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Runaway Adolescents' Perception of Their Parental Behavior and Environment

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RUNAWAY ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTION
OF THEIR PARENTAL BEHAVIOR AND ENVIRONMENT

by

Saleth John Arulanandam

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

April

1980

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VITA

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Running away and dropping out seem not at all alien to the American tradition. For most early immigrants were, after all, runaways from a Europe which opposed and squelched them. And, once these immigrants had created a culture of their own, they gave rise to ever new runaway and drop out movements, such as advocated by Noys or Thoreau, for example, just as the Christian Church gave rise to ever new heresies. These earlier American runaways, though, were largely adults, whereas the present ones are teenagers who ordinarily would live with their families (Stierlin, 1973, p. 57).

The fact that every year one million teenagers run away from home; that the average age is fifteen; and that at least half the number are girls (Zastrow and Navarre, 1975) is a sign that they are under stress and are dissatisfied, and that they are unhappy with themselves or with their situation, or both. Is the situation in which they find themselves unique, or is it similar to the experience that others, too, go through? If others, too, share the same feelings and environment, why do some decide to leave home, while the majority do not elect this course? Why do they run away, while others stay homebound, even though their family life seems difficult, miserable, and destructive, and they seem pained? What kind of disillusionment is it that leads adolescents to run away from home? Is running a forced, last resort action, a desperate response to disappointment with and rejection by the family and environment? Or could running be a search for a wider, freer environment in which to test one's strength and independence, or a rebellion against the real

limitations and protections of living with a family?

Some lines by poet and composer Rod McKuen (1976) who was himself a runaway at age eleven, captures it all:

Some of us went away
Just to get away
Some of us left
Because horizons never stop
Some of us were driven off
Some of us went driving off
And there were those
Who could not do
Or wouldn't do
What those who stayed behind
Were left to do (p. 58).

Each decade has had its distinctive reasons for running away: the economic hardships of the nineteen thirties caused many youngsters to desert struggling parents for opportunity elsewhere, in the nineteen forties there was the glamor of leaving home to join the Army, or to ride the rails; in the nineteen sixties the reason was "hypocrisy" laced with longing for experience, alonging generated by and after the "flower summer" of 1967. The youngster who left the "hypocrisy" of the household or society went in search of the warmth, integrity, and meaning he had been led to believe thrived within the communes, or among groups of flower folks who had also turned to the city for a renewal (Ambrosino, 1971).

But in the mid and late nineteen seventies, running away for more and more children is becoming an escape from home conditions they find intolerable, not a quest for adventure, pleasure, or socio-political protest, as happened during the "hippie-yippie" era of the sixties; nor is it usually a question of a child simply wanting to run off with a

band of wandering "flower children" (U.S. News and World Report, May 12, 1975).

Who Is a Runaway?

The simplest definition of a runaway is a "juvenile who has left home without parental permission" (Koestler, 1977). Legally this constitutes a "status offense" - an act that is against the law only if committed by a person under a given age. But who is a juvenile? In more than half the states, a juvenile is a boy or a girl under the age of 18; in the remainder, under the age of 16 or 17. State, county, and local ordinances introduce still other inconsistencies, such as how long a juvenile must be away from home to be considered a runaway, which complicate matters for young people and those trying to help.

According to Opinion Research Corporation (1976), a runaway is "a youth between the ages of 10 and 17, inclusive, who has been absent from home at least overnight without parental or guardian permission" (Opinion Research Corporation, 1976, p. 2). The Congressional Runaway Youth Act defines a runaway youth as "a person under 18 years of age who absents himself from home of legal residence without the permission of parent or guardian" (S2829).

Following this definition, most of the studies on runaways (Beyer, 1974; Shellow et al., 1967; Brennan et al., 1978; Jenkins, 1971; Suddick, 1973) used absence of the youth from home without the knowledge and consent of his parents or guardian as the criterion in defining the runaway behavior. But this definition does not include the intent of the adolescent to run away from home and the duration of his absence from home.

So we shall follow a more comprehensive one that includes all possible components in the act of running away: A runaway is an adolescent under 18 who leaves home without parental or guardian's permission and has been absent at least overnight, and/or leaves home with the specific intent of running away.

Statement of the Problem
Background of the Runaway

People who deal with the runaways on a professional level would tell us that many run because they have been beaten up, whipped, or otherwise physically abused. Many flee from parents whose child-rearing approach is rigid to the point of oppressiveness, or so permissive as to convey "I do not care what happens to you". Some girls run because their fathers or stepfathers have sexually victimized them; some because they are pregnant and scared to tell their parents, or because their parents disapprove of their boy friends. Some boys and girls, under terrific pressure to perform well academically, run upon getting poor report cards. Some children of divorce are asked to leave home overtly or covertly by the parent.

In backgrounds many runaways are similar; often at least one of their parents has a drinking problem (Ambrosino, 1971; Brenton, 1977; Greene and Esselstyn, 1972; English, 1973). Often the family has repeatedly uprooted itself, moving from city to city. Often the parents are separated or divorced, or are having serious marital conflict. Nearly always, there are severe communication problems between the runaway and the parents and their other children (Brenton, 1978; Koestler, 1977).

It is the unavailable parent - emotionally, socially, psychologically - that produces unreachable children. It is not only the parent who is socially, economically, intellectually deprived, and depressed, mentally disturbed, lonely, and frightened, but also the parent with ample income, emotionally and intellectually well-adjusted, can be unavailable to the child. Neither can parental love, recognition, attention, concern, talk, affection, play, dedication, guidance be substituted for by direct government money payments, nor can they be purchased by expensive things (Steel, 1967).

After working with the runaways for more than a year, the author realized that the runaways' pervasive distrust of peers and adults, their hostility toward authority, their fear of influence and domination, and their feeling of hopelessness and alienation, suggested a serious deviation from the normal parent-child relations. From this personal experience arose the question conceptualized by this study:

I. Is there a discernible pattern in the parental perception of the runaways, and how does this pattern differ from that of delinquents and normal adolescents?

II. Are the runaways more external than delinquents and normals?

Impact of Parental Behavior in the Development of Children's Personality

In order to understand the effects of child-rearing practices on the child, it is necessary to examine the child's interpretation of the interaction between himself and his parents, since it is his own definition of the situation that is most significant for him (Dublin and Dublin, 1965).

Accordingly, the independent variables within each of the hypotheses developed in this study are measures of the child's own perceptions of his parents' behavior and the environment. For, when a youngster perceives his parents as loving or unloving, they actually are so from his point of view, even if no one agrees with him. Ausubel and his colleagues (1954) in a study of the child's perception, state

although parent behavior is an objective event in the real world, it affects the child's development only to the extent and in the form in which he perceives it. Hence, perceived parent behavior is in reality a more direct, relevant and proximate determinant of personality development than the actual stimulus context to which it refers (p. 173).

The same thought was expressed by May (1950) in discussing the effects of parental rejection. As far as the impact on the child is concerned, there is a radical difference between rejection as an objective experience which does not necessarily result in subjective conflict for the child and rejection as a subjective experience. The important question psychologically is whether the child felt himself rejected. Thus, in trying to identify causal factors influencing personality development it is less relevant to establish the nature of the actual environment to which the child is exposed than to find out the important aspects and dimensions of his perceived world.

Many contemporary personality theories (Becker et al., 1962; Hurley, 1962; Siegelman, 1965; Jenkins, 1971; Ausubel and Sullivan, 1970) attach great importance to the role parents play in determining the personality characteristics of the children. The parents of normal teenagers are considered to be well-adjusted, displaying little conflict, non-rejecting,

fairly consistent in their feelings, yet flexible in their controls, basically equalitarian in dominance, yet each parent playing specific roles. But on the contrary, parents of social and individual delinquents appear to be less adjusted and sociable, less democratic, and to experience more disciplinary contentions and to be more inconsistent in their feelings and more rejecting of the child than the parents of children with no manifest problem (Duncan, 1971; Peterson et al., 1959).

Moreover, common adolescent problems, like school pressures, a broken romance, or parental restrictions are seldom enough by themselves to cause a teenager to leave home. Even severe problems - trouble with the law, pregnancy, drug abuse - won't make a youngster flee if he or she can turn to the family. In most runaway cases there are serious underlying tensions in the home. Parents who quarrel, drink too much, or are absent a great deal, or parents who might as well not be there, can really turn a kid off - and away from home (Business Week, January 27, 1975).

Are the runaways the product of socio-economic conditions of their family?

Few authors like McNeill (1970), Stierlin (1973), Beggs (1969) suggest that the act of running away is the product of middle class family. Argues McNeill:

Middle class home is a curious thing, a wall to wall womb of personal affluence and controlled climate regulated by the barometric pressures of stress, media, and an uncompromising fear of anything that is unfamiliar (p. 152).

Children who come from these bondless homes, by rejecting the parents' material values, also throw off the need for support and thus take off.

But many authors (Brenton, 1978; Parent Magazine, 1978; Shellow et al., 1967 Justice and Duncan, 1976) believe that this problem of runaway youth does not seem to be a respecter of any particular socio-economic or ethnic group. Runaways come from all kinds of families - rich and poor, well-educated, and not so well educated, from black and white, and from cities and suburbs. Money, social position and ethnic background simply have nothing to do with running from home.

Seriousness of the Problem

Today our picture of the adolescent runaway is not idealized and romantic. Surface (1970) reported the dangers facing runaways, especially in large cities. These youth are often forced into shoplifting, drug addiction, prostitution and gang by sex by the "vicious misfits" who infest runaway areas.

Time (November 28, 1977, p. 23) reports that a new and alarming wave of prostitution by teenagers and young children has struck the U.S., not only in big cities, but also in small towns. Most of them are runaways. They take to the streets, use their bodies for survival and then, beaten by pimps and bereft of self-esteem, live in fear of reprisal if they attempt to escape the racket. Surface (1970); Koestler (1977); Stierlin (1973); and others feel that the situation has worsened as organized crime moved into a degrading form of exploitation: use of runaway teenagers in pornographic films, books, magazines, and prostitution.

Purpose of the Study

Adolescents in trouble, especially the runaways, are recognized

only at the point of emergency, and then we rush them to the courts; we rush them into detention centers. But unfortunately there is ample evidence indicating that confinement in a juvenile institution provides only opportunities to the runaway youth to engage in delinquent behaviors far more serious than just running away.

Tanenbaum (1938); Cressey (1965); Becker (1963) have suggested that the process of labeling the offender, and making him conscious of himself as deviant, may evoke the very traits complained of; Merton (1957) has described such processes as a "self-fulfilling prophecy"; and Lamert (1951) coined the term "secondary deviation" to note that the offender may be made worse by his correctional experience. Thus, just rushing them to courts and detention centers does not seem to be a solution to the problem of the troubled adolescents. Neither will they be helped by merely sending them back to the familial environment from which they run. For, many researchers (Goldstein et al., 1968; Alkire et al., 1971; Bandura and Walters, 1959; Winter et al., 1966 and others) postulate family and social environments and their interactions with the child to play vital roles in the formation and development of both normal and maladaptive behaviors of the adolescents, particularly that of the runaways, any resolution of the runaway problem can be found only in the context of how the runaway youth perceive their parents' behavior toward them and their relationship with other social and institutional processes.

More specifically, we attempt in this present study to test the validity of the following hypotheses:

- 1) Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly

- different from the perception of normals on the PBI Scales.
- 2) Perception of runaways about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals on the PBI Scales.
 - 3) Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of delinquents on the PBI Scales
 - 4) Perception of runaways about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of delinquents on the PBI Scales.
 - 5) Perception of runaway males about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal males on the PBI Scales.
 - 6) Perception of runaway males about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal males on the PBI Scales.
 - 7) Perception of runaway girls about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal girls on the PBI Scales.
 - 8) Perception of runaway girls about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal girls on the PBI Scales.
 - 9) Perception of runaway boys about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of runaway girls on the PBI Scales.
 - 10) Perception of runaway boys about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of runaway girls on the PBI Scales.

- 11) Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of their mother's behavior on the PBI Scales.
- 12) Perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals coming from broken and reconstituted homes.
- 13) Perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals coming from broken and reconstituted homes.
- 14) Runaways' perception on locus of control is significantly different from normals' perception.
- 15) Runaways' perception on locus of control is significantly different from delinquents' perception.
- 16) Boy runaways' perception on locus of control is significantly different from the perception of girl runaways.

To achieve this goal the present research uses the Parental Behavior Inventory(PBI) of Schaefer (1965). This instrument measures eighteen dimensions of parental behavior as perceived by children. A complete description of PBI with its validity and reliability will be presented in Chapter 2.

Moreover, the data on the runaways in many studies (Opinion Research Corporation, June, 1976; Brennan et al., 1978; Levanthal, 1963) indicate that runaways feel more powerless and helpless than do the non-runaways. Also, some very interesting differences appear between different categories of runaways. Runaways from the lowest class have very high levels

of powerlessness, and girl runaways have higher scores on this dimension of alienation than boys. The feelings of loss of control and of powerlessness over the events of their lives are assessed in our present study by Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (1973). A person who scores high on this scale believes that he or she has no, or little control over most aspects of life, that any effort to impose control would be futile. The youth develops a sense of powerlessness when confronted with the social and institutional forces over which he or she has little control, and these forces the youth feels has brought about his or her present situation.

The purpose of this study is not to portray the parents and the environment as the villains of this tragedy and the runaways as helpless victims. Since it appears that the perceptions by the adolescents of their parents and environment are the effective bases of feelings and behaviors on the part of the adolescents, it requires, then, on the part of the parents, counselors, social workers, teachers, and, in short, all who deal with runaways and potential runaways to understand how runaways view the parents and the world at large, and communicate not only that knowledge of understanding, but also the acceptance of him or her as an individual unconditionally. The present research is interested in finding a remedy, not only to the runaway youth, but also to prevent the potential runaways from becoming actual ones, for, exceptional circumstances aside, teenagers do not run away suddenly; they give signals of their unhappiness in their relations with parents, siblings, with peers and teachers, but

when these signals are steadfastly ignored and the help they need is not forthcoming, potential runaways take off (Brenton, 1977).

CHAPTER II

ADOLESCENCE

The attention focused on adolescents since the turn of the century is unparalleled in history. Many have attempted to define adolescence, and others have tried to explain the impact of parental behavior on the personality of the child. They all seem to agree that a child's behavior is shaped by experience with people and situations. Character traits cannot be taught directly; no one can teach loyalty by lectures, courage by correspondence, or manhood by mail. Character formation requires a presence that demonstrates and contact that communicates. A teenager learns what he lives, and becomes what he experiences. To him the parents' mood is their message, their style is their substance, and the process is the product (Ginott, 1971).

Meaning of Adolescence

Adolescence is a period of transition - a sort of psychological no man's land between a rather well-defined childhood on the one hand, and a very poorly defined adulthood on the other (Silverstein, 1973). Sebald (1968) contends that the problem of the adolescent consists of a non-specific and confusing interim during which one encounters many instances when one does not know whether to choose child or adult standards. Horrecks (1955) defined adolescence as both a way of life and a span of time in the physical and psychological development of the individual. It represents a period of growth and change in nearly all aspects of a

child's physical, mental, social, and emotional life. It is a time of new experiences, new responsibilities, and new relationships with adults, as well as with peers.

It is a built-in necessary period for ego development. It is a leave-taking of the dependencies of childhood and a precocious reach for adulthood. An adolescent is a traveler who has left one place and has not reached the next. It is an intermission between earlier freedoms and subsequent responsibilities and commitments, a last hesitation before serious commitments to life and love (Sorenson, 1962). In the words of Ginott (1971), "adolescence is a period of curative madness in which every teenager has to remake his personality" (p. 25).

Hall (1904) described adolescence as a period of storm and stress, a time when the individual is erratic, emotional, unstable, and unpredictable.

If storm and stress were biologically generated, then it would follow that these disturbances would be found in all adolescents, and the same characteristics would mark adolescence in all civilizations. Such is not the case. Rosenthal (1963), Luchin (1954); Burton (1955); Barnes (1956) suggest that social and family situations and pressures are largely responsible for the difficulties the individual has in passing from childhood into adulthood. This view, namely, the adolescent storm and stress is caused by social and family pressures rather than physical conditions, is verified by the fact that among primitive people and ancient civilizations no such conditions existed. In Samoa, for example, adolescence is a pleasant age with none of the stress and strain the American youth experience (Mead, 1952).

Wolman (1973) goes so far as to say that with the exception of organic cases, emotional disorder is caused by mismanagement of people (children) by people (parents), either by over-demanding, or by rejecting, or by their inconsistent parental attitude.

Parent-Child Relationship

Much research has been reported concerning various types of parental influence upon the behavior of children. The research results converge in suggesting that parental acceptance, warmth, and support are positively related to favorable emotional, social, and intellectual development of the children, and that extreme restrictiveness, authoritarianism, and punitiveness without acceptance, warmth, and love tend to be negatively related to a child's positive self-concept, emotional, social, and intellectual development (Clapp, 1967; Skeels, 1966; Hurley, 1962; Crandall et al., 1960).

Child Achievement and Parent Behavior

Mote (1967) in a study examining the relationship between the child's self-concept in school and parental attitudes and behavior in child-rearing found that parental satisfaction with child-learning was significantly and positively related to the child's self-concept. Also, high ability achievement and creativity were associated with supportive family environment. Baragona (1964) concluded that parents who differed least tended to have children with a great degree of spontaneity, friendliness, belongingness and sex identification.

Baumrind (1967) finds that parents of children manifesting the most

positive behavior, tend to be markedly more consistent, more loving, more secure in the handling of children.

Studies by Straus (1967), Elder (1963), and Davids and Hainsworth (1967) reveal academic under-achievement to be related to high maternal control. Cross and Allen (1969) suggest that parents of over-achievers were significantly more accepting of their children than the parents of under-achievers. The major conclusion of a number of studies dealing directly with the influence of maternal constraint and support upon particular performance behavior was that perceived maternal rejection appears to mediate the lowest level of competence, whereas maternal acceptance, i.e., low control-high nurturance, remains the hypothesized mediator of the greatest subjective competence (Heilbrun and Gillard, 1966; Heilbrun et al., 1966; Heilbrun et al., 1967). Peternal rejection, too, has been found to be correlated with poor academic achievements in sons (Andersland, 1967). Parental dominance or over-control has been found to be related to low achievement motivation (Rosen, 1962) and low performance for boys (Bowerman and Elder, 1964), and low educational attainment for both males and females (Elder, 1965).

Becker's (1964) study reveals that children of warm-permissive parents were seen as friendly, affectionate, independent, and out-going, while children of warm-restrictive parents were submissive, dependent, obedient and conforming. Children of permissive-hostile parents are seen as impulsive, aggressive, non-compliant, quarrelsome, and delinquent, while children of restrictive-hostile parents are socially withdrawn, shy,

conflicted, and generally neurotic. The children of permissive-hostile parents expressed aggression outwards with little control, while the children of restrictive-hostile parents inhibit their aggression, turn it inward and suffer more from internal conflicts.

Child Aggressiveness and Parental Antecedent

Poor parent-child relationships are related to aggressiveness, anti-social behavior, and a tendency for children to be involved in disciplinary actions. Extreme parental restrictiveness, authoritarianism and punitiveness tend to be negatively related to a child's self-concept, emotional, and social behavior (Friedman, 1964).

In a study of parental antecedents of social aggression in young children, Delaney (1965) found that parental restrictiveness, rather than permissiveness, was positively related to a child's aggression, especially in the relationship between parental restrictiveness and aggression in boys. The results of Denning's (1964) study indicated that rejection, ambivalence, demands for aggression, and general aggression by fathers who assume 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.

Lefkowitz et al.(1963), in examining the relationship between the type of punishment used by parents and aggression and identification in eight year old children, indicated that aggression in children increases as parents increasingly rely upon physical punishment for controlling the child's behavior. Aggressive boys are more likely to have rejecting and socially deviant fathers than non-aggressive males (Bandura and Walters, 1959; McCord et al., 1961).

Becker et al. (1962) found that a high degree of hostility of both parents, as well as the use of physical punishment, is related to aggressive behavior in children. Schulman et al. (1962) suggests that parents of conduct-problem children are significantly more rejecting and hostile toward their children than were the parents of non-conduct-problem children.

Others who postulate environmental and family interaction to play vital roles in the development of personality and psychopathology include Gildea et al. (1961); Siegelman (1965); Jenkins (1969).

Child Delinquency and Parental Antecedents

Several studies relating parent-child relationships and juvenile delinquency emphasize the lack or inconsistency of discipline and the lack of positive, loving relationships between children and both parents in homes of delinquents (Hezel, 1969; Gallenkamp, 1968; Allen and Sanhu, 1967; Brigham et al., 1967). The detrimental effects of parental rejection, especially for sons, have been demonstrated in a variety of areas. Delinquents and criminal males perceive their fathers as less loving and more neglecting and rejecting than do non-delinquent and non-criminal controls. (Andrey, 1960; Guleck and Guleck, 1950; McCord et al., 1959; Medinnus, 1965).

Parental Behavior and Child's Locus of Control

Locus of control deals with generalized attitude, belief or expectancy of a person regarding the nature of causal relationship between his behavior and the consequence of such behavior. Persons who believe

in external control feel that life and the outcome of their behavior lie beyond the realm of their control and power but are controlled by luck, fate, chance, personal and impersonal forces and significant others. They believe man is not responsible for his life and destiny. They relinquish their beliefs in freedom and self-determination and come to accept the fact that man is controlled by forces outside of himself. On the contrary, those who believe in internal locus of control feel that man is in control of his own life and destiny. They perceive themselves as active determiners of their destiny and so accept readily responsibility for their actions and behaviors.

Many studies (Katkovsky, Crandall and Good, 1967; Lefcourt, 1976; Levenson, 1973; Nowicki and Strickland, 1973; Phares, 1973; Rotter, 1971; Strickland, 1965) dealing with the concept of locus of control, that is, the extent of the person's ability to perceive contingencies between his efforts and the results of those efforts, have established the relevance of such perception to actual concern and involvement in constructive social endeavors.

Rotter (1966) suggests,

When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control (p. 1).

Loeb (1975) and Nowicki and Segal (1974) who studied school children

and their parents, suggest that parent-child interactions and the climate provided by parental attitudes may play a major role in determining the child's control orientation. Parental nurturance was found to be associated with increased internality in children.

Lang (1969) shows that shared power by parents and children enables children to experience the locus of responsibility as within themselves, and to become responsive to the needs of others. Inconsistency and disorder seem to limit children to indifference or inability to respond to others. Strodtbeck (1958) says that the less the son is dominated by his father, the greater is his disposition to believe that the world can be rationally mastered. Thomas, Frank, and Colonico (1972) noted that supportive parents generally approve of the child's efforts to produce an effect upon the environment, and, simultaneously, let the child know that they are there if he or she needs them.

But the more the child perceives the discipline he receives from each parent as being inconsistent, the more externally oriented he will be and also the more he perceives disagreements between his mother and father with regard to their expectations of him, the more externally oriented he will be (Scheck et al., 1973). Lifshitz and Ramot (1978), exploring the extent to which the development of children's locus of control in kibbutz systems is affected by differing levels of antecedent parental contact in combination with educational ideologies and practices, found that kibbutz children who have been raised in a more directive-controlled way by both parents and educators develop less of internal orientation than children who have been raised in an atmosphere which

allows more freedom to experiment and possibly deduce abstract relationships.

It seems obvious from the above studies that one of the most influential factors in the development of internal and external control orientation in children is the degree of the perceived parental behavior.

Running Away: Psychological and Sociological Theories

In the considerable literature on the runaway phenomenon, there are many attempts to explain its causes. As Koestler puts it, at one extreme the act of running has been said to be the result from severe, emotional disturbance, and at the other, it has been viewed as a positive and natural step in growing to maturity. In between these two approaches, there is a vast majority who holds that running away is an adaptive response of an adolescent to situational pressures and conflicts. As Shellow et al. (1967) point out that the difference in these diverse viewpoints are mainly due to the populations from which the different samples are drawn.

Studies of runaways sent to juvenile court, to clinics used by the courts and the police, or to correctional institutions, for instance, consistently report findings of delinquent and psychologically disturbed runaways. Those studies, on the other hand, which based their conclusions on non-correctional institution samples more frequently see the act as a healthy way of responding to intolerable situations.

Running Away: Psychopathology or Delinquency?

Psychologically oriented authors who took their samples from clinics of the juvenile justice system looked upon running away of adolescents as symptomatic of psychopathology, including neurosis, impulsive and/or

delinquent behavior, mental deficiency, low self-esteem, and sociopathic tendencies (Beyer, 1974). The runaway adolescent is held responsible for the act of leaving home. Hence, most researchers in the 1930's and 1940's believed that runaway behavior was the result of personal conflict which the runaway could not solve in any other way.

Armstrong (1932) in a study of 600 runaway boys and 122 runaway girls arraigned in the Children's Court of New York City for leaving their home, considered them to be psychoneurotics who did not have the needed skills and talents to face the pressures of society. She found them to be mentally deficient, delinquent, and having very poor impulse control.

Murphy (1938) by comparing 50 runaway adolescents who were juvenile offenders to 50 delinquent non-runaways suggested that runaways were less intelligent, more retarded in school, and had a larger number of physical handicaps than the delinquent non-runaways. Riemer (1940) viewed runaways as individuals with severe "narcissistic disorder", who, at one extreme, exhibited hostility and impulsivity and, on the other, showed at other times over-submissiveness and docility. Burt (1944) went so far as to warn that "running away is usually the first step on the downward stair to crime - the first premonitory portent of far more desperate misdemeanors" (p. 455).

Greene and Esselstyn (1972) describe runaways as falling into three groups: the rootless who lack self-discipline and indulge in frequent pleasure-seeking hedonistic behavior; the anxious who have feelings of anxiety and powerlessness in the face of their personal and family problems;

and the terrified who are escaping from extremely severe situational problems which may include alcoholic parents, incest, parental violence, and perhaps threats to their lives.

Robey et al. (1964), in their psychoanalytical approach to the evaluation and treatment of 42 runaway girls at a court clinic, claimed that the most frequently observed cause of running away was the unconscious threat of an incestuous relationship with the father, the fear of the resultant family dissolution, and the concurrent depression. A consistent pattern of family interaction is described, including a disturbed marital relationship, lack of affection for the daughter by the mother, and a subtle pressure on the daughter by the mother to take over the maternal role and thus pushes the daughter into an incestuous relationship with the father. The daughter at first turns to the father for the love she never obtained from the mother, but with the onset of puberty and sexual sophistication, she turns to outside sources to work out her oedipal conflicts. The father becomes angry and restrictive because of his fear of incest. Tension rises in the family as fear of incest comes close to the consciousness of the family members. The girl becomes rebellious and finally runs away from home in order to avoid family dissolution. Counts et al. (1961) and Foster (1962) also subscribe to the oedipal theme of running away from home by young girls.

Other authors who viewed runaway behavior as a response to either intrapsychic or analytically defined family conflicts include Shinohara and Jenkins (1967); Jenkins and Boyer (1968); Tsubouchi and Jenkins (1969);

Wylie and Weinreb (1958); Rosenheim (1940); Weinreb and Counts (1960); Aichorn (1935); Stengel (1939).

Leventhal (1963, 1964) viewed runaway behavior as a sign of lack of inner control. His 42 runaway subjects consistently showed hostility in their attitude to their peers and were unable to establish any kind of close relationship with others. The runaways also showed signs of anxiety, depression, lack of control. They had low grades in school, and to a great part, were loners, having few or no friends at all. They felt powerless and helpless. This fits well with the long time follow-up studies conducted by Robins and O'Neal (1959) and the findings of Shinohara and Jenkins (1967) who suggest that runaways exhibit serious intrapsychic conflicts.

Goldberg (1972) delineated five symptoms that are characteristic of runaway adolescents: 1. excessive, chronic dependency; 2. difficulty with close relationships; 3. low frustration tolerance; 4. marked impulsivity; and 5. a tendency to misrepresent themselves by either seeking anonymity, or by projecting a false identity.

Other studies that attribute to runaway youth poor impulse control, depression, low self-esteem, dependency, and anxiety, include Chamberlin (1960); Staub (1943) Robins (1958); Joos et al. (1970); Beyer et al. (1973); Jenkins (1971); Wolk and Brandon (1977); Brennan et al. (1978).

Levinson and Mezei (1970) believe runaways to be intellectually and emotionally more retarded and more lonely than non-runaways. The lack of self-acceptance shown by runaway youth is manifest in their difficulties in establishing interpersonal relationship and is reflective of

rejection experienced from others.

Gothberg (1947) found many girls due to their unfulfilled needs for love and understanding, reacted emotionally to restrictions and their low tolerance to frustration caused them to react to their perceived intolerable situation by running away from home.

Baer (1970) noted that "stubborn child runaways" might have been motivated to run away from home by feelings of worthlessness, disappointment, and not belonging to anyone. Levy (1972) categorized girls running away from a residential treatment center into those who run either in angry defiance, or out of psychotic disorganization and a desire for escape, or out of need for fusion with parents.

Rosenwald and Mayer (1967) psychologically defined types - the hyper-mature, hypo-mature, and the impulse-ridden. The female runners are all presented as differing patterns of psycho-analytic pathologies, each displaying various troublesome symptoms, namely, sexual provocativeness, depressive features, denial and acting out, fixation at oral stage of development, and so forth. All of these factors are seen to disrupt their relationships with parents, thus leading to the running away act.

Situational or Environmental: Is Leaving Home Due to Situational Conflict, or a Sign of Health and Maturity?

The majority of authors believe that neither pathology, nor delinquency is the cause for youth to leave home. Balser (1939) found no instances or traces of neuroses among the runaways. He further concluded against the possibility of neurotics leaving home by asserting that psychoneurotics build their abnormal psychological patterns

around their families and homes to such a degree that running away would upset much of that pattern and make for greater uneasiness.

Situational or environmental explanations of runaways range from the proposition that running away represented nothing more than a youthful search for adventure (Wattenberg, 1956), to the view that the runaways have chosen to leave home as a self-determined approach to the resolution of family conflicts (Howell and Frank, 1973). These studies, then, group the runaway youth into two general classes: so, on the one hand, the act of running is considered to be a reaction to an extremely pathological home, peer, and school situation, or, on the other, it is viewed as a search for freedom, enjoyment of new pleasures and a breaking up of constraints, both familial and societal. Paull (1956) noted that an adolescent's developing sense of self-hood and independence might be constructively expressed in the course of the runaway episode. Some have asserted that running away is an interlude in a young person's life before going straight (Kaufman et al., 1969), a "post-modern" style (Keniston, 1965), and an expected response to an unresponsive social system (Lubeck and Empey, 1968). In the words of Brenton (1978),

It is healthy for eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen-year olds to want a respite from destructive situational episodes they feel they cannot control or affect. In running they are not only abandoning the prescribed family dramas. Youth counselors say, "Kids who run often turn out to be the strongest members of their families." They are the only ones at least who are doing something to change things (p. 58).

In many instances running away can be often considered a healthy psychological mode of response to an intolerable situation (Lowrey, 1941) that is personally destructive (English, 1973).

Homer (1973) defines two types of runaways: "running to" and "running from". Running from consists of those whose interpersonal and family conflicts have surpassed their tolerance level, or those who repress their unresolved anger. Thus running away gives them a chance to escape from unresolved environmental conflicts. "Running to" includes those who seek freedom, pleasure, and adventure. They seek experiences that are forbidden in the home: sex, drugs, liquor, truancy, and peer groups, etc. Grievances with the parents are very minor. Homer's division of the runaways corresponds to the "spontaneous runners" and "reactive runners" defined by Berger and Schmidt (1958). "Spontaneous runners" have an urge for a change of environment, for flight and motor activity. "Reactive runners", on the other hand, reject their parents and school situations, and run away in response to a need to be considered an adult. Jahr (1940) saw in running away an attempt by young people to express themselves in an environment over which they had little control. When present surroundings appear burdensome, distant places might seem to offer an opportunity to exercise curiosity, imagination, and love for romance and adventure.

Kaufman, Allen, and West (1969) Levy (1972), and Ambrosino (1971) describe the motivation of freedom, pleasure-seeking, and exploration as being the characteristics of many runaways. Gordon (1978) states,

Running away is often a desperate assertion of selfhood on the part of a young person, the undeniable protest of an objectified child against familial constraints, attributions and confusions. In running away the young person is escaping as much from familial definition as he or she is from physical control. The runaway is no longer the object thing. He or she is active, a subject who leaves, who defines his or her own experience (p. 61).

Brennan et al. (1978) describing the behavior pattern, the family experience, the school experience, the peer relationships, and personal features of runaways, conclude:

The runaway family situation is one in which it is extremely difficult to establish either strong and loving parent-child relationship or conventional goals and values. Such inadequate development of family bonds is sufficient in itself to explain the tendency that these children have to run away (p. 190).

Some writers like Beggs (1969) call parents the runaways from a world of rapid change, and the act of running by youth from home is predominantly the response a minor makes to a conflict in his family situation.

Gordon (1978), too, puts the burden of responsibility for the running away of adolescents squarely on the shoulders of the parents who lacked both close friends and close ties to an extended family. The parents of the runaways

saw themselves as obedient to social norms rather than participants in creating them. With frightening consistency these parents tried to shape their children's lives to fit ideals and ideas that had haunted their own childhood, to make them behave in accordance with the demands of a social world from which they themselves were isolated, one that often treated them badly. The distance the child had run from home turned out to be no greater than the alienation of the parents (p. 62).

Erosion of family bonds through dynamic process within the family seem to subvert the satisfaction of important youth needs. The fulfillment of youth needs, such as love, affection, belonging, and security, is usually dependent on good parent-child relations. Brennan et al. (1978) suggest

the global comparisons have shown that there are many highly significant differences between runaway and non-runaway families. Nurturance, parental acceptance, parental satisfaction, parental interest in the child, and positive labeling are all far less

available to runaways than to non-runaways. Runaways experience very high levels of expressive rejection, and to a large extent they are aware of the rejection and dissatisfaction that their parents feel. The youth's need for personal recognition and competence is undermined by very high levels of negative labeling and parental dissatisfaction (p. 186).

Family breakdown is often cited as one of the characteristics of the runaway population. U.S. News and World Report (April 24, 1972) attributes much running away to the current condition of American families. Poor family situations, high divorce rates, and broken homes are considered to be important causal factors relating to the runaway behavior of youth in America.

D'Angelo et al. (1974) found that, with the exception of blacks, twice as many runaways come from one-parent families as the non-runaways. The authors conclude that runaway behavior may be just another symptom of the escalating incidence of family breakdown in America.

Goldmeier (1973) reports that runaways are more likely than others to come from homes where one of the parents is absent. Foster (1962) finds a positive correlation between parent-child separations and running away. The presence of step or adoptive parents is also seen as a factor.

Similarly Shellow et al. (1967) report that runaways are more likely than other youth to come from a broken or reconstituted family.

Conflict at Home

Beggs (1969), Blum and Smith (1972), Bock and English (1973), Richette (1969), Beyer et al. (1973), Shellow et al. (1967), Walker (1975), Kinloch (1970), Spector (1967), Kimball (1970), English (1973) and Outland (1938) reported running away as neither frivolous nor

adventure-seeking behavior, but as a manifestation of serious family problems.

Running away according to Lowrey (1941) is not necessarily a complex psychopathological phenomenon, but it represents in the majority of cases a simple and primitive reaction to an uncomfortable situation. In many instances, says Lowrey, running away seems to be a healthy mode of response to an intolerable situation. He further suggests that most of the young people run away

from situations in which they are unhappy, feel unwanted, and rejected, or feel frustrated in achieving their ambitions. Most important points are to be found in parent-child and sibling relationships. In many cases, there is open hostility between the runaway and one or both parents. The child feels rejected, either on the basis of over-protection, over-anxious, over-rigid ordering of his life, or because what might best be called psychological neglect - failure to meet the emotional needs of the youngster at various points (p. 778).

Shellow et al. (1967) indicated that conflict at home has a direct bearing on runaway behavior. Three out of four of the parents of the runaways reported conflict within the family, mainly over issues like youth's performance at school, choice of friends, rejection of family rules and values. The majority of the children see themselves as living in family settings characterized by conflicts. Running away seems to be

a calculated maneuver in their dealings with their parents ultimately designed to change the relationship rather than deny it the very act of running away appears to repudiate the family as a source of comfort and support, clearly questions the family competence of parents and takes its place in the long catalogue of adolescent behaviors that disturb adults (p. 29).

Regarding current home situations and the relationships with their parents, Goldmeier and Dean (1973), argue that runaways tended more to feel less at ease in their home, less warm toward their parents; that

neither father nor mother was warm toward them; that they were punished excessively and undeservedly; and that their relationship was an unhappy one. While seventy-five per cent of the runaways said that they seldom or never felt at ease in their home, only six per cent of the non-runaways expressed such a high degree of discomfort about their home situations.

Rosenwald and Mayer (1967) suggest that running away is an unsuccessful attempt at resolving family conflicts. It is seen as an attempt to achieve independence which is more self-destructive than other possible means. However, other adaptive responses by girls to family strains appear to be limited, and girls' activities and outlets are very much restricted. Hildebrand (1963) suggests several motivations for running away. One is a poor home environment, broken home, and immoral conditions. Another family-related problem is discipline regarding things like late hours, disobedience, stubbornness, selection of friends, and family prejudices. School, mental illness, sex, pregnancy, wishing to live with a member of the opposite sex are also included among reasons for running away.

Schmuck (1971) uncovered incidence of physical abuse among runaways to be considerably higher than among non-runaways. D'Angelo et al. (1974) suggest that parental relationship is another factor in runaway behavior. They report that runaways complained of failure by their parents to get along with each other more than twice as often as the non-runaways. In addition, runaways are three times as likely as non-runaways to indicate that their parents argue more than the parents of other youth.

Finally, for all sex and ethnic groupings in D'Angelo's study, two thirds of the runaways report their parents use indirect means (avoidance, silence, walking out, stereotype roles, etc.) of settling disputes (as opposed to frank exchange of words), while only half the control group of non-runaways reports the use of indirect means.

Parent Behavior Inventory (PBI)

One of the research instruments used in the present study is the Parent Behavior Inventory (PBI) developed by Schaefer (1964). The short version of PBI consists of ninety items about parental behavior which are to be marked by the subjects "Like", "somewhat Like", "Not Like", the subjects' father or mother. The instructions allow for a contemporary or a retrospective report by an adolescent. Virtually identical items, differing only in gender, appear on the forms for father and mother, and the forms are scored separately. Scores are obtained on eighteen separate scales for each parent, but once again the scales are identical in nature, consisting of such dimensions as autonomy, acceptance and control. The later version of the PBI (1964) not only differentiates maternal from paternal behavior as perceived by the subject, but also discriminates between criterion groups (Schaefer, 1965a).

Schaefer administered the scales to a group of white, seventh grade children (85 boys and 80 girls) in a suburban parochial school and to a group of 81 institutionalized delinquent boys - all from broken families. All the normal children were tested in a single group; the delinquents were tested in groups of approximately 30 each. The separate forms for mother and for father were given in a counter balance order in a single

testing session.

Internal consistency reliabilities that were computed by Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for each of the scales, for both parents, and for three groups - normal boys, normal girls, and delinquent boys - are reported in Table One. The median reliabilities of groups of scales that were chosen to sample the molar dimension are: Love, 84; Hostility, 78; Autonomy, 69; and Control, 66. The attempt to develop homogeneous measures for relatively specific components of parental behavior was rather successful (Schaefer, 1965, p. 416).

The delinquent boys describe both mother and father as higher on extreme autonomy and lax discipline than the normal children. Delinquents describe mother also as being significantly more positive and loving, but father as significantly less positive and less loving than the normal children. These results justify a separate analysis of maternal and paternal behavior.

The correlations between reports of mother and of father by normal children shows very similar behavior for mother and father. But the correlations between reports of mother and father are very low, indicating that the parents of delinquent boys may have less unified and coordinated policy in their behavior with their children, or may emphasize their differences in their child rearing.

All the scales which are designed to measure a dimension of love versus hostility have high loadings on the first factor. The positive pole is best defined by positive evaluation, sharing, expression of affection, emotional support, and equalitarian treatment, and the negative pole by ignoring, neglect, and rejection. The best label for this dimension would be acceptance versus rejection since the heaviest negative loadings are for scales that indicate a more detached, less involved type of

TABLE 1

INTERNAL-CONSISTENCY RELIABILITIES FOR
THE CHILD'S REPORT OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY SCALES

Scale	Father			Mother		
	Delinquent	Normal	Normal	Delinquent	Normal	Normal
	Boys N=81	Boys N=85	Girls N =80	Boys N=81	Boys N=85	Girls N=80
Extreme autonomy	.81	.66	.71	.77	.66	.65
Lax Discipline	.73	.70	.76	.68	.68	.67
Moderate autonomy	.71	.70	.63	.72	.67	.56
Encouraging sociability	.86	.77	.72	.85	.76	.77
Positive evaluation	.85	.76	.67	.80	.80	.76
Sharing	.93	.85	.81	.90	.86	.86
Expression of affection	.88	.81	.81	.85	.83	.81
Encouraging independent thinking	.79	.72	.70	.75	.74	.68
Emotional support	.91	.83	.92	.93	.80	.94
Equalitarian treatment	.91	.84	.84	.85	.80	.82
Intellectual stimulation	.91	.82	.84	.81	.82	.78
Childcenteredness	.87	.75	.77	.80	.78	.54
Protectiveness	.64	.74	.63	.56	.64	.38
Intrusiveness	.77	.76	.57	.69	.72	.50
Suppression of aggression	.53	.62	.53	.56	.67	.40
Strictness	.80	.68	.74	.78	.73	.71
Punishment	.88	.76	.85	.86	.79	.86
Control through guilt	.46	.69	.70	.52	.77	.77
Parental direction	.70	.64	.54	.74	.67	.63
Nagging	.77	.75	.75	.78	.75	.76
Negative evaluation	.81	.73	.55	.82	.77	.70
Irritability	.83	.83	.84	.73	.83	.84
Rejection	.87	.66	.67	.78	.79	.58
Neglect	.84	.72	.86	.78	.60	.72
Ignoring	.89	.82	.84	.79	.82	.76

hostile reaction to the child (Schaefer, 1965).

Scales which most clearly define the second major dimension are intrusiveness, parental direction, and control through guilt. The label psychological autonomy versus psychological control is suggested for this dimension, for the defining scales describe covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behaviors that would permit the child to develop as an individual apart from the parent (Schaefer, 1965).

The third dimension is best defined by the scales as lax discipline and extreme autonomy, while the opposite pole is partially defined by punishment and strictness. The label firm control versus lax control is suggested for this dimension, which indicates the degree to which the parent makes rules and regulations, sets limits to the child's activities and enforces these regulations and limits (Schaefer, 1965).

Renson, Schaefer, and Levy (1967) using the current version of PBI, replicated his findings with a sample of French-Belgian high school students. The factor structure for boys' and girls' reports of maternal and paternal behavior are highly similar for this sample as they were for the American sample (1965). These findings suggest the validity of a single conceptual framework for parent behavior for both sexes of parents and both sexes of children. Using Schaefer's latest version of PBI (1965) Rode (1971) found the results of his findings were consistent with the results of Schaefer. Rode's study shows that individually alienated adolescents of both sexes perceive their parents, and particularly their mothers, as hostile, non-accepting, and as exercising control

through psychological means, such as instilling of persistent anxiety.

Validity of PBI (1965) is based on its findings which converge with similar findings by two other very widely used instruments, namely, "Parental Child Interaction Rating Scale" (Heilbrun, 1964) and the "Cornell Parent Behavior Description" (Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Devereaux, Bronfenbrenner and Rodgers, 1969). Also the results of PBI (1965) seem to be consistent with the findings of the child's report of parent behavior inventory for seven national groups (See Table 2).

Schaefer's instrument was preferred to all other instruments because in the words of Ellis, Thomas, and Rollin (1976), "If a researcher is specifically interested in the complexities of the support construct with less emphasis on parsimony and desires one of the established scales (Heilbrun, Cornell, and Schaefer), the Schaefer Scale offers some advantages" (p. 721).

Internal Versus External Control

The effects of parental constraint and support upon delinquency, crime, aggression, mental illness, academic achievement, independence, and personal competence suggest the hypotheses about the relation of these dimensions to internal versus external control of reinforcement: (a) The more over-controlling (restrictive), or under-controlling (permissive) an individual perceives his parents to be, the more externally oriented he will be; (b) The less an individual perceives being given support from his parents, the more externally oriented he will be.

Chance (1965) found that the more "internal" the boys were, the more likely it was that they had mothers who had expectations for early

TABLE 2

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE CHILD'S REPORT OF PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY FOR SEVEN NATIONAL GROUPS

SCALES	NATIONAL SAMPLE **						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Acceptance of Individuation	68	80	81	87	81	89	90
2. Acceptance	89	91	92	90	90	93	87
3. Childcenteredness	82	81	87	86	87	84	80
4. Positive Involvement	87	88	90	88	87	92	74
5. Possessiveness	48	39	39	28	55	-02	17
6. Intrusiveness	24	29	15	01	50	08	04
7. Control Through Guilt	00	10	09	-23	13	-17	07
8. Hostile Control	06	-09	-12	-49	23	08	11
9. Control Through Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-10	-08	-10	-43	35	-02	17
10. Control Through Withdrawal of Relationship	-29	-36	-31	-60	-15	-21	-43
11. Rejection	-56	-64	-60	-72	-37	-56	-49
12. Hostile Detachment	-60	-84	-65	-85	-46	-61	-44
13. Extreme Autonomy	-06	00	08	07	05	51	36
14. Lax Discipline	28	30	24	15	38	70	32
15. Non-enforcement	-08	-28	-02	-07	-01	04	-04
16. Inconsistent Discipline	-35	-32	-20	-44	-04	-06	-22
17. Enforcement	-08	-15	-32	-19	02	-32	-06
18. Control	19	20	-03	-08	32	-07	11

- **
1. Czeck Boys' Reports of Paternal Behavior; collected by Jarmila Kotaskova
 2. Belgian Boys' Reports of Paternal Behavior; Renson, Schaefer, and Levy (1968)
 3. German Children's Reports of Paternal Behavior; collected by Norma Gordon and Maria Schonhals
 4. American College Males' Reports of Paternal Behavior; Cross, 1969
 5. Japanese Boys' Reports of Paternal Behavior; Kojima, 1967
 6. Iranian Boys' Reports of Paternal Behavior; collected by Reza Arasteh
 7. Indian Boys' Reports of Paternal Behavior; collected by A.A. Khatri

independence, and, secondly, the more educated the mother and the less concern she had about controlling her son, the more internal was her son.

Katkovsky et al. (1967) suggest that internal locus of control among children is associated with having parents who are more approving than they are critical. The maintenance of a supportive, positive relationship between parent and child seems more likely to foster a child's belief in internal control than is a relationship characterized by punishment, rejection, and criticism.

Levenson (1973b) explored the perceived parental antecedents, the retrospective accounts of young adults with each of her control-related measures (internal control, powerful others and chance scales). Briefly, she found that for males internality was associated with perceived maternal instrumentality, whereas for females, internality was negatively related to maternal protectiveness. Control by powerful others was associated with reports of parents using more punishing and controlling types of behaviors, and control of children by chance was related to a perception of parents as having unpredictable standards.

Julian Rotter and his associates have suggested that individuals differ in the degree to which they believe that they are able to influence the outcomes of their situations (James, 1957; Phares, 1957; Rotter, 1966; Rotter, Seeman, and Liverant, 1962).

Some individuals believe that their actions produce the rewards or punishments which follow their efforts, while others feel that such reinforcements are not contingent upon their own behavior, but are granted to them through the discretion of powerful others, or determined by luck

or chance or fate. There is evidence to suggest that the same reinforcement in a given situation may be perceived by one individual as completely controlled by himself and by another as totally outside his influence (James, 1957; Phares, 1957; Rotter, Seeman and Liverant, 1962).

Individuals who see reinforcements contingent upon their own behavior may be classified as having a belief in internal control of reinforcement. Those who feel rewards and punishments are not contingent upon their own behavior are considered to have a belief in external control of reinforcement (Rotter, 1966).

These personal orientations, in turn, may operate as crucial determiners of the reinforcing effects of many experiences. If, for example, an individual believes he has little influence over the rewards and punishments he receives, then he may have little cause to alter his behavior in an attempt to change the probability that those reinforcements will occur. To an individual who believes he has little or no control over outcomes, rewards and punishments are likely to lose some of their reinforcing value since they should not be particularly effective in strengthening his response (Scheck et al., 1973).

In addition, such expectancies are generalized from a specific situation to many situations perceived to be similar in nature. For this reason, Rotter (1966) contends that a generalized expectancy for class-related events has functional properties and makes up one important class of variables in personality description.

Most runaways were found to be more normless, powerless, estranged, and delinquent than non-runaways. They also had lower self-esteem and weaker commitments to their families and schools.

The data in the Colorado study indicated that runaways feel more powerless than do non-runaways. Some interesting differences appear, however, between different categories of runaways. Runaways from the lowest social class have very high levels of powerlessness, and girl runaways have higher scores on this dimension of alienation than boys. There are no differences among the runaways according to age or ethnic classes. The findings from the OYD study again confirm those from the Colorado study. All the runaway sub-classes have higher than average levels of powerlessness, and the lower social class, and female runaways in particular, very high levels of powerlessness (Brennan et al., 1978, p. 233).

Leventhal (1963) suggests that deficiencies in external control (control of one's environment) probably relate to running away. Marked over-concern with loss of control and ego surrender, and some reality distortion by runaways are taken to suggest prepsychotic functioning in this group. Leventhal's findings (1964) further show that runaways manifest significantly more inner uncontrol: They give more indications of discharge-type behavior (impulsivity, temper tantrums, excessive masturbation, enuresis), of deficient regulatory mechanisms (poor judgment, insufficiencies in cognition and mobility), and of a helpless self-image. A significant relationship is reported to exist between inner uncontrol and outer uncontrol (of environment).

Nowicki-Strickland Scale

Feelings of loss of control and powerlessness over the events of one's life are asserted by Nowicki-Strickland Scale (1973). A person who scores high on this scale believes that he or she has little or no control over most aspects of life and that any effort to impose control would be futile. The youth high on this scale has developed a sense of powerlessness when confronted with the social and institutional forces which, he thinks, has brought about his or her present situation. He also feels

that he has no control over these forces.

The Nowicki-Strickland is a paper-and-pencil measure consisting of forty questions that are answered either "yes" or "no". The items describe reinforcement situations across interpersonal and motivational areas, such as affiliation, achievement and dependency. Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale is constructed on the basis of Rotter's definition of internal-external control of reinforcement dimension. The generalized expectancy of internal control refers to the perception of events whether positive or negative as being a consequence of one's own actions and thereby potentially under personal control. "Subjects characterized as internals tended to deny the influence of the experimenter and appeared to follow their own inclinations in regard to giving correct response" (Strickland, 1970, p. 376).

The generalized expectancy of external control, on the other hand, refers to the perception of positive or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behavior and thereby beyond personal control. The fatalists perceive no contingency between action and outcome while those expounding internal control beliefs readily perceive such contingencies (Lefcourt, 1973).

The 40-item scale was administered to 1,017 children, ranging from the third grade through the twelfth grade to obtain reliability estimates, demographic measures, and construct validity information. The sample consisted of mostly Caucasian elementary and high school students belonging to all socio-economic levels, except the very highest one.

Biserial item correlations presented for males and females are moderate but consistent for all ages.

Estimates of internal consistency via the split-half method, corrected by the Spearman Brown Formula are $r=.63$ (for grades 3, 4, 5); $r=.68$ (for grades 6, 7, 8); $r=.78$ (for grades 9, 10, 11); and $r=.81$ (for grade 12). These reliabilities are satisfactory in light of the fact that the items are not arranged according to difficulty. Since the test is additive and the items are not comparable, the split-half reliabilities tend to underestimate the true internal consistency of the scale.

Test-retest reliabilities samples at three grade levels, six weeks apart, were .63 for the third grade, .66 for the seventh grade, and .71 for the tenth grade (Nowicki-Strickland, 1973).

The construct validation of the Nowicki-Strickland Scale was examined as to its relation to other measures of locus of control. It was compared to the Intellectual Achievement REsponsibility Scale. The correlations with the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Score, the Bialer-Cromwell Score, the Rotter Scale were found to be significant. These relations suggest added support for the construct validation of the Nowicki-Strickland Scale. Since the construction of the scale, a number of studies across a diverse range of subject populations have been completed. Generally, the results are clearly supportive of the utility and validity of the new instrument, which appears to be related to a variety of behaviors. These research findings suggest that, particularly for males, an internal score on the Nowicki-Strickland Scale is significantly related to academic competence, to social maturity, and appears to be a correlate of independent, striving, self-motivated behavior.

With the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire beliefs are inconsistently related to social class. Bialer's (1961) scale suffers from reliability and format shortcomings. The Crandall et al. (1965) Scale is specifically constructed for the academic rather than the general situation, and its forced-choice format may be difficult for

younger and duller subjects. The Nowicki-Strickland Scale is a reliable methodologically precise measure of generalized locus of control reinforcement that is group administered to a wide age range of children. This superiority of Nowicki-Strickland Scale over other scales mentioned above is the reason for choosing this scale instead of any one of the others above.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The problem and significance of this research was presented in the first chapter, and the results of a review of related literature and explanation of the questionnaire instrument were discussed in the second. The present chapter describes the hypotheses, the instruments used, definition of important terms, the subjects who participated in this research and the procedures for statistical treatment of the data.

Hypotheses

- 1) Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals on the PBI Scales.
- 2) Perception of runaways about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals on the PBI Scales.
- 3) Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of delinquents on the PBI Scales.
- 4) Perception of runaways about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of delinquents on the PBI Scales.
- 5) Perception of runaway males about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal males on the PBI Scales.
- 6) Perception of runaway males about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal males on the PBI Scales.

- 7) Perception of runaway girls about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal girls on the PBI Scales.
- 8) Perception of runaway girls about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normal girls on the PBI Scales.
- 9) Perception of runaway boys about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of runaway girls on the PBI Scales.
- 10) Perception of runaway boys about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of runaway girls on the PBI Scales.
- 11) Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of their mother's behavior on the PBI Scales.
- 12) Perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals coming from broken and reconstituted homes.
- 13) Perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals coming from broken and reconstituted homes.
- 14) Runaways' perception on locus of control is significantly different from normals' perception.
- 15) Runaways' perception on locus of control is significantly different from delinquents' perception.

- 16) Boy runaways' perception on locus of control is significantly different from the perception of girl runaways.

The Instruments

Demographic: The demographic questionnaire elicited information about the subject's age, sex, level of education, race and the size of the family. It further obtained information about parents' age, their level of education, occupation and marital status. Though some of the variables like sex of the subjects, sex of the parents, marital status and race were utilized in the present study, yet most of the information obtained in demographic data was not used because of the desire on the part of the author and his directors to keep the scope of this study within certain limits. The details of the demographic data are given in Table 3.

Parent Behavior Inventory (PBI): The Parent Behavior Inventory is the child's report on parent behavior, developed by Schaefer and his colleagues (1965b). The shorter version of the PBI used in this study has eighteen scales of five items each. The items are descriptions of concrete, specific, easily observable parent behaviors. Identical items, differing only in gender, appear on the forms for father and mother, and the forms are scored separately. The subject indicates whether the item is Like, Some What Like, or Not Like his father's and mother's behavior. The scores are obtained on eighteen separate scales for each parent, but again the scales are identical in nature, consisting of the following dimensions: acceptance, childcenteredness, possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, positive involvement, intrusiveness, control through

Table 3

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Region		Runaways		Delinquents		Normals	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Cook County Chicago, Illinois	Male	18	45	18	47.39	18	45
	Female	22	55	20	52.61	22	55
Burlington County, N.J.	Male	18	47.4	18	47.4	18	47.4
	Female	20	52.6	20	52.6	20	52.6
New Orleans, Louisiana	Male	18	51.4	18	53	18	50
	Female	17	48.6	16	47	18	50
County of Los Angeles, CA	Male	20	50	20	47.4	20	50
	Female	21	50	18	52.6	20	50
Total by Sex							
	Male	74	48	75	50.7	75	48.7
	Female	80	52	73	49.3	79	51.3
Race							
	White	106	68.8	106	71.6	110	71.4
	Black	33	21.5	27	18.2	27	17.5
	Hispanic	15	9.7	14	9.5	17	11.1
	Others			1	0.7		
Living with							
	Natural Parents	48	31.2	61	41.5	85	55.2
	Father Alone	3	1.9	7	4.8	2	1.3
	Mother Alone	56	36.4	47	32	29	18.8
	Father and Stepmother	13	8.4	7	4.8	11	7.2
	Mother and Stepfather	25	16.2	19	12.9	22	14.3
	Foster Parents or Guardians	9	5.8	7	4.1	3	1.9
	Missing					2	1.3

		<u>Runaways</u>		<u>Delinquents</u>		<u>Normals</u>	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Father's Occupation	Professional and Managerial	21	16.3	23	17.7	25	18
	White Collar	47	36.5	45	34.6	56	40.3
	Blue Collar	54	41.8	57	43.8	56	40.3
	Unemployed	8	5.4	5	3.8	2	1.4
Mother's Occupation	Professional and Managerial	12	8.3	32	22.9	13	9.0
	White Collar	48	33.1	24	17.1	42	29.0
	Blue Collar	28	19.3	26	18.6	26	17.9
	Principal Home Maker	57	39.3	58	41.4	64	44.1
By Age	14	40	26	34	23	40	25.8
	15	40	26	46	31	39	25
	16	42	27.5	42	28	44	28
	17	32	20.5	26	18	32	21.2
Average Age		15.4		15.4		15.4	
Average Mode by Age		16		15		16	
Median Age		15.4		15.4		15.5	
Father's Education Expressed in Years		11.6		12.2		12.2	
Mother's Education Expressed in Years		11.7		11.6		12.0	

guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, nonenforcement, acceptance of individuation, lax discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment, withdrawal of relationship and extreme autonomy. A value of three was assigned to "like", a value of two was assigned to "some what like", and a value of one was assigned to "not like". Since there are five items in each scale the scores for each scale can range from five to fifteen for each respondent. For further information on scoring see appendix B.

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale: This scale is constructed on the basis of Rotter's definition of the internal-external control of reinforcement. The generalized expectancy of internal control refers to the perception of events whether positive or negative as being a consequence of one's own actions and these are potentially under personal control. The generalized expectancy of external control, on the other hand, refers to the perception of positive or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behavior and thereby beyond personal control. The fatalists perceive no contingency between action and outcome, while those espousing internal control beliefs readily perceive such contingencies.

The Nowicki-Strickland Scale is a paper-and-pencil measure consisting of forty questions that are answered either "yes" or "no". The items describe reinforcement situations across interpersonal and motivational areas such as affiliation, achievement, and dependency. Each subject's internal-external scale is derived by totalling the number of external statements he or she makes. So, only the questions that are answered in the direction of externality are scored and each such external statement

is assigned a value of one. Thus the scores can range from zero to forty. The higher the score the higher is the externality of the respondent.

The complete battery of questionnaires is given in appendix A.

Definition of Terms

Runaway: Runaway is an adolescent, male or female, under eighteen years of age who leaves home without parental or guardian's permission and has been absent at least overnight and/or leaves home with the specific intent of running away.

Delinquent: Delinquent is a juvenile who has been apprehended by the police and has been adjudicated delinquent by an appropriate tribunal.

Normal: Normal, male or female adolescent, who is still in school, and who neither had any history of running away nor any records of juvenile offenses.

Locus of Control: Locus of control is a generalized attitude, belief or expectancy regarding the nature of causal relationship between one's own behavior and the consequences of such a behavior.

Internal Locus of Control: Persons who perceive themselves as the determiners of their life and destiny and readily accept responsibility for their life and behavior are said to have internal locus of control. Such persons believe that man is master of his life and therefore with such a belief are called internals. They reject the notion that success follows from luck, the right breaks or knowing the right people. On the contrary, they believe that hard work, effort, skill and ability are the important determinants of success in life.

External Locus of Control: Persons who believe that man is not master of his destiny, and therefore is not responsible for his life and behavior, are said to have external locus of control. Such persons are called externals. They believe reinforcements, positive or negative, (rewards or punishments), occur only by chance or by events and persons who control their life and its destiny. Externals closely resemble the man Skinner (1971) wishes to create for an orderly world: man must relinquish his belief in freedom and self-determination and come to accept the fact that he is controlled by forces outside of himself.

Subjects

Runaways - Group I: Male and female runaways were selected for this project from four different regions of the United States of America. The regions were as follows: Cook County, Chicago, Illinois; Burlington County, New Jersey; the County of New Orleans, Louisiana; and the County of Los Angeles, California. The only justification for choosing four different regions of the country instead of selecting one particular region was the unavailability of a large sample desired for this research. In each region the runaways who participated in this research came from a variety of sources - detention homes, public and private social service agencies, foster homes, orphanages and from families of their origin.

Runaways who were delinquents and who had either psychological or drug related problem, were excluded from participating in the present study. This was determined by the respective directors and counselors of each agency or institution from the records they have of the runaways. All who participated in this program did so on the basis of their own free

choice without any coercion from anyone.

The runaways were composed of seventy four males and eighty females. 68.8 percent of the runaways were whites, 21.5 percent were blacks and 9.7 percent were Hispanics. Majority of the runaways, 68.8 percent, came either from broken and reconstituted homes. The average age was 15.4, the median age was also 15.4 and the mode was 16. 16.3 percent of the fathers and 8.3 percent of the mothers held either professional or managerial jobs; 36.5 percent of the fathers and 33.1 percent of the mothers were white collar workers; 41.8 percent of the fathers and 19.3 percent of the mothers were blue collar workers; and 5.4 percent of the fathers were unemployed. 39.3 percent of the mothers were principal "home makers". For further information on demographic data, see Table 3.

The runaways who constituted the experimental group were compared separately with two distinct control groups, namely, delinquents and normals. The delinquents constituted Group II while the normals formed Group III.

Delinquents - Group II: The delinquents who constituted one third of the participants of this research are those who have appeared before the court once but not more than two times for minor juvenile offenses other than running away. This was determined by the probation officers of the juvenile courts. The probation officers or the counselors in the juvenile detention centers administered either singly or in groups of three to eight the same battery of questionnaires that were administered earlier to the runaways.

Normals - Group III: Males and females who are still in school and

who neither had any history of running away nor any records of juvenile offenses were selected as another control group. The same battery of questionnaires, viz. the father form and the mother form of Parent Behavior Inventory (PBI), the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale, and the demographic scales was administered either singly or in groups of three to seven.

After administration of the questionnaires to the runaways and after evaluation of their demographic data, the two control groups, delinquents and normals, were selected so as to match with the runaways for age, sex, socioeconomic and racial variables in each region. A complete description of the composition of runaways, delinquents and normals with all the information on the demographic variables was presented in Table 3.

Treatment of the Data

An analysis of variance with group, sex and parent (treated as a repeated measure) with the 18 PBI Scales as the dependent variable will be conducted. A three way analysis of variance with group, sex and region and race as the independent variables and locus of control as the dependent variable will be conducted. T tests will be conducted to determine the statistical significance at 0.05 and 0.01 level between the various comparison groups proposed in the hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The previous chapter described the hypotheses to be tested, the instruments used, the subjects who took part in the research and the outlines of statistical treatment of the data.

The present chapter presents the results of the questionnaire survey, analysis of variance of the Parent Behavior Inventory Scales and the Nowicki-Strickland Scales, and the statistical treatment of the comparative data.

Demographic Data

The runaway sample, composed of 74 boys and 89 girls, was selected as was reported in the previous chapter from Chicago, Illinois; Burlington County, New Jersey; New Orleans, Louisiana; and the County of Los Angeles, California. After the completion of questionnaires by the runaways, and after the tabulation of the demographic data of the runaways, the delinquents and normals were chosen so as to match with the runaways in each region for number, sex, race and age and for socioeconomic status of the parents. The only variable between the three samples that was beyond the control of this research, was the type of family the three samples came from. Only 31.2 percent of the runaway sample lived with their natural parents, whereas, the percentage for delinquents was 41.5 and for normals it was 52.2. The average age of the runaways was 15.4 and the mode was 16. 42 percent of the runaways were males and 52 percent were females.

16.3 percent of the fathers and 8.3 percent of the mothers held either professional or managerial jobs; 36.5 percent of the fathers and 33.1 percent of the mothers were white collar workers; 41.8 percent of the fathers and 19.3 percent of the mothers were blue collar workers; and 5.4 percent of the fathers were unemployed. 39.3 percent of the mothers were principal "home makers".

A complete breakdown of the three samples according to region, sex, race and age of the subjects and the type of family and town they came from together with their parents' socioeconomic status and the level of education was given in Table 3.

Statistical Treatment

An analysis of variance with group, sex and parent (treated as a repeated measures) with each of the 18 PBI Scales as dependent variables was conducted. Tables 4 to 21 report the results of the analysis on the 18 scales.

The eighteen tables on the analysis of variance for the children's perception of parent behavior show that there are significant differences at the 0.05 and 0.01 levels between the runaways, delinquents and normals on 15 of the 18 Scales of Parent Behavior Inventory with 2/450 degrees of freedom.

The F values for the 15 Scales that had statistical significance between the three samples are:

F (acceptance)	35.35
F (childcenteredness)	36.12
F (possessiveness)	5.60
F (rejection)	43.02
F (control)	9.95
F (enforcement)	22.92

Table 4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR ACCEPTANCE

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	94891.07869	1	94891.07869	8836.75	0.0000
A (Groups)	759.29696	2	379.64848	35.35	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	94.49657	1	94.49657	8.80	0.0032*
AB	148.44822	2	74.22411	6.91	0.0011**
Error	4832.20357	450	10.73823		
C(Parents)	257.75367	1	257.75367	42.67	0.0000**
AC	0.72752	2	0.36376	0.05	0.9416
BC	29.56625	1	29.56625	4.89	0.0274*
ABC	24.19868	2	12.09934	2.00	0.1361
Error	2718.31796	450	6.04071		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 5

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR CHILDCENTEREDNESS

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	87944.41947	1	87944.41947	10217.38	0.0000
A (Groups)	621.78034	2	310.89017	36.12	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	76.04887	1	76.04887	8.84	0.0031**
AB	95.89306	2	47.94653	5.57	0.0041*
Error	3873.30205	450	8.60734		
C (Parents)	354.80514	1	354.80514	69.76	0.0000
AC	6.97219	2	3.48609	0.69	0.5044
BC	15.79084	1	15.79084	3.10	0.0787
ABC	30.26232	2	15.13116	2.97	0.0521
Error	2288.78418	450	5.08619		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR POSSESSIVENESS

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	89873.98859	1	89873.98859	13304.30	0.0000
A (Groups)	75.65663	2	37.82831	5.60	0.0040**
B (Sex of Subjects)	32.15619	1	32.15619	4.76	0.0296*
AB	6.12729	2	3.06365	0.45	0.6357
Error	3039.86514	450	6.75526		
C (Parents)	134.79548	1	134.79548	36.14	0.0000**
AC	4.73271	2	2.36636	0.63	0.5307
BC	9.16279	1	9.16279	2.46	0.1177
ABC	1.71134	2	0.85567	0.23	0.7951
Error	1678.34705	450	3.72966		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 7

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR REJECTION

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	76986.74531	1	76986.74531	8370.42	0.0000
A (Groups)	791.33377	2	395.66688	43.02	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	13.60378	1	13.60378	1.48	0.2246
AB	28.24189	2	14.12094	1.54	0.2165
Error	4138.86334	450	9.19747		
C (Parents)	217.07988	1	217.07988	41.82	0.0000**
AC	7.06999	2	3.53499	0.68	0.5066
BC	65.71430	1	65.71430	12.66	0.0004**
ABC	0.16067	2	0.08033	0.02	0.9846
Error	2335.90790	450	5.19091		

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR CONTROL

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	99643.29744	1	99643.29744	13521.11	0.0000
A (Group)	146.71347	2	73.35674	9.95	0.0001**
B (Sex of Subjects)	16.53983	1	16.53983	2.24	0.1348
AB	1.01988	2	0.50994	0.07	0.9332
Error	3316.25823	450	7.36946		
C (Parents)	0.69968	1	0.69968	0.21	0.6436
AC	4.12896	2	2.06448	0.63	0.5318
BC	0.48149	1	0.48149	0.15	0.7012
ABC	4.20536	2	2.10268	0.64	0.5257
Error	1469.30429	450	3.26512		

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 9

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR ENFORCEMENT

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	81667.29813	1	81667.29813	10512.45	0.0000
A (Group)	356.16972	2	178.08486	22.92	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	5.03897	1	5.03897	0.65	0.4210
AB	6.27096	2	3.13548	0.40	0.6681
Error	3495.88257	450	7.76863		
C (Parents)	111.28035	1	111.28035	28.79	0.0000**
AC	24.96311	2	12.48156	3.23	0.0405*
BC	0.78088	1	0.78088	00.20	0.6533
ABC	1.41874	2	0.70937	0.18	0.8324
Error	1739.34227	450	3.86521		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR POSITIVE INVOLVEMENT

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	95249.76762	1	95249.76762	8878.83	0.0000
A (Groups)	395.43073	2	197.71537	18.43	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	75.57016	1	75.57016	7.04	0.0082**
AB	69.89290	2	34.94645	3.26	0.0394
Error	4827.48132	450	10.72774		
C (Parents)	342.86621	1	342.86621	67.98	0.0000**
AC	15.58672	2	7.79336	1.55	0.2144
BC	11.71559	1	11.71559	2.32	0.1282
ABC	2.30866	2	1.15433	0.23	0.7955
Error	2269.66873	450	5.04371		

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 11

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR INTRUSIVENESS

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	99350.27366	1	99350.27366	11031.03	0.0000
A (Groups)	7.37044	2	3.68522	0.41	0.6644
B (Sex of Subjects)	5.18045	1	5.18045	0.58	0.4486
AB	10.63917	2	9.00644	0.59	0.5544
Error	4052.89581	450	9.00644		
C (Parents)	195.78463	1	195.78463	43.17	0.0000*
AC	17.38003	2	8.69001	1.92	0.1464
BC	4.77498	1	4.77498	1.05	0.3054
ABC	2.25986	2	1.12993	0.25	0.7796
Error	2040.96512	450	4.53548		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level

Table 12

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR CONTROL THROUGH GUILT

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	78945.83576	1	78945.83576	6993.36	0.0000
A (Groups)	1189.79356	2	594.89678	52.70	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	1.90595	1	1.90595	0.17	0.6813
AB	4.36720	2	2.18360	0.19	0.8242
Error	5079.90861	450	11.28869		
C (Parents)	163.96619	1	163.96619	32.83	0.0000**
AC	17.65257	2	8.82628	1.77	0.1720
BC	9.57025	1	9.57025	1.92	0.1670
ABC	1.71721	2	0.85860	0.17	0.8421
Error	2247.79580	450	4.99510		

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 13

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR HOSTILE CONTROL

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	85296.77029	1	85296.77029	8880.81	0.0000
A (Groups)	1014.16504	2	507.08252	52.80	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	0.65218	1	0.65218	0.07	0.7945
AB	30.52322	2	15.26161	1.59	0.2053
Error	4322.07412	450	9.60461		
C (Parents)	23.39533	1	23.39533	4.60	0.0324*
AC	15.04760	2	7.52380	1.48	0.2285
BC	20.28196	1	20.28196	3.99	0.0463*
ABC	2.81276	2	1.40638	0.28	0.7583
Error	2286.42484	450	5.08094		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 14

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	69864.71861	1	69864.71861	9179.90	0.0000
A (Groups)	420.52338	2	210.26169	27.63	0.0000**
B (Sex ofSubjects)	3.75522	1	3.75522	0.49	0.4828
AB	27.70854	2	13.85427	1.82	0.1632
Error	3424.77676	450	7.61062		
C (Parents)	1.00056	1	1.00056	0.35	0.5535
AC	3.07146	2	1.53573	0.54	0.5833
BC	50.57252	1	50.57252	17.77	0.0000**
ABC	8.98828	2	4.49414	1.58	0.2073
Error	1280.64236	450	2.84587		

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 15

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR NONENFORCEMENT

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	57171.30977	1	57171.30977	8529.69	0.0000
A (Groups)	40.78132	2	20.39066	3.04	0.0487
B (Sex of Subjects)	1.71347	1	1.71347	0.26	0.6134
AB	5.90173	2	2.95087	0.44	0.6441
Error	3016.18154	450	6.70263		
C (Parents)	0.00631	1	0.00631	0.00	0.9620
AC	5.48489	2	2.74244	0.99	0.3725
BC	4.70998	1	4.70998	1.70	0.1930
ABC	1.54480	2	0.77240	0.28	0.7568
Error	1246.81492	450	2.77070		

Table 16

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR ACCEPTANCE OF INDIVIDUATION

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	87660.66626	1	87660.66626	9658.27	0.0000
A (Groups)	393.60158	2	196.80079	21.68	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	38.46977	1	38.46977	4.24	0.0401*
AB	62.03907	2	31.01953	3.42	0.0336
Error	4084.30265	450	9.07623		
C (Parents)	131.98201	1	131.98201	27.11	0.0000**
AC	15.26046	2	7.63023	1.57	0.2098
BC	2.09811	1	2.09811	0.43	0.5119
ABC	3.47243	2	1.73622	0.36	0.7003
Error	2191.10735	450	4.86913		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 17

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR LAX DISCIPLINE

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	57122.55084	1	57122.55084	9679.50	0.0000
A (Groups)	2.38756	2	1.19378	0.20	0.8169
B (Sex of Subjects)	14.29966	1	14.29966	2.42	0.1203
AB	17.33762	2	8.66881	1.47	0.2313
Error	2655.62713	450	5.90139		
C (Parents)	3.61389	1	3.61389	1.35	0.2468
AC	9.36087	2	4.68044	1.74	0.1763
BC	0.16342	1	0.16342	0.06	0.8053
ABC	3.12674	2	1.56337	0.58	0.5593
Error	1209.05010	450	2.68678		

Table 18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR INSTILLING PERSISTENT ANXIETY

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	81133.78713	1	81133.78713	7850.51	0.0000
A (Groups)	1123.57544	2	561.78772	54.36	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	6.44907	1	6.44907	0.62	0.4300
AB	46.93137	2	23.46569	2.27	0.1044
Error	4650.67951	450	10.33484		
C (Parents)	24.46247	1	24.46247	5.83	0.0161*
AC	4.91784	2	2.45892	0.59	0.5567
BC	18.29046	1	18.29046	4.36	0.0378
ABC	6.50691	2	3.25345	0.78	0.4609
Error	1886.89056	450	4.19309		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 19

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR HOSTILE DETACHMENT

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	72643.98338	1	72643.98338	7384.70	0.0000
A (Groups)	1322.01603	2	661.00801	67.20	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	33.52086	1	33.52086	3.41	0.0656
AB	47.82424	2	23.91212	2.43	0.0891
Error	4426.69277	450	9.83710		
C (Parents)	185.05387	1	185.05387	35.01	0.0000**
AC	0.81700	2	0.40850	0.08	0.9256
BC	64.70130	1	64.70130	12.24	0.0005**
ABC	7.98622	2	3.99311	0.76	0.4704
Error	2378.40716	450	5.28535		

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 20

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR WITHDRAWAL OF RELATIONSHIP

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	71063.97370	1	71063.973770	7224.30	0.0000
A (Groups)	885.27386	2	442.63693	45.00	0.0000**
B (Sex of Subjects)	10.85099	1	10.85099	1.10	0.2941
AB	88.85272	2	44.42636	4.52	0.0114
Error	4426.55622	450	9.83679		
C (Parents)	18.79432	1	18.79432	3.64	0.0572
AC	32.06569	2	16.03285	3.10	0.0459*
BC	41.64049	1	41.64049	8.06	0.0047**
ABC	13.32236	2	6.66118	1.29	0.2766
Error	2325.72925	450	5.16829		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 21

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON PBI SCALE FOR EXTREME AUTONOMY

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P VALUE
Mean	63063.19014	1	63063.19014	7033.44	0.0000
A (Groups)	2.39870	2	1.19935	0.13	0.8748
B (Sex of Subjects)	150.96251	1	150.96251	16.84	0.0000
AB	25.65824	2	12.82912	1.43	0.2402
Error	4034.78733	450	8.96619		
C (Parents)	62.83347	1	62.83347	16.56	0.0001
AC	2.11068	2	1.05534	0.28	0.7573
BC	0.50328	1	0.50328	0.13	0.7159
ABC	19.85323	2	9.92662	2.62	0.0742
Error	1707.49714	450	3.79444		

F (positive involvement)	18.43
F (control through guilt)	52.70
F (hostile control)	52.80
F (inconsistent discipline)	27.63
F (nonenforcement)	3.04
F (acceptance of individuation)	21.68
F (instilling persistent anxiety)	54.36
F (hostile detachment)	67.20
F (withdrawal of relationship)	45.00

The three scales that show no significant difference between the groups are intrusiveness ($F=0.41$), lax discipline ($F=0.20$) and extreme autonomy ($F=0.13$).

The analysis also reports statistical significance by sex on the perception of the parental behavior on the following 6 of the 18 PBI Scales: acceptance ($F=8.80$); childcenteredness ($F=8.84$); possessiveness ($F=4.76$); positive involvement ($F=7.04$); acceptance of individuation ($F=4.24$) and extreme autonomy ($F=16.84$).

The following 5 scales have also statistical significance between groups and sex: acceptance ($F=6.91$); childcenteredness ($F=5.57$); positive involvement ($F=3.26$); acceptance of individuation ($F=3.42$); and withdrawal of relationship ($F=4.52$). Male and female adolescents in each group had significantly different perception of their parental behavior on 5 of the 18 scales.

Further the analysis of variance between father and mother as perceived by the children on the 18 PBI Scales reveals significant statistical differences at 0.01 level on 12 scales and at 0.05 level on 2 of them with 2/450 degrees of freedom. The F values of analysis of variance on the 14 Scales that show statistical significance are;

F (acceptance)	42.67
F (childcenteredness)	69.76
F (possessiveness)	36.14

F (rejection)	41.82
F (enforcement)	28.79
F (positive involvement)	67.98
F (intrusiveness)	43.17
F (control through guilt)	32.83
F (hostile control)	4.60
F (acceptance of individuation)	27.11
F (instilling persistent anxiety)	5.83
F (hostile detachment)	35.01
F (withdrawal of relationship)	3.64
F (extreme autonomy)	16.56

The four scales on which the father and mother are not viewed significantly different are control ($F=0.21$), inconsistent discipline ($F=0.35$), nonenforcement ($F=0.00$) and lax discipline ($F=1.35$).

Analysis of variance (see Tables 4 through 21) between sex of the parent and the sex of the subjects indicated that there were significant differences in the interaction between the sex of the parents and the sex of the subjects on 8 of the 18 scales. They are as follows:

F (acceptance)	4.89
F (childcenteredness)	3.10
F (rejection)	12.66
F (hostile control)	3.99
F (inconsistent discipline)	17.77
F (instilling persistent anxiety)	4.36
F (hostile detachment)	12.24
F (withdrawal of relationship)	8.05

Summary of the Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance between groups; between the sex of the subjects; and the interaction between groups and sex; and further analysis of variance between the sex of the parents; the interaction between the groups and the sex of the parents; the interaction between the sex of the subjects and the sex of the parents and finally the interaction between the groups, the sex of the subjects and the sex of the parents on each of the 18 Parent Behavior Inventory Scales were based on the entire three

samples taken together.

The results of the analyses, as reported earlier, indicated statistically significant differences in the majority of scales between the groups and between the sex of the parents. There were also significant statistical differences on half of the 18 scales in the analysis of variance by sex of the subjects; in the interaction between the sex of the subjects and the sex of their parents.

Since the results of the analysis of variance are based on the entire samples taken together, neither the statistical significance on the direction of the differences between the runaways and normal and between the runaways and delinquents is known. To find out the significance and the direction of the differences between the runaways and normals, and runaways and delinquents for fathers and mothers on the 18 PBI Scales and between other subgroups proposed in the hypotheses, t tests were used.

Testing of Hypotheses

Testing of hypotheses by t tests comparing means and standard deviations of different groups stated in the hypotheses will be taken one by one and the results will be analyzed after each test.

Hypothesis 1:

Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals on the 18 PBI Scales.

The statistical significance and the direction of the differences between the means and standard deviations of runaways and normal adolescents on the 18 Scales of father behavior are reported in Table 22. Of the 18 scales, 13 have statistically significant differences beyond the .01 level and 2 have significant differences beyond the 0.05 level. The runaways

Table 22

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS
TO NORMAL ADOLESCENTS ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Normal N = 155 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	9.1322	2.988		5.59**
	Normal	10.9520	2.726		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	8.5610	2.709		6.11**
	Normal	10.3832	2.534		
Possessiveness	Runaway	9.7464	2.393	2.47*	
	Normal	9.1068	2.159		
Rejection	Runaway	10.3837	2.744	7.16**	
	Normal	8.2519	2.481		
Control	Runaway	10.8649	2.167	3.63**	
	Normal	9.9439	2.291		
Enforcement	Runaway	10.5352	2.651	6.44**	
	Normal	8.7674	2.149		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	9.1022	2.651		4.93**
	Normal	10.6615	2.696		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.1848	2.582	1.63	
	Normal	9.7012	2.641		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	9.6243	2.903	7.12**	
	Normal	7.4001	2.583		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Normal N = 155 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.7370	2.887	8.56**	
	Normal	8.1750	2.341		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.3460	2.420	6.20**	
	Normal	7.7601	2.065		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.1961	2.422	2.22*	
	Normal	7.6368	1.987		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	9.0940	2.881		4.38
	Normal	10.4730	2.653		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	7.8029	2.279		0.45
	Normal	7.9116	1.948		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.1553	2.722	8.24**	
	Normal	7.7093	2.493		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	10.2225	3.033	8.05**	
	Normal	7.7538	2.310		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.6553	2.854	7.54**	
	Normal	7.3375	2.544		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.5970	2.690		0.19
	Normal	8.6534	2.507		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

describe their father as being significantly higher than the normals on possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, nonenforcement, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. The normal youth describe their fathers as being more accepting, childcentered, positively involved, and accepting of individuation than the runaway's perception of their fathers. The only three scales on which the two groups do not differ significantly are intrusiveness, lax discipline and extreme autonomy.

Hypothesis 2:

Perception of runaways about their mothers; behavior is different from the perception of normals on the 18 PBI Scales.

T Test comparing the means and standard deviations of runaways to normal adolescents on the 18 scales of the mother behavior together with the statistical significance and the direction of the differences are reported in Table 23. The runaways scored significantly higher than the normal youth at 0,01 level on possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. The normal youth scored significantly higher than the runaways on acceptance, childcenteredness, positive involvement and acceptance of individuation.

On intrusiveness, nonenforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy there were no significant differences.

Hypothesis 3:

Perception of runaways about their father's behavior is significantly

Table 23

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS
TO NORMAL ADOLESCENTS ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Normal N = 155 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	10.1652	3.114		5.43**
	Normal	11.9627	2.693		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	10.0305	2.733		5.18**
	Normal	11.5342	2.355		
Possessiveness	Runaway	10.6358	2.344	2.69**	
	Normal	9.9458	2.165		
Rejection	Runaway	9.2870	2.888	5.72**	
	Normal	7.5406	2.464		
Control	Runaway	10.9388	2.325	3.81**	
	Normal	9.9235	2.358		
Enforcement	Runaway	9.6147	2.610	4.24**	
	Normal	8.4925	2.008		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	10.6616	2.881		3.02**
	Normal	11.5854	2.500		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.9701	2.689		0.05
	Normal	10.9858	2.358		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	10.8721	2.875	8.80**	
	Normal	8.0640	2.731		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Normal N = 155 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.3084	2.807	6.86**	
	Normal	8.2032	2.588		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.2410	2.285	5.28**	
	Normal	7.8734	2.266		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.0429	2.256	1.82	
	Normal	7.6077	1.924		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	10.0451	2.681		2.93**
	Normal	10.8888	2.367		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	8.0777	2.195	1.26	
	Normal	7.7868	1.855		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.6074	2.737	8.28**	
	Normal	8.0912	2.603		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	9.3244	3.137	8.16**	
	Normal	6.7933	2.243		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.3249	2.726	5.88**	
	Normal	7.5334	2.268		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.0997	2.462	0.24	
	Normal	8.0334	2.480		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

different from the perception of the delinquents on the 18 PBI Scales. Table 24 reports the results of the t test comparing means and standard deviations of runaways to delinquents on father behavior on the 18 Scales. The results of the t tests do not indicate significant differences.

Hypothesis 4:

Perception of the runaways about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of the delinquents on the 18 PBI Scales.

The result of t test comparing means and standard deviations of runaways to delinquents on analysis of Table 25 indicates that there is no significant difference between runaways and delinquents in their perception of their mother's behavior on any one of the 18 Scales.

Since the same trend was found among the subgroups of these two samples no further tests were conducted between them.

Hypothesis 5:

Perception of male runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different between runaways and delinquents on any one of the 18 Scales of father behavior from the perception of normal males on the 18 PBI Scales.

T test comparing means and standard deviations of male runaways to normal males on the 18 PBI Scales of father behavior is reported in Table 26. Runaway boys scored significantly higher than the normal boys on rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship whereas the normal boys perceived their fathers to be more accepting, childcentered, positively involved and accepting of

Table 24

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS
TO DELINQUENTS ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Delinquent N = 148 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	9.1322	2.988	0.66	
	Delinquent	8.9081	2.865		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	8.5610	2.709		0.23
	Delinquent	8.6338	2.742		
Possessiveness	Runaway	9.7464	2.393		0.20
	Delinquent	9.8014	2.332		
Rejection	Runaway	10.3837	2.744		0.10
	Delinquent	10.4151	2.805		
Control	Runaway	10.8649	2.167	0.79	
	Delinquent	10.6669	2.178		
Enforcement	Runaway	10.5352	2.651	1.19	
	Delinquent	10.1853	2.451		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	9.1022	2.867	0.13	
	Delinquent	9.0572	3.001		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.1848	2.582	0.43	
	Delinquent	10.0569	2.643		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	9.6243	2.903		0.17
	Delinquent	9.6804	2.876		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Delinquent N = 148 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.7370	2.887	0.46	
	Delinquent	10.5876	2.745		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.3460	2.420	0.31	
	Delinquent	9.2595	2.365		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.1961	2.422	1.12	
	Delinquent	7.9047	2.087		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	9.0940	2.881	1.28	
	Delinquent	8.6885	2.362		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	7.8029	2.279		0.13
	Delinquent	7.8355	2.174		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.1553	2.722	0.54	
	Delinquent	9.9890	2.618		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	10.2225	3.033	0.07	
	Delinquent	10.1986	2.871		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.6553	2.854		0.82
	Delinquent	9.9308	2.952		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.5970	2.690	0.44	
	Delinquent	8.4608	2.639		

Table 25

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS
TO DELINQUENTS ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Delinquent N = 148 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	10.1652	3.114	0.29	
	Delinquent	10.0573	3.284		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	10.0805	2.733	0.87	
	Delinquent	9.7493	2.873		
Possessiveness	Runaway	10.6358	2.344	0.99	
	Delinquent	10.3692	2.353		
Rejection	Runaway	9.2870	2.888		0.12
	Delinquent	9.3250	2.777		
Control	Runaway	10.9388	2.325	1.86	
	Delinquent	10.4247	2.482		
Enforcement	Runaway	9.6147	2.610	1.27	
	Delinquent	9.2395	2.538		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	10.6616	2.881	1.24	
	Delinquent	10.2400	3.020		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.9701	2.689	0.77	
	Delinquent	10.7331	2.688		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	10.8721	2.875	1.72	
	Delinquent	10.2752	3.149		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 154 T Value	Delinquent N = 148 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.3084	2.807	0.85	
	Delinquent	10.0304	2.858		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.2410	2.285	0.59	
	Delinquent	9.0824	2.411		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.0429	2.256		0.28
	Delinquent	8.1178	2.318		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	10.0451	2.681	1.37	
	Delinquent	9.6200	2.715		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	8.0777	2.195		0.10
	Delinquent	8.1011	1.982		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.6074	2.737	1.52	
	Delinquent	10.1010	3.049		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	9.3244	3.137		0.13
	Delinquent	9.3711	3.005		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.3249	2.726	0.38	
	Delinquent	9.2027	2.836		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.0997	2.462	0.17	
	Delinquent	8.0497	2.585		

Table 26

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MALE RUNAWAYS
TO NORMAL MALES ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 74 T Value	Normal N = 75 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	9.1514	2.649	1.40	3.97**
	Normal	10.8992	2.772		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	8.4973	2.521	4.31**	4.59**
	Normal	10.4373	2.634		
Possessiveness	Runaway	9.3622	2.206	2.10	
	Normal	8.8540	2.220		
Rejection	Runaway	10.4150	2.569	5.03**	
	Normal	8.6225	2.508		
Control	Runaway	10.6534	2.367	0.50	
	Normal	9.8389	2.359		
Enforcement	Runaway	10.5311	2.678	3.08**	
	Normal	8.6208	1.902		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	9.2711	2.611	5.27**	
	Normal	10.5779	2.573		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	9.8341	2.404		
	Normal	9.6248	2.670		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	9.6293	2.630		
	Normal	7.3897	2.562		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 74 T Value	Normal N = 75 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.9278	2.689	5.94**	
	Normal	8.4608	2.373		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.7046	2.349	4.20**	
	Normal	8.1307	2.220		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.2919	2.640	1.70	
	Normal	7.6507	1.903		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	9.1876	2.678		2.82**
	Normal	10.4459	2.765		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	7.9581	2.297	0.48	
	Normal	7.7973	1.767		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.1431	2.451	5.68**	
	Normal	7.9463	2.271		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	10.3911	2.859	5.80**	
	Normal	7.9307	2.295		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.5741	2.796	3.90**	
	Normal	7.7691	2.858		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	9.3762	2.368	1.13	
	Normal	8.9016	2.479		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

their individuality than the runaway males' perception of their fathers. There were no differences between these two groups on possessiveness, intrusiveness, nonenforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy.

Hypothesis 6:

Perception of male runaways about their mother's behavior is different significantly from the perception of normal males on the 18 PBI Scales.

Table 27 indicates the statistical significance and the direction of the differences between the perceptions of the male runaways and male normals about their mother's behavior. Male runaways score significantly higher than the normal males on rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. Normal males scored higher than the male runaways only on the acceptance scale. Both samples scored equally high on mother's childcenteredness, possessiveness, positive involvement, intrusiveness and acceptance of individuation and equally low on nonenforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy.

Hypothesis 7:

Perception of female runaways about their father's behavior is different significantly from the perception of normal females on the PBI Scales.

The significance and the direction of differences between female runaways and normal females are reported in Table 28. Normal females scored significantly higher than female runaways on acceptance, childcenteredness, positive involvement and acceptance of individuation.

The female runaways were higher than the normal females on possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile de-

Table 27

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MALE RUNAWAYS
TO NORMAL MALES ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Groups	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaways N = 74 T Value	Normal N = 75 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	10.6281	2.826		2.79**
	Normal	11.8331	2.436		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	10.6324	2.394		1.89
	Normal	11.3513	2.241		
Possessiveness	Runaway	10.4141	2.304	1.07	
	Normal	10.0219	2.172		
Rejection	Runaway	8.7622	2.630	3.49**	
	Normal	7.3880	2.154		
Control	Runaway	10.8765	2.238	3.25**	
	Normal	9.6705	2.291		
Enforcement	Runaway	9.7072	2.757	3.53**	
	Normal	8.3377	1.900		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	11.0362	2.491		1.52
	Normal	11.6336	2.319		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.8514	2.733		0.72
	Normal	11.1440	2.222		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	10.5701	2.991	5.60**	
	Normal	8.0123	2.568		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 74 T Value	Normal N = 75 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.0473	2.538	4.17**	
	Normal	8.3333	2.477		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.0234	2.139	2.66*	
	Normal	8.0292	2.420		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.0789	2.201	1.79	
	Normal	7.4869	1.817		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	10.3185	2.415		1.15
	Normal	10.7651	2.328		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	8.1485	2.175	0.98	
	Normal	7.8263	1.804		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.3808	2.603	5.18**	
	Normal	8.2417	2.434		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	8.7838	2.859	5.15**	
	Normal	6.6997	2.018		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	8.9281	2.661	2.70*	
	Normal	7.7557	2.633		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.6097	2.345	1.03	
	Normal	8.2016	2.504		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 28

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAY GIRLS
TO NORMAL GIRLS ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 80 T Value	Normal N = 79 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	9.1145	3.287		4.13**
	Normal	11.0775	2.678		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	8.6200	2.886		4.23*
	Normal	10.4000	2.393		
Possessiveness	Runaway	10.1019	2.515	2.02	
	Normal	9.3608	2.093		
Rejection	Runaway	10.3547	2.913	5.87**	
	Normal	7.8653	2.410		
Control	Runaway	11.0605	1.958	3.08**	
	Normal	10.0303	2.246		
Enforcement	Runaway	10.5390	2.642	4.32**	
	Normal	8.8403	2.304		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	8.9460	3.094		3.89**
	Normal	10.7747	2.822		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.5092	2.710	1.68	
	Normal	9.7952	2.638		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	9.6196	3.151	5.12**	
	Normal	7.3138	2.490		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 80 T Value	Normal N = 79 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.5605	3.065	6.20**	
	Normal	7.8932	2.306		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.0412	2.451	4.75**	
	Normal	7.3800	1.844		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.1075	2.214	1.33	
	Normal	7.6570	2.066		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	9.0074	3.072		3.51**
	Normal	10.5680	2.500		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	7.6594	2.267		1.15
	Normal	8.0570	2.094		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.1665	2.967	6.25**	
	Normal	7.4047	2.594		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	10.0665	3.196	5.92**	
	Normal	7.4942	2.184		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.7305	2.922	6.89**	
	Normal	6.9195	2.160		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	7.8762	2.547		1.36
	Normal	8.4261	2.543		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

tachment and withdrawal of relationship. Females from both samples perceived their father high on intrusiveness and scored low on nonenforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy. This means both groups feel that their father is strict in enforcing rules and discipline and does not give extreme autonomy.

Hypothesis 8:

Perception of runaway females about their mother's behavior is different significantly from the perception of female normals on the 18 PBI Scales.

The statistical significance and the direction of differences between the perception of female normals on the 18 PBI Scales.

The statistical significance and the direction of differences between the perceptions of female runaways and normal females of their mother's behavior are reported as obtained through the T test in Table 29. The female runaways scored significantly higher than the normal females on possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. The normal females felt that their mothers were significantly more accepting, child-centered, positively involved and accepting of individuation than the mothers of the female runaways. Females from both samples felt their mothers to be highly intrusive and perceived them to be enforcing rules, strict on discipline and did not tolerate extreme autonomy.

Hypothesis 9:

Perception of male runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from the perception of female runaways on the 18 PBI Scales.

Table 29

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAY GIRLS
TO NORMAL GIRLS ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 80 T Value	Normal N = 79 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	9.7370	3.320	2.64**	4.89**
	Normal	12.1486	2.884		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	9.4737	2.919	4.65**	5.39**
	Normal	11.7652	2.415		
Possessiveness	Runaway	10.8410	2.376	2.11*	
	Normal	9.8856	2.182		
Rejection	Runaway	9.7725	3.043	2.38*	
	Normal	7.6418	2.721		
Control	Runaway	10.9965	2.416	0.45	
	Normal	10.1881	2.411		
Enforcement	Runaway	9.5291	2.479	6.76**	
	Normal	8.6582	2.112		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	10.3150	3.175	2.75**	
	Normal	11.5909	2.659		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	11.0800	2.659		
	Normal	10.8987	2.437		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	11.1514	2.752		
	Normal	8.1139	2.909		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 80 T Value	Normal N = 79 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.5500	3.030	5.38**	
	Normal	8.0949	2.712		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.4422	2.407	4.96**	
	Normal	7.6733	2.073		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.0095	2.319	0.81	
	Normal	7.7301	2.036		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	9.7922	2.898		2.96**
	Normal	11.0428	2.402		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	8.0121	2.225	0.93	
	Normal	7.7086	1.889		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.8170	2.856	6.42**	
	Normal	7.9494	2.778		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	9.8245	3.313	6.62**	
	Normal	6.8035	2.359		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.6920	2.751	5.53**	
	Normal	7.3291	2.640		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	7.6280	2.488		0.50
	Normal	7.8235	2.433		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

T test comparing the means and standard deviations of male runaways to female runaways on the 18 Scales of father behavior is reported in Table 30. The results indicate no significant differences between the perceptions of these two groups about their father's behavior except on one scale. The runaway males felt they had more autonomy from their father than the female runaways had.

Hypothesis 10:

Perception of the male runaways about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of the female runaways on the 18 PBI Scales.

The results of T test as reported in Table 31 indicate that the males scored significantly higher than the females on mother's childcenteredness and extreme autonomy. The females scored significantly higher than the males on mother's rejection and hostile detachment.

Hypothesis 11:

Perception of the runaways about their father's behavior is significantly different from their perception of their mother's behavior on the 18 PBI Scales.

Table 32 reports the T test comparing means and standard deviations of runaways' perception of their father's behavior to their perception of their mother's behavior and the results indicate that there are twelve significant differences between the way the two parents are perceived. The runaways perceived their mother being significantly more accepting, childcentered, possessive, positively involved, intrusive, controlling through guilt and accepting of their individuation than their fathers.

Table 30

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAY BOYS
TO RUNAWAY GIRLS ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway Boys N = 74 T Value	Runaway Girls N = 80 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway Boys	9.1514	2.649	0.08	
	Runaway Girls	9.1145	3.287		
Childcenteredness	Runaway Boys	8.4973	2.521		0.28
	Runaway Girls	8.6200	2.886		
Possessiveness	Runaway Boys	9.3622	2.206		1.93
	Runaway Girls	10.1019	2.515		
Rejection	Runaway Boys	10.4150	2.569	0.14	
	Runaway Girls	10.3547	2.913		
Control	Runaway Boys	10.6534	2.367		1.17
	Runaway Girls	11.0605	1.958		
Enforcement	Runaway Boys	10.5311	2.678		0.02
	Runaway Girls	10.5390	2.642		
Positive Involvement	Runaway Boys	9.2711	2.611	0.70	
	Runaway Girls	8.9460	3.094		
Intrusiveness	Runaway Boys	9.8341	2.404		1.63
	Runaway Girls	10.5092	2.710		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway Boys	9.6293	2.630	0.02	
	Runaway Girls	9.6196	3.151		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway Boys N = 74 T Value	Runaway Girls N = 80 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway Boys	10.9278	2.689	0.79	
	Runaway Girls	10.5605	3.065		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway Boys	9.7046	2.349	1.78	
	Runaway Girls	9.0142	2.451		
Nonenforcement	Runaway Boys	8.2919	2.640	0.47	
	Runaway Girls	8.1075	2.214		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway Boys	9.1876	2.678	0.39	
	Runaway Girls	9.0074	3.072		
Lax Discipline	Runaway Boys	7.9581	2.297	0.81	
	Runaway Girls	7.6594	2.267		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway Boys	10.1431	2.451		0.05
	Runaway Girls	10.1665	2.967		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway Boys	10.3911	2.859	0.66	
	Runaway Girls	10.0665	3.196		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway Boys	9.5741	2.796		0.34
	Runaway Girls	9.7305	2.922		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway Boys	9.3762	2.638	3.59**	
	Runaway Girls	7.8762	2.547		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 31

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAY BOYS
TO RUNAWAY GIRLS ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway Boys N = 74 T Value	Runaway Girls N = 80 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway Boys	10.6281	2.826	1.79	
	Runaway Girls	9.7370	3.320		
Childcenteredness	Runaway Boys	10.6324	2.394	2.68**	
	Runaway Girls	9.4737	2.919		
Possessiveness	Runaway Boys	10.4141	2.304		1.13
	Runaway Girls	10.8410	2.376		
Rejection	Runaway Boys	8.7622	2.630		2.20*
	Runaway Girls	9.7725	3.043		
Control	Runaway Boys	10.8765	2.238		0.32
	Runaway Girls	10.9965	2.416		
Enforcement	Runaway Boys	9.7072	2.757	0.42	
	Runaway Girls	9.5291	2.479		
Positive Involvement	Runaway Boys	11.0362	2.491	1.56	
	Runaway Girls	10.3150	3.175		
Intrusiveness	Runaway Boys	10.8514	2.733		0.53
	Runaway Girls	11.0800	2.659		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway Boys	10.5701	2.991		1.26
	Runaway Girls	11.1514	2.752		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway Boys N = 74 T Value	Runaway Girls N = 80 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway Boys	10.0473	2.538		
	Runaway Girls	10.5500	3.030		1.11
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway Boys	9.0234	2.139		
	Runaway Girls	9.4422	2.407		1.14
Nonenforcement	Runaway Boys	8.0789	2.201	0.19	
	Runaway Girls	8.0095	2.319		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway Boys	10.3185	2.415	1.22	
	Runaway Girls	9.7922	2.898		
Lax Discipline	Runaway Boys	8.1485	2.175	0.38	
	Runaway Girls	8.0121	2.225		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway Boys	10.3808	2.603		
	Runaway Girls	10.8170	2.856		0.99
Hostile Detachment	Runaway Boys	8.7838	2.859		
	Runaway Girls	9.8245	3.313		2.08*
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway Boys	8.9281	2.661		
	Runaway Girls	9.6920	2.751		1.75
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway Boys	8.6097	2.345	2.51*	
	Runaway Girls	7.6280	2.488		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level

** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 32

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FATHER AND MOTHER
OF RUNAWAYS ON THE 18 PBI SCALES

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Father N = 154 T Value	Mother N = 154 T Value
Acceptance	Father	9.1322	2.988	3.94**	3.28**
	Mother	10.1652	3.114		
Childcenteredness	Father	8.5610	2.709	5.14**	5.14**
	Mother	10.0305	2.733		
Possessiveness	Father	9.7464	2.393	3.89**	3.89**
	Mother	10.6358	2.344		
Rejection	Father	10.3837	2.744	3.94**	3.94**
	Mother	9.2870	2.888		
Control	Father	10.8649	2.167	0.35	0.35
	Mother	10.9388	2.325		
Enforcement	Father	10.5352	2.651	3.62**	3.62**
	Mother	9.6147	2.610		
Positive Involvement	Father	9.1022	2.867	5.69**	5.69**
	Mother	10.6616	2.881		
Intrusiveness	Father	10.1848	2.582	3.22**	3.22**
	Mother	10.9701	2.689		
Control Through Guilt	Father	9.6243	2.903	4.67**	4.67**
	Mother	10.8721	2.875		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Father N = 154 T Value	Mother N = 154 T Value
Hostile Control	Father	10.7370	2.887	1.53	
	Mother	10.3084	2.807		
Inconsistent Discipline	Father	9.3460	2.420	0.51	
	Mother	9.2410	2.285		
Nonenforcement	Father	8.1961	2.422	0.70	
	Mother	8.0429	2.256		
Acceptance of Individuation	Father	9.0940	2.881		3.28**
	Mother	10.0451	2.681		
Lax Discipline	Father	7.8029	2.279		1.38
	Mother	8.0777	0.177		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Father	10.1553	2.722		1.85
	Mother	10.6074	2.737		
Hostile Detachment	Father	10.2225	3.033	2.95**	
	Mother	9.3244	3.137		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Father	9.6553	2.854	1.28	
	Mother	9.3249	2.726		
Extreme Autonomy	Father	8.5970	2.690	2.22*	
	Mother	8.0997	2.462		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Hypothesis 12:

Perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes is significantly different from the perception of normals coming from the same type of homes about their father's behavior on the 18 PBI Scales.

T test comparing the perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes to the perception of normals coming from broken and reconstituted homes is reported in Table 33.

Runaways score significantly higher on rejection, enforcement, positive involvement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, acceptance of individuation, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. The normals consider their father to be more accepting, more childcentered, positively involved and accepting of individuation than the runaways.

Though there is no statistical significance, the runaways feel that their fathers are more possessive and intrusive than the fathers of the normal youth. Both samples are equally high on control of the father and they equally consider their father to be enforcing and strict on discipline and to be granting less autonomy, though the normal youth seem to feel that they have more autonomy.

Hypothesis 13:

Perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes about their mother's behavior is significantly different from the perception of the normal youth coming from the same type of homes on the PBI Scales.

T test as reported in Table 34 indicates that the runaways score significantly higher than the normal youth on possessiveness, rejection, control,

Table 33

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS FROM BROKEN AND RECONSTITUTED HOMES TO NORMALS FROM BROKEN AND RECONSTITUTED HOMES ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaways N = 106 T Value	Normal N = 70 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	9.4468	3.002		3.50**
	Normal	10.9600	2.482		
Childcenteredness	Runaway	8.7755	2.709		3.39**
	Normal	10.1286	2.400		
Possessiveness	Runaway	9.8382	2.317	1.73	
	Normal	9.2557	1.974		
Rejection	Runaway	10.3561	2.745	3.85**	
	Normal	8.8579	2.158		
Control	Runaway	10.9265	2.120	1.75	
	Normal	10.3476	2.179		
Enforcement	Runaway	10.5734	2.552	4.37**	
	Normal	8.9731	2.077		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	9.3560	2.858		3.60**
	Normal	10.8614	2.485		
Intrusiveness	Runaway	10.2025	2.484	0.97	
	Normal	9.8526	2.101		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	9.6806	2.484	4.82**	
	Normal	7.6907	0.280		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 106 T Value	Normal N = 70 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.7123	2.887	4.73**	
	Normal	8.8329	2.022		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.5026	2.283	3.51**	
	Normal	8.3149	2.064		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.3698	2.325	0.85	
	Normal	8.0757	2.102		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	9.3737	2.788		2.68**
	Normal	10.4983	2.632		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	8.0561	2.191		0.64
	Normal	8.2636	1.995		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.1827	2.738	4.84*	
	Normal	8.2914	2.191		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	10.1026	2.957	3.85*	
	Normal	8.4923	2.298		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.7445	2.834	4.87*	
	Normal	7.7057	2.533		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.9666	2.640		1.31
	Normal	9.4866	2.473		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

Table 34

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS FROM BROKEN AND RECONSTITUTED HOMES TO NORMALS FROM BROKEN AND RECONSTITUTED HOMES ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 106 T Value	Normal N = 70 T Value
Acceptance	Runaway	10.1457	3.186		
	Normal	11.6497	2.628		3.28**
Childcenteredness	Runaway	9.9689	2.706		
	Normal	11.0907	2.445		2.80**
Possessiveness	Runaway	10.6785	2.325	2.26*	
	Normal	9.8943	2.149		
Rejection	Runaway	9.3472	2.807	3.10**	
	Normal	8.0343	2.670		
Control	Runaway	11.0338	2.315	3.21**	
	Normal	9.8736	2.386		
Enforcement	Runaway	9.7326	2.579	3.10**	
	Normal	8.5761	2.172		
Positive Involvement	Runaway	10.6732	2.932		
	Normal	11.5051	2.532		1.94
Intrusiveness	Runaway	11.0142	2.658	0.68	
	Normal	10.7543	2.196		
Control Through Guilt	Runaway	10.9822	2.902	5.60**	
	Normal	8.5560	2.671		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Runaway N = 106 T Value	Normal N = 70 T Value
Hostile Control	Runaway	10.2877	2.918	4.22**	
	Normal	8.4786	2.564		
Inconsistent Discipline	Runaway	9.1640	2.214	2.69**	
	Normal	8.2703	2.075		
Nonenforcement	Runaway	8.2234	2.323	0.64	
	Normal	8.0051	2.054		
Acceptance of Individuation	Runaway	10.1599	2.773		1.55
	Normal	10.7939	2.482		
Lax Discipline	Runaway	8.1696	2.270		0.78
	Normal	8.4281	1.931		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Runaway	10.6316	2.665	5.24**	
	Normal	8.5136	2.566		
Hostile Detachment	Runaway	9.3581	3.174	4.62**	
	Normal	7.2851	2.466		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Runaway	9.3777	2.764	3.07**	
	Normal	8.0526	2.867		
Extreme Autonomy	Runaway	8.0500	2.352		1.53
	Normal	8.6303	2.633		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. The normal youth reported their mother to be higher on acceptance and childcenteredness. Though no statistical significance in the difference the normal youth considered their mother to be more positively involved and more accepting of individuation and more granting of autonomy.

Both samples felt that their mothers were equally high on intrusiveness, enforcement and discipline.

Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale

Analysis of variance on Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale with group, sex, race as independent variables and locus of control as the dependent variable was conducted. As shown in Table 35 there was significant difference at 0.001 level only between the samples, namely, runaways, delinquents and normal youth. The F value between the three samples equals 21.10 with 2/333 degrees of freedom.

Hypothesis 14:

Runaways' perception of locus of control is significantly different from normals' perception. T test comparing means and standard deviations of runaways to normals as reported in Table 36, reveals that runaways scored higher very significantly than the normals at 0.001 level on the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale proving that runaways are more external than normal adolescents.

Hypothesis 15:

Runaways' perception of locus of control is significantly different from delinquents' perception.

Table 37 reports statistical significance in the differences between

Table 35

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Source	Degree of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	P Value
Variables	74	3131.880	42.323	1.57	0.0044
Error	333	8991.058	27.000		
Total	407	12122.939			

Source	DF	SS	MS	F Value	P Value
Runaway	2	1139.3296	569.665	21.10**	0.0001
Sex	1	70.914	70.914	2.63	0.1060
Sex X Runaway	2	152.295	76.148	2.82	0.0610
Age	4	85.663	21.416	0.79	0.5303
Runaway X Age	7	343.188	49.027	1.82	0.0828
Sex X Age	4	97.963	24.491	0.91	0.4600
Sex X Age X Run	6	143.456	23.909	0.89	0.5056
Race	3	206.305	68.768	2.55	0.0549
Race X Runaway	4	41.369	10.38	0.38	0.8207
Race X Sex	2	20.416	10.208	0.38	0.6855
Sex X Run X Race	4	38.765	9.691	0.36	0.8377
Race X Age	6	56.960	9.493	0.35	0.9088
Run X Age X Race	12	259.234	21.603	0.80	0.6504
Sex X Race X Age	6	165.675	27.613	1.02	0.4103
Sex X Run X Race X Age	11	310.345	28.213	1.04	0.4063

Table 36

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS
TO NORMALS ON NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Source	Number	Means	Standard Deviation	T Value	P
Runaways	137	16.788	5.566	6.29**	0.000
Normals	140	12.850	4.832		

Table 37

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS
TO DELINQUENTS ON NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Source	Number	Means	Standard Deviation	T Value	P
Runaways	137	16.788	5.566	1.97*	0.050
Delinquents	132	15.492	5.215		

Table 38

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MALE RUNAWAYS
TO FEMALE RUNAWAYS ON NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Source	Number	Means	Standard Deviation	T Value	P
Male Runaway	66	16.817	5.605	0.0586	0.485
Female Runaway	71	16.761	5.569		

*denotes statistical significance
at .05 level

**denotes statistical significance
at .01 level

runaways and delinquents at 0.05 level on the locus of control scale. The results indicate that the runaways are more external than delinquents. This is the only statistically significant difference between the runaways and delinquents in the present research.

Hypothesis 16:

Male runaways' perception of locus of control is significantly different from the perception of female runaways.

The T test, reported in Table 38, comparing the means and standard deviations of male runaways to female runaways on the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale indicates statistically no significant difference. The results indicate that both sexes of runaways feel equally very high on external control.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the analysis of variance and the t tests that followed it became evident that runaways, male and female alike, significantly differed from normal youth of both sexes in their perception of their fathers' and mothers' behavior and also in their perception of locus of control. Though there are no significant differences between runaway and delinquent youth on the 18 father and 18 mother scales, the present research found significant differences between these two samples on the locus of control scales. These results will be discussed later in the chapter.

Summary of the hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Runaways significantly differed from normals on 13 scales at 0.01 level and at 0.05 level on 2 scales on their perceptions of their fathers' behavior on 18 PBI scales. The runaways reported their father as significantly to be more possessive, rejecting, controlling, enforcing, controlling through guilt, inconsistent in their disciplining, nonenforcing of rules, instilling persistent anxiety, detaching with hostility and withdrawing from relationship. The picture presented of their fathers by normal youth was generally opposite of these characteristics. The runaways also perceived their fathers to be less accepting, childcentered, positively involved and accepting of their individuation than their

counterparts. The fact that the two samples significantly differed on 13 scales at 0.01 level and on 2 at 0.05 level cannot be attributed to chance.

Though both samples did not differ significantly on intrusiveness, lax discipline and extreme autonomy runaways perceived more intrusiveness on the part of their father. Both felt their fathers to be equally restrictive.

There were statistically significant differences between the perception of runaways and normals about their respective fathers' behavior on 15 of the 18 scales. Therefore the hypothesis was accepted for these 15 scales and rejected for the 3 scales on which there were no significant differences.

Hypothesis 2

On their mothers' perceived behavior, the runaways scored very significantly higher than the normals at 0.01 level on possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship, whereas, the normals scored significantly higher than the runaways on acceptance, childcenteredness, positive involvement and acceptance of individuation. As in the fathers' perception the two samples did not differ significantly in their perception of their mothers' behavior on intrusiveness, extreme autonomy, nonenforcement and lax discipline but still the runaways considered their mothers to be more restrictive than the normals.

Again there were statistically significant differences between the

perception of runaways and normals about their mothers' behavior on 14 of the 18 scales. Therefore the hypothesis, namely, the perception of runaways about their mothers' behavior is significantly different from the perception of normals, is accepted for 14 of the 18 scales and rejected for 4 scales on which there were no statistically significant differences.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

Runaways did not differ significantly from delinquents either on the 18 father behavior or on any of the 18 mother behavior scales. Both samples scored in the same direction on both positive and negative dimensions of the 36 scales expressing same feelings about their fathers and mothers. In short runaways and delinquents perceived their parents to be restrictive, authoritarian, punitive, rejecting, hostile, controlling, possessive, intrusive, inconsistent in disciplining, instilling persistent anxiety and withdrawing of relationship without warmth, love and acceptance. Both hypotheses were rejected for all the 18 scales of father behavior and 18 scales of mother behavior.

Hypothesis 5

Male runaways scored significantly higher than the normal males about their fathers' behavior on rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship, whereas, the normal males perceived their fathers to be more accepting of their individuation than the runaway males.

There were significant differences between the perception of male

runaways and normals about their fathers' behaviors on 13 of the 18 scales. The hypothesis, therefore, is accepted for these 13 scales and rejected for the other 5 scales .

Hypothesis 6

The important aspect of t test analysis proves no significant difference on childcenteredness, possessiveness, positive involvement, intrusiveness and acceptance of individuation on the perception of their mothers' behavior between male runaways and normal males. It indicates the way runaway males differ in their perceptions of their fathers and mothers.

The results of the t test showed no significant differences on child-centeredness, possessiveness, positive involvement, intrusiveness, and acceptance of individuation on the perceptions of their mothers' behavior between male runaways and normal males. They differed significantly on rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment, withdrawal of relationship and acceptance. The hypothesis that states that there are significant differences between the perception of male runaways and normal males about their mothers' behavior is accepted for 10 scales and rejected for 8 scales.

Hypothesis 7

The female runaways were significantly different from the normal females about their fathers' behavior on possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment, withdrawal

of relationship, acceptance, childcenteredness, positive involvement, and acceptance of individuation. Therefore, the hypothesis that stated that there were significant differences between female runaways and normal females about their fathers' behavior is accepted for 14 scales and rejected for 4 scales.

Hypothesis 8

There were significant differences between the perceptions of female runaways and normal females about their mothers' behavior on possessiveness, rejection, contro, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment, withdrawal of relationship, acceptance, childcenteredness, positive involvement and accepting of individuation. The hypothesis, namely there were significant differences between the perception of female runaways and normal females about their fathers' behavior, is accepted for 13 scales and rejected for 5 scales.

Hypothesis 9

Runaway females' perception of their fathers' behavior was significantly different from the perception of male runaways only on one scale. There were no significant differences on 17 scales. So the hypothesis, namely, runaway males' perception about their fathers' behavior is significantly different from the perception of female runaways, was rejected for 17 scales of the 18 scales.

Hypothesis 10

The perception of male runaways about their mothers' behavior was significantly different from the perception of female runaways only on

childcenteredness, extreme autonomy, rejection and hostile detachment. Therefore, the hypothesis that the perception of the male runaways about their mothers' behavior is significantly different from the perception of the female runaways, was accepted for 4 scales and rejected for 14 scales.

Hypothesis 11

Runaways' perception of their fathers' behavior is significantly different from their perception of their mothers' behavior. They considered their fathers more accepting, childcentered, possessive, positively involved, intrusive, controlling through guilt and accepting of their individuation than their mothers. They also reported their fathers being significantly more rejecting, enforcing, showing hostile detachment and granting extreme autonomy than their mothers.

Their perception between their fathers' behavior and mothers' behavior did not differ significantly on control, hostile detachment, inconsistent discipline, nonenforcement, lax discipline, instilling persistent anxiety and withdrawal of relationship. The hypothesis that stated there were significant differences in the perception of runaways about their fathers' behavior and mothers' behavior, was accepted for 11 scales and rejected for 7 scales.

Hypothesis 12

Because 68.6 percent of the present sample of runaways come from broken and reconstituted homes, there is the temptation to conclude that the broken and reconstituted homes cause the runaway problem. If this is true then children, both runaways and normals, coming from these types

of homes should have the same perception of their parents' behavior. Contrary to this expectation the runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes scored significantly higher on rejection, enforcement, positive involvement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, acceptance of individuation, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship. The normals, on the other hand, perceived their fathers to be significantly more accepting, more childcentered, positively involved and accepting of individuation than runaways.

Though there was no statistical significance, the runaways nevertheless felt that their fathers were more possessive and intrusive than the normal youth's perception of their fathers' behavior. Both samples perceived their fathers to be restrictive.

The hypothesis, namely, the perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes was different significantly from the perception of normals coming from the same type of homes about their fathers' behavior, is accepted for 12 scales and rejected for 6 scales.

Hypothesis 13

On the mother scales, the runaways from broken homes indicated that their mothers are significantly more possessive, rejecting, controlling, enforcing, controlling through guilt, controlling with hostility, exercising inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, detaching with hostility and withdrawing of relationship. The normal youth reported their mothers to be significantly higher than the runaways on acceptance and childcenteredness. Though there were no

statistically significant differences the normal youth considered their mothers to be more positively involved and more accepting of individuation and granting of autonomy.

The runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes viewed their mothers' behavior significantly different from the perception of normals on 12 of the 18 scales. Therefore, the hypothesis, perception of runaways coming from broken and reconstituted homes about their mothers' behavior is significantly different from the perception of the normals coming from the same types of homes, is accepted for 12 scales and rejected for 6 scales.

Thus results of t tests indicating significant differences between runaways and normals do not confirm the belief that broken and reconstituted homes cause runaway problem.

Hypothesis 14

Runaways differed significantly at 0.001 level from the normal youth on the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale indicating that they were more external than their counterparts, the normals. The t test between runaways and delinquents reported that the runaways differed more significantly than delinquents on the locus of control at 0.05 level. This surprising finding indicates that the runaways are more external than the delinquents. In this research this is the only statistically significant difference between the two samples.

Finally, male and female runaways did not significantly differ on locus of control scale. Both sexes scored very high on external control.

Discussion

The significant differences observed in this study between runaways and normals are consistent with the theories and findings discussed in Chapter 2 on the relationship between family background and running away.

The normals of this study seem to correspond to Ausubel's (1954) "satellite" of parents. As reported by Berzonsky (1978) in a satellizing relationship the child exists in the periphery and eventually will spin out and lead a healthy adult life. The parents value the child for what he is - a worthy human being in his own right - and not for what he can or will do. An internal sense of security and self-esteem comes out of this environment. A child who feels authentic love and acceptance, is also said to develop a sense of loyalty and obligation to the parents. Because their acceptance is unconditional, they have reasonable expectations regarding his social development. So the child develops ego maturity and internalization of values.

The runaways of the present research resemble Ausubel's "rejected" type. The parents see the child as an unwanted burden or at least the child perceives the situation as such. He feels that he is over-dominated and rejected, unloved and unwanted. He perceives that his parents serve his needs reluctantly and only as long as it is absolutely necessary. The teenager seeks emotional satisfaction outside the home since little intrinsic acceptance is offered by parents. The development of ego strength for a rejected child, therefore, appears to fit the Freudian (1946) model of identification with the aggressor. A rejected child leaves home in search of love and acceptance. outside the hostile home.

Extreme parental unacceptance, possessiveness, rejection, control, enforcement, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, non-acceptance of individuation, non-involvement, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relationship might have prompted the teenager to seek "revenge" by leaving home.

The present findings also are in agreement with all the earlier findings reported in the review of literature; namely, personality disturbances in children being highly associated with restrictive, controlling, inhibiting and dictatorial parental behavior.

It was reported earlier that there were no significant differences between runaways and normals in their perception of their fathers' behavior on intrusiveness, lax discipline and extreme autonomy and also in their perception of their mothers' behavior on intrusiveness, non-enforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy. Both runaways and normals perceived their fathers and mothers to be intrusive, very strict on discipline and not allowing extreme autonomy. These controlling and restrictive behaviors of the fathers and mothers were perceived and interpreted by runaways and normals.

The normals whose parents are loving, supportive and accepting consider discipline that is consistent and non-rejecting as a sign of love and concern on the part of their parents for their social and personal development, whereas, runaways whose parents are rejecting, punitive, uninvolved, hostile and inconsistent in disciplining, consider restriction as a sign of rejection and are therefore affected negatively in their personal, social and psychological development. The runaways realizing that

they are not wanted may have opted for breaking their emotional ties to their parents. The continued parental neglect and rejection which these children experience create a situation where it becomes easy for them to leave home.

Discipline administered with love, firmness and consistency helps children acquire self-discipline.

Another important finding of the study is the significant difference in the perception of runaways of their fathers from their mothers. Severe conflict and confusion are experienced when they see contradictions in their fathers' and mother' behavior toward them and thus indicating a relationship between the differences in father and mother behavior and running away.

Family breakdown is often cited as a characteristic of runaway population (D'Angelo et al), Goldmeier (1973), Fisher (1962), Shellow et al (1967). The present study confirms that 68.6 percent of the runaway population of the sample come from broken and reconstituted homes but failed to establish any relationship between running away and broken homes.

Results of this study on locus of control dimension strongly support the notion that runaways, both males and females alike, seem to believe to a significantly greater degree than the normals in the external control, namely, their life and outcome of their actions lie beyond the realm of their control and power but are controlled by luck, fate, impersonal and personal forces and significant others. This pervasive feeling of helplessness and hopelessness suggests that they left home unable to resolve the conflict created by the rejecting controlling, unaccepting and hostile

parents.

The study also found correlation between locus of control and parental perception (See Appendix B). The external control scale negatively correlates with the positive dimensions of parent behavior and positively correlates with the negative dimensions of parental behavior.

The research seems to indicate that an accepting, loving supportive but firm parent is a precursor of the development of an internal locus of control. On the contrary rejecting, controlling, punitive and hostile parents seem to create a climate of fatalism and helplessness which is reflected in the scores that runaways obtained on locus of control measure.

The study also shows significant difference at 0.05 level between runaways and delinquents. The delinquents compared to normals also significantly differ from normals on locus of control indicating that they are more external than the normals.

Though both runaways and delinquents perceive their parents to be equally unaccepting, not childcentered, rejecting, possessive, controlling through guilt, controlling through hostility, disciplining inconsistently, nonenforcing, not accepting of their individuality, restrictive, instilling persistent anxiety, detaching with hostility, and withdrawing from relationship yet runaways seem to be more external than delinquents.

Does feeling more external than the delinquent propel the runaways to leave home or does feeling little more internal make the delinquent indulge in delinquent acts?

Conclusion

Family is considered the most significant factor in the social and personal development of the child because the family is the primary enviro-

ment of the child. It is the first institution in which the child interacts, and what he learns (or does not learn) in the family is often the model for future behavior and for the development of attitudes, values and a lifestyle.

The results of the present study reports significant relationship between runaways and their perception of their parental behavior. The runaways perceive their parents to be more rejecting, controlling, punishing, hostile and inconsistent and less supportive, loving and accepting than the normals perceived of their parents' behavior. Consistent discipline administered in an atmosphere of warmth, love and support helps for a healthy social and personal development in the normal children, whereas inconsistent discipline enforced in an atmosphere of rejection, hostility, control, possessiveness and coldness, was counter productive to a healthy development of personality.

Further the study indicates warm and accepting behavior to be significantly associated with the development of an internal locus of control in the normal youth of the sample, whereas; a relationship between parents and runaways that is characterized by rejection, control, hostility and unacceptance seem to be very significantly associated with external control and ultimately with running away.

The delinquent equally rejected, unloved, unwanted, controlled by parents, instead of leaving home indulges in delinquent acts.

Implications

Running away seems to be a surface manifestation of a troubled relationship between adolescents and their parents. The treatment of the

runaway problem must focus not just on the runaway subject but also on the whole family. Thus, family therapy should be an integral part of the treatment of the runaway.

Unwanted, unloved, unaccepted, controlled and rejected by the parents the runaways feel that they are not in control of their life and destiny. Treatment should be designed to help them become more internal - that they could be in control of their own life and destiny.

A technique similar to the one which was used in this study could be utilized by schools to identify potential runaways, so that steps could be taken to prevent them from becoming active runners.

Recommendations

The significant difference reported in this study between runaways and delinquents on locus of control should be further studied and analysed to find out why, both samples having the same negative feelings toward their parents, they take different courses to express their frustrations? Does feeling more external than delinquents have a relationship to the course of action runaways take?

During the course of collecting the data of this study the author encountered a very high percentage of "throwaways" - those who were asked by the parents to "get out" of their home. By calling every youth who left home runaways we put the onus of responsibility on the youth but many had no choice but to leave. Future study should focus on the perception of runaways and throwaways on parent behavior dimension and locus of control dimension.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Request Form

Dear Friends,

I am interested in learning more about the different experiences people have had in their families. I am therefore asking a number of youths in different regions of the country to report their experiences with their parents in the last few years. Everything will be kept secret including the name of the town.

First answer the questions about yourself and your family listed on the next page. Then read each item on the following pages and circle the answer that most clearly describes the way each of your parents acts toward you.

PLEASE NOTE WELL: Be sure to mark each item for each parent.

- 1) If you think the item is like you parent circle L
- 2) If you think the item is some what like your parent circle SL
- 3) If you think the item is not like your parent circle NL

APPENDIX A (continued)

PERSONAL DATA

- 1) Your age _____
- 2) Sex (Check one) _____ Male, _____ Female
- 3) Years of school completed by you _____
- 4) Years of school completed by father _____, mother _____
- 5) Present age of father (if alive) _____ of mother (if alive) _____
- 6) Mark F for father and M for mother in front of the items below that best describe the occupation of your father and mother.
 - a) Higher executive, proprietor of large concerns, or major professional like doctor, lawyer, Ph.D.
 - b) Manager or proprietor of a medium sized concern or lesser professional like public accountant
 - c) Administrative personnel of large concern, owner of small independent business, or semi-professional like secretary, office manager, nurses aide
 - d) Little business owner, clerical or sales worker, technician
 - e) Semi-skilled manual laborer like assembly line worker, machine operator
 - f) Skilled manual laborer like painter, printer, construction worker
 - g) Unskilled laborer like packing, loading
 - h) Not gainfully employed
 - i) Principal housekeeper
- 7) Have you brothers and sisters _____ If so list their present age:

Brothers _____

Sisters _____
- 8) Are you or were you living with your a) father and mother _____ b) father alone _____ c) mother alone _____ d) father and stepmother _____

e) mother and stepfather _____ f) foster parent _____
- 9) Do you live on a farm _____, in a small town (less than 2500 population) _____ in or near a small city (less than 50,000 population) _____, or in or near a large city _____
- 10) How do you identify yourself?
 - a) White _____ b) Black _____ c) Hispanic _____ d) Other _____

APPENDIX A (continued)

<u>ABOUT YOUR MOTHER</u>	LIKE	SOME WHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
1) My mother makes me feel better after talking over my worries.	L	SL	NL
2) She gives me a lot of care and attention.	L	SL	NL
3) She seems to regret that I am growing up and spending more time away from home.	L	SL	NL
4) She forgets to help me when I need it.	L	SL	NL
5) She believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way.	L	SL	NL
6) She sees to it that I obey when she tells me something.	L	SL	NL
7) She tells me how much she loves me.	L	SL	NL
8) She always wants to know exactly where I am and what I am doing.	L	SL	NL
9) She tells me how much she has suffered for me.	L	SL	NL
10) She is always telling me how I should behave.	L	SL	NL
11) She punished me for doing something one day and ignores it the next.	L	SL	NL
12) She doesn't check up to see whether I have done what she told me.	L	SL	NL
13) She likes me to choose my own way to do things.	L	SL	NL
14) She lets me off easy when I do something wrong.	L	SL	NL
15) She thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after it is over.	L	SL	NL
16) She thinks I am just someone to put up with.	L	SL	NL
17) She will not talk to me when I displease her.	L	SL	NL
18) She allows me to go out as often as I please.	L	SL	NL
19) She seems to see my good points more than my faults.	L	SL	NL
20) She often gives up something to get something for me.	L	SL	NL
21) She worries about me when I am away.	L	SL	NL
22) She is always getting after me.	L	SL	NL
23) She believes in punishing me to correct and improve my manners.	L	SL	NL
24) She almost always punished me in some way when I am bad.	L	SL	NL
25) She always listens to my ideas and opinions.	L	SL	NL
26) She always checks on what I have been doing at school or at play.	L	SL	NL
27) She thinks I am ungrateful when I don't obey.	L	SL	NL

28) She wants to control whatever I do.	L	SL	NL
29) She depends upon her mood whether a rule is enforced or not.	L	SL	NL
30) She doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior.	L	SL	NL
31) She wants me to tell her about it if I don't like the way she treats me.	L	SL	NL
32) She does not insist I obey if I complain or protest.	L	SL	NL
33) She worries about how I will turn out because she takes anything bad I do seriously.	L	SL	NL
34) She spends very little time with me.	L	SL	NL
35) She speaks to me in a cold, matter-of-fact voice when I offend her.	L	SL	NL
36) She doesn't tell me what time to be home when I go out.	L	SL	NL
37) She understands my problems and worries.	L	SL	NL
38) She makes me feel I am not loved.	L	SL	NL
39) She does not approve of my spending a lot of time away from home.	L	SL	NL
40) She makes me feel like the most important person in her life.	L	SL	NL
41) She insists that I must do exactly as I am told.	L	SL	NL
42) She punished me when I don't obey.	L	SL	NL
43) She is very interested in what I am learning at school.	L	SL	NL
44) She asks me to tell everything that happens when I am away from home.	L	SL	NL
45) She says if I loved her I would do what she wants me to do.	L	SL	NL
46) She does not give me any peace until I do what she says.	L	SL	NL
47) She keeps rules when it suits her.	L	SL	NL
48) She does not bother to enforce rules.	L	SL	NL
49) She really wants me to tell her just how I feel about things.	L	SL	NL
50) She can't say no to anything I want.	L	SL	NL
51) She says that some day I will be sorry that I was not better as a child.	L	SL	NL
52) She does not show that she loves me.	L	SL	NL
53) She is less friendly with me if I don't see things her way.	L	SL	NL
54) She gives me as much freedom as I want.	L	SL	NL

55) She enjoys talking things over with me.	L	SL	NL
56) She spends almost all of her free time with her children.	L	SL	NL
57) She worries that I can't take care of myself unless she is around.	L	SL	NL
58) She is not very patient with me.	L	SL	NL
59) I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.	L	SL	NL
60) If I do the least little thing that I shouldn't she punished me.	L	SL	NL
61) She often has talks with me about the causes and reasons for things.	L	SL	NL
62) She always wants to know with whom I have been when I have been out.	L	SL	NL
63) She says if I really cared for her I would not do things that cause her to worry.	L	SL	NL
64) She is always trying to change me.	L	SL	NL
65) She changes her mind to make things easier for herself.	L	SL	NL
66) She lets me get away without doing work I had been given to do.	L	SL	NL
67) She asks me what I think about how we should do things.	L	SL	NL
68) She excuses my bad conduct.	L	SL	NL
69) If I break a promise, she does not trust me again for a long time.	L	SL	NL
70) She often seems glad to get away from me for a while.	L	SL	NL
71) She will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed her.	L	SL	NL
72) She lets me go any place I please without asking.	L	SL	NL
73) She enjoys doing things with me.	L	SL	NL
74) She enjoys staying at home with me more than going out with her friends.	L	SL	NL
75) She wishes I would stay at home where she could take care of me.	L	SL	NL
76) She often blows her top when I bother her.	L	SL	NL
77) She sees to it that I keep my clothes neat, clean and in order.	L	SL	NL
78) She has more rules than I can remember, so is often punishing me.	L	SL	NL
79) She tells me where to find out more about things I want to know.	L	SL	NL
80) She keeps a careful check on me to make sure I have the right kind of friends.	L	SL	NL
81) When I don't do as she wants, she says I am not grateful for all she has done for me.	L	SL	NL

82) She does not let me decide things for myself.	L	SL	NL
83) She sometimes allows me to do things that she says are wrong.	L	SL	NL
84) She lets me get away with a lot of things.	L	SL	NL
<hr/>			
85) She gives me the choice of what to do whenever possible.	L	SL	NL
86) I can talk her out of an order, if I complain.	L	SL	NL
87) She will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	L	SL	NL
<hr/>			
88) She wishes I were a different kind of person.	L	SL	NL
89) If I hurt her feelings, she stops talking to me until I please her again.	L	SL	NL
90) She lets me do anything I like to do.	L	SL	NL

N.B. Since the items for mother and father are identical only the mother form is included in the appendix.

APPENDIX A (continued)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Here are some questions for you to answer. If you think your answer is yes, put a circle around YES. If you think your answer is no, put a circle around NO.

- YES NO 1) Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?
- YES NO 2) Do you believe that you can stop yourself from catching a cold?
- YES NO 3) Are some kids born lucky?
- YES NO 4) Most of the time do you feel that getting good grades means a great deal to you?
- YES NO 5) Are you often blamed for things that just aren't your fault?
- YES NO 6) Do you believe that if somebody studies hard enough he or she can pass any subject?
- YES NO 7) Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway?
- YES NO 8) Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning that it is going to be a good day no matter what you do?
- YES NO 9) Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say?
- YES NO 10) Do you believe that wishing can make good things happen?
- YES NO 11) When you get punished does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all?
- YES NO 12) Most of the time do you find it hard to change a friend's (mind) opinion?
- YES NO 13) Do you think that cheering more than luck helps a team to win?
- YES NO 14) Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parent's mind about anything?
- YES NO 15) Do you believe that your parents should allow you to make most of your own decisions?
- YES NO 16) Do you feel that when you do something wrong there is very little you can do to make it right?

- YES NO 17) Do you believe that most kids are just born good at sports?
- YES NO 18) Are most of the other kids of your age stronger than you are?
- YES NO 19) Do you feel that one of the best ways to handle most problems is just not to think about them?
- YES NO 20) Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are?
- YES NO 21) If you find a four-leaf clover do you believe that it might bring you good luck?
- YES NO 22) Do you often feel that whether you do your homework has much to do with what kind of grades you get?
- YES NO 23) Do you feel that when a kid your age decides to hit you, there's little you can do to stop him or her?
- YES NO 24) Have you ever had a good luck charm?
- YES NO 25) Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act?
- YES NO 26) Will your parents usually help you if you ask them to?
- YES NO 27) Have you felt that when people were mean to you it was usually for no reason at all?
- YES NO 28) Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today?
- YES NO 29) Do you believe that when bad things are going to happen they just are going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them?
- YES NO 30) Do you think that kids can get their own way if they just keep trying?
- YES NO 31) Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home?
- YES NO 32) Do you feel that when good things happen they happen because of hard work?
- YES NO 33) Do you feel that when somebody of your own age wants to be your enemy there's little you can do to change matters?
- YES NO 34) Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to?

- YES NO 35) Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home?
- YES NO 36) Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there's little you can do about it?
- YES NO 37) Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try in school because most other children are just plain smarter than you are?
- YES NO 38) Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?
- YES NO 39) Most of the time do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do?
- YES NO 40) Do you think it's better to be smart than to be lucky?

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Scoring Sheet for the Adolescent's Report of Father or Mother Behavior

To score: Assign the Value 3 to L, 2 to SL, and 1 to NL

Check one: () Father () Mother

					TOTAL	
1. Acceptance	1	19	37	55	73	
2. Childcenteredness	2	20	38	56	74	
3. Possessiveness	3	21	39	57	75	
4. Rejection	4	22	40	58	76	
5. Control	5	23	41	59	77	
6. Enforcement	6	24	42	60	78	
7. Positive Involvement	7	25	43	61	79	
8. Intrusiveness	8	26	44	62	80	
9. Control Through Guilt	9	27	45	63	81	
10. Hostile Control	10	28	46	64	82	
11. Inconsistent Discipline	11	29	47	65	83	
12. Nonenforcement	12	30	48	66	84	
13. Acceptance of Individuation	13	31	49	67	85	
14. Lax Discipline	14	32	50	68	86	
15. Instilling Persistent Anxiety	15	33	51	69	87	
16. Hostile Detachment	16	34	52	70	88	
17. Withdrawal of Relationship	17	35	53	71	89	
18. Extreme Autonomy	18	36	54	72	90	

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

CORRELATION BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL AND PERCEPTION OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

VARIABLE	Father Acceptance	Childcenteredness	Possessiveness	Rejection	Control	Enforcement
	-0.32**	-0.27**	0.18*	0.42**	0.22*	0.36**
VARIABLE	Father Positive Involvement	Intrusiveness	Control Through Guilt	Hostile Control		
	-0.29**	0.14*	0.34**	0.44**		
VARIABLE	Father Inconsistent Discipline	Nonenforcement	Acceptance of Individuation	Lax Discipline		
	0.29**	0.11*	0.33**	-0.016		
VARIABLE	Father Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Hostile Detachment	Withdrawal of Relationship	Extreme Autonomy		
	0.37**	0.36**	0.35	0.08		

* significant at 0.05 level
 ** significant at 0.01 level

CORRELATION BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL AND PERCEPTION OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

VARIABLE	Mother Acceptance	Childcenteredness	Possessiveness	Rejection	Control	Enforcement
	-0.38**	-0.28**	0.15*	0.41**	0.24**	0.33**
VARIABLE	Mother Positive Involvement	Intrusiveness	Control Through Guilt	Hostile Control		
	-0.31**	0.11	0.40**	0.46**		
VARIABLE	Mother Inconsistent Discipline	Nonenforcement	Acceptance of Individuation	Lax Discipline		
	0.25**		-0.39**	0.06		
VARIABLE	Mother Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Hostile Detachment	Withdrawal of Relationship	Extreme Autonomy		
	0.41**	0.41**	0.34**	.05		

* significant at 0.05 level
 ** significant at 0.01 level

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D - TABLE 1

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAY WHITES
TO RUNAWAY BLACKS ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Blacks N = 33 T Value
Acceptance	Whites	8.9392	2.972		
	Blacks	9.5794	2.784		1.10
Childcenteredness	Whites	8.3321	2.603		
	Blacks	8.9697	2.880		1.20
Possessiveness	Whites	9.6217	2.403		
	Blacks	9.9242	2.235		0.64
Rejection	Whites	10.3873	2.780		
	Blacks	10.9303	2.453		1.01
Control	Whites	10.9182	2.255	0.24	
	Blacks	10.8145	1.820		
Enforcement	Whites	10.6126	2.723	0.02	
	Blacks	10.6012	2.515		
Positive Involvement	Whites	8.8825	2.808		
	Blacks	9.5327	3.021		1.14
Intrusiveness	Whites	10.0157	2.503		
	Blacks	10.4491	2.600		0.86
Control Through Guilt	Whites	9.5872	3.026		
	Blacks	9.7276	2.369		0.24

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Blacks N = 33 T Value
Hostile Control	Whites	10.7198	3.050	0.51	
	Blacks	11.0115	2.247		
Inconsistent Discipline	Whites	9.1387	2.344	2.19*	
	Blacks	10.1758	2.487		
Nonenforcement	Whites	7.9198	2.144	3.04**	
	Blacks	9.3576	2.996		
Acceptance of Individuation	Whites	8.9032	2.771	0.98	
	Blacks	9.4636	3.191		
Lax Discipline	Whites	7.4948	2.165	2.85**	
	Blacks	8.7985	2.676		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Whites	10.1547	2.860	0.01	
	Blacks	10.1588	2.233		
Hostile Detachment	Whites	10.3026	3.108	0.34	
	Blacks	10.5091	2.624		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Whites	9.7962	2.852	0.09	
	Blacks	9.7455	2.720		
Extreme Autonomy	Whites	8.3426	2.633	2.78**	
	Blacks	9.7842	2.481		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

APPENDIX D - TABLE 2

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAY WHITES
TO RUNAWAY BLACKS ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Blacks N = 33 T Value
Acceptance	Whites	10.0349	3.157	0.50	0.36
	Blacks	10.2648	3.222		
Childcenteredness	Whites	9.7759	2.668		1.50
	Blacks	10.5894	2.871		
Possessiveness	Whites	10.4774	2.312		1.09
	Blacks	10.9794	2.281		
Rejection	Whites	9.4858	2.909	0.50	
	Blacks	9.2030	2.714		
Control	Whites	10.7426	2.320		1.60
	Blacks	11.4806	2.319		
Enforcement	Whites	9.7012	2.604		0.13
	Blacks	9.7676	2.702		
Positive Involvement	Whites	10.4611	3.029		1.23
	Blacks	11.1818	2.616		
Intrusiveness	Whites	11.0717	2.585	0.54	
	Blacks	10.7848	2.997		
Control Through Guilt	Whites	10.7420	2.976		1.18
	Blacks	11.4218	2.596		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Blacks N = 33 T Value
Hostile Control	Whites	10.4387	2.819		0.14
	Blacks	10.5152	2.729		
Inconsistent Discipline	Whites	9.2583	2.108		0.49
	Blacks	9.4767	2.565		
Nonenforcement	Whites	7.8185	2.168		1.98*
	Blacks	8.6921	2.353		
Acceptance of Individuation	Whites	9.8733	2.775		1.43
	Blacks	10.6479	2.495		
Lax Discipline	Whites	7.8770	2.027		1.98*
	Blacks	8.7273	2.528		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Whites	10.7542	2.859	0.89	
	Blacks	10.2603	2.580		
Hostile Detachment	Whites	9.5657	3.277	0.99	
	Blacks	8.9394	2.738		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Whites	9.5570	2.800	0.97	
	Blacks	9.0303	2.468		
Extreme Autonomy	Whites	7.8325	2.517		2.00*
	Blacks	8.8218	2.350		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level
 ** denotes statistical significance at .01 level

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E - TABLE 3

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF WHITE RUNAWAYS
TO HISPANIC RUNAWAYS ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Hispanics N = 15 T Value
Acceptance	Whites	8.9392	2.972		0.68
	Hispanics	9.5120	3.561		
Childcenteredness	Whites	8.3321	2.603		1.29
	Hispanics	9.2800	3.010		
Possessiveness	Whites	9.6217	2.403		0.91
	Hispanics	10.2367	2.717		
Rejection	Whites	10.3873	2.780	1.60	
	Hispanics	9.1560	2.873		
Control	Whites	10.9182	2.255	0.51	
	Hispanics	10.5987	2.347		
Enforcement	Whites	10.6126	2.723	1.04	
	Hispanics	9.8427	2.474		
Positive Involvement	Whites	8.8825	2.808		1.06
	Hispanics	9.7080	2.938		
Intrusiveness	Whites	10.0157	2.503		1.10
	Hispanics	10.7987	3.099		
Control Through Guilt	Whites	9.5872	3.026		0.09
	Hispanics	9.6593	3.246		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Hispanics N = 15 T Value
Hostile Control	Whites	10.7198	3.050	0.55	
	Hispanics	10.2547	3.060		
Inconsistent Discipline	Whites	9.1387	2.344	0.23	
	Hispanics	8.9853	2.564		
Nonenforcement	Whites	7.9198	2.144	0.55	
	Hispanics	7.5913	2.229		
Acceptance of Individuation	Whites	8.9032	2.771		0.94
	Hispanics	9.6287	2.991		
Lax Discipline	Whites	7.4948	2.165		0.51
	Hispanics	7.7900	1.473		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Whites	10.1547	2.860		
	Hispanics	10.1513	2.868		
Hostile Detachment	Whites	10.3026	3.108	1.48	
	Hispanics	9.0253	3.253		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Whites	9.7962	2.852	1.68	
	Hispanics	8.4613	3.067		
Extreme Autonomy	Whites	8.3426	2.633	0.76	
	Hispanics	7.7827	2.913		

APPENDIX E - TABLE 4

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF WHITE RUNAWAYS
TO HISPANIC RUNAWAYS ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Hispanics N = 15 T Value
Acceptance	Whites	10.0349	3.157	1.76	0.97
	Hispanics	10.8667	2.615		
Childcenteredness	Whites	9.7759	2.668	1.11	1.11
	Hispanics	10.6000	2.798		
Possessiveness	Whites	10.4774	2.312	0.80	0.80
	Hispanics	11.0000	2.726		
Rejection	Whites	9.4858	2.909	1.76	0.61
	Hispanics	8.0667	2.987		
Control	Whites	10.7426	2.320	1.45	0.61
	Hispanics	11.1333	2.326		
Enforcement	Whites	9.7012	2.604	1.45	0.58
	Hispanics	8.6667	2.410		
Positive Involvement	Whites	10.4611	3.029	0.57	0.58
	Hispanics	10.9333	2.282		
Intrusiveness	Whites	11.0717	2.585	0.57	0.20
	Hispanics	10.6600	2.844		
Control Through Guilt	Whites	10.7420	2.976	0.20	0.20
	Hispanics	10.5820	2.752		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Whites N = 106 T Value	Hispanics N = 15 T Value
Hostile Control	Whites	10.4387	2.819	1.95	
	Hispanics	8.9333	2.685		
Inconsistent Discipline	Whites	9.2583	2.108	1.08	
	Hispanics	8.6000	2.849		
Nonenforcement	Whites	7.8185	2.168		0.63
	Hispanics	8.2000	2.513		
Acceptance of Individuation	Whites	9.8733	2.775		0.08
	Hispanics	9.9333	2.344		
Lax Discipline	Whites	7.8770	2.027		0.33
	Hispanics	8.0667	2.434		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Whites	10.7542	2.859	0.55	
	Hispanics	10.3333	2.193		
Hostile Detachment	Whites	9.5657	3.277	1.23	
	Hispanics	8.4667	2.875		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Whites	9.5570	2.800	1.60	
	Hispanics	8.3333	2.610		
Extreme Autonomy	Whites	7.8325	2.517		0.83
	Hispanics	8.4000	2.063		

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F - TABLE 5

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS LIVING WITH NATURAL PARENTS TO RUNAWAYS LIVING IN BROKEN OR RECONSTITUTED HOMES ON THE 18 SCALES OF FATHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Natural N = 48 T Value	Broken N = 106 T Value
Acceptance	Natural Parents	8.4375	2.865	0.18	1.96
	Broken Homes	9.4468	3.002		
Childcenteredness	Natural Parents	8.0875	2.674		1.47
	Broken Homes	8.7755	2.709		
Possessiveness	Natural Parents	9.5437	2.566		0.71
	Broken Homes	9.8382	2.317		
Rejection	Natural Parents	10.4446	2.770	0.18	
	Broken Homes	10.3561	2.745		
Control	Natural Parents	10.7287	2.283		0.52
	Broken Homes	10.9265	2.120		
Enforcement	Natural Parents	10.4508	2.882		0.26
	Broken Homes	10.5734	2.552		
Positive Involvement	Natural Parents	8.5417	2.836		1.64
	Broken Homes	9.3560	2.858		
Intrusiveness	Natural Parents	10.1458	2.813		0.13
	Broken Homes	10.2025	2.484		
Control Through Guilt	Natural Parents	9.5000	2.968		0.36
	Broken Homes	9.6806	2.885		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Natural N = 48 T Value	Broken N = 106 T Value
Hostile Control	Natural Parents	10.7917	2.917	0.16	
	Broken Homes	10.7123	2.867		
Inconsistent Discipline	Natural Parents	9.0000	2.690		1.20
	Broken Homes	9.5026	2.283		
Nonenforcement	Natural Parents	7.8125	2.607		1.33
	Broken Homes	8.3698	2.325		
Acceptance of Individuation	Natural Parents	8.4762	3.015		1.80
	Broken Homes	9.3737	2.788		
Lax Discipline	Natural Parents	7.2437	2.391		2.07
	Broken Homes	8.0561	2.191		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Natural Parents	10.0946	2.716		0.15
	Broken Homes	10.1827	2.738		
Hostile Detachment	Natural Parents	10.4871	3.212	0.73	
	Broken Homes	10.1026	2.957		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Natural Parents	9.4583	2.917		0.58
	Broken Homes	9.7545	2.834		
Extreme Autonomy	Natural Parents	7.7808	2.645		2.58*
	Broken Homes	8.9666	2.640		

* denotes statistical significance at .05 level

APPENDIX F - TABLE 6

T TEST COMPARING MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RUNAWAYS LIVING WITH NATURAL PARENTS TO RUNAWAYS LIVING IN BROKEN OR RECONSTITUTED HOMES ON THE 18 SCALES OF MOTHER BEHAVIOR

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Natural N = 48 T Value	Broken N = 106 T Value
Acceptance	Natural Parents	10.2083	2.982	0.12	
	Broken Homes	10.1457	3.166		
Childcenteredness	Natural Parents	10.1667	2.816	0.41	
	Broken Homes	9.9689	2.706		
Possessiveness	Natural Parents	10.5417	2.405		0.33
	Broken Homes	10.6785	2.325		
Rejection	Natural Parents	9.1542	3.084		0.38
	Broken Homes	9.3472	2.807		
Control	Natural Parents	10.7292	2.359		0.75
	Broken Homes	11.0338	2.315		
Enforcement	Natural Parents	9.3542	2.686		0.83
	Broken Homes	9.7326	2.579		
Positive Involvement	Natural Parents	10.6358	2.793		0.07
	Broken Homes	10.6732	2.932		
Intrusiveness	Natural Parents	10.8729	2.780		0.30
	Broken Homes	11.0142	2.658		
Control Through Guilt	Natural Parents	10.6290	2.829		0.71
	Broken Homes	10.9822	2.902		

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Natural N = 48 T Value	Broken N = 106 T Value
Hostile Control	Natural Parents	10.3542	2.572	0.14	
	Broken Homes	10.2877	2.918		
Inconsistent Discipline	Natural Parents	9.4110	2.449	0.62	
	Broken Homes	9.1640	2.214		
Nonenforcement	Natural Parents	7.6442	2.068		1.48
	Broken Homes	8.2234	2.323		
Acceptance of Individuation	Natural Parents	9.7917	2.475		0.75
	Broken Homes	10.1599	2.773		
Lax Discipline	Natural Parents	7.8746	2.028		0.77
	Broken Homes	8.1696	2.270		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	Natural Parents	10.5540	2.919		0.16
	Broken Homes	10.6316	2.665		
Hostile Detachment	Natural Parents	9.2500	3.084		0.20
	Broken Homes	9.3581	3.174		
Withdrawal of Relationship	Natural Parents	9.2083	2.665		0.36
	Broken Homes	9.3777	2.764		
Extreme Autonomy	Natural Parents	8.2096	2.713	0.37	
	Broken Homes	8.0500	2.352		

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Saleth John Arulanandam has been read and approved by the following committee:

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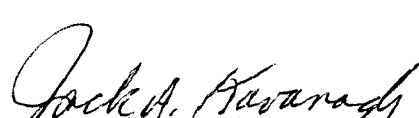
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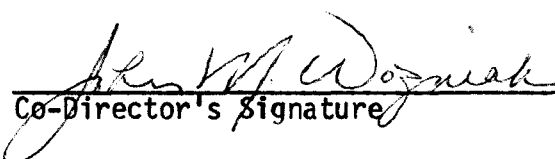
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The final copies have been examined by the co-directors of the dissertation and the signatures which appear below verify the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

Date

4/17/80


 Co-Director's Signature


 Co-Director's Signature