hypotheses investigated.

The first hypothesis attempted to show that adolescents who perceived their parents' disciplinary techniques similarly, also displayed similar personality traits. The results

indicated that there were some differences and that the differences in the personalities among children raised by these different groups of parents were predominantly in the following traits; capacity of status, sociability, social presence, responsibility, socialization, achievement via conformance, and psychological mindedness. In addition, the results suggested two "polar" groups of parental upbringing exist; rejecting-neglecting and authoritarian parents on one extreme, and authoritative and nonconforming and permissive parents on the other extreme. Finally, adolescents raised by rejecting-neglecting parents demonstrated personality traits which were the most different when compared to the other three groups of parents.

The second hypothesis attempted to show that adolescents of various ages, who perceived their parents' disciplinary techniques similarly, would display the same personality traits. However, the results of the study suggested that there were personality changes, albeit restricted ones among the older and younger adolescents. The older adolescents consistently displayed positive growth on the personality indices when compared to the younger adolescents. Again, the same polarity of parental groups surfaced. Moreover, the results suggested that adolescents raised by authoritarian and rejecting-neglecting parents showed fewer changes on the personality variables with age, than the groups of adolescents

raised by authoritative and nonconforming and permissive parents.

The third hypothesis attempted to show that male and female adolescents, who perceived their parents' disciplinary techniques similarly, would display the same personality traits. However, there were certain personality variables that differed among the female and male adolescents. These differences seemed to cluster around the socialization, flexibility and femininity personality traits. Therefore, the differences were distinctive and not spread evenly among all the personality traits. In addition, more personality differences were found in the authoritarian and rejecting-neglecting groups among the male and female adolescents than those found in the authoritative and nonconforming and permissive parental groups, a trend opposite to that discussed above.

The remaining hypotheses dealt mainly with the subtle question of whether adolescents of various ages and sex perceived themselves as belonging more to one parental authority group than another. The result of the study showed, as hypothesized, that the number of younger and older adolescents in the various parental authority groups was that amount expected by chance alone. However, when the younger adolescents were studied by themselves, there were fewer adolescents in the rejecting-neglecting parental

authority groups as compared to the other three groups. Older age adolescents when studied as a separate entity, also displayed fewer numbers in the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group. In addition, there was a greater than expected amount of adolescents who perceived themselves as belonging in the authoritative parental group.

The results of the study demonstrated, as hypothesized, that the sex of the adolescent was not related to how they perceived their parents' disciplinary child-raising techniques. When male adolescents were studied independently, the same result was achieved. However, with the female adolescents, there was less than the expected number of adolescents in the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group.

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It is often said "that without my wife's help, I could never have done it". In my particular case, it is the truth. My wife Debbie, refused to accept that my thesis was dead

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
Chapter	
I INTRODUCTION	1
An Historical Review of the Literature	5
Child Rearing Factors	20
Problem and Hypotheses	31
III METHOD	34
Subjects	34
Apparatus and Material	34
Procedure	36
Description of Instruments	37
Data Analysis	42
III RESULTS	45
IV DISCUSSION	96
Appendix	
A QUESTIONNAIRES	121
B ORIGINAL CLUSTERS OF PARENT BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE	131
C PATTERNS OF PARENTAL AUTHORITY	136
D RAW DATA	140
REFERENCES	149
VITA AUCTORIS	154

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Age and Sex Distribution of the Subjects Who Participated and Completed All Parts of the Study	35
2	A Comparison of the Four Parental Authority Groups on Each of the Personality Variables	47
3	The Four Parental Authority Groups Compared Against One Another on Each of the Personality Variables	48
4	Matrix Summarizing the Personality Differences of Each Parental Authority Group Compared Against One Another	61
5	A Comparison of Younger and Older Age Adolescent Scores Within the Parental Authority Groups on Each of the Personality Variables	67
6	A Comparison of Male and Female Scores Within the Parental Authority Groups on Each of the Personality Variables	80
7	A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Younger and Older Age Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups	89
8	A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Younger Age Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups	90
9	A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Older Age Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups	91
10	A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of Male and Female Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups	93
11	A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of Male Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups	94

Table

Page

12

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores
of Female Adolescents in Each of the Parental
Authority Groups

95

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	A comparison of the mean standard scores of parental authority group 1 and parental authority group 2, within each personality variable	49
2	A comparison of the mean standard scores of parental authority group 1 and parental authority group 3, within each personality variable	50
3	A comparison of the mean standard scores of parental authority group 1 and parental authority group 3, within each personality variable	51
4	A comparison of the mean standard scores of parental authority group 2 and parental authority group 3, within each personality variable	52
5	A comparison of the mean standard scores of parental authority group 2 and parental authority group 4, within each personality variable	53
6	A comparison of the mean standard scores of parental authority group 3 and parental authority group 4, within each personality variable	54
7	A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger and older adolescents in parental authority group 1, within each personality variable	63
8	A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger and older adolescents in parental authority group 2, within each personality variable	64
9	A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger and older adolescents in parental authority group 3, within each personality variable	65

Figures

Page

10. A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger and older adolescents in parental authority group 4, within each personality variable 66
11. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male and female adolescents in parental authority group 1, within each personality variable 76
12. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male and female adolescents in parental authority group 2, within each personality variable 77
13. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male and female adolescents in parental authority group 3, within each personality variable 78
14. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male and female adolescents in parental authority group 4, within each personality variable 79

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It has been primarily during the 20th Century that the importance and feasibility of conducting scientific investigation of parent-child relationships has been fully accepted (Gildea, Glidewell, & Kantor, 1961). Interestingly enough, the fields of delinquency and child guidance were among the first to recognize and formulate hypotheses in this area. Their concern lay with indentifying possible antecedent conditions leading to behavioral problems in children (Anderson, 1935).

The psychoanalytical field, predominantly in the early half of this century, attempted to relate specific early child-rearing practices (for example, breast feeding, self-demand feeding, method of toilet training) to child personality. Their results seem to have been inconclusive and could not offer an adequate explanation for children's behavior (Sewell, 1952; Orlansky, 1949). On the other hand, studies which centered upon the general social climate in the home, revealed marked and generally consistent differences:

It is entirely possible that the significant and critical matter is not the practices themselves, but the whole personal-social situation in which they find their expression, including the attitudes and behavior of the mother. (Sewell, 1952, p. 157)

Psychoanalytical theory was responsible for theorizing that personality characteristics of adults appeared to be extensions of the effect of early child experiences. It was an impetus for future studies attempting to examine child-parent relationships and their effects on the future personality of the child.

Recent studies have been characterized by significant strides toward the goal of identifying relevant variables which are associated with different types of parent-child relationships. These studies have illustrated the interrelationships of many factors which affect the quality of relationships within the family (Walters & Stinnett, 1971). Baumrind (1967) addressed the complexity of this area of investigation:

The conceptual approach to parent-child relations (from which the study proceeds) starts with the assumption that the physical, cognitive, and social development of children is largely a function of parental childrearing practices. With varying degrees of consciousness and conscientiousness, parents created their children psychologically as well as physically. The child's energy level, his willingness to explore and will to master his environment, and his self-control, sociability, and buoyancy are set not only by genetic structure but by the regimen, stimulation, and kind of contact provided by parents. The child's inherent cognitive potential can be fully developed by a rich, complex environment or inhibited by inadequate and poorly timed stimulation. The young child learns from

his parents how to think as well as how to talk, how to interpret and use his experience, how to control his reactions, and how to influence other people. Children learn from their parents how to relate to others, whom to like and emulate, whom to avoid and derogate, how to express affiliation and animosity, and when to withhold response. The parents' use of reinforcement, whether punishment or reward, alters the child's behavior and affects his future likes and dislikes. Parents differ in the degree to which they wish to influence their children and they differ in their effectiveness as teachers and models. Some parents attempt to maximize and others minimize the direct influence that they have upon their children. Some parents enjoy prolonged and intense contact and others are discomforted by such contact. Parents differ in their ability to communicate clearly with their children and in their desire to reason with and listen to the ideas and objections of their offspring. They vary in the frequency and kinds of demands that they make of their children. Some parents require of their children that they participate in household chores; or that they care for themselves and their rooms or that they control their feelings, while others seek to prolong the early period of dependency, immaturity, and spontaneous expression of feelings. (p. 346)

Types of parental discipline, attitudes and child-rearing techniques have been systematically studied to delineate how these factors affect the present and future functioning of children. The question must now be formally raised as to the purpose for conducting investigations in this delicate area. Some of the major reasons for this line of research inquiry, and subsequently, for the present study, are outlined below.

Society generally recognizes that the mature human being is a conglomerate of his past experiences. Examining the effects of various parent-child relationships, further helps therapists to understand how people develop. That is, the

manner in which an individual has been treated by his parents as he is growing up, is a large determinant of his later personality functioning. In addition, it seems that the way his parents raised him is also a major influence as to how he will raise his children. Research, therefore, can aid in sorting out the variables allowing for an optimal parent-child relationship, guiding parents to raise children to become healthy and well-adjusted adults.

This leads into the next area of concern--atypical and abnormal behavior. Examining the effects of various parent-child relationships may shed some light on such sensitive problems as adolescent delinquency and child abuse. Are juvenile delinquents raised in similar home environments? How can society detect these homes at an early stage and change the parent-child dynamics taking place? What types of parents did abusive parents have? Are there elements in the way parents raise their children that occurred in their own past parent-child relationships? Investigations in this area can help identify the abnormal or atypical parent-child relationships and thus contribute to early identification and intervention.

Perhaps a less obvious, but no less important reason for studying parent-child relationships, is to increase the information available to child guidance counsellors, teachers, or anyone involved in working with children. If the way children behave is partially determined by their

experiences in the home environment, then these people have an additional source of information to enable them to better understand and work with children.

In summary, research dealing with parent-child relationships has both theoretical and practical implications in various areas. The present study will attempt to elucidate and delineate further the behavior of children that is related to the home environment in which they are raised.

An Historical Review of the Literature

Many studies have examined the relationship between the family environment and personality traits in children. In order to categorize these studies, the general outline of personality traits by the California Psychological Manual (Gough, 1969) was used. In this way, the results of the present study can be compared more easily to past studies discussed in this section. Out of the four general categories used by the California Psychological Inventory, three were extracted for the purposes of this literature review. In addition, sub-headings were used to allow further delineation of the studies.

Studies of Poise, Ascendancy, Self-Assurance and Interpersonal Adequacy

Dominance. Upsegraff's investigation (1939) of nursery school children, raised in homes which fostered

development and expression of ideas, found that these children tended to be ascendant, while those children from overprotected homes were usually submissive. Barton, Dielman & Cattell (1977) reported a negative correlation between paternal strict discipline and dominance in adolescent children. In a similar study, but utilizing an older population, Carpenter and Eisenberg (1938) administered the Carpenter Family Background Schedule in an effort to discover the relations between feelings of dominance in college students and specific elements in the family background prior to the age of 15. The results showed that the dominant group was differentiated from the non-dominant group by the following tendencies: greater independence, more freedom and more individuality were stressed in the family.

Introversiion-Extroversiion. Siegelman (1966) examined the relationship between the personality of boys in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade and their parent-child relationships. His results indicated that those sons who reported their parents to be punishing tended to be rated by their male classmates as withdrawn, while those sons who perceived their parents as loving tended to be seen by their male peers as not withdrawn. No significant relationship was found to exist between demanding parents and withdrawal symptoms in their sons. In an earlier study, Siegelman (1965), studying college students, found that

those respondents with extroversion personality inclinations also tended to recall their parents as loving while they were growing up. Those subjects with introversion personality inclinations tended to remember their parents as rejecting.

In a similar study, Becker (1960), observing kindergarten children, discovered that if the father's parent-child relationship was characterized as loving, democratic and emotionally mature, then the child was rated by his mother as being better adjusted, outgoing, and less demanding.

Hattwick (1936) also found that preschool children raised in calm, happy homes were cooperative and showed good emotional adjustment. However, children from "tension homes" were characterized by frequent illness, fatigue, impatience and nervousness, were uncooperative and displayed poor emotional adjustment. Hattwick also found infantile, withdrawn children to be from those homes reflecting over-attentiveness from the parents. Upsegraff (1939) similarly reported that nursery school children who were withdrawn from their playmates, tended to be characterized by overprotective parents.

Gildea, Glidewell, and Kantor's study (1961) of third grade children, indicated that mothers with the best adjusted children believed that there were multiple influences on child behavior, that they were one of the influences, and that they had the ability to exercise influence on the

behavior of the children.

Sociability. Ayer and Bernreuter (1937) studied 40 children of preschool age. They found that when parents used temper in disciplining their children, the children were less likely to face reality, were less sociable and had less attractive personalities. Penance used as a punishment made the children less likely to face reality. Watson (1957), studying preadolescent children, discovered that the children from permissive homes were more sociable, cooperative and spontaneous than the children raised in strict-discipline homes.

Self-Concept. Mote (1967) examined the relationship between the child's self-concept in school, and parental attitudes and behavior in child-rearing. She found that parental satisfaction with child learning was significantly and positively related to the child's self-concept.

Baumrind (1967) delved more deeply into the antecedents of children's self-concept. Three groups of preschool children were used in the sample. Group one was classified as being self-reliant, self-controlled, explorative and content. Group two consisted of children classified as being discontented, withdrawn and distrustful. Group three was composed of children who had little self-control or self-reliance, and who tended to retreat from novel experiences. The results of her study indicated that parents

of preschool children manifesting the most positive behavior (self-reliant, self-controlled, explorative and content) tended to be markedly more consistent, more loving, more secure in the handling of the children, and more likely to accompany a directive with a reason. These parents also tended to be more supportive and to communicate more clearly with their children. The parents of Group one tended to enforce the directives that they gave to their children and they tended to resist the child's demands. However, they did not over-protect or over-restrict their children. Baumrind concluded that early control by parents when accompanied by warmth, does not, like extreme punitiveness and restrictiveness, lead to fearful, dependent, submissive behavior. It was also reported that parents of those children who manifested little self-control or self-reliance and who often retreated from novel experiences tended to be insecure about their ability to influence their children. The mothers of this group used withdrawal of love and ridicule rather than power or reason as incentives for their children.

Miller and Swanson (1960) found that "love-oriented" techniques of child-rearing appeared to contribute to guilt feelings in the adolescent children studied. Related to this, Siegelman (1966) observed that depression in grade school boys, which included being overly moralistic and

excessively self-critical, was related to punishing, demanding and nonloving parents. Finally, Watson (1934) examined 230 graduate students who had been raised in extremely strict and economically underprivileged homes. These adults hated their parents, quarreled with associates, were unable to love on a mature and independent basis, were socially maladjusted, were full of over-conscientiousness, guilt, and fears, and were inclined to be sickly and definitely unhappy.

Studies of Socialization, Maturity, Responsibility, and Intrapersonal Structuring of Values

Socialization. Two studies by Hoffman (1960, 1963) concerning parental power assertion and its impact on the preschool child, indicated that unqualified power assertion (coerceive pressure upon the child to change his behavior through such techniques as direct commands, threats and physical force) by the mother, tended to be associated with the development of hostility, power needs and increased autonomy strivings in the child. In turn, the child tended to displace these traits toward peers and permissive authority figures. Children raised in a non-power assertive context combined with "love-withholding" or "other-oriented" parental discipline tended to show greater socially acceptable behavior; "love-withholding" was fostered by intensifying the child's need for approval which then

becomes a basis for impulse control, and "other-oriented" discipline, by inducing positive internal forces possibly capitalizing on the child's capacity for empathy and thus leading to a more accurate consideration of others. Hoffman concluded that the overall pattern of the findings seemed to suggest four behavior systems which, at least in the very young child, may be differentially influenced by parental practices: affective orientation, determined mainly by parental acceptance; hostility and related drives, instigated mainly by power assertion; impulse controls, fostered mainly by love-withholding discipline in a non-power context; and consideration for others, fostered mainly by other-oriented discipline in a non-power assertive context.

Lang (1969) addressed the issue of power bases in family relations and its effect on responsibility and empathy in the nursery school child. She found that power exercised entirely by parents was likely to lead children to experience responsibility as external to themselves. In families in which children exercised the power, they were prone to be pre-occupied with their own unmet needs and to remain insensitive or indifferent to the deep needs of others. Shared power by parents and children enabled children to experience the locus of responsibility as within themselves and to become responsive to the needs of others. Anarchy seemed to limit children to indifference or inability to

respond to others.

Authoritarianism. Two related studies (Byrne, 1965 and Starr, 1965) examined the general theory of authoritarian personality development, which proposes strict parental discipline as a crucial determinant. Starr (1965) investigated the disciplinary roles of mothers and fathers in relation to authoritarianism in their preadolescent boys and girls. Significant positive relationships were obtained between children's authoritarianism and the discipline attitudes of the parents of the opposite sex. Byrne (1965) utilized an older population for his study-- male and female university students enrolled in an introductory psychology class. The author hypothesized that parental authoritarianism and child-rearing practices would have a direct relationship with both authoritarianism and attitudes toward child-rearing practices in their offspring. A positive relationship was confirmed for the father-son combination. Also, a significant relationship was observed between authoritarianism in mothers and in their offspring of both sexes.

Aggression. The research studies reported on aggression examine the relationship between parental child-rearing practices and social aggression in children. Delaney (1965) found that parental restrictiveness, rather than permissiveness, was positively related to child aggression, especially in the relationship between paternal restrictiveness and aggression

in boys. Lefkowitz (1963) reported that aggression in children increased as parents increasingly relied upon physical punishment for controlling the child's behavior. Similarly, Miller and Swanson (1960) found that physical punishment, withdrawal of privileges and threats, tended to contribute to overt aggression in the adolescent population under study.

Hattwick (1936) discovered a different dimension of adult behavior associated with aggression in children. Aggressive pre-school children were reported to be raised in homes characterized by negligent parents who gave inadequate attention to their children.

Deming (1964) delineated further the relationship between parental attitudes and behavior and aggressive behavior in children. He examined the hypothesis that the differential effect of parental attitudes on the behavior of preadolescent sons is a function of the differential roles taken by parents. The results of the study indicated that rejection, ambivalence, and general aggression by fathers who assumed expressive roles were found to be more significantly related to aggression in sons than were the same attitudes expressed by fathers who played instrumental roles. Parental aggression of mothers who played instrumental roles was indicated, on the other hand, to be more significantly related to aggression and perceived rejection in sons than parental

aggression of mothers who assumed expressive roles. This finding was just opposite to the findings of the fathers.

Baldwin (1949) reported on the parental antecedents of positive social aggression in nursery school children. He found that children raised in a democratic home participated freely and actively in nursery school activities and displayed successful aggression and self-assertion. He concluded that a democratic home promotes creative and constructive behavior. In an earlier study, Baldwin (1948) reported that children from democratic homes had a higher activity level, were more aggressive, competitive, curious, impatient, fearless, playful and more cruel than the children raised in "controlled" homes. These nursery school children displayed less successful aggression, tenacity, and fearlessness, and were more negative and disobedient.

Moral Judgement. Kohlberg (1949) stated that "inductive discipline ... would seem to represent a form of creating moral role-taking opportunities". Nevius (1977) attempted to test this hypothesis relating parental discipline patterns and stages of moral judgement. Using Hoffman's (1960) questionnaire to assess power assertion, love-withdrawal and induction, Nevius was unable to establish any relationship between high level moral reasoning and the inductive method of child-rearing.

Smart and Smart (1976) examined preadolescent's perceptions of parents and their relations to a test of responses to moral dilemmas. The results showed that boys perceiving their parents as giving them much support had a higher mean score on the Moral Dilemmas Test than boys who reported less parental support. The girls' perception of parental support had no relation to scores on the Moral Dilemmas Test.

Studies of Achievement Potential and Intellectual Efficiency

Conformity. The following studies examined the relationship of a child's ability to conform to the expectations given to him by external forces and the home environment in which he is raised. Walsh (1968) studied the association between parental attitudes of rejection and children's behavior in a temptation situation. Each child was placed alone in a room for 15 minutes with a number of desirable toys. Before the children were left alone they were admonished not to touch the toys. A child was classified as being rigidly controlled if he did not leave the chair and appeared to ignore the toys. He was classified as being naturally curious if he walked around and looked at the toys but did not touch them and he was classified as a yielder to temptation if he touched or played with the toys. The results indicated that children

who were rigidly controlled tended to have mothers who felt children had few rights of privacy, who avoided communication with the children, and who felt that children should be obedient and act grown-up. Those children who were naturally curious as well as those children whose behavior was classified as that of a yielder to temptation, tended to have mothers who held views which were opposite to those of the mothers of the rigidly controlled children.

Bronfenbrenner (1961) reported that adolescent girls who, from early life on, received more affection and praise than the adolescent boys, were more responsive to discipline. Yet they were also more vulnerable to what Bronfenbrenner called the risk of "oversocialization". On the other hand, boys on the average, tended to receive sterner discipline to achieve a somewhat lower level of absolute compliance and more often suffered from too little affection and authority than from too much. Boys who had received a great deal of affection during their formative years were more prone to permissiveness than were the boys who had been given little emotional support. Boys who had little emotional support early in life required more discipline to induce conformity, according to Bronfenbrenner. His theory emphasized that while the child is still young, the parent builds up emotional capital on which he can draw later in order to evoke desirable behavior beyond the critical point.

However, in an investigation done by Chaplan (1967), the author could draw no relationship between parental child-raising techniques and pre-school children's conformity behavior. She reported that disciplinary practices of mothers were not found to be related to a child's susceptibility to social influences (conformity).

Dependency. In a study of nursery school children and their parents, Moore (1965) related parental child-rearing practices to the occurrence of dependency and autonomy in children's behavior. The results indicated that the use of physical punishment by the mother was positively associated with dependency in boys but not in girls. It was further reported that the more severe the demands and restrictions which mothers placed on their girls for mature behavior, the more the girls tended to be dependent. This suggested to the author that restrictiveness is an important aspect of maternal behavior which contributes to dependency in girls. The results of Moore's study also indicated that low dependency in children and high maternal permissiveness, were associated with a high degree of autonomy in girls but not in boys. Finally, Moore stated that availability and a lack of hostility in fathers were related to a high degree of autonomy in boys.

Ayer and Bernreuter (1937), in a much earlier study, also investigated the relationship between parental discipline and dependency in pre-school children. If the

parents used physical punishment as a means of raising their children, these children tended to show more dependence upon adult affection or attention, similar to the findings in Moore's (1965) study. Independence of adult affection or attention were fostered when children were allowed by their parents to profit by the natural results of their acts.

The relationship of parental treatment of children to dependence and competence of four-year-old boys was examined by Clapp (1967). The children were classified as either competent or dependent, upon the basis of being observed in interaction with their parents. It was found that the parents of the competent children treated their sons more as a child and less as an adult. It was also found that the parents of the competent children were significantly more permissive, less restrictive, warmer and less hostile. These parents of the competent children were also found to be more competent (as models for their children) and more consistent in philosophy and action than were the parents of the dependent children. Watson (1957) similarly reported that the preadolescent children in his study who were independent and displayed much initiative, came significantly more often from permissive homes than from strict discipline homes.

Anxiety. Gnagey (1968) reported that male college students in his investigation, who scored high on a measure of parental acceptance, tended to manifest less anxiety. In

a similar study, Siegelman (1965) found that those college students who indicated a high degree of anxiety, tended to recall their parents as being rejecting and demanding. On the other hand, those college students who indicated a low degree of anxiety, tended to recall their parents as loving when they were growing up.

Watson (1957) reported no difference between the preadolescent children raised either in permissive or strict discipline homes, on the personality dimensions for anxiety emotional disorganization and unhappiness. However, the parents in both these types of homes were characterized by Watson as being good and loving parents towards their children, which might account for the absence of differences among the children on these traits.

Intelligence and creativity. Hurley (1965) examined the relationship between parental acceptance and rejection and children's intelligence. Using third graders as subjects a positive relationship between parental acceptance and children's intelligence was established. Maternal acceptance was not found to be more closely related to children's IQ than was paternal acceptance. Hurley also indicated a negative relationship between the parental attitudes of harshness and rejection and the child's intellectual development. Digman (1963) discovered the same relationships in his study with grade-school children.

An earlier study done by Hurley (1962), with college students as subjects, indicated a negative relationship between the parental attitudes of harshness and rejection and the child's intellectual development. Barton, Dielman, and Cattell (1977) similarly found a negative correlation between parent's early authoritative discipline and adolescents' IQ, while those parents manifesting high warmth in the home, correlated positively with their children's crystallized intelligence.

In a study of grade-school children, Mote (1967) found that high ability, achievement, and creativity in children were associated with a supportive family environment. Watson (1957) noted a higher level of spontaneity, originality and creativity in the children from permissive homes, as compared with those children from strict discipline homes.

This concludes the summary of research examining the relationship between the family environment and personality traits in children. The next section will review a second broad category of research related to parent-child relationships: specifically, the literature dealing with parental techniques of child-raising.

Child-Rearing Factors

The problem of trying to classify patterns of parent

behavior, was that one ended up with a unique child-raising technique for each parent studied. However, the studies which are outlined below, attempted to delineate the various parental attitudes to child-raising, in order to substantiate, understand and compare any relationships to the child's personality traits. This section will review these "factorial" studies of parental behavior, in a roughly chronological sequence, because many reports were a further development and expansion of earlier studies. There was no attempt made to evaluate the individual investigations, but only to briefly outline and discuss the complex dimensions involved in assessing parental-child relationships.

In one of the earliest modern studies recorded on parental discipline and personality traits in young children, Ayer and Bernreuter (1937) divided parental discipline, "apriori", into eight categories for the purpose of measuring it. These included: 1. physical punishment; 2. isolating or ignoring the child; 3. natural result of child's act; 4. worry (scaring the child and making him afraid and worried); 5. rewards or promised rewards; 6. doing the first thing that "pops" into a parent's head; 7. temper (on the part of the parent to get the child to do what is wanted); and 8. penance (such as making the child sit on a chair or go to bed).

Baldwin, Kalhorn and Breese (1945) studied 125

children up to 14 years old. The data was handled by syndrome analysis. The authors utilized the Fels Parent Behavior Scales to isolate three fundamental syndromes. These included: 1. democracy in the home (justification, democracy and clarity of policy; non-coerciveness and non-restrictiveness, etc.); 2. acceptance of the child (acceptance, rapport, effectiveness, direction of criticism); and 3. indulgence (protectiveness, solicitousness, intensity of contact, etc.).

Roff (1949), using a factorial analysis of the Fels Parent Behavior Scale, identified seven basic categories of parent behavior. These included: 1. concern for the child (child-centeredness, acceptance, rapport, etc); 2. democratic guidance (democracy, justification of policy, readiness of explanation, noncoerciveness); 3. permissiveness (mild penalties, lax enforcement, non-restrictiveness); 4. parent-child harmony (nondisciplinary friction, nondiscord, nonreadiness of criticism); 5. sociability adjustment of parent's social family (well-adjusted home, understanding); 6. activeness of home (active home, well managed household); and 7. nonreadiness of suggestion (criticism, unsociability).

A second order factor analysis of the interrelations of the seven first-order factors derived by Roff (1949), was conducted by Lorr and Jenkins (1953). They indicated

that the most economical and significant condensation of the relations tapped by these scales could be represented in the following three questions:

1. How far does this home sustain and encourage dependence and how far does it deny satisfaction to dependence;
2. How far do its methods of child training reflect democratic practices and values, or to what extent are they authoritarian and undemocratic; and
3. To what extent is there strictness or orderliness in the home or to what extent is the home lax and unorganized.

Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) attempted to identify patterns of maternal behavior in a group of 379 mothers having children under five years of age. They used structured interviews, but noted open-ended responses in many areas. Through factor analysis, the following dimensions of maternal behavior were defined:

1. permissiveness-strictness;
2. general family adjustment;
3. warmth of mother-child relationship;
4. responsible child-training orientation;
5. aggressiveness and punitiveness;
6. perception of husband; and
7. orientation toward child's physical well-being.

In addition, the distinction between love-oriented and object-oriented discipline was found to be important, although it was not identifiable as a major attitude dimension through the factor analysis.

Milton (1958) carried out a factor analysis of 44

parental child-rearing behaviors. The factors included:

1. strictness or nonpermissiveness of parental behavior;
2. general family interactor of adjustment; 3. warmth of the mother-child relationship; 4. responsible child-training orientation; and 5. aggressiveness and punitiveness.

Miller and Swanson (1958, 1960) have investigated the origins of defensive behavior in children by assessing and comparing maternal severity of weaning and toilet training, style of reward and punishment, arbitrariness of demands for obedience, and extent of emotional control.

Schaefer and Bell (1958), of the National Institute of Mental Health, developed the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (P.A.R.I.), a check-list of attitude items. Factor analyses of responses to these items revealed two major attitude dimensions: 1. love-rejection; and 2. control-permissiveness.

Roe and Siegelman (1963) developed a Parent-Child relations questionnaire, to be administered to persons regarding their own parents' behavior towards them when they were children. Three different samples yielded the same three factors for each parent: 1. love-rejecting; 2. casual-demanding; and 3. overt attention.

The Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire (BPB), was evaluated by Siegelman (1965) as a research technique for measuring children's perceptions of how their parents

treat them. Three BPB factors were derived from the analysis and labeled "Loving", "Punishment"; and "Demanding". Loving depicted a parent who was readily available for counsel, support and assistance. This parent enjoyed being with his child, praised him, was affectionate, concerned, and had confidence in him. Punishment depicted a parent who often used physical and non-physical punishment with little concern for the feelings and needs of his child, and frequently punished for no apparent reason. Although rejection or hostility by the parent was not explicitly noted in the items, it was strongly suggested. Finally, demanding depicted controlling, demanding, protecting and intrusive parents. These parents insisted on high achievement, explain to the child why he must be punished when such discipline was necessary, and became emotionally upset and distant when the child misbehaved.

Six factor scores were derived by Barton et al. (1977) from the child rearing practices questionnaire. They included: 1. high use of reason (parent always reasons with the child and believes the child understands this method); 2. high use of physical punishment (parents stress importance of obedience and gives child spanking often); 3. high behavioral control (father permits no back talk--authoritarian); 4. child expects strict obedience (father never uses a threat without following it up, but does use

praise for good behavior); 5. low discipline (child not expected to help keep house, allowed a great freedom of movement, not expected to obey all commands); and 6. reason is used with the child (physical punishment and removal of privileges seldom used to control behavior by parent).

Baumrind shared Schaefer's (1965) interest in Acceptance versus Rejection, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, and Firm Control versus Lax Control as organizing theoretical constructs, in which to classify parent-child relationships. In her earlier work (1967, 1968), Baumrind examined the relationship between certain types of preschool behavior and child-rearing practices of parents. Using the group-comparison method, three groups of children and their parents were identified. The first group was characterized by self-reliant, self-controlled, explorative and content children. Their parents tended to be more loving, more secure in the handling of the children and more likely to accompany a directive with a reason, than the parents of the other two groups. Baumrind identified this group of parents as authoritative. The second group consisted of children who were classified as being discontent, withdrawn and distrustful. The parents of these children were characterized as being punitive and restrictive towards their children. Baumrind identified this group of parents as authoritarian. The final group of children were

characterized as having little self-control or self-reliance and tending to retreat from novel experiences. It was found that these parents tended to be insecure about their ability to influence their children. The parents tended to be lax reinforcing agents in the control of their children and to use withdrawal of love and ridicule rather than power or reason, when they wished to change their children's behavior. Baumrind classified these parents as permissive.

An excellent summary of the studies concerned with identifying child-rearing factors, was provided by Gildea (1961). He grouped all the investigations of parental attitudes together and found five aspects common to most of them. These included the following:

1. variables of control and autonomy, in both parents and children, reflecting a possible loss of "success" in socialization, from extremes of both control (over-control versus indulgence) and autonomy (ignoring versus over-protecting);
2. variables of acceptance and rejection with some confounding between over-acceptance and indulgence, and between over-rejection and ignoring;
3. variables of confident spontaneity in the acceptance of the mother-role, with minimum conflict between the protective and supportive functions and the controlling, training, socializing functions;
4. the ever-present notion of the significance

of the capacity of the parent to find "real" satisfaction in expressive, warm affectionate relationships with dependent young children; and 5. the variables of consistency in behavior with respect to all the foregoing dimensions.

A later investigation by Baumrind (1971) seemed to incorporate all those factors outlined by Gildea (1961). Her method of categorizing parental child-rearing techniques on the basis of patterns, as opposed to exclusive categories, seemed to be the most practical, concise and realistic approach to the problem. In this way, most of the parental attitudes and behaviors observed, overlap with one another, with placement in a certain parental category determined by its comparison with other techniques.

Baumrind's study (1971), in which she further delineated the groups of parental authority discussed above, was the point of departure of the present research. Through pattern analysis, Baumrind obtained eight categories. However, the three original sub-types of parental authority were used as the general reference for most of the remaining parental variables, and these three sub-types were incorporated in the present study. A brief description of each main category and its sub-types (that were labelled by Baumrind as patterns) follow.

Authoritarian. The authoritarian parent attempts to shape, control and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of

the child in accordance with a set standard of conduct, usually as absolute standard, theologically motivated and formulated by a higher authority. She values obedience as a virtue and favors punitive, forceful measures to curb self-will at points where the child's actions or beliefs conflict with what she thinks is right conduct. She believes in inculcating such instrumental values as respect for order and traditional structure. She does not encourage verbal give and take, believing that the child should accept her word for what is right.

The two patterns within this category were:

1. authoritarian (not rejecting) parents; and
2. authoritarian-rejecting-neglecting parents.

Authoritative. The authoritative parent, by contrast with the authoritarian parent, attempts to direct the child's activities but in a rational, issue-oriented manner. She encourages verbal give and take and shares with the child the reasoning behind her policy. She values both expressive and instrumental attributes, both autonomous self-will and disciplined conformity. Therefore, she exerts firm control at points of parent-child divergence, but does not hem the child in with restrictions. She recognizes her own special rights as an adult, but also the child's individual interests and special ways. The authoritative parent affirms the child's present qualities, but also sets standards for

future conduct. She does not base her decisions on a group consensus or the individual child's desires, but also does not regard herself as infallible or divinely inspired.

The two patterns within this category were:

1. authoritative (not non-conforming) parents;
- and 2. authoritative-nonconforming parents.

Permissive. The permissive parent attempts to behave in a nonpunitive, acceptant, and affirmative manner toward the child's impulses, desires, and actions. She consults with him about policy decisions and gives explanations for family rules. She makes few demands for household responsibility and orderly behavior. She presents herself to the child as a resource for him to use as he wishes, not as an active agent responsible for shaping or altering his ongoing or future behavior. She allows the child to regulate his own activities as much as possible, avoids the exercise of control, and does not encourage him to obey externally-defined standards. She attempts to use reason but not overt pressure to accomplish her ends.

The three patterns within this category were:

1. nonconforming (not permissive and not authoritative) parents;
2. permissive (not nonconforming) parents; and
3. nonconforming-permissive parents.

The last pattern did not meet the criteria set for the

previous categories mentioned. The pattern within this separate section was: rejecting-neglecting (not authoritarian) parents.

Problem and Hypotheses

The general purpose of the present study was to discover whether relationships exist between certain aspects of parental authority patterns and the personality of their children.

Baumrind's (1971) parental child-rearing patterns reviewed in the previous section, were originally used to classify pre-school children and their parents. The assumption made for the present study, was that her concept of classifying and subsequently understanding various parent-child relationships was the optimal model to be adapted to an older age group. One aim of the research was to compare the results obtained with Baumrind's results, to help shed some light on the feasibility and validity of her parent-child authority patterns, as applied to an older group of people.

Adolescents were chosen to be the "older" group for two reasons. One was that there is a paucity of research in this area utilizing adolescents as subjects. Secondly, adolescence is traditionally viewed as a period of growth and change. Another aim of the research was to study if parental authority patterns have a potent and stable

effect in the face of the various external dynamics occurring in the adolescents' lives.

Previous studies on parent-child relationships have concentrated on the effects of parental authority patterns on a child's behaviour within a limited age span. There has been an absence of research concerned with the child's personality, (in a given parental child-rearing technique), changing significantly with time. Another aim of the present study was, therefore, to examine children of various ages to observe whether adolescents of different ages reporting the same home environment, had similar behavioral correlates as measured on a personality test.

Past studies have usually relied on an objective external examination of the home environment, or parental reports, to draw relationships to the behavior of the children. However, research has shown that children's perceptions of their parental upbringing are just as reliable or more reliable than the parent's perception of themselves (for example, Smart & Smart, 1976). In fact, the present study skirts this issue, as it was only concerned with the adolescent's own personal view of his parental upbringing: that is, what he perceives as real to him. Therefore, the adolescent was required to fill out a questionnaire asking for his perceptions of his parental upbringing. The same reasoning was applied to the adolescent filling out a self-

personality inventory; the concern was about how the individual thinks and feels about himself, as opposed to an outside observer (for example, classmates) rating him.

The specific null hypotheses investigated were as follows:

1. How adolescents perceive their parents' disciplinary techniques is not related to the personality traits manifested by these adolescents.
2. Adolescents of various ages, who perceive their parents' discipline techniques similarly, do not display different personality traits.
3. Adolescents of different sex, who perceive their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques similarly, do not display different personality traits.
4. Adolescents' age is not related to how they perceive their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques.
5. Adolescents of the same age group do not perceive themselves as being raised in the same parental authority group.
6. Adolescents' sex is not related to how they perceive their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques.
7. Adolescents of the same sex do not perceive themselves as being raised in the same parental authority group.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

Adolescents between the ages of 12 years and 16 years inclusive participated in the study. In addition, staff members who were 17-20 years old were solicited to take part. There were 297 subjects who initially participated in the study. The number of subjects who actually completed all parts of the study is shown in table 1. These subjects were attending a summer camp north of Montreal, Quebec. Most of the subjects were of the Jewish faith, and in the lower to middle socio-economic class.

Apparatus and Materials

The experiment was administered in one of the two camp dining rooms. The dining room was able to accommodate 250 people comfortably. Thirty round tables were placed in the room, with five chairs distributed around each table. The subjects each had a specific place at the table. They were given lead HB pencils and erasers to fill out the forms. Each person was required to complete three forms (see Appendix A): a General Information sheet, the Parent Behavior Rating Scale, and the California Psychological Inventory.

Table 1
Age and Sex Distribution of the Subjects Who
Participated and Completed All Parts
of the Study

Age	Sex	<u>n</u>
12	M	2
	F	9
13	M	5
	F	11
14	M	20
	F	14
15	M	9
	F	24
16	M	7
	F	11
17	M	0
	F	7
18+	M	5
	F	8
Total		132

Procedure

The experiment was performed twice during the summer, as each batch of children stayed in camp for approximately three and a half weeks. However, the subject distribution, apparatus and materials, and procedure were identical for both these groups of children.

The children and staff members who participated in the study, came to the dining hall in the early afternoon, approximately one hour after lunch finished. They were seated randomly at the tables. There were three invigilators including the writer. When everyone was in place and quiet was achieved, the examiner's instructions to the two groups were as follows:

I am a graduate student in psychology at the University of Windsor, Ontario. For part of the requirements to obtain the Master of Arts degree, I have to think of and eventually conduct a study or an experiment. To accomplish this, I need your help, as my study is interested in how people your age think about various things. More specifically, the research I am doing is concerned about how adolescents feel about their parental upbringing. Also, I'm interested in how people your age generally feel about themselves. The research I'd like you to help me with is not a test, or a competition. It is in no way a personal evaluation and all information collected will remain confidential and anonymous, with no one's name being marked down.

There are three forms in front of you. When I say to start, you should fill out the General Information sheet, the Parent Behavior Scale, and the California Psychological Inventory. When you have completed these forms, raise your hand and one of the invigilators or I will come and collect them. You can then quietly leave the room. At no time should there be any

discussion or conference with your peers, as I am only interested in what you think. There is no time limit, so work at your own pace. If you are confused about anything while filling out the forms, please raise your hand and I will come over and help you. Are there any questions...O.K., please turn over your first form and start to write. Thank-you.

Description of Instruments

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI), was chosen as the personality test for assessing adolescents' behavior. Many of the standard personality tests and assessment devices available have been designed for use in special settings such as the psychiatric clinic, or have been constructed to deal with a particular problem, such as vocational choice. The CPI is concerned with characteristics of personality which have wide and pervasive applicability to human behavior, and which in addition, are related to the favorable and positive aspects of personality rather than to the morbid and pathological.

The Inventory then, is intended primarily for use with "normal" (non-psychiatrically disturbed) subjects. Its scales are addressed principally to personality characteristics important for social living and social interaction. In addition, the instrument is convenient and easy to use and suitable for large-scale application (Gough, 1969).

The CPI draws about half of its items from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) and was

developed specifically for use with normal populations from age 12 up. Consisting of 480 items to be answered True or False, the CPI yields scores in 18 scales. Three are "validity" scales designed to assess test-taking attitudes. These scales are designated as: Sense of Well-Being (Wb), based on responses by normals asked to "fake bad"; Good Impression (Gi), based on responses by normals asked to "fake good"; and Communality (Cm), based on a frequency count of highly popular responses. The remaining 15 scales provide scores in such personality dimensions as Dominance, Sociability, Self-Acceptance, Responsibility, Socialization, Self-Control, Achievement-via-Conformance, Achievement-via-Independence, and Femininity.

For 11 of these 15 scales, items were selected on the basis of contrasted group responses, against such criteria as course, grades, social class membership, participation in extra curricular activities, and ratings. The ratings were obtained through peer nominations, found to be an effective assessment technique for many interpersonal traits. For the remaining 4 scales, items were originally grouped subjectively and then checked for internal consistency. Cross validation of all scales on sizable samples has yielded significant group differences, although the overlapping of contrasted criterion groups is considerable and criterion correlations are often low.

As in the MMPI, all scores are reported in terms of a standard score scale with a mean of 50 and an SD of 10; this scale was derived from a normative sample of 6,000 males and 7,000 females, widely distributed in age, socioeconomic level, and geographic area. In addition, means and SD's of scores on each scale are given for many special groups. Retest as well as internal consistency reliability coefficients of the individual scales compare favorably with those found for other personality inventories (Megargee, 1972). Intercorrelations among scales are relatively high. All but four scales, for example, correlate at least .50 with one or more other scales, indicating considerable redundancy among the 18 scales (Anastasi, 1976).

To conclude, one of the purposes of the present research was to assess how "normal" adolescents feel about themselves, and the California Psychological Inventory seems to be able to do this in an accurate, efficient, and satisfying manner. As Anastasi (1976) writes

On the whole, ...the CPI is one of the best personality inventories currently available. Its technical development is of a high order and it has been subjected to extensive research and continuous improvement. (p. 505)

The Parent Behavior Rating Scale (PBR) was used as a means for assessing adolescents' perceptions of their parental upbringing. This scale was derived from the research done by Baumrind (1971). The purpose for selecting her model as

the one to determine parental child-rearing techniques has been discussed elsewhere (Child-Rearing Factors and Statement of the Problem and Hypotheses). In this section, the development of Baumrind's original Parent Behavior Scale and the current scale derived from it, will be outlined.

Baumrind conceptualized fifteen hypothetical constructs to cover the domain of relevant parent behavior. These included such constructs as firm versus lax enforcement policy, and encourages versus discourages independence. Fifty Parent Behavior Ratings scales were devised to assess the observed and reported behavior of the mother and father separately, and 25 additional scales were devised to measure the joint influences of the parents. Each of the 75 items was constructed to measure a specific manifestation of one of the 15 hypothetical constructs. The construct was itself defined as an item so that the observers could summarize the impressions of the family, by rating the family on the 15 child-rearing dimensions.

First the empirical and then the decision-making features of the BC TRY cluster analysis were used to provide separate unordered cluster solutions for a) 50 Mother items, b) 50 Father items, and c) 25 Joint items. Baumrind obtained five clusters for the Mother, six clusters for the Father and five clusters for the influence of both parents together. The validity of the clusters as measures of the

15 original hypothetical constructs can be inferred from their correlations with the constructs-qua-items which these items operationally define.

Subjects were assigned to Patterns of Parental Authority (Appendix C) on the basis of their pattern of scores on the PBR clusters (Appendix B). These groups had been conceptualized in previous studies done by Baumrind (1966, 1967, 1968) and outlined in the section on Child-Rearing Factors.

For the present study, a Parent Behavior Rating Scale was constructed to correspond as closely as possible to Baumrind's scale. In order to accomplish this, Baumrind's items of parental behavior, originally used by an outside observer to rate the home environment, were adapted into statements for adolescents to answer themselves. In many of the cases, the original wording of the item was used in the statement constructed. But in some instances, it was too difficult grammatically to retain the original wording, and the statement was therefore constructed based on what the researcher felt to be Baumrind's hypothetical construct. Four items were deemed impossible to convert to the present scale and were not included. In addition, the final product contained more items for the Father than for the Mother. The reason was that Baumrind's classification of parental authority patterns (Appendix C) contained all six original clusters for the Father category, but only

four out of the five original clusters for the Mother category (based on the variance achieved in the cluster analysis). Since the present research rests on Baumrind's scheme, the Parent Behavior Rating Scale constructed for adolescents, included only those clusters determined necessary for classification in a particular parent behavior pattern.

The completed statements in the scale were checked with an outside source to confirm their accuracy to Baumrind's original Parent Behavior Rating Scale, and to confirm the grammatical appropriateness of each statement, for use with adolescents.

Data Analysis

Step 1. The individual questions on the Parent Behavior Rating Scale were redefined into their original clusters (Appendix B). Each individual's scores based on these clusters were collated. For example, an individual who answered true to three items dealing with the "Enrichment of the Child's Environment" cluster, and false to the rest of the items, then received a score of three on this specific cluster. The rest of the items in each cluster were similarly scored. When this process was completed, the individual's total cluster scores were matched to the eight patterns of parental authority to see if any "fit". Each parental authority pattern and its defining criteria are described

in Appendix C.

Step 2. An individual's scores on each of the eighteen categories in the California Psychological Inventory were calculated, as outlined in the CPI manual (Gough, 1969).

Step 3. Individuals placed in each of the specific parental authority patterns (Appendix D) had their scores on the CPI added together. The eight parental authority patterns were then redefined into their original four subtypes for reasons of data analysis and subsequent discussion. The names of the four sub-groups were chosen by the author, as they represented most completely the parental patterns which comprised them. The authoritarian parental sub-group originally consisted of the authoritarian (not-rejecting) parental pattern and the authoritarian-rejecting-neglecting parental pattern. In the result section of the paper it is classified as parental group one. The rejecting-neglecting parental sub-group originally consisted of only one parental pattern, rejecting-neglecting (not authoritarian) parents. It is classified as parental group two. The authoritative parental sub-group originally consisted of the authoritative (not nonconforming) parental pattern and the authoritative-nonconforming parental pattern. It is classified as parental group three. Finally, the nonconforming and permissive sub-group originally consisted of the nonconforming (not permissive and not authoritative) parental pattern, the

permissive (not nonconforming) parental pattern, and the nonconforming-permissive parental pattern. In the result section of the paper, it is classified as parental group four.

A mean was then derived for the CPI scores in each of the four parental groups for comparison. In addition, a mean was gathered on the CPI scores based on the age classifications and sex in each of the parental authority groups. The breakdown of age groups was as follows: 12-14 years, and 15 years and older. There were many reasons for having this particular age breakdown. Only having two age groups insured an adequate number of subjects for subsequent statistical analysis. In addition, by having only two age groups, it was easier to contrast and compare the results of the scores between younger and older adolescents. The cut-off point chosen was between 14 and 15 years of age, allowing an approximately equal number of subjects in the two age ranges. Finally, the author believed that this cut-off point between the two age ranges best signified the division between younger and older adolescents.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis examined (Ho 1) was "how adolescents perceive their parent's disciplinary techniques is not related to the personality traits manifested by these adolescents". Table 2 utilized the Kruskal-Wallis Test to compare the scores obtained between the four parental authority groups on each of the 18 CPI personality traits. If there were any significant results within an individual personality trait, then the Mann-Whitney U Test (see table 3) was used to determine which of the parental authority group scores were differing from one another. The parental authority groups were divided into the following order: parental group one, authoritarian parents; parental group two, rejecting-neglecting parents; parental group three, authoritative parents; and parental group four, nonconforming and permissive parents. This numerical classification of the parental groups extends throughout the result section, to simplify and aid discussion of the obtained results. For an overall perspective of the results, figures one through six graph the children's standard

mean scores on each personality variable. The four different parental authority groups were compared against one another in these sets of figures. Each personality variable is discussed separately below in order to evaluate whether to reject or accept this hypothesis.

Dominance (Do)

The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) indicated no significant differences between the scores obtained on the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=6.20, p < .10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Capacity of Status (Cs)

On this personality variable, the Kruskal-Wallis (see table 2) indicated a significant difference between the scores obtained on the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=7.43, p < .10$. On further examination (see table 3) parental group one had a significantly lower score than parental group four, $z=1.82, p < .10$. In addition, parental group two was shown to have a significantly lower score when compared with parental group four, $z=1.87, p < .10$. Therefore, with regard to these comparisons the null hypothesis is rejected. However, Mann-Whitney U Tests on the remaining comparisons indicated no significant differences between the parental authority groups. The null hypothesis is, therefore, accepted for the rest of these comparisons.

Table 2
 A Comparison^a of the Four Parental Authority
 Groups on Each of the Personality Variables

Personality Variables					
Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb
6.20	7.43*	22.02****	82.21****	8.20**	.26
Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm
10.63**	17.52****	6.14	.67	.68	1.69
Ac	Ai	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe
10.91**	4.10	5.73	24.78****	.85	6.22

* $p < .10$

** $p < .05$

*** $p < .01$

**** $p < .001$

^a Numbers reported in the body of the table are Kruskal-Wallis scores (χ^2).

Table 3

The Four Parental Authority Groups Compared^a
 Against One Another on Each
 of the Personality Variables

Parental Authority Groups	Personality Variables					
	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb
1 vs. 2	.18	.54	-.72	-.47	-1.65*	-.02
1 vs. 3	1.63	1.14	-.95	.85	-.16	1.21
1 vs. 4	1.32	1.82*	.89	1.13	-.57	1.05
2 vs. 3	1.55	1.37	1.71*	3.00***	1.44	1.03
2 vs. 4	1.30	1.87*	1.37	-3.49***	.89	.74
3 vs. 4	.39	.46	.09	.49	-.56	-.27
	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Ch
1 vs. 2	-2.41**	-.95	-.94	.11	-.06	.42
1 vs. 3	.43	2.20**	.71	.39	1.18	.04
1 vs. 4	.47	1.38	.40	.31	.33	1.28
2 vs. 3	2.37**	2.56**	1.44	.22	.22	.27
2 vs. 4	2.33**	2.10**	1.13	.14	.85	.93
3 vs. 4	.43	-.45	-.21	.22	.78	1.45
	Ac	Ai	Ie	Py	Px	Fe
1 vs. 2	-.86	.10	.33	-.50	.42	-.50
1 vs. 3	1.50	.83	.65	2.46**	-.59	.93
1 vs. 4	1.28	.86	.28	1.29	-.63	-.13
2 vs. 3	2.73***	.71	.56	1.65*	.84	1.06
2 vs. 4	2.68***	-.17	.54	.95	-1.08	.05
3 vs. 4	.04	-.82	-.54	-.10	-.06	-.98

*p<.10

**p<.05

***p<.01

^a Numbers reported in the body of the table are Mann-Whitney U scores.

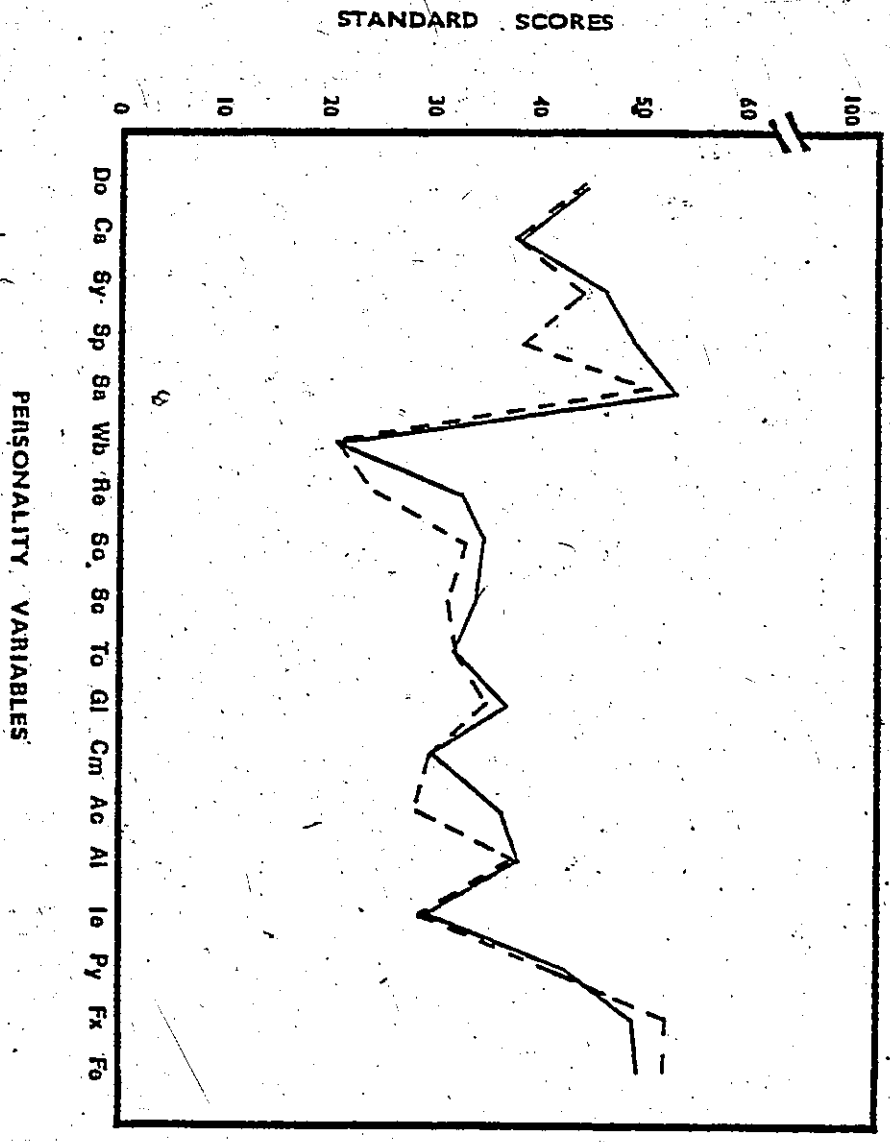


Figure 1. A comparison of the mean standard scores of Parental Authority Group 1 (—) and Parental Authority Group 2 (---), within each personality variable.

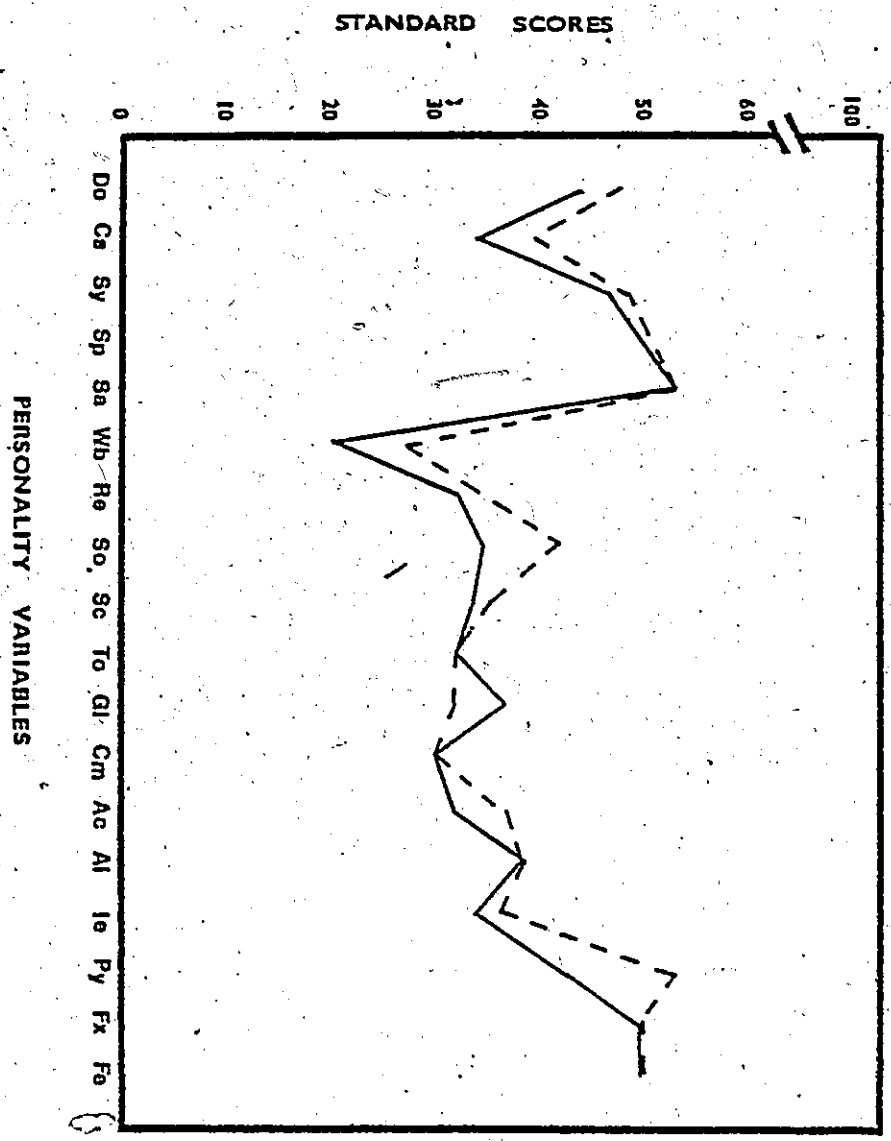


Figure 2. A comparison of the mean standard scores of Parental Authority Group 1 (—) and Parental Authority Group 3 (---), within each personality variable.

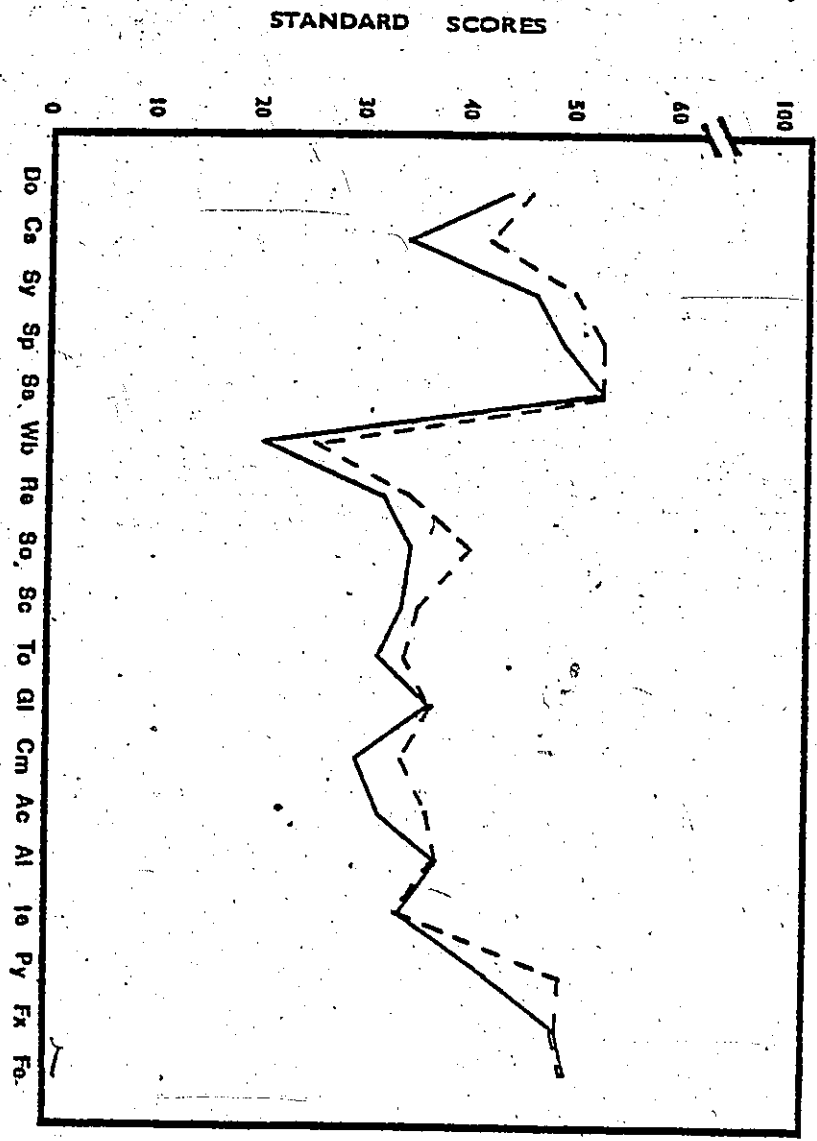


Figure 3. A comparison of the mean standard scores of Parental Authority Group 1 (—) and Parental Authority Group 4 (---), within each personality variable.

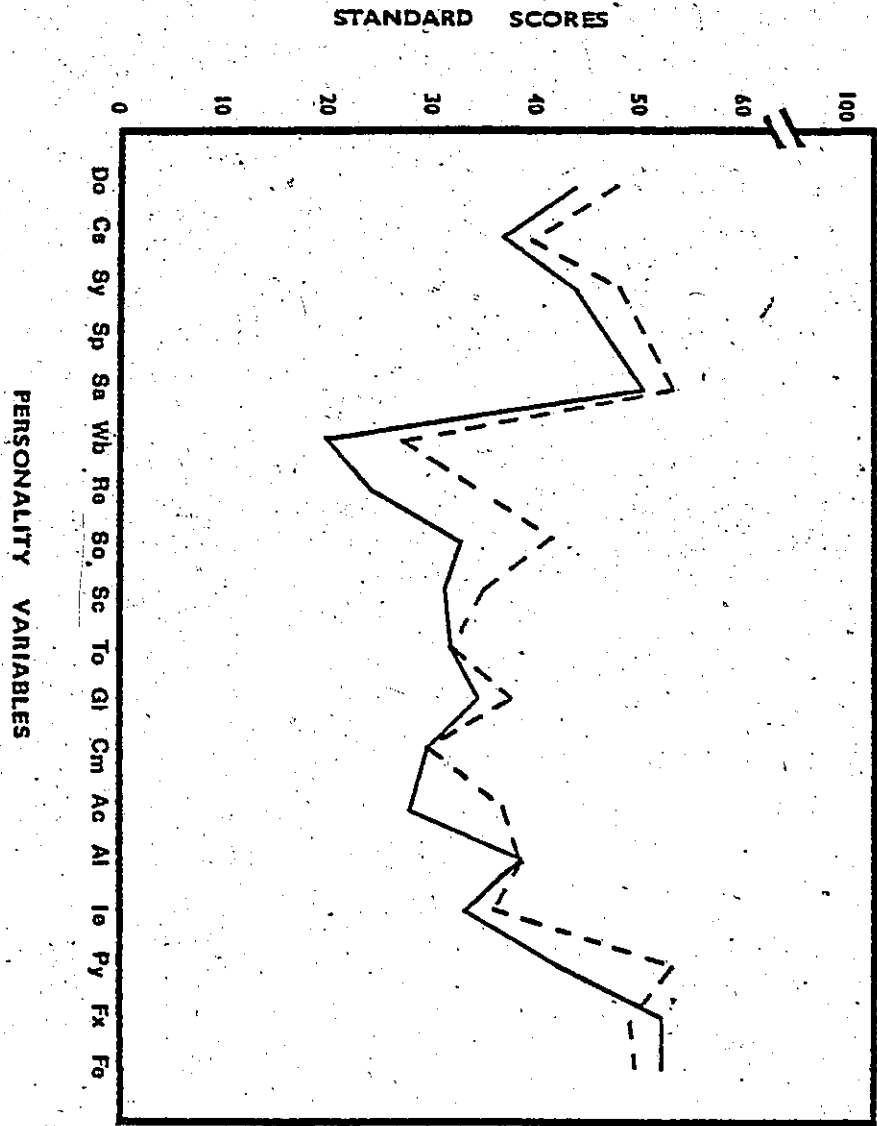


Figure 4. A comparison of the mean standard scores of Parental Authority Group 2 (—) and Parental Authority Group 3 (---), within each personality variable.

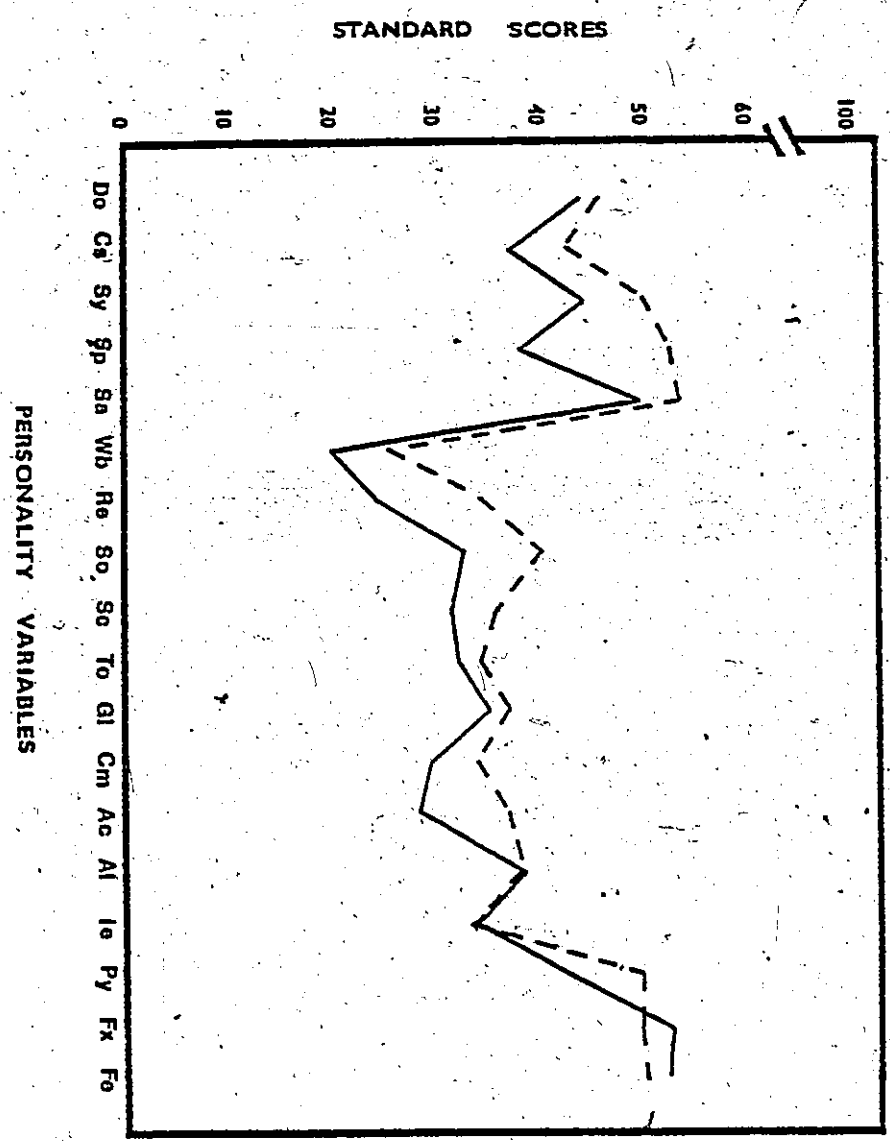


Figure 5. A comparison of the mean standard scores of Parental Authority Group 2 (—) and Parental Authority Group 4 (---), within each personality variable.

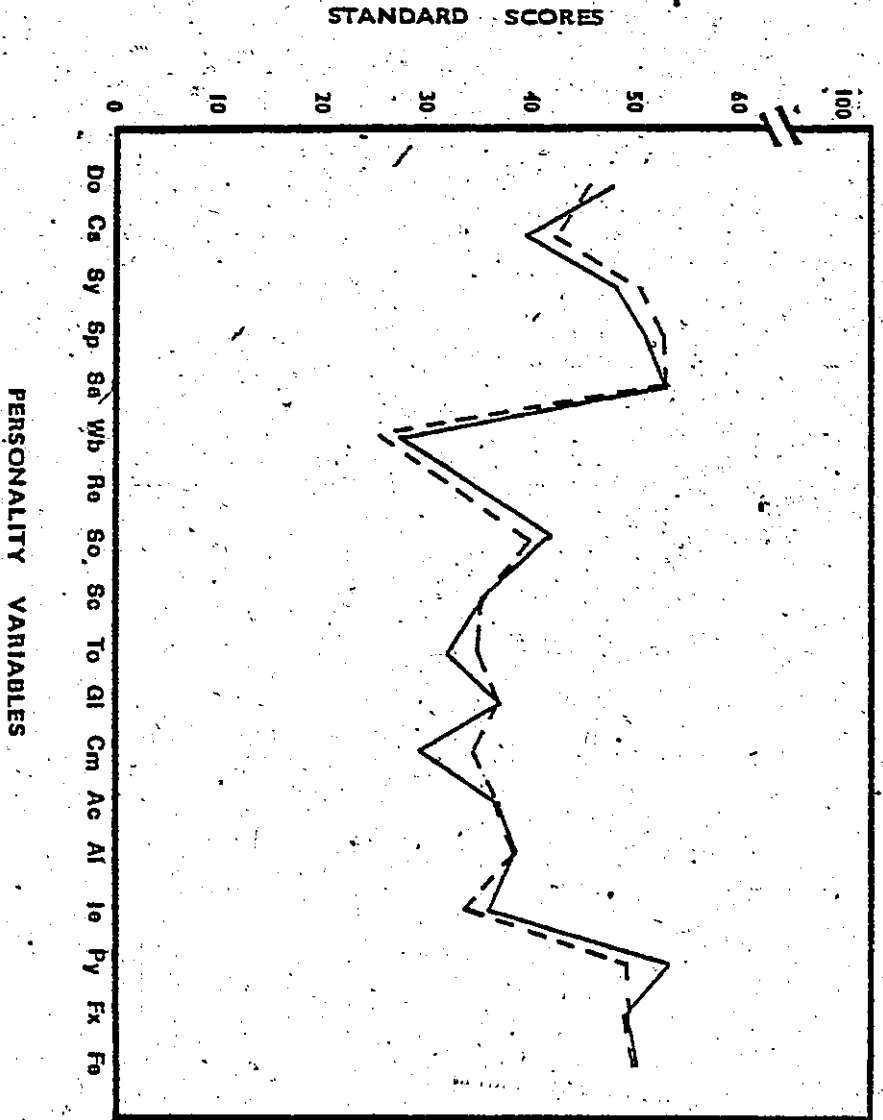


Figure 6. A comparison of the mean standard scores of Parental Authority Group 3 (—) and Parental Authority Group 4 (---), within each personality variable.

Sociability (Sy)

The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores obtained on the parental authority groups with regard to this personality variable, $\chi^2(3)=22.02, p<.001$. Further examination (see table 3) revealed that parental group two had a significantly lower score on the Sy variable than parental group three, $z=1.71, p<.10$. Comparisons on the remaining parental groups showed no significant differences. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all the group comparisons, except for parental group two versus group three, where the null hypothesis is rejected.

Social Presence (Sp)

Concerning this personality variable, the Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) revealed significant differences between the scores obtained on the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=82.21, p<.001$. Further investigation (see table 3) showed that parental group two had a significantly lower score than parental group three, $z=1.44, p<.01$. In addition, parental group two also had a significantly lower score on this variable as compared with parental group four, $z=3.49, p<.01$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected with regard to these two pairs of comparisons. For the remaining parental authority group comparisons, the null hypothesis is accepted as there were no significant differences

Self-Acceptance (Sa)

Initial examination revealed (see table 2) significant differences between the scores obtained on the parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=8.20, p<.05$. Table 3 shows that parental group one had a significantly higher score on this variable than parental group two, $z=-1.65, p<.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected with regard to these two group comparisons. However, further group comparisons revealed no significant differences. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted for the remaining comparisons.

Sense of Well-Being (Wb)

The Kruskal-Wallis (see table 2) indicated that there were no significant differences between parental authority group scores, $\chi^2(3)=.26, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted with regard to the Wb personality variable.

Responsibility (Re)

Group comparisons utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) showed that there were significant differences between parental authority group scores, $\chi^2(3)=10.63, p<.05$. Further analysis (see table 3) indicated that parental group one had a significantly higher score than parental group two, $z=-2.41, p<.05$. Parental group two also had significantly lower scores when compared with both parental

group three, $z=2.31, p<.05$, and parental group four, $z=2.33, p<.05$. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected for the above group comparisons. Remaining parental group comparisons revealed no significant differences between groups, allowing the null hypothesis to be accepted.

Socialization (So)

The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) revealed significant differences between the parental authority group scores on this personality variable, $\chi^2(3)=17.52, p<.001$. Further analysis (see table 3) showed that parental group one had a significantly lower score than parental group three, $z=.71, p<.05$. In addition, parental group two had significantly lower scores when compared to both parental group three, $z=2.56, p<.05$, and parental group four, $z=2.10, p<.05$. For the three pairs of comparisons the null hypothesis is rejected. However, the remaining parental authority group comparisons revealed no significant differences. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for these comparisons.

Self-Control (Sc)

Analysis utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis (see table 2) showed no significant differences in scores between the parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=6.14, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is accepted for the self-control personality variable.

Tolerance (To)

The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) indicated no significant differences between the scores of the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3) = .67, p > .10$. The null hypothesis is accepted.

Good Impression (Gi)

On this personality variable, the Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) indicated no significant differences between the scores of the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3) = .68, p > .10$. The null hypothesis is accepted.

Communality (Cm)

The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) showed not significant differences between the scores of the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3) = 1.69, p > .10$. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted.

Achievement via Conformity (Ac)

Preliminary examination utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) revealed significant differences between the parental authority group scores, $\chi^2(3) = 10.91, p < .05$. Further analysis (see table 3) demonstrated that parental group two had a significantly lower score on this personality variable when compared to both parental group three, $z = 2.73, p < .01$, and parental group four, $z = 2.68, p < .01$.

Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for these two pairs of comparisons. However, analysis for the remaining parental group comparisons, revealed no significant differences between parental authority groups. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted for these comparisons.

Achievement via Independence (Ai)

The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) indicated that there were no significant differences between the scores of the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=4.10, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Intellectual Efficiency (Ie)

Measures on this personality variable (see table 2) revealed no significant differences between the scores of the parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=5.73, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is accepted.

Psychological-Mindedness (Py)

Preliminary analysis (see table 2) utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis Test revealed significant differences between the parental authority group scores, $\chi^2(3)=24.78, p<.05$. Subsequent analysis (see table 3) revealed that parental group two had a significantly lower score than parental group three, $z=1.65, p<.10$. In addition, parental group one had a significantly lower score than parental group three,

$z=2.46, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected with regard to these two pairs of group comparisons. Remaining groups comparisons showed no significant differences between their scores. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for these comparisons.

Flexibility (Fx)

Analysis utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) showed no significant differences between the scores on the parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=-.85, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is accepted.

Femininity (Fe)

Analysis utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis Test (see table 2) revealed no significant differences in scores between the four parental authority groups, $\chi^2(3)=6.22, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted for the femininity personality variable.

A matrix summarizing the personality differences of each parental authority group compared against one another is shown in table 4.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis examined (Ho 2) was "adolescents of various ages, who perceive their parents' discipline techniques similarly, do not display different personality

Table 4

Matrix Summarizing the Personality Differences of Each Parental Authority Group Compared Against One Another

Parental Authority Group One Authoritarian	Parental Authority Group Three Authoritative	Parental Authority Group Four Nonconforming and Permissive
--	--	--

Parental Authority Group Two Rejecting-Neglecting

Sa
Re

SY So
Sp AC
Re PY

Cs So
Sp AC
Re

Parental Authority Group Three Authoritative

So
PY

no differences

Parental Authority Group Four Nonconforming and Permissive

Cs

no differences

traits". The format employed to evaluate this was the same as the one used in the previous hypothesis. That is, each personality variable is discussed separately below, in order to evaluate whether to reject or accept the hypothesis. The test chosen was the Mann-Whitney U Test, to determine if the two age groups (12-14 years and 15+ years), differed significantly from one another on the scores they received within each personality variable. For an overall perspective of the results, figures seven through ten graph the children's standard mean scores on each personality variable. The four different parental authority groups were compared against one another in these sets of figures.

Dominance (Do)

The Mann-Whitney U Test (see table 5) revealed that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $U=106.5, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $U=17.0, p>.10$, and parental authority group three, $z=1.48, p>.10$. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. However, within parental authority group four, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $U=82.0, p<.01$, on the dominance personality variable. Therefore, for parental group four, the null hypothesis is rejected.

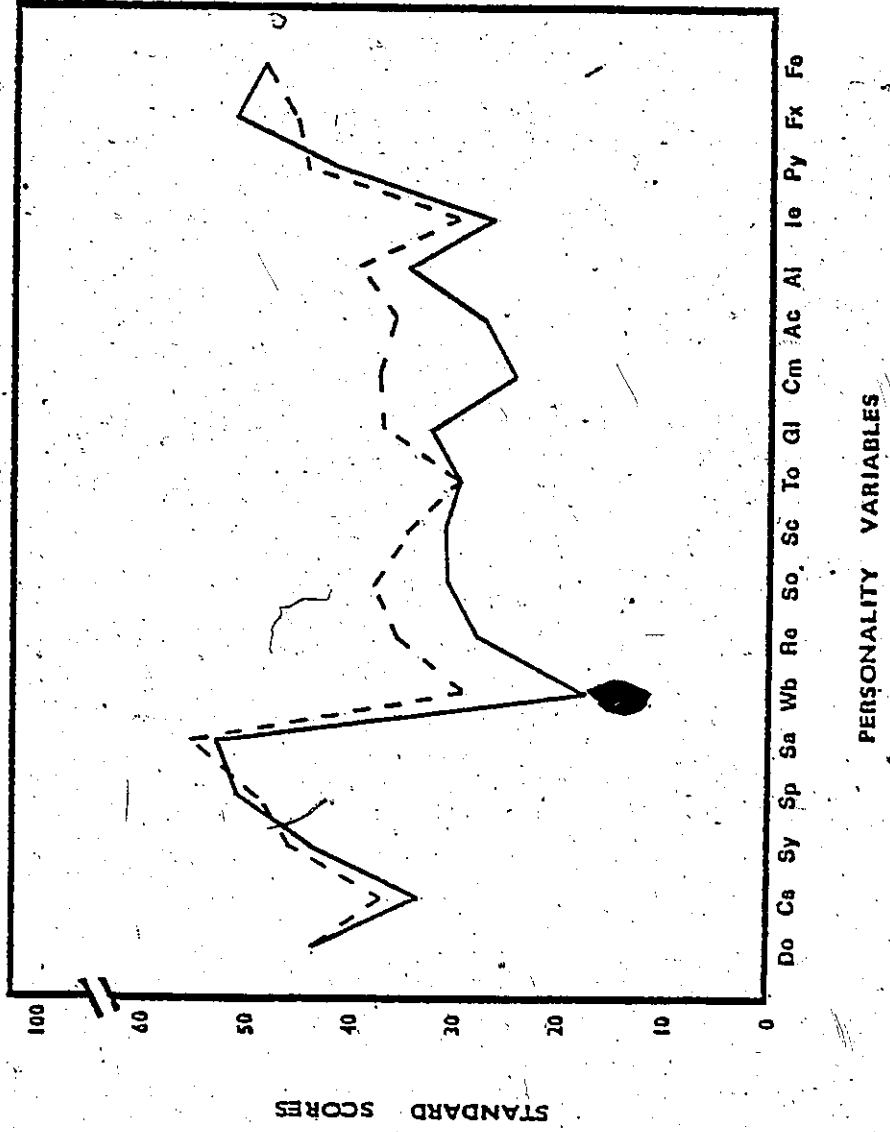


Figure 7. A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger (—) and older (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 1 within each personality variable.

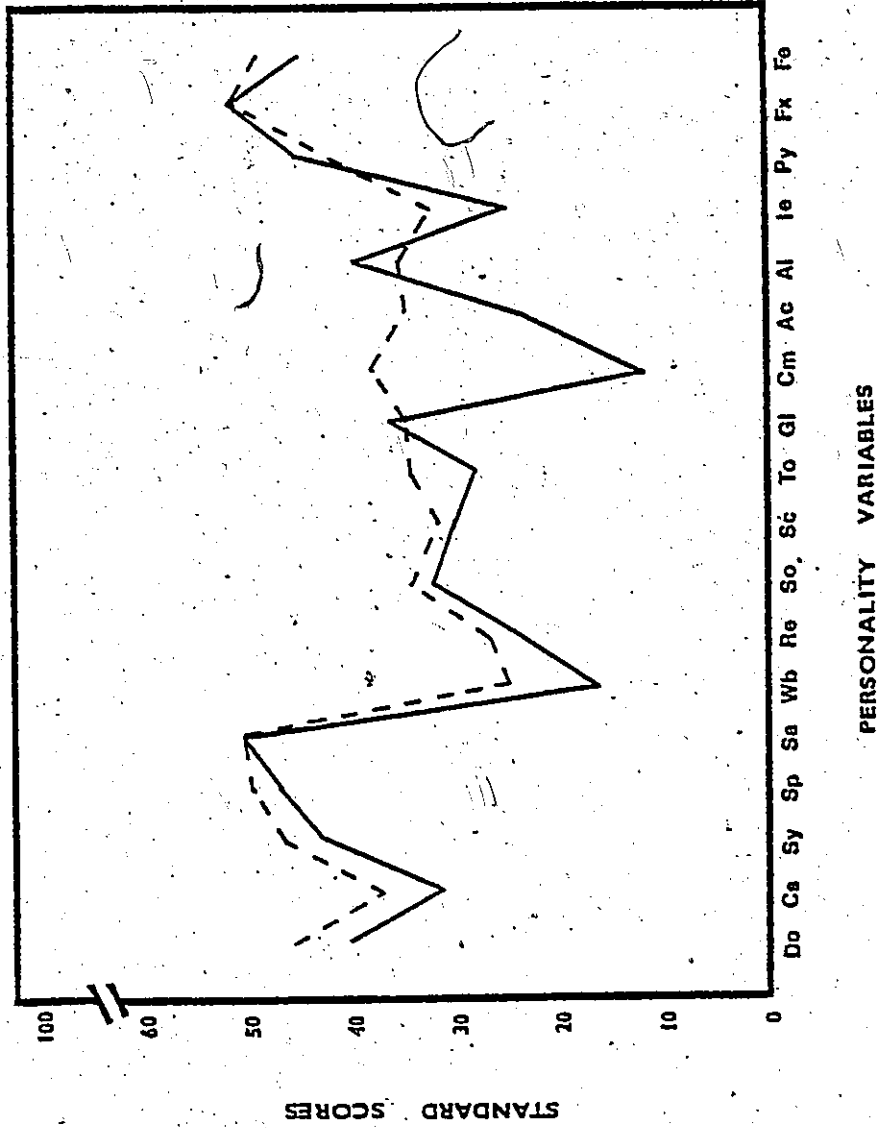


Figure 8. A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger (—) and older (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 2, within each personality variable.

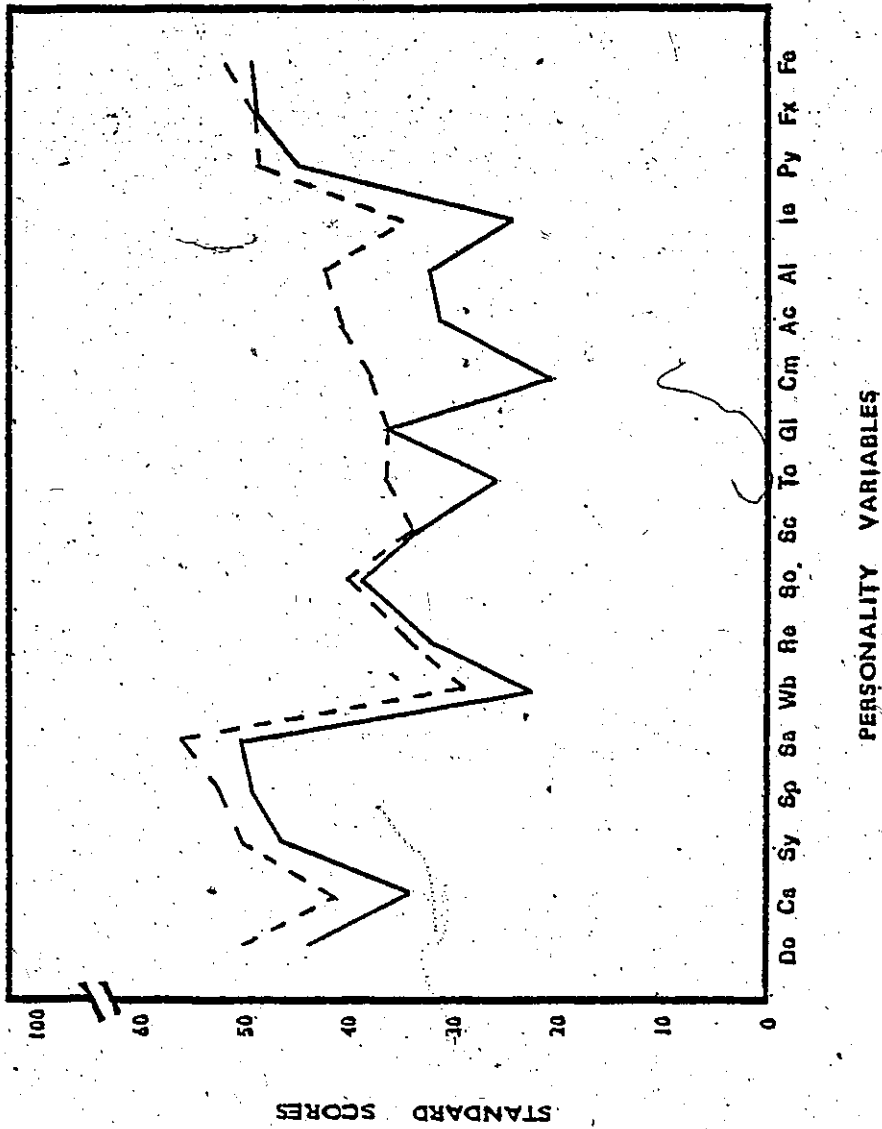


Figure 9. A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger (—) and older (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 3, within each personality variable.

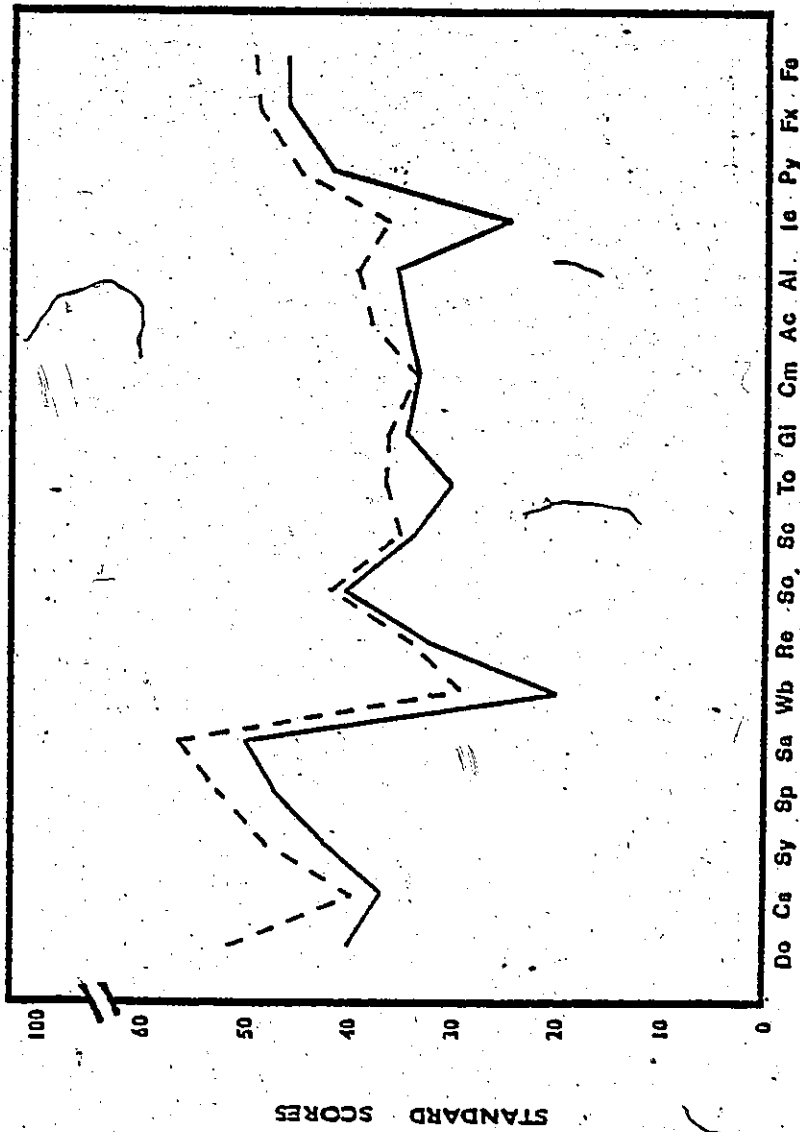


Figure 10. A comparison of the mean standard scores of younger (—) and older (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 4, within each personality variable.

Table 5
 A Comparison of Younger and Older Adolescent Scores Within the Parental Authority Groups on Each of the Personality Variables

Parental Authority Group	n	Personality Variables																		
		Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe	
1	32	106.50	115.50	111.50	135.00	106.50	91.00	67.00**	79.00*	84.00										
2	15	17.00	18.50	11.00**	23.50	25.00	16.00*	22.50	25.50	26.00										
3	46	1.48	2.02**	1.64	1.12	2.28**	1.89**	1.63	1.18	.94										
4	39	82.00***	112.00**	-74.00**	86.00**	131.50	112.00**	168.50	178.00	192.50										

Parental Authority Group	n	Personality Variables													
		To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe					
1	32	114.00	89.00	72.00**	87.50	103.50	112.00	108.50	172.00	123.00					
2	15	18.50	32.00	12.00**	16.50	32.50	10.00**	32.50	31.00	18.50					
3	46	2.63***	.17	2.13**	2.15**	2.67***	2.81***	1.34	.29	.18					
4	39	119.50*	174.00	158.00	164.50	146.50	92.00**	145.50	141.50	200.50					

*p<.10
 **p<.05
 ***p<.01

^a Numbers reported in the body of the table are Mann-Whitney U scores, except when n>20, in which case the z from the normal curve approximation was reported.

Capacity for Status (Cs)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 5) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $U=115.5, p>.10$ and parental authority group two, $U=118.5, p>.10$. Therefore, for these two parental groups, the null hypothesis is accepted. The other two parental groups had significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups, with the older age adolescents having a higher score than the younger age adolescents. The statistical results for parental group three were, $z=2.02, p<.05$, and for parental group four were, $U=112.0, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental authority groups three and four.

Sociability (Sy)

There were no significant differences on the scores obtained (see table 5) between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $U=111.5, p>.10$ and parental authority group three, $z=1.64, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. The other two parental groups had significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups, with older age adolescents having a higher score than the younger age adolescents. The statistical results for parental group two were, $U=11.0, p<.05$ and for parental group four were, $U=74.0, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental authority groups two and four.

Social Presence (Sp)

The Mann-Whitney U Test (see table 5) revealed that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $U=135.0, p>.10$, parental group two, $U=23.5, p>.10$, and parental group three, $z=1.22, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. However, within parental authority group four, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $U=86.0, p<.01$, on the social presence personality variable. Therefore, for parental authority group four, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Self-Acceptance (Sa)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 5) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $U=106.5, p>.1$, parental group two, $U=25.0, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $U=131.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. However, within parental group three, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $z=2.28, p<.05$. Therefore, for parental authority group three, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Sense of Well-Being (Wb)

Only parental authority group one displayed no significant difference between the scores on the two age groups, $U=91, p>.10$ (see table 5). The remaining parental authority groups each had the older age adolescents having

a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents. The statistical results were as follows: for parental authority group two, $U=16.0, p<.10$; for parental authority group three, $z=1.89, p<.05$; and for parental authority group four, $U=112.0, p<.15$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for parental authority group one only, and rejected for parental authority groups two, three and four.

Responsibility (Re)

The Mann-Whitney U Test (see table 5) revealed that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group two, $U=22.5, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=1.63, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $U=168.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. However, within parental authority group one, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $U=67.0, p<.05$, on the responsibility personality variable. Therefore, for parental authority group one, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Socialization (So)

The Mann-Whitney U Test (see table 5) revealed that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group two, $U=25.5, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=1.18, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $U=178.0, p>.10$. Therefore,

for these groups the null hypothesis is accepted. However, for parental authority group one, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $U=79.0, p<.10$. Therefore, for parental authority group one, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Tolerance (To)

There were no significant differences on the scores obtained (see table 5) between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $U=114.0, p>.10$ and parental authority group two, $U=18.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. The other two parental authority groups had significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups, with the older age adolescents having a higher score than the younger age adolescents. The statistical results for parental group three were, $z=2.63, p<.01$, and for parental group four were $U=119.5, p<.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental groups three and four.

Good Impression (Gi)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 5) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in all four parental authority groups. The results were as follows: parental authority group one, $U=89.0, p>.10$; parental authority group two, $U=32.0, p>.10$; parental authority group three, $z=.17, p>.10$; and parental

authority group four, $\underline{U}=174, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Communality (Cm)

Only parental authority group four displayed no significant differences between the scores on the two age groups, $\underline{U}=158, p>.10$, (see table 5). The remaining parental authority groups each had the older age adolescents having a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents. The statistical results were as follows: for parental group one, $\underline{U}=72.0, p<.05$; parental group two, $\underline{U}=12.0, p<.05$; parental group three, $z=2.13, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for parental authority group four only, and is rejected for parental authority groups one, two and three.

Achievement via Conformity (Ac)

The Mann-Whitney U Test revealed (see table 5) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $\underline{U}=87.5, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $\underline{U}=16.5, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $\underline{U}=164.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. However, within parental authority group three, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $z=2.15, p<.05$, on this personality variable. Therefore, for parental authority group three, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Achievement via Independence (Ai)

Statistical analysis revealed (see table 5) that there were no significant differences between the two age groups on their personality scores in parental authority group one, $\underline{U}=103.5, p>.10$, group two, $\underline{U}=32.5, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $\underline{U}=146.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. However, within parental authority group three, the older age adolescents had a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents, $z=2.67, p<.01$. Therefore, in the case of parental authority group three, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Intellectual Efficiency (Ie)

Only parental authority group one displayed no significant differences between the scores obtained on the two age groups, $\underline{U}=112.0, p>.10$, (see table 5). The remaining parental authority groups each had the older age adolescents having a significantly higher score than the younger age adolescents. The statistical results were as follows: for parental authority group two, $\underline{U}=10.0, p<.05$; for parental authority group three, $z=2.81, p<.01$; and for parental authority group four, $\underline{U}=92.0, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for parental authority groups two, three and four.

Psychological-Mindedness (Py)

The Mann-Whitney U Test indicated (see table 5) that

there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in all four parental authority groups. The results were as follows: parental authority group one, $\underline{U}=108.5, p>.10$; parental authority group two, $\underline{U}=32.5, p>.10$; parental authority group three, $\underline{z}=1.34, p>.10$; and for parental authority group four, $\underline{U}=145.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Flexibility (Fx)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 5) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $\underline{U}=172.0, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $\underline{U}=31.0, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $\underline{z}=.29, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $\underline{U}=141.5, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups.

Femininity (Fe)

There were no significant differences (see table 5) on the scores obtained between the two age groups in parental authority group one, $\underline{U}=123.0, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $\underline{U}=18.5, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $\underline{z}=.18, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $\underline{U}=200.5, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted for all four parental authority groups.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis examined (Ho 3) was "adolescents of different sex, who perceive their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques similarly, do not display different personality traits". The format used to evaluate this hypothesis was based on the one used for the previous two hypotheses. Each personality variable is discussed separately below in order to conclude whether to reject or accept this hypothesis. The Mann-Whitney U Test was chosen to determine if the two sexes differed significantly from one another on the scores they received within each personality variable. For an overall perspective of the results, figures eleven through fourteen graph the children's standard mean scores on each personality variable. The four different parental groups were compared against one another in these sets of figures.

Dominance (Do)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 6) that no significant differences were found on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group one, $z=0.41, p>.10$, parental group two, $U=28.0, p>.10$, parental group three, $z=1.12, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=1.37, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups on the dominance personality variable.

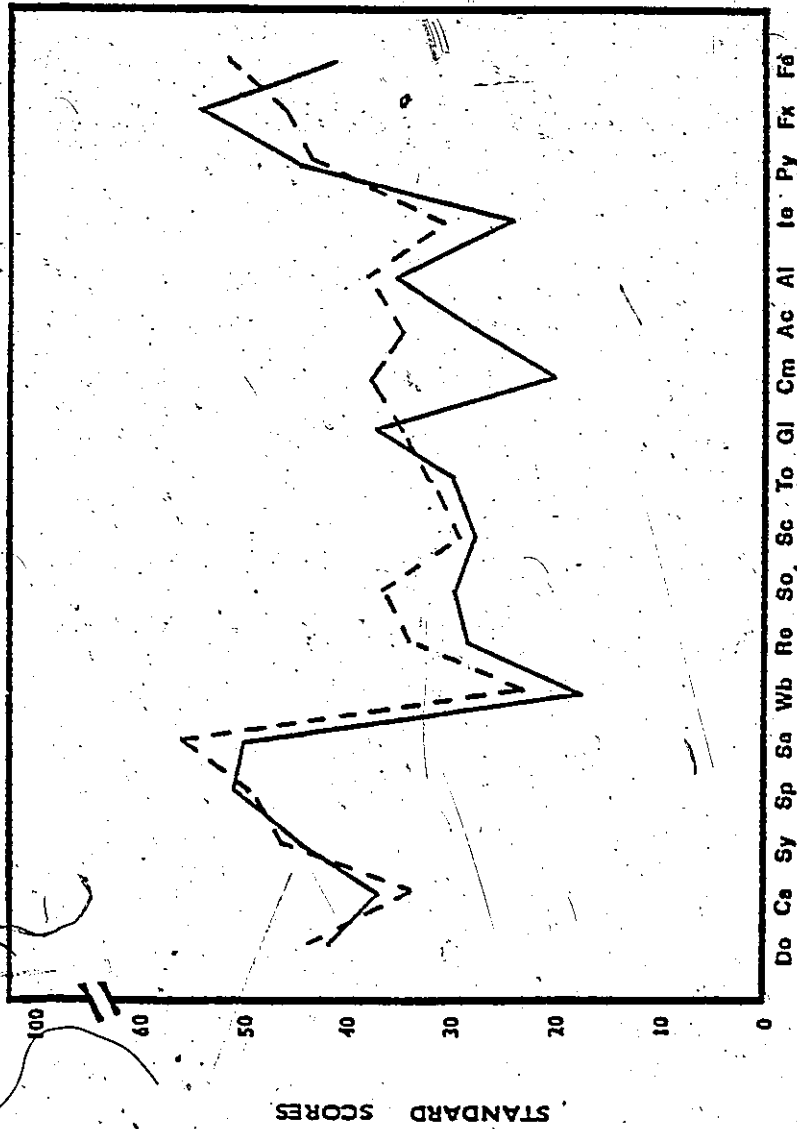


Figure 11. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male (—) and female (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 1, within each personality variable.

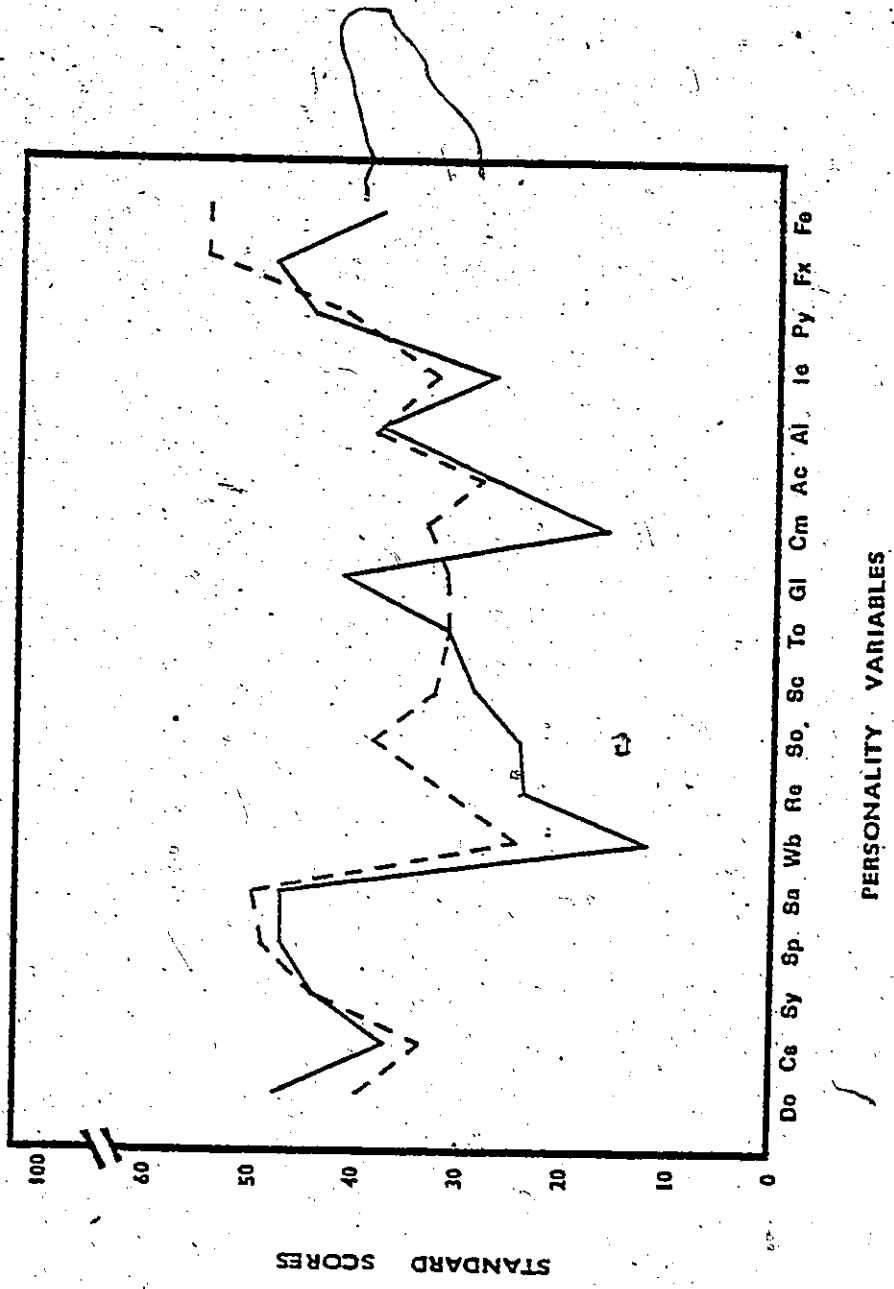


Figure 12. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male (—) and female (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 2, within each personality variable.

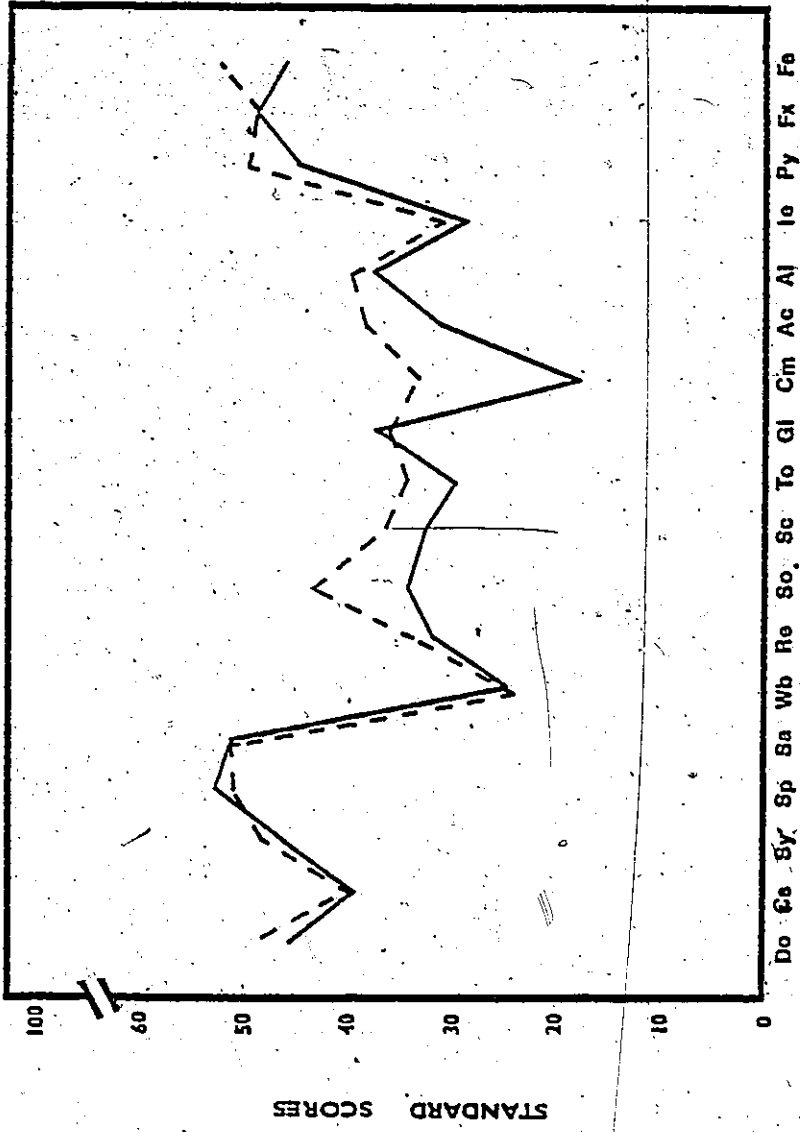


Figure 13. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male (—) and female (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 3, within each personality variable.

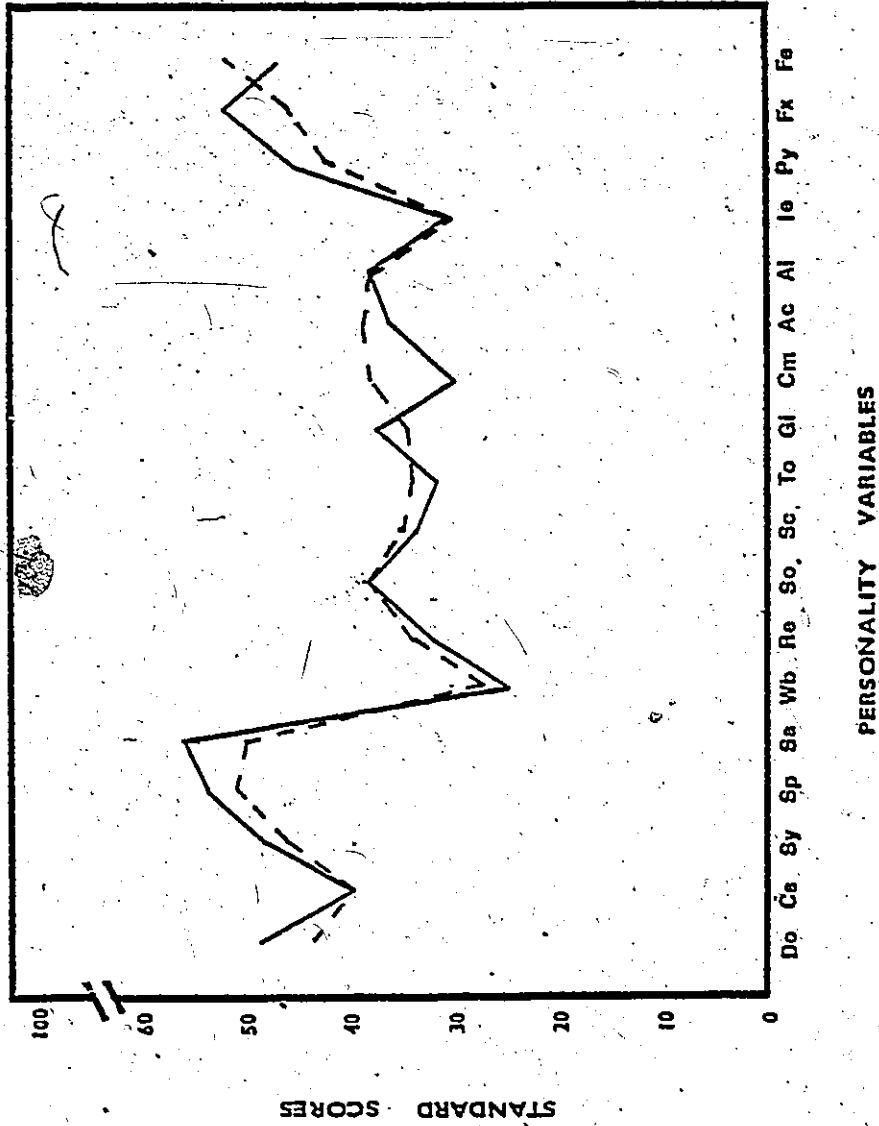


Figure 14. A comparison of the mean standard scores of male (—) and female (---) adolescents in Parental Authority Group 4, within each personality variable.

Table 6
 A Comparison of Male and Female Scores Within the Parental
 Authority Groups on Each of the Personality Variables

Parental Authority Group	n ^c	Personality Variables																		
		Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gf	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Px	Fe	
1	32	.41	-.63	.51	-.58	1.21	1.05	2.14**	2.08**	.16										
2	15	28.00	33.00	20.00	23.00	23.00	15.00**	25.00	4.50***	20.00										
3	46	1.12	.10	.86	-.13	-.01	.25	.91	2.57**	.64										
4	39	-1.37	-.25	-.13	-1.61	-.17	.37	.95	.72	.11										
	n	To	Gf	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Px	Fe										
1	32	1.43	-1.77*	2.66***	1.35	1.61	1.27	-1.75**	-2.12**	2.86***										
2	15	28.00	49.00	16.50	20.00	25.50	15.00*	37.00	15.50*	12.00**										
3	46	1.18	-.69	2.22**	1.83*	1.22	.86	-.76	.24	2.77***										
4	39	.64	-1.32	-1.62	.76	.48	.51	-.35	4.1.76*	2.21**										

*p < .10

**p < .05

***p < .01

^a Numbers reported in the body of the table are Mann-Whitney U scores, except when n > 20, in which case the z from the normal curve approximation was reported.

Capacity for Status (Cs)

There were no significant differences (see table 6) on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group one, $z = -.63, p > .10$, parental authority group two, $U = 33.0, p > .10$, parental authority group three, $z = .10, p > .10$, and parental authority group four, $z = .25, p > .10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups.

Sociability (Sy)

The Mann-Whitney U Test indicated (see table 6) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two sexes in all four parental authority groups. The results were as follows: parental authority group one, $z = .81, p > .10$; parental authority group two, $U = 20.0, p > .10$; parental authority group three, $z = .86, p > .10$; and parental authority group four, $z = -.13, p > .10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Social Presence (Sp)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 6) that no significant differences were found on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group one, $z = -.58, p > .10$, parental authority group two, $U = 23.0, p > .10$, parental authority group three, $z = -.13, p > .10$, and parental authority group four, $z = 1.61, p > .10$. The null hypothesis

is therefore accepted for all four parental authority groups, on the social presence personality variable.]

Self-Acceptance (Sa)

There were no significant differences (see table 6) on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group one, $z=1.21, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $U=23.0, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=-.01, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=-.17, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups.

Sense of Well-Being (Wb)

Statistical analysis revealed (see table 6) that there were no significant differences between the male and female adolescents on their personality scores in parental authority group one, $z=1.05, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=.25, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.37, p>.10$. However, within parental authority group two, female adolescents had a significantly higher score than their male peers, $U=15, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental authority group two, but accepted for the other three parental authority groups.

Responsibility (Re)

The Mann-Whitney U Test revealed (see table 6) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained

between the two sexes in parental authority group two, $U=25, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=.91, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.95, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for these parental authority groups. However, within parental authority group one, the female adolescents had a significantly higher score than the male adolescents, $z=-2.14, p<.05$. Therefore, for parental authority group one, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Socialization (So)

Only parental authority group four displayed no significant differences between the scores obtained between the two sexes, $z=.72, p>.10$, (see table 6). The remaining parental authority groups each had the female adolescents having a significantly higher score than their male peers. The statistical results were: for parental authority group one, $z=2.08, p<.05$; parental authority group two, $U=4.5, p<.01$; and parental authority group three, $z=2.57, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for parental authority group four only, and is rejected for parental authority groups one, two and three.

Self-Control (Sc)

Statistical analysis indicated (see table 6) that no significant differences were found on the scores obtained between the male and female adolescents in parental authority

group one, $z=.16, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $U=20.0, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=.64, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.11, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups on the self-control personality variable.

Tolerance (To)

There were no significant differences (see table 6) on the scores obtained between male and female adolescents in parental authority group one, $z=1.45, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $U=28.0, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=1.18, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.64, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups.

Good Impression (Gi)

Statistical analysis revealed (see table 6) that there were no significant differences between the male and female adolescents on their personality scores in parental authority group two, $U=49.0, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=-.69, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=-1.32, p>.10$. However, within parental authority group one, male adolescents had a significantly higher score than their female peers, $z=-1.77, p<.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental authority group one, but is accepted for the other three parental authority groups.

Communality (Cm)

The Mann-Whitney U Test indicated (see table 6) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group two, $U=16.5, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=-1.62, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is accepted for parental authority groups two and four. However, female adolescents had a higher score than the male adolescents in both parental authority group one, $z=2.66, p<.01$, and parental authority group three, $z=2.22, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental authority groups one and three on the communality personality variable.

Achievement via Conformity (Ac)

Statistical analysis revealed (see table 6) that there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group one, $z=1.35, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $U=20.0, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.76, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is accepted for these parental authority groups. However, within parental authority group three, female adolescents had a higher score than their male peers, $z=1.83, p<.10$. Therefore, for parental authority group three, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Achievement via Independence (Ai)

There were no significant differences (see table 6) on

the scores obtained between male and female adolescents in parental authority group one, $z=1.61, p>.10$, parental authority group two, $U=25.5, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=1.22, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.48, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for all four parental authority groups.

Intellectual Efficiency (Ie)

Only parental authority group two displayed significant differences on the scores obtained between the two sexes, $U=15.0, p<.10$. The female adolescents had a higher score than the male adolescents. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected for parental authority group two. However, there were no significant differences on the scores obtained between the two sexes in parental authority group one, $z=1.27, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=.86, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=.51, p>.10$. The null hypothesis is accepted for these three parental authority groups.

Psychological-Mindedness (Py)

Statistical analysis revealed (see table 6) that there were no significant differences between the male and female adolescents on their personality scores in parental authority group two, $U=37.0, p>.10$, parental authority group three, $z=-.76, p>.10$, and parental authority group four, $z=-.35, p>.10$. However, within parental authority group one, male adolescents

had a significantly higher score than their female peers, $z=-1.75, p<.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for parental authority group one, but is accepted for the other parental authority groups.

Flexibility (Fx)

Only parental authority group three displayed no significant differences between the scores obtained for the two sexes, $z=.24, p>.10$. However, male adolescents had a significantly higher score than their female peers in parental authority group one, $z=2.12, p<.05$, and parental authority group four, $z=-1.76, p<.10$. In addition, parental authority group two showed the female adolescents having a higher score than the male adolescents, $U=15.5, p<.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for parental authority group three, but is rejected for the other parental authority groups on the flexibility personality variable.

Femininity (Fe)

The Mann-Whitney U Test indicated (see table 6) that there were significant differences on the scores obtained between the two sexes in all four-parental authority groups. Females consistently had a higher score than the male adolescents. The results were as follows: parental authority group one, $z=2.86, p<.01$; parental authority group two, $U=12.0, p<.05$;

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis examined (Ho 4) was "adolescents' age is not related to how they perceive their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques". As seen from table 7, chi-square analysis revealed no significant differences between the four different parental groups and the two age groups of the adolescents, $\chi^2(3) = .62, p < .10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis examined (Ho 5) was "adolescents of the same age group do not perceive themselves as being raised in the same parental authority group". Chi-square analysis (see table 8) indicated that adolescents in the younger age groups (12-14 years old) showed significant differences as to which parental authority group they perceived themselves in, $\chi^2(3) = 8.02, p < .05$. The number of younger adolescents in the first (authoritarian parents), third (authoritative parents), and fourth (nonconforming and permissive parents) authority groups were at expected values. However, the number of adolescents in the second parental authority group (rejecting-neglecting parents) was lower than at expected values. Therefore, for the younger age adolescents, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis investigated (Ho 6) was "adolescents'

Table 7

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Younger and Older Age Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups

Age	Parental Authority Group	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
12-14	1	16	14.78	1.22	1.48	0.10
15+	1	16	17.21	-1.21	1.46	0.08
12-14	2	6	6.93	-0.93	0.86	0.12
15+	2	9	8.06	0.94	0.88	0.10
12-14	3	20	21.25	-1.25	1.56	0.07
15+	3	26	24.74	1.26	1.58	0.06
12-14	4	19	18.02	0.98	0.96	0.05
15+	4	20	20.97	-0.97	0.94	0.04
Total		132	131.96			

$$\chi^2 = 0.62, p > .10$$

Table 8

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Younger Age Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups

Age	Parental Authority Group	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
12-14	1	16	15.25	0.75	0.56	0.03
12-14	2	6	15.25	-9.25	85.56	5.60
12-14	3	20	15.25	4.75	22.56	1.47
12-14	4	19	15.25	3.75	14.06	0.92

$\chi^2 = 8.02, p < .05$

61 61.00

Total

Table 9

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Older Age Adolescents
in Each of the Parental Authority Groups

Age	Parental Authority Group	O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
15+	1	16	17.75	-1.75	3.06	0.17
15+	2	9	17.75	-8.75	76.56	4.31
15+	3	26	17.75	8.25	68.06	3.83
15+	4	20	17.75	2.25	5.06	0.28
Total		71	71.00			

$\chi^2=8.59, p < .05$

sex is not related to how they perceive their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques". Table 10 indicated that the chi-square analysis demonstrated no significant differences between the four different parental authority groups and the sex of the adolescents, $\chi^2(3)=1.99, p>.10$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis examined (Ho 7) was "adolescents of the same sex do not perceive themselves as being raised in the same parental authority group". Chi-square analysis revealed (see table 11) that the number of male adolescents in each of the four parental authority groups was at expected values. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for male adolescents.

The female adolescents, showed significant differences as to which parental authority group they perceived themselves as being raised in, $\chi^2(3)=12.65, p<.05$, (see table 12). The number of females in parental authority group two was lower than at expected values. The number of female adolescents in the three other parental authority groups were at expected values. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for female adolescents.

Table 10

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of Male and Female Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups.

Sex	Parental Authority Group	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
M	1	11	11.64	-0.64	0.40	0.34
F	1	21	20.36	0.64	0.40	0.01
M	2	6	5.45	0.55	0.30	0.05
F	2	9	9.54	-0.54	0.29	0.03
M	3	14	16.72	-2.72	7.39	0.44
F	3	32	29.27	2.73	7.45	0.25
M	4	17	14.18	2.82	7.95	0.56
F	4	22	24.81	-2.81	7.89	0.31
Total		132	131.97			

$\chi^2 = 1.99, p > .10$

Table 11

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Male Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups

Sex	Parental Authority Group	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
M	1	11	12.00	-1.00	1.00	0.08
M	2	6	12.00	-6.00	36.00	3.00
M	3	14	12.00	2.00	4.00	0.33
M	4	17	12.00	5.00	25.00	2.08
Total		48	48.00			$\chi^2=5.49, p > .10$

Table 12

A Comparison of Observed and Expected Scores of the Female Adolescents in Each of the Parental Authority Groups

Sex	Parental Authority Group	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
F	1	21	21.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
F	2	9	21.00	-12.00	144.00	6.85
F	3	32	21.00	11.00	121.00	5.76
F	4	22	21.00	1.00	1.00	0.04

$\chi^2 = 12.56, p < .01$

Total

84 84.00

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The general purpose of this study was to discover whether relationships exist between certain aspects of parental authority patterns and the personality of their children. Each hypothesis related to this purpose. Therefore, the format that this section will follow, is to discuss each hypothesis and its results in lieu of the overall theme stated above. In addition, other areas for discussion are raised later which were not formally addressed in the specific hypotheses but related to the thesis, nonetheless, such as areas for future research, problems with the present research and subject distribution.

The first hypothesis examined, reflected most directly the general purpose of the study. That is, the question was raised as to whether adolescents who perceived their parents' disciplinary techniques similarly, also displayed similar personality traits. In order to evaluate this, those adolescents perceiving themselves as belonging in the same parental authority group had their personality scores compared to adolescents in other parental authority groups.

If the hypothesis was correct, the adolescents in the various parental groups should have displayed different personality traits. That is, the type of parental upbringing one experiences determines to a major degree the future personality of the person.

The reader is to refer to the definition of the various parental authority groups on pages 28-31. This part of the discussion will follow the general outline of table 3. When adolescents belonging to the authoritarian parental group were compared to adolescents belonging to the rejecting-neglecting parental group, only the responsibility and self-acceptance personality parameters were different between the two groups of adolescents. This is not surprising as the rejecting-neglecting parental group had many characteristics similar to the authoritarian parental group. Therefore, the absence of the difference in personality scores between the two groups might reflect more the qualitative similarities than the absolute degree of differences between these groups.

Adolescents who perceived themselves as belonging to authoritarian parents seemed to exhibit more responsible traits than their peers in the rejecting-neglecting group. Gough (1969) defined responsibility as "persons of conscientious, responsible, and dependable disposition and temperament". These results were consistent with the findings of Lang (1969) who stated that power exercised

entirely by parents was likely to lead children to experience responsibility as external to themselves. Adolescents in the rejecting-neglecting group, probably more than any other group, experienced this "external" control and therefore seemed to demonstrate less responsibility than even those adolescents raised by authoritarian parents.

Adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by authoritarian parents had lower scores on the socialization personality variable than those adolescents raised by authoritative parents. Gough (1969) defined socialization as "the degree of social maturity, integrity, and rectitude which the individual has attained". Previous studies on socialization by Hoffman (1960, 1963) have shown that unqualified power assertion by the mother was associated with the development of hostility, power needs and increased autonomy strivings in the child. However, children raised in a non-power assertive context showed greater socially acceptable behavior. The authoritarian parent as defined by Baumrind (1971) displays this unqualified power assertion: "she values obedience as a virtue and favors punitive, forceful measures to curb self-will". The authoritative parent uses a less power-assertive style, incorporating into her methods direction of the child's activities and recognition of the child's individual interests and special ways. Therefore, the results are

consistent with Hoffman's (1960, 1963) studies.

Adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by authoritarian parents also had lower scores on the psychological-mindedness personality variable when compared to those adolescents raised by authoritative parents. Psychological-mindedness was defined (Gough, 1969) as "the degree to which the individual is interested in, and responsive to, the inner needs, motives, and experiences of others". Unfortunately, no previous research was found which addressed itself to this issue. However, if the authoritarian is one who raises their children with a set standard of conduct, usually as absolute standard, theologically motivated and formulated by a higher authority, then the child in effect has little impetus to see "differences" in others and respond to them. That is, the child's behavior is constantly compared to a fixed standard. An authoritative parent, though exerting firm control, also encourages verbal give and take, not hemming the child in with internal restrictions. The child seems to have a greater potential to respond to others, and try to understand and adapt to other people's needs and feelings.

When adolescents who were raised by authoritarian parents had their scores on the personality variables compared to adolescents raised by nonconforming and permissive parents, only the capacity for status personality

trait was shown to be different between the two groups. The adolescents of the authoritarian group had a lower score than their peers in the nonconforming and permissive group. Gough (1969) defined it as "an index of an individual's capacity for status (not his actual or achieved status). The scale attempted to measure the personal qualities and attributes which underline and lead to status". Again, the literature review is scarce on this particular subject. Gough (1969) further defined an individual with low scores on this variable as "apathetic, shy, conventional, dull, mild, simple and slow; as being stereotyped in thinking, restricted in outlook and interests, and as being uneasy and awkward in new or unfamiliar situations". On the other hand an individual with a high score on capacity for status was defined as "being ambitious, active, forceful, insightful, resourceful, and versatile; as being ascendant and self-seeking, effective in communication, and as having personal scope and breadth of interests". Though these definitions are two extremes, the results of this study suggest that children raised by authoritarian parents may be closer to the personality of the low capacity for status individual as compared to those adolescents raised by nonconforming and permissive parents.

Adolescents raised by rejecting-neglecting parents had lower scores on their sociability, social presence,

responsibility, socialization and achievement via conformity personality traits when compared with those adolescents brought up by authoritative parents. These personality variables transcend any single category and therefore seem to indicate an overall difference in the personalities of these two groups of adolescents.

The sociability personality parameter attempted to "identify individuals of outgoing, sociable and participative temperament", (Gough, 1969). Ayer and Bernreuter (1971) found that when parents used temper in disciplining their children, the children were less likely to face reality, were less sociable and had less attractive personalities. Though the group of rejecting-neglecting parents was never defined in terms of temper, by definition they are closest to the type of parent described by Ayer and Bernreuter. Watson (1957) discovered that children from permissive homes were more sociable, cooperative and spontaneous than the children raised in strict-discipline homes. Authoritative parents are "more permissive" when contrasted with the rejecting-neglecting group and therefore, Watson's study seems applicable to the present findings.

Social presence is defined as " individuals with poise, spontaneity, and self-confidence in personal and social interaction", (Gough, 1969). The study which most closely related to these results on social presence was the one by

Baumrind (1967). Children manifesting the most self-reliant, self-controlled, explorative and content behavior were raised by parents who tended to be markedly more consistent, more loving, more secure in the handling of the children, and more likely to accompany a directive with a reason. These parents seemed to be very similar to the authoritative parents described above. Children manifesting discontent, withdrawn and distrustful behavior were raised by parents who used withdrawal of love and ridicule rather than power or reason as incentives for their children. In this case, the definition of the parent does not match the rejecting-neglecting parent discussed above, though the children described are similar to one who would display a lack of social presence.

On the responsibility personality parameter, the pattern described for the authoritarian parent versus the rejecting-neglecting parent re-emerges. That is, it was proposed that the greater the degree of external power exerted by the parent, the less responsible the adolescent grows up to be. Authoritative parents, by definition, use much more internal directives to change their child's behavior than rejecting-neglecting parents. This study suggests that this results in adolescents of the former group being more responsible than adolescents of the latter group of parents.

The discussion for the socialization personality variable is similar to the one for the responsibility parameter. If the rejecting-neglecting group of parents can be thought of as being more extreme in their actions than authoritarian parents, then it follows that the children who perceived themselves as being raised by these parents would manifest less socialization behavior than those adolescents raised by authoritative parents. The results of the present study seem to support this.

The final personality parameter which was found to be different in adolescents raised by rejecting-neglecting parents, and those adolescents raised by authoritative parents, was on the achievement via conformance trait. This is defined by Gough (1969) as "those factors of interest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any setting where conformance is a positive behavior". Mote (1967) found that high ability, achievement, and creativity in children were associated with a supportive family environment. Authoritative parents as compared to rejecting-neglecting parents are obviously more supportive to their children and therefore, the results are consistent with Mote's study.

When adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by rejecting-neglecting parents, are compared to adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by nonconforming and permissive parents, they had consistently

lower scores on the capacity for status, social presence, responsibility, socialization and achievement via conformance personality variables. The interesting thing was that, except for the capacity for status replacing the sociability personality variable, all the remaining results had the same pattern as the authoritative parent compared to the rejecting-neglecting parent. This further confirms the belief that children raised by nonconforming and permissive parents are a further extreme of those children raised by authoritative parents. That is, nonconforming and permissive parents seem to shift even greater responsibility for the raising of their children onto the children themselves. They allow the children to regulate their own activities as much as possible, avoid the exercise of control, and do not encourage them to obey externally defined standards. When comparisons are thus made between these two extremes of parents, the present research shows that the above personality variables are different in the adolescents. The present study suggests that these personality traits are the ones most affected in adolescents raised by these extreme groups of parents.

Adolescents raised by authoritative parents displayed no differences in their personality dimensions when compared

to those adolescents raised by nonconforming and permissive parents. This further confirms the belief that these two groups of parents may be more quantitatively than qualitatively different, thus accounting for their similarity of results on the personality test.

In summary, the present study seems to indicate that two "polar" groups of parental upbringing exist. On one end are rejecting-neglecting and authoritarian parents, while on the other end are authoritative and nonconforming and permissive parents. Secondly, adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by rejecting-neglecting parents demonstrated personality traits which are the most different when compared to the other three groups of parents. Finally, personality traits such as dominance, self-acceptance, sense of well-being, self-control, tolerance, good impression, communality, achievement via independence, intellectual efficiency, flexibility and femininity were consistently not found to be different among the adolescents raised in the four parental authority groups. This study, therefore, suggests that the differences in the personalities among children raised by these different groups of parents lie predominantly in the following traits; capacity of status, sociability, social presence, responsibility, socialization, achievement via conformance, and psychological-mindedness. These personality traits seem to be the most "sensitive"

to the influence of parental child-raising techniques.

The second hypothesis was concerned with whether adolescents of various ages, who perceive their parents' disciplinary techniques similarly, display the same personality traits. Previous studies have concentrated on the effects of parental authority patterns on a child's behavior within a limited time span. That is, the past research has not addressed itself to the issue of whether a child's personality, within a given parental child-rearing technique, changes significantly with time. The assumption made for this study was that there would be no changes in the personalities of different age groups of adolescents within a given parental authority group.

The results of the study prove contrary to this assumption among certain of the personality variables. Younger and older adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by authoritarian parents, differed among the responsibility, socialization and communality personality traits. Gough (1969) defined communality as "the degree to which an individual's reactions and responses correspond to the modal ("common") pattern established for the inventory". There are two interesting points about these results. First of all, these three personality dimensions are clustered in one of Gough's (1969) four general classifications (class II); measures of socialization,

maturity, responsibility, and intrapersonal structuring of values. Though this class is strictly interpretational and not statistical, it does imply an overlapping of these personality traits. That is, these traits all reflect dynamic changes within the personality of the individual. Secondly, the older adolescents consistently had a higher score on these personality dimensions than the younger adolescents. This finding further suggests a positive growth of these individuals on these "intrapersonal" personality variables, as they advance through their teenage years.

Adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by rejecting-neglecting parents, also showed differences among certain personality traits between the younger and older age groups. The results indicated that there were differences on the sociability, sense of well-being, communality, and intellectual efficiency personality variables. Sense of well-being was defined as (Gough, 1969) "persons who minimize their worries and complaints, and who are relatively free from self-doubt and disillusionment". Intellectual efficiency was defined as "the degree of personal and intellectual efficiency which the individual has attained". Once again, the older adolescents consistently had higher scores than the younger adolescents. This suggests further that the older people may display advanced growth in these personality traits. That is, whatever restrictions their

upbringing may have had, the older the person becomes the more experiences they encounter which enable them to change. However, a cautionary note must be sounded. Adolescents raised by rejecting-neglecting parents show the least change in the number of personality variables compared to all the other parental authority groups. This suggests that the extreme harshness of the conditions in which these adolescents are raised restricts their development more than any other group of adolescents.

Younger and older adolescents, who perceived themselves as being raised by authoritative parents, differed among the capacity for status, self-acceptance, sense of well-being, tolerance, communality, achievement via conformance, achievement via independence and intellectual efficiency personality traits. Gough (1969) defined self-acceptance as "factors such as sense of personal worth, self-acceptance and capacity for independent thinking and action". Tolerance was defined as "persons with permissive, accepting and non-judgmental social beliefs and attitude". Achievement via independence was defined as "those factors of interest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any setting where autonomy and independence are positive behaviors". These personality traits span most of Gough's (1969) four general classifications. The only one in which there are no personality traits differing among the older and younger adolescents is in class IV, measures of

intellectual and interest modes. On the other hand, all the personality variables in class III, measures of achievement potential and intellectual efficiency showed a change among the younger and older adolescents. The older adolescents consistently had higher scores than the younger ones. In addition, adolescents raised by authoritative parents displayed the most change in the number of personality variables. This study therefore suggests that the techniques used by authoritative parents allow the most room for growth of their children. Though the children raised by these group of parents must still adhere to certain controls and limitations imposed by their parents (as contrasted to nonconforming and permissive parents) they are still able to change certain aspects of their personalities significantly with time, more than any other parental authority group.

Younger and older adolescents, who perceived themselves as being raised by nonconforming and permissive parents differed among the dominance, capacity for status, sociability, social presence, sense of well-being, tolerance and intellectual efficiency personality dimensions. Most of these personality traits are clustered in Gough's (1969) class I, measures of poise, ascendancy, self-assurance and interpersonal adequacy. Also, the older adolescents consistently had higher scores than the younger adolescents.

It is interesting that the higher scores on the personality variables by the older adolescents reflected those traits involving the interaction of the individual with others. This is in direct contrast to the differences found among the two age groups of adolescents raised by authoritarian parents, which clustered mainly among intrapersonal traits. The study therefore suggests that those older adolescents raised by nonconforming and permissive parents differed from their younger members among those personality traits involving relationships to others, while those traits pertaining to more individualized and personal growth do not show change.

In summary, the assumption was made that adolescents of different age groups who perceived themselves as being raised in the same parental authority group should not have displayed differences on the personality dimensions measured. However, the results of the study suggests that there were personality changes among the older and younger adolescents. But not all the personality variables measured showed changes, and in fact, among some of the parental authority groups the changes that were evident were clustered in a restricted classification. Therefore, this implies that the techniques used in raising children by their parents should manifest itself in changes in only certain defined personality parameters, depending on which group of parents one was

raised by. The logic follows that if there were going to be changes in certain personality variables, then the older adolescents should be the ones to display further growth. The present study supports this. The other trend noted among the results supports one of the findings discussed earlier in the discussion of the first hypothesis. That is, the "polarity" of parental groups is evident again. Adolescents raised by authoritarian and rejecting-neglecting parents showed fewer changes on the personality variables with time than the adolescents raised by authoritative and nonconforming and permissive parents. This suggests the pervasive restrictions imposed on the adolescents by the former parental authority groups. Finally, the present research utilized a cross-sectional design and therefore, all the limitations imposed by such a technique must be taken into account. Also, older adolescents have a greater attention span and patience, and therefore, may have filled out more accurately and more completely the items on the personality test, thus perhaps contributing some spurious effects to the personality changes witnessed.

The third hypothesis was concerned with whether male and female adolescents, who perceived their parents' disciplinary techniques similarly, displayed the same personality traits. Previous research on the effects of the child's personality to different parental child-raising techniques has been limited with regard to the sex of the

child. One of the purposes of the present study was to determine if there was a difference in the personalities of the male and female adolescents. The assumption made was that there would be no differences between the adolescents. That is, the type of parental upbringing would be powerful enough to override any effect the sex of the child would have on their personalities.

In all four parental authority groups, the score on the femininity personality variable was found to be higher among the female than the male adolescents. This is an obvious conclusion, but still lends additional validity to the sensitivity of the instrument applied. Male adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by authoritarian parents had higher scores than their female peers on the good impression, psychological-mindedness and flexibility personality parameters. Good impression was defined (Gough, 1969) as "persons capable of creating a favorable impression, and who are concerned about how others react to them". Flexibility was defined as "the degree of flexibility and adaptability of a person's thinking and social behavior". On the other hand, female adolescents who perceived themselves as being raised by authoritarian parents had higher scores than their male peers on the responsibility, socialization and communality personality parameters. It is difficult to tease apart these

differences on the personality dimensions of the male and female adolescents. However, Bronfenbrenner's (1961) study does state that adolescent girls who were raised from early life with affection and praise, were more responsive to discipline, and in fact showed risks of "oversocialization" when compared with adolescent boys raised under similar conditions. This can be viewed as supporting the female adolescents' higher scores in such areas as socialization and communality. Authoritarian parents, however, were never defined as displaying affection and praise, though the implication is there.

Female adolescents raised by rejecting-neglecting parents had higher scores on the sense of well-being, socialization, intellectual efficiency and flexibility personality parameters as compared to their male peers. The results on the socialization personality trait are identical with those of the female adolescents raised by authoritarian parents. However, these parents represented the opposite of Bronfenbrenner's "affection and praise" characteristics. Perhaps female adolescents are able to show greater skills than males on the socialization scale regardless of their parental upbringing. Another interesting finding was that the female adolescents had a higher score than the male adolescents on the flexibility personality trait, opposite to the findings among children of

authoritarian parents. Finally, female adolescents consistently had higher scores than their male peers on these personality dimensions. This may suggest that females raised by rejecting-neglecting parents have a greater potential for positive growth than the male adolescents raised by the same kind of parents.

Female adolescents raised by authoritative parents had higher scores on the socialization, communality and achievement via conformance personality traits as compared to their male peers. The higher scores on the socialization and conformance personality variables parallels the findings with authoritarian parents, and further adds credence that female adolescents show greater development in the area of socialization, regardless of parental upbringing. It is interesting that the achievement via conformance personality trait also implies a type of conformance to social values which Bronfenbrenner spoke about.

Besides the femininity personality variable, only the flexibility trait was shown to be different among female and male adolescents raised by nonconforming and permissive parents. The male adolescents had a higher score than their female peers, similar to the finding among the adolescents raised by authoritarian parents. There is a paucity of personality differences among adolescents in this group. This study suggests that adolescents raised by nonconforming

and permissive parents demonstrate the most similarity among the sexes.

In summary, there are a few major observations noted. First of all, the personality variables that differ among the female and male adolescents seem to cluster around the socialization, flexibility and femininity personality traits. Though the overall assumption made previously, that the males and females would not differ within a given parental authority group seems to be incorrect, the differences that are found are distinctive and are not spread evenly among all the personality traits. Secondly, there seems to be an opposite trend evident here among the sexes than that found among the different age groups. To clarify, more personality differences are found in the authoritarian and rejecting-neglecting groups among the male and female adolescents than those found in the authoritative and nonconforming and permissive parental groups. Besides exemplifying the polarity of the parental groups, these results are in direct contrast to those found among the age-related study. The research suggests that adolescents raised by parents who are authoritarian or rejecting-neglecting should show the most variance among the female and male personality characteristics.

The remaining hypotheses dealt mainly with the subtle question of whether adolescents of various ages and sex

would perceive themselves as belonging to one parental authority group over another. The results of the study showed that the number of younger and older age adolescents in the various parental authority groups was that amount expected by chance alone. However, when the younger age adolescents were studied by themselves, there were fewer adolescents in the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group as compared to the other three parental groups. However, since the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group can be thought of as one extreme type of parental child-raising technique, then it follows that there would be only a few adolescents in the population perceiving themselves as belonging to this group of parents. The remaining number of adolescents were distributed as expected values in the other three groups. Older age adolescents when studied as a separate entity, also displayed fewer numbers in the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group. The reason for this follows as above. An interesting finding is the greater than expected amount of adolescents who perceived themselves as belonging in the authoritative parental group. Authoritative parents seem to represent the most optimal and positive child-raising style. The study suggests that the older the adolescent is, the greater the tendency to perceive themselves as being raised by the highest quality of parental upbringing. Is this an

unconscious wish on the part of these adolescents who recognize what a good parent should be like? Do younger adolescents have more accurate recall of their parental upbringing or do parental techniques actually change with the age of the adolescent? The present research does not answer these questions, but does force these issues to be examined in the future.

The results of the study demonstrated that the sex of the adolescent was not related to how they perceived their parents' disciplinary child-rearing techniques. The number of adolescents in each parental group was at expected values. When male adolescents were studied independently, the same result was achieved. That is, the number of male adolescents in each parental authority group was at expected, chance values. However, with the female adolescents, there was less than the expected number of adolescents in the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group. The explanation for this was given previously. Why, though, was there not a decreased number of male adolescents in the rejecting-neglecting parental authority group? The research suggests that there is a difference in the perception of males and females as to their parental upbringing in this particular group, with the male adolescents perceiving their parents in a harsher light. However, it is possible that the study happened to sample a greater number of males than females who indicated they were raised by rejecting-neglecting

✓
parents.

Another aim of the research was to evaluate whether Baumrind's (1971) parental child-rearing patterns used for preschool children and their parents, was applicable to an older group of people, namely adolescents. It is difficult to assess this objectively. However, when the adolescents were "placed" into the perceived parental authority pattern based on the scores achieved on the Parent Behavior Scale, most of the adolescents had distinctive patterns as described in Appendix C. There were only a few cases of an adolescent's scores overlapping onto two child-rearing patterns. This indirectly suggests that Baumrind's classification of parental authority groups is a valid one and can be used for future research with an older age group.

There are a few criticisms evident when assessing the present study. The adolescents who were used in the research were generally a homogenous group, coming from similar social and economic backgrounds. However, the staff members who also participated in the study cannot necessarily be included in this group, though many of them did attend this same camp when they were younger. Therefore, some of the "age-trend" results reported must take the above extraneous variables into account. In addition, the population selected was from one camp at one time period, and the research, therefore, does not pretend to generalize

to all children.

The relationships drawn between parental child-rearing patterns and the adolescent's personality is a statistical one. Cause-effect relationships, though at times inadvertently applied, cannot be drawn for this study.

When the adolescents filled out the various questionnaires, they had not seen their parents for approximately three weeks. Therefore, their recollections of their upbringing must be tempered with that fact. It is possible that their answers may have been different if they had written the forms under the influence of the child's "home environment". Future studies must be cognizant of the setting upon which the children partake in the study. In addition, the answer the person puts down on the paper is dependent to some degree on how the child feels that particular day. Because the study took place on a "one-shot" basis, this factor must be taken into account.

Finally, there are some areas that future research in this area should take. The population group can be expanded to include other groups of children, such as juvenile delinquents, severely underprivileged children or gifted adolescents. Only in this way can it be accurately determined if and to what degree parental upbringing affects a person's later personality. Perhaps different groups of people are affected more than others, and if so, on which

4

personality traits are they affected. Expanding the age-range utilized in this study will allow a clearer indication of the dynamics taking place in a child's behavior, and help to assess the stability of the effect of a child's parental upbringing. This will also help to determine which periods of a child's life are the most sensitive to parental intervention, and which types of parental child-raising techniques are the most beneficial. Finally, utilizing many measurements to determine a child's personality and his parental upbringing, such as self-questionnaires, direct observations, parent interviews and reports from teachers, will help to further delineate the variables involved in a parent's effect on their children's behavior.

In conclusion, there are many factors that affect the personalities of children as they are growing up. Parent-child relationships seems to be one of the major influences on a child's future behavior and one that is amenable to change and intervention. The present research attempted to clarify and elucidate some of these relationships.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRES

General Information Sheet

Birthdate _____

Sex _____

Date _____

Parent Behavior Rating Scale

Here is a list of things that might have happened between you and your Mother while you were (are) growing up. Please answer either true or false to the statements below.

- | | <u>True</u> | <u>False</u> |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| 1. My Mother punishes me when I disobey her. | _____ | _____ |
| 2. My Mother makes me pay attention to her. | _____ | _____ |
| 3. My Mother encourages me to talk things over with her. | _____ | _____ |
| 4. My Mother encourages me to say when I agree with her. | _____ | _____ |
| 5. My Mother and I make decisions together. | _____ | _____ |
| 6. My Mother believes that I should think for myself rather than do what someone in authority tells me to. | _____ | _____ |
| 7. My Mother tells me I can have a choice in what to do. | _____ | _____ |
| 8. Most of the time, my Mother answers me when I talk to her. | _____ | _____ |
| 9. My Mother has a gentle manner. | _____ | _____ |
| 10. My Mother disapproves when I don't listen to her. | _____ | _____ |
| 11. My Mother openly argues with me. | _____ | _____ |
| 12. My Mother uses her authority to make me behave. | _____ | _____ |
| 13. I must always give in to my Mother's wishes. | _____ | _____ |

	<u>True</u>	<u>False</u>
14. My Mother always confronts me when I disobey.	_____	_____
15. My Mother is very firm with me.	_____	_____
16. My Mother feels she can do no wrong.	_____	_____
17. My Mother's needs come before mine.	_____	_____
18. My Mother and I have meaningful conversations.	_____	_____
19. My Mother gives reasons for her requests of me.	_____	_____
20. I can talk to my Mother even when she is not pleased with me.	_____	_____
21. My Mother disciplines me harshly.	_____	_____
22. My Mother encourages me to be myself.	_____	_____
23. My Mother understands me.	_____	_____
24. My Mother becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I disobey.	_____	_____
25. My Mother gives in to my demands.	_____	_____
26. My Mother becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I waste time or annoy her.	_____	_____
27. My Mother always tries to be herself.	_____	_____
28. My Mother makes sure that I always try to be myself.	_____	_____
29. I still have to do what my Mother tells me to, even after I say I won't.	_____	_____
30. My Mother makes me behave as she does.	_____	_____
31. My Mother asks me for my opinion.	_____	_____
32. My Mother is cold towards me.	_____	_____
33. My Mother likes when we discuss things together.	_____	_____

34. My Mother listens to my critical
comments.

True False

35. My Mother disciplines me harshly.

Here is a list of things that might have happened between you and your Father while you were (are) growing up. Please answer either true or false to the statements below.

- | | <u>True</u> | <u>False</u> |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| 1. My Father encourages me to talk things over with him. | _____ | _____ |
| 2. My Father makes me pay attention to him. | _____ | _____ |
| 3. Most of the time my Father answers me when I talk to him. | _____ | _____ |
| 4. My Father is very firm with me. | _____ | _____ |
| 5. My Father listens to my critical comments. | _____ | _____ |
| 6. It is clear to me what my Father means. | _____ | _____ |
| 7. My Father asks me for my opinion. | _____ | _____ |
| 8. My Father gives in to my demands. | _____ | _____ |
| 9. My Father always confronts me when I disobey. | _____ | _____ |
| 10. My Father makes sure that I always try to be myself. | _____ | _____ |
| 11. My Father becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I waste time or annoy him. | _____ | _____ |
| 12. My Father becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I disobey. | _____ | _____ |
| 13. My Father encourages me to be myself and to speak out rather than worry about getting ahead and doing what everyone else says. | _____ | _____ |
| 14. My Father disapproves when I don't listen to him. | _____ | _____ |
| 15. My Father is clear about his role as a parent. | _____ | _____ |

- | | <u>True</u> | <u>False</u> |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| 16. My Father's needs come before mine. | _____ | _____ |
| 17. My Father likes wehn we discuss things together. | _____ | _____ |
| 18. My Father always tries to be himself. | _____ | _____ |
| 19. My Father is cold toward me. | _____ | _____ |
| 20. My Father gives reasons for his requests of me. | _____ | _____ |
| 21. My Father has a gentle manner. | _____ | _____ |
| 22. My Father encourages my independent actions. | _____ | _____ |
| 23. My Father encourages me to say when I don't agree with him. | _____ | _____ |
| 24. My Father regards himself as being competent. | _____ | _____ |
| 25. My Father gives reasons for his actions towards me when I disobey. | _____ | _____ |
| 26. My Father has clear ideals for me. | _____ | _____ |
| 27. My Father's views are flexible. | _____ | _____ |
| 28. My Father tells me I can have a choice in what to do. | _____ | _____ |
| 29. I can talk with my Father when he is not pleased with me. | _____ | _____ |
| 30. My Father disciplines me harshly. | _____ | _____ |
| 31. My Father regards my obedience as good behavior. | _____ | _____ |
| 32. My Father openly argues with me. | _____ | _____ |
| 33. My Father understands me. | _____ | _____ |
| 34. My Father feels he can do no wrong. | _____ | _____ |

- | | <u>True</u> | <u>False</u> |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| 35. My Father believes that I should think for myself rather than do what someone in authority tells me to. | _____ | _____ |
| 36. My Father and I have meaningful conversations. | _____ | _____ |
| 37. I always give in to my Father's wishes. | _____ | _____ |
| 38. My Father relates to me in a secure manner. | _____ | _____ |
| 39. My Father encourages me to be myself. | _____ | _____ |
| 40. My Father makes me behave as he does. | _____ | _____ |
| 41. My Father uses punishment when I disobey him. | _____ | _____ |
| 42. I still have to do what my Father tells me to even after I say I won't. | _____ | _____ |
| 43. My Father and I make decisions together. | _____ | _____ |
| 44. My Father uses his authority to make me behave. | _____ | _____ |
| 45. My Father regards himself as capable and knowledgeable. | _____ | _____ |
| 46. My Father sees the way he is raising me as different from the way everyone else is raising their children. | _____ | _____ |

Here is a list of things that might have happened between you and your parents while you were (are) growing up.

Please answer either true or false to the statements below.

	<u>True</u>	<u>False</u>
1. My parents <u>restrict me on my amount of T.V. viewing.</u>	_____	_____
2. My parents encourage me to think things out.	_____	_____
3. My parents push me to try and do well at school.	_____	_____
4. My parents are overprotective of me.	_____	_____
5. I have a fixed bedtime hour imposed by my parents.	_____	_____
6. My parents control when and how much I eat.	_____	_____
7. My parents are unique and interesting people.	_____	_____
8. My parents encourage me to behave independently.	_____	_____
9. As a child, my parents would demand mature table behavior.	_____	_____
10. My parents provide an intellectually exciting environment.	_____	_____
11. My parents encourage me to help myself.	_____	_____
12. My parents structure my day-to-day activities.	_____	_____
13. My parents require, that I participate in some household tasks.	_____	_____
14. My parents set high standards of intellectual and cultural excellence.	_____	_____

- 15. As a child, my parents demanded that I help dress myself.
- 16. My parents enforce many rules and regulations in many areas of my life.
- 17. As a child, my parents would demand that I put my toys away.
- 18. As a child, my parents would demand that I was well behaved when people came to visit.
- 19. As a child, my parents would demand that I clean up my own messes.

<u>True</u>	<u>False</u>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

APPENDIX B

ORIGINAL CLUSTERS OF PARENT BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE



Original Clusters of Parent Behavior Rating Scale

Mother PBR cluster- Firm Enforcement

- 2. My Mother makes me pay attention to her.
- 10. My Mother disapproves when I don't listen to her.
- 12. My Mother will willingly use her authority to make me behave.
- 13. I always give in to my Mother's wishes.
- 14. My Mother will always confront me when I disobey.
- 15. My Mother is very firm with me.
- *26. My Mother will give in to my demands.
- 30. I still have to do what my Mother tells me to, even after I say I won't.
- 31. My Mother makes me behave as she does.

- Encourages Independence and Individuality

- 3. My Mother encourages me to talk things over with her.
- 4. My Mother encourages me to say when I don't agree with her.
- 5. My Mother and I make decisions together.
- 6. My Mother believes that I should think for myself rather than do what someone in authority tells me to.
- 7. My Mother tells me I can have a choice in what I do.
- 19. My Mother and I have meaningful conversations.
- 20. My Mother gives reasons for her requests of me.
- 23. My Mother encourages me to be myself.
- 24. My Mother understands me.
- 28. My Mother always tries to be herself.
- 29. My Mother makes sure that I always try to be myself.
- 32. My Mother asks for my opinion.
- 34. My Mother likes when we discuss things together.
- 35. My Mother listens to my critical comments.

- Passive-Acceptant

- * 1. My Mother punishes me when I disobey her.
- 9. My Mother has a gentle manner.
- *11. My Mother openly argues with me.
- 18. My Mother is ashamed to show her anger towards me.
- *25. My Mother becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I disobey.
- *27. My Mother becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I waste time or annoy her.
- *36. My Mother disciplines me harshly.

- Rejecting

- * 8. Most of the time my Mother responds to me when I talk to her.
- 16. My Mother feels she can do no wrong.
- 17. My Mother's needs come before mine.
- *21. I can talk with my Mother even when she is not pleased with me.
- 22. My Mother disciplines me harshly.
- 33. My Mother is cold towards me.

Father PBR cluster - Firm Enforcement

- 9. My Father always confronts me when I disobey.
- 2. My Father makes me pay attention to him.
- 4. My Father is very firm with me.
- 6. It is clear to me what my Father means.
- * 8. My Father gives in to my demands.
- 37. I must always give in to my Father's wishes.
- 40. My Father makes me behave as he does.
- 41. My Father uses punishment when I disobey him.
- 42. I still have to do what my Father tells me to even after I say I won't.
- 44. My Father will willingly use his authority to make me behave.

- Encourages Independence and Individuality

- 10. My Father makes sure that I always try to be myself.
- 15. My Father is clear about his role as a parent.
- 17. My Father likes when we discuss things together.
- 22. My Father encourages my independent actions.
- 24. My Father regards himself as being competent.
- 26. My Father has clear ideals for me.
- 27. My Father's views are flexible.
- 33. My Father understands me.
- 36. My Father and I have meaningful conversations.
- 38. My Father relates to me in a secure manner.
- 45. My Father regards himself as being capable and knowledgeable.

- Passive-Acceptant

- *11. My Father becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I waste time or annoy him.
- *12. My Father becomes annoyed or impatient with me when I disobey.

- *14. My Father disapproves when I don't listen to him.
- *21. My Father has a gentle manner.
- 29. I can talk to my Father even when he is not pleased with me.
- *32. My Father will openly argue with me.

- Rejecting

- * 3. Most of the time my Father responds to me when I talk to him.
- 19. My Father is cold towards me.
- 30. My Father disciplines me harshly.

- Promotes Nonconformity

- 13. My Father encourages me to be myself and speak out rather than worry about getting ahead and doing what everyone else says.
- 18. My Father always tries to be himself.
- 35. My Father thinks I should think for myself rather than do what someone in authority tells me to.
- 39. My Father encourages me to be myself.
- 46. My Father sees the way he is raising me as different from the way everyone else is raising their children.

- Authoritarianism

- * 1. My Father encourages me to talk things over with him.
- * 5. My Father listens to my critical comments.
- * 7. My Father asks me for my opinion.
- 16. My Father's needs come before mine.
- *20. My Father gives reasons for his requests of me.
- *23. My Father encourages me to say when I don't agree with him.
- *25. My Father gives reasons for his actions towards me when I disobey.
- *29. I can talk with my Father when he is not pleased with me.
- 31. My Father regards my obedience as good behavior.
- 34. My Father feels he can do no wrong.
- *43. My Father and I make decisions together.

Joint (Parent) PBR cluster - Expect Participation in Household Chores

- 11. My parents encourage me to help myself.

- 13. My parents require of me, that I participate in some household tasks.
- 15. As a child, my parents demanded that I help dress myself.
- 17. As a child, my parents would demand that I put my toys away.
- 19. As a child, my parents would demand that I clean up my own mess.

- Enrichment of Child's Environment

- 2. My parents encourage me to think things out.
- 3. My parents push me to try and do well at school.
- 7. My parents are well-differentiated and stimulating people.
- 10. My parents provide an intellectually exciting environment.
- 14. My parents set high standards of intellectual and cultural excellence.

- Directive

- 1. My parents restrict me on my amount of T.V. watching.
- 5. I have a fixed bedtime hour imposed by my parents.
- 6. My parents control when and how much I eat.
- 12. My parents structure my day-to-day activities.
- 16. My parents enforce many rules and regulations in many areas of my life.

- Discourage Emotional Dependency

- * 4. My parents are overprotective of me.
- 8. My parents encourage me to behave independently.

- Discourage Infantile Behavior

- 9. As a child, my parents would demand mature table manners.
- 18. As a child, my parents would demand that I was well behaved when people came to visit.

* The negation of the statement is the criteria for inclusion in this category.

APPENDIX C

PATTERNS OF PARENTAL AUTHORITY

Patterns of Parental Authority

Baumrind (1971) defined certain criteria to be met, based on the scores of the Parent Behavior Scale, for inclusion in a specific parental authority pattern. The same procedure was adopted for the present research.

Each parental authority pattern and its defining criteria is outlined below.

Pattern 1 - Authoritarian (not rejecting)

This pattern will contain families who are authoritarian but not rejecting. In defining this pattern operationally, it was required that (a) both parents have scores above the median in Firm Enforcement or one parent score in the top third of the distribution, (b) both parents score below the median in Passive-Acceptant or one parent score in the bottom-third, and (c) the father score in the bottom third on Promotes Nonconformity or the top third on Authoritarianism.

Pattern 8 - Authoritarian-Rejecting-Neglecting

This pattern will contain families who are authoritarian and also rejecting. That is, parents will meet the criteria for inclusion in pattern 7, rejecting-neglecting (see below), as well as pattern 1, authoritarian.

Pattern 2 - Authoritative (not nonconforming)

In defining this pattern operationally, it was required that (a) like the authoritarian patterns 1 and 7,

both parents have scores above the median in Firm Enforcement, or one parent score in the top third of the distribution, (b) both parents score above the median in Encourages Independence and Individuality or one parent score in the top third of the distribution, (c) like the authoritarian parents, both parents score below the median in Passive-Acceptant or one parent score in the bottom third.

Pattern 3 - Authoritative-Nonconforming

This pattern will contain families who are authoritative but nonconforming. Inclusion in this category requires that (a) both parents have scores above the median in Firm Enforcement, or one parent score in the top third of the distribution, and (b) they meet the criteria for pattern 4, nonconforming (not permissive and not authoritative).

Pattern 4 - Nonconforming (not permissive and not authoritative)

In defining this pattern, it was required that (a) at least one parent have a score in the bottom half of the distribution for Firm Enforcement, (b) the father score below the median on Rejecting, (c) both parents score in the top third on Encourages Independence and Individuality, or the father score in the top third of the distribution on Promotes Nonconformity, and (d) the father score below the median on Authoritarianism.

Pattern 6 - Permissive (not nonconforming)

In defining this pattern, it was required that (a) both parents score below the median on Firm Enforcement, (b) at least one parent score in the top third of the distribution on Passive-Acceptant, (c) at least one parent have scores below the median on Rejecting (in order to define permissiveness so that it was not synonymous with neglect), and (d) two out of the three of the following criterion be met--Expect Participation in Household Chores, below median score; Discourage Infantile Behavior, low third; and Directive, below median score.

Pattern 5 - Nonconforming Permissive

In defining this pattern, parents have to meet the criteria for both patterns 4, Nonconforming (not permissive and not authoritative) and 6, Permissive (not nonconforming).

Pattern 7 - Rejecting-Neglecting (not authoritarian)

The requirements for membership in pattern 7 were that (a) both parents have scores below the median for Encourages Independence and Individuality, (b) both parents have scores above the median in Rejecting, and that (c) one parent score in the top third of the distribution on Rejecting, or that the family on the joint clusters score in the bottom third on Enrichment of Child's Environment, and the top third on Discourage Emotional Dependency.

APPENDIX D

RAW DATA

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 1

Age	Sex	Do	Cs	SY	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe
12	M	20	11	17	28	16	17	21	23	21	14	19	17	13	9	19	9	14	18
13	M	28	14	25	31	17	21	19	29	13	10	15	16	17	10	21	8	13	21
14	M	17	12	22	36	22	31	20	29	16	17	6	23	18	17	31	11	9	22
14	M	22	15	24	37	22	22	26	26	15	17	12	20	23	13	30	9	9	14
14	M	34	21	30	41	22	34	28	40	21	20	17	20	24	17	33	13	12	15
14	M	22	18	18	37	24	31	18	31	29	20	16	16	24	19	27	14	14	15
15	M	28	14	17	34	23	23	18	20	20	12	16	18	24	9	24	10	11	17
15	M	21	15	24	37	23	24	22	23	22	12	16	16	17	10	21	12	5	21
15	M	25	15	23	37	20	20	16	29	18	10	15	19	14	13	27	8	8	14
12	F	23	10	17	34	23	16	16	21	11	7	3	22	10	8	24	6	9	20
13	F	28	17	26	43	28	25	22	23	13	14	6	20	19	14	27	6	5	19
14	F	31	18	27	36	26	33	27	36	16	15	8	24	25	16	39	10	13	25
14	F	18	9	20	33	20	19	20	31	11	9	1	21	16	9	20	3	6	25
14	F	24	13	21	26	21	17	20	25	13	15	8	13	18	12	23	9	9	23
15	F	17	9	14	24	13	23	24	29	19	13	6	24	14	10	12	8	11	27
15	F	14	10	17	26	14	24	29	37	21	13	15	22	14	10	24	8	6	22
15	F	18	13	23	25	24	25	32	33	19	17	8	28	22	15	34	6	6	23
15	F	27	23	32	39	22	34	34	37	34	30	27	24	31	24	44	12	10	26
16	F	26	20	24	40	26	33	31	36	22	18	14	25	20	16	36	9	13	22
18	F	26	17	29	40	25	31	22	34	24	15	17	22	26	17	29	12	14	20
20	F	24	15	24	32	21	28	27	37	25	16	18	25	26	16	30	9	10	20
20	F	31	16	29	40	28	32	29	37	18	13	10	26	28	18	34	14	9	16

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 2

Age	Sex	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe
13	M	24	19	23	34	22	25	28	32	25	18	14	16	20	17	26	13	12	20
14	M	23	8	20	38	19	20	19	19	21	7	9	18	15	12	27	4	7	17
14	M	25	17	23	34	23	21	25	37	23	17	5	14	15	13	31	11	8	20
14	M	23	14	19	37	20	30	27	40	16	13	9	26	24	13	31	8	3	20
15	M	28	17	28	41	25	26	26	24	21	16	16	14	23	14	28	16	6	16
16	M	25	14	25	31	21	25	23	34	12	13	10	19	23	15	32	11	6	20
16	M	26	23	23	31	23	33	25	32	29	25	21	20	21	26	33	10	18	19
16	M	24	18	26	40	22	25	18	25	11	8	5	26	13	10	30	11	5	16
12	F	13	11	25	26	17	28	21	28	20	7	11	20	17	9	26	8	3	20
13	F	31	20	27	40	18	35	27	41	35	14	15	26	30	15	39	9	3	24
13	F	25	11	22	38	22	18	16	27	9	8	6	22	11	5	23	3	9	21
14	F	29	12	24	33	20	20	27	35	13	7	9	20	24	15	27	23	5	9
14	F	22	16	24	35	18	24	17	36	19	11	13	17	25	14	23	24	16	8
14	F	35	18	29	39	27	37	29	38	20	16	13	27	20	13	36	10	6	21
14	F	32	12	25	35	28	39	31	44	30	23	13	27	26	20	35	11	6	24
15	F	29	10	25	38	23	29	20	33	13	20	2	23	23	16	33	10	11	19
15	F	23	19	27	35	22	30	31	41	25	19	12	26	24	16	36	9	2	26
15	F	30	23	33	49	27	37	24	41	22	21	19	26	27	17	39	17	6	20
15	F	24	13	20	28	19	19	19	27	22	10	18	19	21	5	28	11	4	17
16	F	32	23	30	34	17	43	34	44	36	25	23	26	31	25	43	11	8	24
16	F	36	19	23	38	25	27	28	39	14	9	7	24	24	15	29	10	3	20
16	F	14	16	19	22	17	28	23	38	28	21	9	22	25	18	33	9	14	21
17	F	25	12	23	38	19	28	26	39	18	22	5	23	20	16	30	12	8	23
17	F	25	19	25	37	24	25	29	35	18	18	6	23	21	22	35	7	13	25

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 3

Age	Sex	DO	CS	SY	SP	SA	WB	RE	SO	SC	TO	GI	CM	AC	AI	IE	PY	FX	FE
18	M	19	19	24	36	22	34	23	21	27	18	20	10	27	21	28	10	15	15
14	M	21	13	18	31	16	25	22	30	22	7	22	15	20	11	20	10	11	23
14	M	23	15	28	40	20	26	18	27	17	12	12	13	16	13	28	13	12	17
16	M	21	13	18	31	16	25	22	30	22	7	22	15	20	11	20	10	11	23
18	M	26	15	23	41	24	35	21	36	22	17	10	27	25	12	37	9	2	15
19	M	35	14	25	37	25	33	21	32	10	13	12	25	20	12	30	9	6	15
12	F	14	8	15	26	14	17	20	26	17	2	10	16	16	3	16	7	8	24
12	F	20	19	28	40	21	30	22	36	18	16	11	25	21	15	31	10	12	23
12	F	22	10	16	24	15	16	16	30	17	6	14	19	14	6	18	17	7	20
12	F	28	11	24	33	15	25	25	35	22	12	15	24	21	8	23	8	4	30
13	F	25	16	26	38	21	23	21	33	7	17	8	18	15	11	29	7	11	21
13	F	22	15	15	24	20	19	25	28	20	17	13	12	24	15	14	9	12	20
15	F	30	20	29	38	14	27	25	28	15	14	10	25	21	15	40	11	8	24
15	F	23	16	16	19	33	18	22	35	29	18	15	20	26	16	27	9	12	28
15	F	32	10	20	33	15	28	25	38	27	15	11	19	27	14	26	10	12	14
15	F	16	11	20	35	24	19	16	33	18	11	12	26	19	26	7	20	10	20
15	F	34	19	27	48	26	28	13	22	14	17	9	15	16	16	34	9	14	21
16	F	24	18	23	37	27	28	32	34	22	21	9	24	24	21	38	10	17	27
16	F	31	14	21	38	23	31	20	35	22	13	10	23	26	12	27	8	9	18
18	F	32	19	30	42	23	37	26	40	22	27	10	27	27	19	36	12	7	19
19	F	33	20	30	39	25	38	35	42	30	20	15	28	30	17	38	8	11	25
20	F	39	21	33	40	24	35	30	40	34	22	21	25	34	23	42	13	11	22

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 4

Age	Sex	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	PY	Fx	Fe
14	M	23	16	24	35	16	24	28	32	26	14	14	22	25	15	35	13	11	21
14	M	21	14	23	41	17	30	24	35	17	11	11	25	18	11	26	8	6	17
14	M	24	10	18	23	16	27	20	32	28	11	11	21	21	11	23	8	6	23
14	M	26	13	23	36	19	19	26	28	21	11	7	18	19	13	22	10	7	16
15	M	23	14	23	42	20	37	20	38	24	15	14	23	22	18	33	8	11	15
15	M	26	20	26	39	25	23	17	29	15	18	15	14	11	15	29	9	11	19
19	M	31	22	31	44	29	37	27	36	22	26	12	26	32	23	45	13	19	18
19	M	33	14	26	33	24	24	23	25	9	13	6	26	20	9	29	10	8	20
20	M	32	21	32	43	27	35	29	39	27	25	16	27	31	23	46	10	12	15
13	F	25	16	22	34	23	26	25	44	19	15	9	26	23	10	26	9	6	23
13	F	8	10	18	34	16	22	14	27	12	9	1	20	10	10	24	4	10	18
14	F	24	16	22	35	21	31	30	40	21	19	10	27	23	17	35	13	8	29
15	F	23	19	25	40	18	19	25	32	18	17	19	19	25	11	28	13	10	16
16	F	22	11	22	36	21	28	22	39	19	11	3	27	20	11	26	6	5	19
18	F	29	22	30	40	25	34	27	37	21	24	7	27	26	19	39	11	14	24

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 5

Age	Sex	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	PY	Px	Fe
14	M	26	12	25	32	18	23	22	37	19	8	15	27	23	10	19	11	10	22
15	M	30	19	24	44	23	30	22	31	18	12	11	22	19	11	24	12	10	16
15	M	36	16	30	48	26	28	17	27	12	14	8	14	17	13	30	11	11	18
16	M	30	18	31	40	24	36	29	38	26	22	16	28	32	16	40	10	7	23
13	F	25	11	17	27	18	17	24	32	13	6	5	25	17	8	22	4	4	21
13	F	24	17	18	33	18	29	21	24	25	16	10	17	23	16	30	13	13	21
14	F	23	18	28	40	24	36	29	35	36	23	21	23	28	18	36	11	3	18
14	F	22	16	19	38	20	19	22	27	17	13	14	14	22	16	26	9	12	18
14	F	20	15	21	30	20	23	20	40	17	10	9	24	23	10	22	8	10	24
15	F	35	13	29	25	15	36	31	43	35	18	22	28	27	18	34	10	10	30
16	F	32	22	29	42	23	30	23	28	7	18	6	25	25	15	37	9	14	17
16	F	12	14	15	29	17	33	29	36	36	18	15	24	22	22	33	10	7	25
17	F	26	15	26	34	22	24	15	21	12	13	10	27	21	13	26	4	7	16
17	F	32	21	29	40	24	38	29	50	32	21	14	28	32	21	43	13	9	24
17	F	30	k7	29	41	23	34	28	32	26	18	15	19	24	12	33	11	5	21

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 6

Age	Sex	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gl	Ø	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	PY	Fx	Fe
13	M	20	17	24	32	21	27	20	23	26	19	18	17	18	18	18	25	11	12	15
14	M	26	16	19	37	27	21	23	41	12	13	9	23	23	15	15	27	5	7	16
14	M	29	17	24	37	22	22	21	31	13	11	16	18	21	12	12	24	5	13	15
14	M	19	17	18	33	14	16	22	23	24	15	15	16	21	12	12	26	10	6	18
12	F	26	17	19	28	22	35	32	42	34	14	17	27	33	17	17	33	10	5	22
14	F	15	12	18	22	20	24	19	25	18	27	8	22	16	8	20	20	5	3	23
15	F	28	20	20	34	14	18	13	25	7	7	4	20	16	12	12	21	13	12	18
15	F	24	16	24	39	27	30	23	36	18	15	8	26	18	11	11	33	8	3	21
16	F	21	14	24	29	18	16	25	28	19	15	23	10	21	11	11	30	9	4	18

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 7

Age	Sex	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe
13	M	24	11	19	26	16	18	18	29	22	16	19	17	18	13	25	8	10	16
14	M	28	14	20	35	16	29	15	22	17	15	13	12	13	15	27	11	11	8
14	M	22	18	24	36	23	10	22	26	14	17	19	10	19	19	24	14	8	19
15	M	26	16	23	39	25	24	17	23	15	15	14	16	18	9	26	10	9	19
16	M	33	21	30	36	22	28	23	22	9	16	14	25	20	14	35	11	6	15
16	M	22	10	16	25	14	24	22	27	19	8	12	25	17	12	28	7	7	19
12	F	20	11	19	31	20	21	12	26	22	11	13	10	11	13	27	6	10	18
13	F	20	10	19	32	23	23	19	28	10	7	1	23	14	11	22	7	9	18
14	F	18	12	22	37	20	34	27	44	18	14	8	28	23	17	35	10	11	27
15	F	22	13	18	31	21	25	22	30	29	13	14	18	20	14	32	9	14	25
15	F	17	10	21	30	17	25	14	27	14	12	5	24	13	10	27	5	5	18
15	F	20	14	21	30	15	30	8	34	26	21	9	25	25	19	36	12	15	24
15	F	29	13	19	36	17	31	25	34	21	21	7	27	21	13	30	8	8	17
16	F	29	17	27	42	26	27	22	27	12	16	11	24	21	15	31	8	13	20
20	F	25	23	28	40	23	29	26	35	18	21	12	24	18	15	35	7	10	27

California Psychological Inventory

Raw Data

Pattern 8

Age	Sex	Do	Cb	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gl	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	PY	Fx	Fe
12	M	20	16	21	39	19	22	21	26	18	15	9	20	13	11	27	7	11	16
14	M	20	13	17	30	15	21	21	24	19	12	7	23	14	19	36	12	17	18
12	F	17	20	27	38	19	30	25	34	21	21	13	26	22	13	38	8	11	21
13	F	23	12	23	37	23	26	22	25	26	15	15	15	24	14	33	9	8	21
14	F	25	10	21	30	20	21	16	32	17	6	4	22	15	10	24	6	6	25
15	F	41	20	29	36	25	32	28	34	22	21	13	28	33	16	42	9	5	18
15	F	12	14	15	31	19	13	11	13	11	7	6	14	16	16	22	8	8	18
15	F	25	14	29	37	23	30	22	35	14	13	10	26	23	12	31	8	1	10
17	F	25	12	28	36	21	29	29	35	31	22	11	25	22	13	32	10	4	22
17	F	28	12	15	28	21	28	27	36	26	13	8	22	21	21	30	9	9	22

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David J. Tobin was born on May 14, 1955 in Montreal, Quebec. In June, 1972 he graduated from Chomedey Polyvalent High School, Laval, Quebec. In September, 1972 he enrolled at McGill University. David graduated with the Bachelor of Science degree in June, 1977. In September, 1977 he enrolled in the Master's programme in Developmental Psychology at the University of Windsor. David left the University of Windsor in September, 1979 to enter the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Toronto. He is currently a second year medical student at the school.

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