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An Investigation of the Relationship between Child Rearing Practices and Behavior Problems across Cultures

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHILD REARING
PRACTICES AND BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS ACROSS CULTURES

by

Lillian Gonzalez

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

May

1990

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VITA

The author, Lillian Gonzalez, is the daughter of Rafael Gonzalez and Antonia De Jesus Gonzalez. She was born on April 4, 1952, in Puerto Rico.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
VITA	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.	x
CONTENTS OF APPENDICES	xi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.	8
School Social Competence: A Cross-Cultural Definition	10
Language Minority Students and Social Skills Theory	15
Considerations in the Assessment of Behavior Problems in Culturally Diverse Groups.	18
Instruments Used in the Evaluation of Behavior Problems and Child Rearing Practices	24
Cross Cultural Research on Child Rearing Practices.	32
III. METHOD.	39
Hypotheses.	39
Subjects.	39
Procedure	41
Materials	42
Design and Statistical Analysis	48
IV. RESULTS	52
Relation Between RBPC Scores and Variables Ethnicity and Educational Program.	52
Relation Between CRPQ Scores, Ethnicity and Educational Program.	68

V. DISCUSSION.	74
Relationship Between the Independent Variable Ethnicity on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist	74
Interaction Among Independent Variables Ethnicity and Educational Program on Scores on the RBPC.	76
Relationship Between the Independent Variable Educational Program and the Dependent Variable Scores on the RBPC	77
Relationship Between Independent Variable Educational Program on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire.	79
Relationship Between Ethnicity as an Independent Variable on Scores on the CRPQ (Dependent Variable)	83
REFERENCES	101
APPENDIX	110

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Model of MANOVA Design	52
2. Descriptive Statistics for Combined Sample on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (N = 210) . . .	53
3. Means on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist by Ethnicity and Educational Program (N = 210; n = 35).	54
4. Intercorrelation Matrix Among the Factors of the Dependent Variable RBPC (N = 210).	55
5. Overall MANOVA Analysis of the Effect of Ethnicity and Educational Program Variables on the RBPC Scores	56
6. MANOVA Results on Each Factor of the RBPC (N = 210).	57
7. Group Means for Each One of the Factors of the RBPC by Educational Program and Ethnicity (N=210; n=35)	65
8. Tukey's Post Hoc Pairwise Procedure for Comparison of Means Across Ethnicity and Educational Program on the RBPC (n=35)	66
9. Tukey's Post Hoc Pairwise Procedure for Comparison of Means Within Ethnicity Across Educational Program on the RBPC.	67
10. Descriptive Statistics for Combined Sample on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (N=210).	69
11. Group Means for Each One of the Factors of the CRP by Educational Program and Ethnicity (n=35; N=210)	69
12. Intercorrelation Matrix Among the Factors of the Dependent Variable CRP (N=210)	70
13. Overall MANOVA Analysis of Ethnicity and Educational Programs on the Factors of the CRP (N=210).	71

Table

Page

14.	MANOVA Analysis for Educational Programs on Each Factor of the CRP (N=210).	72
15.	Tukey's Post Hoc Pairwise Procedure for Comparison of Means Between Educational Programs on SI and PO	73

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Relationship Between Levels of the Independent Variables Ethnicity (Puerto Rican, White, Black) and Educational Program (Behavior Disorder, Regular Program) on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Factors of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (PR, DI, RR, SI, UR, PO)	50
2. Relationship Between Levels of the Independent Variables Ethnicity (Puerto Rican, White, Black) and Educational Program (Behavior Disorder, Regular Program) on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Factors of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (CD, SA, AP, AW, PB, ME)	51
3. Relation Between Ethnicity (W, B, PR) and Educational Program Means on the Factor Conduct Disorder (CD).	59
4. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Socialized Aggression Factor (SA)	60
5. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Attention Problem Factor (AP)	61
6. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Anxiety Withdrawal Factor (AW).	62
7. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Psychotic Behavior Factor (PB).	63
8. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Motor Excess Factor (ME).	64

CONTENTS OF APPENDICES

Appendix A - Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire . . .	111
Revised Behavior Problem Checklist.	121
Cuestionario De Crianza (Spanish translation of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire).	124
Cuestionario Revisado Sobre Problemas De Comportamiento (Spanish translation of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist)	134
Form - Identification of Students Information from the Mothers.	141

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to examine the differential relationship between child rearing practices and the behavior problems of children across cultures. Subjects consisted of mothers from three different ethnic groups of Blacks, White Americans, and Puerto Ricans. All mothers had children in the Chicago Public schools. Each of the three ethnic groups was divided into two different sub-groups: 1) mothers who had children participating in special education programs for behavior disordered students with social problems (BD); and 2) mothers who had children participating only in the regular educational programs. The main hypotheses of the study were that differential relationships exist between child rearing practices and student behavior problems across educational programs and cultures; and that differential child rearing practices would manifest themselves across the three ethnic group when controlling for individual differences in socioeconomic status across subjects.

Overall, this study was crafted to focus on child rearing practices as a variable related to the development of behavior problems. It should be noted that child rearing practices are defined in the sociological literature as the

means by which parental values and behavior expectations are implemented within given family structures (Boocock 1980). Using a functional analyses of behavior approach we would look at child rearing practices as a series of child management practices (Sugai 1988). One objective of the study at hand is to suggest an assessment and intervention model which could be used by school psychologists after establishing the relationship between child rearing practices and behavior problems.

Those affiliated with the theoretical perspective known as the "social skills deficit" model assert that the academic and school adjustment problems of minority children are explained mainly on the basis of a lack of the social and academic skills necessary to succeed in an academic context. This social skills deficit model provides the conceptual background that directs the analysis and discussion of the results presented in this study. The term "cultural diversity" (Henderson 1982) is often used to describe children whose way of life deviates from the dominant pattern. Low socioeconomic status and language minority children may exhibit culturally acquired behaviors that deviate from the expectations implicit in the culture of the school. Some parents may communicate to their children expectations for their behavior that are incompatible with the behavior standards of the school setting. The notion of "social competence" is also a concept used to explain the

problems in functional adaptation to the school environment that a number of minority children experience.

An examination of the definition of a Behavior Disorder used in the Chicago Public School System indicates that it is designed primarily for the student:

who is involved in a variety of affective or maladaptive behaviors including disruptive, impulsive, aggressive, depressive or withdrawn acts. These behaviors violate expectations of appropriateness; consequently a change in behavior is needed. Typically, the behavior disordered student has the ability to learn but is not achieving to his/her full potential. The behavior disordered student generally exhibits behaviors and attitudes that are maladaptive towards learning and positive involvement with others (Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1984, p. 3).

Furthermore, it is important to note that the Chicago Public Schools system distinguishes between "behaviorally disordered students with social problems" and "behaviorally disordered students with emotional problems" (p. 3). Some of the behaviors that the Chicago Public School system lists as frequently exhibited by the behavior disordered students with social problems include the following:

- . Failure to respect school authority figures,
- . Disrespect and disregard for personal and school property,

- . Inability to follow school rules,
- . Inability to interact appropriately with others,
- . Inability to maintain self-control,
- . Chronic truancy supported by documentation of other behavior disorder symptoms (p. 3).

For the most part, behaviors included in the Chicago Public School System's definition emphasize social adjustment problems. Within the context of the diagnostic criteria of the medical model of human behavior, categories which are similar to the syndrome of behaviors associated with social maladjustments in children in special education school programs are the diagnostic criteria for conduct disorders and the oppositional defiant disorders. They are sub-classes of disorders listed under the more general group called "Disruptive Behavior Disorders" in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders; Revised-Third Edition (1987, p. 49).

Generally, the behaviors exhibited by behaviorally disturbed students with social problems are considered to be aversive to parents and teachers. It should be noted that the behaviors listed in the Chicago Public Schools System's definition are not unique to behaviorally disordered children. Nonhandicapped children occasionally display some of the characteristics of behaviorally disordered children, but the difference between a behavior disordered child and a nonhandicapped child is the intensity and frequency of

certain behaviors. Frequent aggression and noncompliance are the most obvious characteristics of behavior disordered students. Some authors have pointed out that professionals tend to emphasize the aversive behavioral excesses and miss treating the behavioral deficits (Gelfand, Jenson, & Drew, 1988). Among the most common behavioral deficits of conduct disordered children are their poor moral development and lack of empathic behavior. Many also show little guilt or conscience concerning destructive behavior (Gelfand, Jenson, & Drew, 1988).

Barkley (1985) postulated a deficit in rule-governed behavior model. According to Barkley, social rules guide behavior in different situations. Behavior disordered children, however, are viewed as being contingency governed because they respond to the immediate rewards in the environment rather than to social rules. Other deficits associated with conduct disorders include poor social skills and academic deficiencies. Loeber and Patterson (1981) indicated that 72 percent of the conduct disordered children referred to the Oregon Research Institute for services had poor peer relations. Patterson (1976) found that the profile for the aggressive conduct disordered child characterizes the child as retarded in the development of many of the basic social skills.

Gelfand, Jenson, and Drew (1988) made a list of the behavioral deficits most common among behavior disordered

children. These deficits are listed under three general categories: moral behavior, social behavior, and academic and school deficits. Children with moral behavior deficits show little remorse for destructive behavior, appear to have no conscience, and lack concern for the feelings of others. A child with social behavior deficits has few friends, lacks affection or bonding, has few problem solving skills, acts aggressively and impulsively rather than cooperatively, constantly seeks attention, has poor conversational skills, and does not know how to socially reward other peers and adults. Specific behaviors associated with academic and school deficits are that these children are generally behind in the academic basics, particularly reading, have difficulty acquiring new academic information, and are frequently truant.

In summary, several problems are investigated in the study at hand. One problem was the examination of whether or not the child rearing practices of mothers who had children in the behavior disorder educational program differed from the practices of mothers of normal children. Mothers were also divided into Black, White and Puerto Rican ethnic groups in an attempt to demonstrate possible cross-cultural differences in child rearing practices. In addition, this study was designed to examine whether or not the manifestation of certain sub-categories of behavior disorders varies as a function of ethnicity. Possible relationships

were examined among specific sub-categories of behavior disorders (e.g. conduct disorder, socialized aggression, attention problems, anxiety withdrawal, psychotic behavior and motor excess), and different practices or styles of child rearing (e.g. punishment vs. reason, promotion of dependence vs. independence, rules and regulations, spouse involvement, use of rewards, and preferred age of child). Finally, it should be noted that all subjects were from low socioeconomic group families. This homogeneity controls for the possible confounding effects of the social class and ethnicity variables and provides a social skills theoretical analysis context in which to study the behaviors of interest.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The overall purpose of this study is to examine the relationships among specific kinds of behavior problems (conduct disorder, socialized aggression, attention problems, anxiety-withdrawal, psychotic behavior, and motor excess) and the differential child rearing practices across three different ethnic groups (Whites, Blacks, and Puerto Ricans).

Factors that have been found to be related to the development of conduct disorders in children include: child rearing practices, consistency of discipline, supportive atmosphere of the family, and separation and divorce (Gelfand, Jenson & Drew 1988). Hetherington and Martin (1979, p. 68) listed the following series of dimensions with respect to child rearing practices: Control dimension ranging from restrictiveness to permissiveness; Affective-emotional dimension ranging from warmth to hostility; Discipline dimension: from consistency to inconsistency; Psychological dimension: from love-oriented to power oriented parenting styles.

According to Hetherington and Martin (1979), parents who are habitually inconsistent in rule setting and discipline can leave a child confused regarding the exact limits and

consequences for their behavior. Parents who exercise erratic control and are inappropriately permissive are more likely to have aggressive and behaviorally disordered children (Hetherington, Cox & Cox 1977; Hetherington & Martin 1979; Kazdin 1985). A discipline pattern of a lax, permissive mother and a rigid, restrictive father has been found to be related to the development of aggressive and delinquent behaviors (Bandura & Walters 1959). Other child rearing patterns that have been associated with the development of behavior problems, include permissive parents who accept the child's aggression and parents who are rejecting and restrictive.

Wells and Forehand (1985) summarized the research on child rearing practices and discipline problems. Findings that appear to be consistent across studies are the negative influence that attitudes of aggression, hostility, and negativism toward the child and the lack of setting consistent limits might have upon him or her. In addition, Kazdin (1985) presented a list of factors which may predispose a child's antisocial behavior such as broken homes and marital discord; birth order and family size; social class, and socioeconomic disadvantage.

In what follows, a selective review of the literature is presented with respect to each of the following topics: school social competence: a cross cultural definition; language minority students and social skills theory;

considerations in the assessment of behavior problems in culturally diverse groups; instruments used in the evaluation of behavior problems and child rearing practices; and cross cultural research on child rearing practices.

School Social Competence: A Cross-Cultural Definition

Many different ethnic groups can be identified in the United States. Social scientists classify members of these groups which exhibit differential life styles as sub-cultures. Henderson (1982, p. 41) argued that sub-cultures are distinct from the larger culture only in the limited sense that any part may be distinguished from the whole in which it is embedded. It is in this sense that educators refer to children of identifiable groups whose way of life deviate in certain ways from the dominant pattern as culturally diverse. Henderson prefers the term cultural diversity over the term cultural minorities. However, he asserts that there are research findings that may disprove cultural stereotypes and that most subcultures within the United States are culturally more similar to each other than they are different. In most cases, within group variation exceeds between groups variations. Henderson (1982) believes that poor children, whether or not they are a minority, may display culturally acquired behaviors which deviate from the expectations implicit in the culture of the school. For this reason they may be considered "culturally diverse" but not due to their ethnicity. Lack of socialization and

information about the dominant culture is more a product of poverty than of cross-cultural characteristics. Due to the discontinuity between home and school, many culturally diverse children lack the social competence needed to function in settings such as classrooms.

Laosa (1979) indicated that many studies which compare ethnic or racial minority and nonminority children fail to control for socioeconomic status and level of education. Chan and Rueda (1979) argued that researchers need to distinguish between the effects of poverty and culture in their analyses. It is important to make this distinction between cultural and social structural influences because a great number of children who are from minority groups are also poor. De Blassie (1983) also argued that differences between minority group and majority group children are more a function of their social strata rather than to their belonging to an identifiable ethnic group or race. He pointed out that many of the characteristics attributed to linguistically and culturally different children also characterize low socioeconomic class children, regardless of race or ethnicity. De Blassie's main argument is that the success that linguistically different children might attain will be heavily influenced by the socioeconomic status of their family. If they are of low socioeconomic status they will experience much difficulty adjusting to the mainstream culture of the school.

Laosa's (1979) definition of social competence involves functional adaptation to specific environments. Each environment has its own demand characteristics for functional adaptation. Whether a child will be successful in different environments depends on the overlap in the demand characteristics of the environments. Hollinger (1987) argued that, when identifying the necessary conditions for social competence, there is a risk of relying on subjective evaluations as well as in comparisons between an individual's behavior and normative data to judge the effectiveness in social behavior. Absence of objective criteria leads individuals to make judgements of social competence according to their own personal bias and sociocultural orientations. Hollinger concludes that, when considering a definition of social competence, it is important to look for social behaviors or social skills that lead to desirable social outcomes. These desirable social outcomes, however, are relative to value judgement. Implicit in this notion is a relationship between social competence and social perception. The degree of social effectiveness of an individual is determined by the observers, the specific situation, and the context in which behavior occurs. Parkhurst and Asher (1985) defined social competence as the ability to accomplish appropriate goals in social situations. School children would be considered socially competent if they display behaviors that are valued positively in the school culture.

Henderson (1982) indicated that some behaviors that have been found to be crucial in making a functional adaptation to the school setting are curiosity, assertiveness, conformity to rules and regulations, focusing on task behavior, and interest in school work. Laosa (1982) suggested that a condition required to prevent school failure is for educators to become well informed about the child's environmental organization and to make adaptations in the environment of the classroom that will enable the child to adapt more easily to the requirements of the school culture. This functional adaptation is what Sullivan (1979) called structural assimilation. Structural assimilation requires the ability to deal with members of other groups in instrumental transactions. This process is necessary for success in school. This definition involves a degree of acculturation to the school environment. Brantlinger and Guskin (1985) discussed two different approaches in acculturation. Professionals who take a cultural or cognitive deficit perspective would structure the school environment to modify the home or minority style. Whereas those sustaining a cultural relativity position and who accept and value diversity would recommend that teaching styles be adapted to accommodate minority learners who have unique styles.

Banks (1988) advocates for what he calls a Multiethnic Curriculum in which students are provided with cultural and ethnic alternatives. The intention is to promote in members

of particular ethnic groups an acquaintance, understanding and respect for other cultural groups. Banks (1988) argues that historically the curriculum in United States has focused primarily on the culture of the Anglo-American home and community and this type of curriculum does not provide for cultural alternatives. The Anglo-centric curriculum may have negative consequences for minorities as well as for Anglo American children. The school system is being unfair to the Anglo American child in denying him or her the opportunity to learn about the richness of other cultures. The Anglo-Centric curriculum could negatively affect the self-concept of minority children because it may promote adherence to values, behavior patterns and linguistic traits different from their concrete home and community reality. This decontextualization of the school curriculum may interfere with students acquisition of academic content. According to Banks, the key goal of Multiethnic curricula must be to provide all students with skills, attitudes and the knowledge they need to function within their ethnic culture and the mainstream culture. He uses the term cross cultural competency to describe the goal of the Multiethnic curriculum to help students master the skills that would enable them to an adequate cross cultural functioning. Some of the skills that the students need to master according to Banks are: bilingualism, or the ability to communicate proficiently in two different languages; biculturalism, a process in which

individuals assimilates symbols and characteristics of the other ethnic group while he or she maintains those of its own ethnic group; attitude change, process where individuals deals with issues of racism and prejudice; and the process of psychological identification where the individual develops three types of interrelated identifications: ethnicity, national, and global.

Language Minority Students and Social Skills Theory

Esquivel and Yoshida (1985) used the theory and research in the area of social skills as the conceptual framework to explain misbehavior in language minority students. They define social skills as the students' ability to organize cognitions and behaviors into an integrated course of action directed toward culturally acceptable social or interpersonal goals. As these authors discussed, the term, culturally acceptable, originates in the question of who is going to define what should be considered culturally acceptable. What is considered culturally acceptable is determined by the mainstream or majority group in society. As a consequence, minority students must meet expectations that are foreign to them. Other important questions, presented by Esquivel and Yoshida (1985) are whether or not minority students have the necessary skills to interact appropriately with peers and, if they know the critical steps involved in the performance of the socially acceptable skill. Minority students may never have had the opportunity to learn

behaviors that are socially acceptable in the majority context and under what circumstances these behaviors must be exhibited. School personnel may complain about a minority student's behavior problem, when what this student actually has are social skills deficits. Esquivel and Yoshida pointed out several factors that may precipitate language minority students' misbehavior: poverty, transition into the dominant culture, school failure, and a lack of role models to help them in learning what is acceptable in the new culture.

Cummins (1984) argued that it is crucial that school personnel interpret language minority students' behavior in light of both the possibility of temporary adjustment problems to a new environment, and of differential cultural expectations and norms deriving from the minority community. Many minority students experience emotional problems that have their roots in linguistics and cultural differences between the home and school setting. Some of the sources for emotional or behavioral problems that Cummins identified are: problems of cultural identity, conflicting demands of parents and peer groups, maintenance of the native language, coping with economically depressed and stressful home situations, racial and ethnic intolerance on the part of the peers, and rejection by members of the dominant group. The experience of being rejected by members of the dominant group complicates the identity options available to minority students. Cummins argued that some students may cope by

increasing their efforts to assimilate and deny one's own background, while for others it can lead to self-doubt or long term resentment of the dominant group. Both of these situations generate emotional tension for the language minority student.

De Blassie (1983) indicated that some of the social problems that have been found in connection with behavior disorders and emotionally disturbed conditions in Mexican American children are assimilation-acculturation process to mainstream, lack of language communication skills, and individual reactions to discrimination. Among the individual reactions in coping with discrimination are: hostile aggression and negativism, disruptiveness, anxiety, withdrawal and apathy, and interpersonal problems.

According to results reported by the Midwest National Origin Desegregation Center (1982), students who would be appropriately served by a program for the behavior disordered are those ill-adapted individuals whose behavior patterns lie outside of their own ethnic community's norms as well as outside of American standards. Thus, it is important to discriminate carefully between behavior disorders and possible temporary adjustment problems to a new environment. Possible differential cultural expectations and norms deriving from the minority community should also be considered.

Considerations in the Assessment of Behavior

Problems in Culturally Diverse Groups

According to a survey done by the National Association of School Psychologists, the assessment of behavioral problems is an area in which many psychologists experience considerable difficulty (Ramage 1979). Gresham (1982, 1985) argued that school psychologists lack knowledge and skills in the area of behavioral assessments. According to Gresham (1985) past surveys of the National Association of School Psychologists have found that psychologists are rarely using behavior rating scales, and structural observation as part of their assessments. Gresham's opinion is that this finding is disconcerting given the research evidence that over a number of years has demonstrated the reliability, validity, and practical utility of behavior rating scales in the classification of childhood psychopathology (Achenbach, 1982; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1982; Quay 1983). Evans and Nelson (1977) described the value of behavioral observations and behavioral assessments in conducting a functional analysis of behavior for intervention purposes. Gresham (1985) claims that school psychologists might not be using the best available assessment technology to conduct behavioral disorder assessments. He identified two contributing factors to poor assessments in the area of behavioral disorders: the lack of training in this area, and the vagueness and ambiguity in most state definitions of behavior disorders and

severe emotional disturbance. It is Gresham's opinion that school psychologists and other multidisciplinary team members are reticent to use the behavior disorders label for philosophical and/or legal reasons. Thus they use a milder label such as learning disabilities to classify students who may be in fact behavior disordered. Gresham (1982) described a behavioral assessment model to be utilized with children presenting behavior problems. This model includes three types of assessment information: direct observation, rating scale data, and interview data. The same author (1985) described a more elaborated model for the assessment of behavior problems which follows five principles: principles of problem solving, principles of functional analysis, principle of multiple operationalism, principle of generalizability and principle of social validity.

The final court order on the Isaac Lora et al. versus the Board of Education of the City of New York et al. case was made in 1984 (Lora et al. v. Board of Education, City of New York, 1984). This case lasted nine years in court. The plaintiffs, Isaac Lora and other minority students, (Blacks and Hispanics) claimed that their statutory rights were violated by the assessment procedures and special education placements used by the New York City public schools. The suit was especially directed against programs for behavioral problems. In 1977 the student population in New York city was 36% Black, 23% Hispanic and 41% other. The student

composition in the programs for the behavior disordered was 68% Blacks, 27% Hispanics and 5% other (Lora et al. v. Board of Education, City of New York, 1978). In 1984, the court stated that the programs were racially segregated and discriminatory (pp. 1573-1574). The referral and placement procedures were found to be biased. The court appointed an advisory panel of independent experts to help the schools develop nondiscriminatory procedures for both the assessment and provision of services for behavioral disturbed students.

The Lora case brought to public attention two controversial issues: the possible biased assessments of minority students with cultural and language differences, and the possible over-identification of behavioral problems among minority students (Wood, Johnson, & Jenkins, 1986). One of the final court orders was to provide training and supervision to the staff and to review their performance to ensure that they would give careful and sensitive attention to linguistic, cultural and ethnic factors during the assessment process (Lora et al. v. Board of Education, City of New York, 1984). The court accepted the opinion of the experts, which stated that no existing procedures permit the purely objective determination that a student is behaviorally disordered. The decision about the existence of emotional/behavioral disorders appears to be subjectively made. The court held that these decisions should be made by trained professionals sensitized to possible bias in their

assessments, and with the input of parents and their advocates. Factors such as sensory or cognitive difficulties, linguistics and cultural differences have to be ruled out as possible explanations for a student's problems before recommending behavior disorder placement.

Some of the nondiscriminatory standards and procedures that the schools in New York City agreed to implement include the provision that once a student is identified as presenting behavior problems, the assessment personnel should make recommendations about interventions to be tried first in the regular classroom (Lora et al. v. Board of Education, City of New York, 1984). Ideally, an intervention phase should be part of the assessment process. That is, some intervention strategies must be tried in the regular classroom before considering the student as a potential candidate for special education. These interventions would then be documented and evaluated in the regular classroom prior to the meeting of the multidisciplinary staffing. The professional making the referral must describe the problem, including the frequency of the problem and a description of the comparable behavior of other students in the classroom. The assessment team then conducts observations in more than one setting, different individuals get involved in conducting observations, and attention is being given to the frequency with which the problem occurs. Interpretation of the student's data and self-reports should consider the possible effect of

linguistic and cultural variables. Assessment procedures also must take in consideration factors of cultural difference between the student and the school personnel.

Sugai (1988) proposed an interventionist approach in the study of behavior problems. He recommended the utilization of curriculum based practices that focus on the educational process rather than on the student's performance only. His approach includes direct observation methods, functional analysis and functional relationship, empirical and social validation, communicative function of behavior and a critical effects principle of behavior. Sugai asserts that frequently schools fail to tolerate and accomodate individual differences and some students are misdiagnosed as handicaps. When studying the behavior of a child from a different culture, school personnel must consider behaviors and predisposing, precipitating and contributing factors from the school community and home settings. Factors from the home and cultural background that are related to a student's behavior are: cultural beliefs, family values and expectations, family interactions and functioning and, child rearing practices. According to Sugai, for some minority students the influence of their culture might interfere with their access to what the mainstream considers to be academic and social success. The greater the difference between the minority student's own culture and the new culture, the more difficult the acculturation process is, and the greater the

probability of referral for alternative educational programs including special education.

In sum, labeling a student as behaviorally or emotionally disturbed is viewed by many as a rather subjective decision. In the case of minority students great care must be exercised in recommending behavior disorder placement and treatment. An ecological approach is recommended, factors of the home, community, culture, and differences between the school culture and the student's own culture must be critically analyzed. One of the recommendations in the assessment of linguistically and culturally diverse students presenting behavior problems is for members of the assessment team in the schools to utilize a functional analysis approach which may include: behavioral observations, rating scales, and interviews, as part of their data (Lora vs. New York Board of Education, 1984; Sugai 1988). There are behavioral scales available for parents, teachers, and students. However, the scale's data must be cautiously interpreted. When scales have only majority norms reported, it is considered more appropriate to use the information as descriptive instead of making comparisons with other non-minority groups. Another important consideration based on the social skills theory research findings is that a student might have a deficit in social skills and needs to learn the behaviors considered appropriate in the new environment as well as to be exposed to role models. If the

child presenting behavioral problems is placed in a self-contained special education classroom, his or her chances of being exposed to socially validated adequate role models are not as great as if placement were in a less restrictive heterogeneous environment. It is also important to have the parents' input to explore whether the behaviors considered misbehavior by the teacher are also viewed as inadequate by parents and members of the child's immediate community. In what follows, a review of the literature is presented concerning two instruments that could be utilized to assess parent's input about their child's behavior problems.

Instruments Used in the Evaluation of Behavior

Problems and Child Rearing Practices

A procedure to identify critical areas of dissonance between the school culture and behaviors fostered in the home environment is to have parents' input regarding their socialization practices. However, socialization is a broad concept, an alternative is to focus in their child rearing practices as the unit of analysis. Rearing practices is a variable that could be operationalized. It is important to study how the discipline practices and expectations of appropriate behavior in the home correspond to the discipline rules and behaviors expected in the school setting. An assessment of the child rearing practices that parents utilize in areas closely related to the development of behaviors considered as crucial for social competency in the

school seems necessary. When utilizing a functional analysis of behavior as the approach guiding assessment and intervention purposes, it is important to have operational definitions of behaviors that are considered incompatible with socially validated appropriate behaviors in the classroom. In addition, it is necessary to have different sources or persons evaluating the magnitude of the manifestation of particular behaviors (interrater reliability).

The two questionnaires used in the study at hand to assess child rearing practices and behavior problems were The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay, 1983) and The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (Dielman & Barton 1981). These instruments were administered to both the mothers of children who were identified as presenting behavior disorders by the school personnel, and to a control group of mothers whose children were not presenting behavior disorders.

The Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay, 1977) has been extensively used in research over the last 20 years. Both, teachers and parents might rate the students on this behavior checklist. Several factor analysis studies have been conducted on the Quay and Peterson's Behavior Problem Checklist to find evidence about the checklist factors' structure. Peterson (1961) conducted a study in which he analyzed teachers' responses in evaluating behavior problems in school children from kindergarten to sixth grade. He

identified two factors, conduct problems and personality problems. Quay performed further research with delinquent children (1964), and emotionally disturbed students (Quay, Morse & Cutler 1966). A third cluster emerged from studies with emotionally disturbed children (inadequacy-immaturity). The factor of socialized delinquency emerged from studies with delinquent children (Quay, 1964; Quay & Peterson 1967). Other researches have also attempted to identify some behavior patterns that might be part of the structure of a behavior problem checklist. Dielman, Cattell and Leper (1971) identified several disciplinary problems that could account for the factors of conduct disorder, personality disorder, and inadequacy-immaturity. Cullinan, Epstein, Cole and Dembinski (1985) used the original BPC in a study where behaviorally disordered and nonhandicapped girls were rated by their teachers. They found significant differences between the behaviorally disordered and nonhandicapped girls on three factors of the BPC: conduct disorder, personality problems, and inadequacy-immaturity. The original Quay and Peterson's Behavior Problem Checklist (1975) consisted of 55 items. The revised version (1983) is an 89 item rating scale that addresses personal and social maladjustment of children. The items of the scale were derived from a review of more than 40 published studies that had reported one or more factors that could be labeled as conduct disorder (CD), anxiety withdrawal (AW), attention problems (AP), socialized

aggression (SA), psychotic behavior (PB), and motor excess (ME). Over the years this checklist has been used for different purposes such as an screening device for behavior disorders in the schools, in clinical diagnosis, in the classification of juvenile offenders, and in the selection of subjects for research purposes. Quay and Peterson (1987) indicated that the conceptual similarity between DSM-111 categories and the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist can be assessed by inspection of the behavioral characteristics subsumed by each. The Undersocialized Aggressive and Socialized Aggressive Conduct Disorders of DSM-111 are represented by the CD and SA scales of the RBPC.

The Quay and Peterson's original Behavior Problem Checklist has been used in studies in several countries and with different ethnic groups (Collins, Maxwell & Cameron, 1962; Gajar & Hale 1982; Kobayashi, Mizushima & Shinohara, 1967; Wolf 1971). The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist has also been utilized in other countries and with different ethnic groups. In a study conducted in New Zealand (Aman, Werry, Fitzpatrick, Lowe & Walters 1983) a factor analysis was performed on data resulted from children attending child psychiatric clinics and children from the community. Factor analysis of the patients' data showed a factor structure similar to that found by Quay (Quay, 1983). Aman and Werry (1984) conducted a similar study in New Zealand with the caretakers of clinical and non clinical groups of children

ages 5 to 13. They were interested in the effects of age and sex on the RBPC scores. The clinical group was rated significantly higher on all six factors of the RBPC. Boys were rated higher by their caretakers than girls on three scales: conduct problems, attention problems, and motor excess. Younger groups of children in their sample (five to six year olds) scored significantly lower than the older children on three of the factors: conduct problem, attention problems, and psychotic behavior.

A Spanish translation of the Quay and Peterson's Behavior Problem Checklist (1983) was used to study the relationship between behavior problems and biculturalism among a sample of Cuban Americans (Hanna, 1981). Rios and Szapacznik performed a study with Hispanics in which the ratings of both mothers and fathers of 63 Hispanic males ages six to eight were obtained before entry to a family therapy program (cited in Quay & Peterson, 1987). A Spanish translation of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (Rios, 1982) was used to find interparent agreement on data collected for clinical purposes. The interparent correlations obtained were .73 for CD, .81 for SA, .24 for AP, .69 for AW, .54 for PB, and .97 for ME.

Gajar and Hale (1982) used Quay & Peterson's Behavior Problem Checklist with racially different exceptional children. Their sample consisted of emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, and mentally retarded students from both

White and Black races. They found similarities between races on factors labeled in previous studies as conduct disorder, personality problems and immaturity inadequacy. Behaviors like laziness in school, unresponsibility, and dislike for school were found more frequently in Blacks. The authors interpreted the findings by theorizing that these behaviors are negatively related to the value of academic achievement, which is a value emphasized more by White ethnic groups than Blacks. According to Sattler (1988) the internal consistency reliability, interrater reliability, test retest reliability, as well as the concurrent and construct validity of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist all appear to be adequate.

Few investigators have studied how the rearing practices of parents of children placed in programs for the behavior disordered students relate to specific dimensions of behavior of these children. Among the few studies in this area, Goldstein (1986), using data from the Health Examination Survey conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics, examined the effect of conduct problems on cognitive development in a representative sample of the nation's one to twelve year olds. He used covariance analysis to examine the relation between high parental supervision and conduct disorders. Contrary to his hypothesis, he found that conduct disordered youths presenting problems in academic achievement and cognitive functioning have parents who provide close disciplinarian

supervision. These results contradict the findings of a previous study by Goldstein (1984) in which he employed the same survey, but used data from 1984. In this 1984 study, Goldstein found that youths whose parents provided close supervision of their activities were less likely than those whose parents did not supply such supervision to have conduct problems in the school and community.

The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire was developed out of a research program which began in the early 1970s, by Dielman, Barton, Cattell, and others. The specific focus of this research program was an examination of the structure of parental child rearing practices. Dielman, Barton, Cattell and others have attempted to develop a reliable instrument that measures child taker behavior. This instrument (CRPQ) has its origin in the factor analysis that Milton (1958) made of the Sears, Maccoby and Levin method of studying caretaker behaviors. Evidence related to the structure of the questionnaire was reported by Dielman, Cattell, Lepper, and Rhoades (1971), who studied the responses of 156 mothers and 133 fathers of 6 to 8 year olds. In another investigation, Dielman and Cattell (1972) studied how the responses of 156 mothers of 6 to 8 years olds predicted children's behavior problems as measured by a behavior problem checklist completed by the students' teachers. In a succeeding study, Dielman, Barton and Cattell (1972) administered the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire to 331 mothers and 307

fathers of junior high school students. They performed separated factor analyses for the mothers' and the fathers' responses and compared these results to findings from a previous study done by the same authors (1971). During the decade of the seventies, the CRPQ was used as the instrument to measure child rearing practices in many studies. The questionnaire factors were found to be significantly related to variables such as child's personality, school achievement, and motivational factors (Barton, Dielman & Cattell, 1977; Dielman & Cattell, 1972; Barton, Dielman & Cattell, 1974). The factors that emerged from all the factor analytical research were: punishment vs. reason; promotion of dependence-independence; rules and regulations; spouse involvement; use of rewards; and preference for older children. These six factors of the CRPQ were found to be common to both fathers and mothers in research done by Barton (1981) and a final version of the questionnaire was constructed with ten items per factor. Research in the development of the CRPQ has included groups of subjects representing categories such as Whites and Blacks, upper to middle class, rural and urban, and from different educational levels. During the decade of the eighties, the authors (Dielman, Barton, & Cattell) have continued with their research on child caretaker behaviors using the CRPQ, and standardization data is being collected (1981, 1986).

Cross Cultural Research on Child Rearing Practices

Most research on child rearing practices has been conducted primarily with Anglos and secondarily with Blacks. Research with other ethnic groups has been done mainly with Chicanos (second or third generation of Mexicans). In an examination of research with different ethnic groups, Levine and Barts (1979) suggested that studies in this area lead to the main conclusion that social class cuts across ethnicity in determining many child rearing practices. However, Geismar and Gerhart (1968) pointed out that, even when social class is being controlled, much variation in child rearing practices remains. Social class overshadows ethnicity in determining the nature of family functioning but social, economic and psychological factors interplay. Geismar and Gerhart (1968) also argued that it is not economic opportunity alone, but a group's response to such opportunity or lack of it, which affects families' ability to carry out their socially expected roles.

In studies comparing the child rearing attitudes of the two larger Hispanic groups (Mexicans and Puerto Ricans), few have controlled for social class or systematically compared the Hispanic's child rearing practices to those of parents from other ethnic groups. Williams (1979) pointed out that most research on minority child rearing practices has studied lower class families while investigations into the child rearing practices of White American families have emphasized

middle class families. This represents an obstacle for valid comparative analysis of rearing practices because the effect of social class in patterns of child rearing could not be distinguished from the effects of ethnicity.

In an in-depth study of four Chicano middle class fathers, Mejia (1975) reported two attitudes characteristic of the middle class American Whites: movement toward equalitarianism, and concomitant lack of male authoritarianism and female submissiveness. Johnson (1975), on the other hand, found that lower SES Chicano parents employ more control and authoritarianism than middle class Chicano parents. These results support previous findings obtained with Black and Anglo subjects which indicate that working and lower class parents are more likely to employ authoritarian child rearing practices than middle class parents.

Geismar and Gerhart (1968) in a study in which they interviewed 50 Blacks, 50 Whites, and 33 Puerto Rican mothers, found few ethnic differences in child rearing practices when socioeconomic status was controlled. Cahill (1966) administered a questionnaire and an interview to 60 low socioeconomic status Puerto Ricans, Negro and Anglo mothers. He discovered significant variance in only 22 of 82 tested variables. Cahill found that Puerto Rican families placed little emphasis on responsibility. Puerto Rican mothers were more permissive and fostered more dependence

than Anglo and Black mothers. Griswold (1975) in a study of Anglo, Black and Chicano mothers, found differences in overall variance on four of five scales but no significant variance was found across ethnic groups.

Findings from other studies have revealed a number of differences in child rearing practices among different ethnic groups. Durrett, O'Bryant and Pennebaker (1975) in a study with Chicano, Anglo, and Black families found that child rearing practices differed across ethnicity in five of six general orientation categories that were tested. Their findings indicated that the Chicano fathers and mothers emphasize control of emotions by not showing anger, not crying and hiding feelings. They were also more protective than Anglo and Black parents. These researchers also found that the Chicano parents placed less emphasis on having children assume early responsibility for their behavior; and the fathers showed less achievement orientation than fathers of the other two ethnicities. Durrett et al. (1975) also noted that Chicano mothers were more likely than Black mothers to control their children's behavior through the use of guilt, and Chicanos were also more consistent in administering reward and punishment. On the other hand, Blacks were more likely to use arbitrary and authoritarian rules. Steward and Steward (1973) in a study of the child rearing behaviors of Chicano mothers, found that they provided more negative feedback when disciplining their

children than the Anglo and Black mothers of different social classes.

LeVine and Bartz (1979) described the Chicano family as being permissive, de-emphasizing support and control, and with an underlying expectation for responsible behavior. Many studies suggest that permissiveness may be a central factor of Hispanic child rearing practices in the low socio-economic class. LeVine and Bartz (1979) pointed out that research is needed to explore the purpose of permissiveness within the Hispanic family, and the means by which that permissiveness is inculcated. These researchers suggested that ethnic differences identified in their study do not reflect orientations to child rearing practices that are in opposition; but rather that a different emphasis is being given to particular attitudes or desired behaviors. LeVine and Bartz also suggested as a possible research problem to study the effect that a complex attitudinal pattern of valuing strictness and autonomy, while showing permissiveness, and providing minimal control, but simultaneously offering strong family support, might have upon the Hispanic youngster's personality.

Davis (1983) examined the child rearing patterns of a group of Black fathers to determine how these were related to the behavior problems in their sons. Data was collected using a sample of fathers, mothers, and sons of 40 families living in Chicago. He compared two groups: families that had

one son who was identified as having behavior disorders, and families having no children identified as presenting behavior disorders. Davis found differences between the child rearing tendencies of the fathers of behavior disordered sons and those of fathers not having behavior disordered sons.

Fathers of behavior disordered sons described themselves as more controlling, and as having limited the development of individual responsibility in their sons. Behavior disordered sons viewed their fathers as more controlling, punitive and less rewarding than how non behavior disordered students perceived their fathers.

Portes, Dunham and Williams (1986) conducted a post-facto study to examine the extent that the child rearing practices of a group of Black and White mothers were affected by a training program that they previously received during 1968-1969. Results of the study suggest that culture plays a major role in the way children are reared. In their study White parents were consistently less strict in disciplining their children than were Black parents, regardless of SES, educational attainment, or effects of the intervention program. The early training sought to train mothers to be less restrictive, punitive, and more verbal. However, effects of the training persisted to a moderate extent.

Reis, Stein and Bennett (1986) conducted a study utilizing an ecological model of human behavior as the framework to examine the interrelationship of variables such

as parental knowledge of and attitudes toward child developmental milestones, type of social support systems, and parental race as predictors of parenting behavior. Results showed that parents' race was significantly related to attitudes toward child rearing, and knowledge of child development. Punitive attitudes toward childrearing and parental race were significant predictors of the quality of parenting.

Zepeda and Espinosa (1988) compared the parental knowledge of the behavioral capabilities of young children in a sample of low income foreign born Hispanics, Blacks, Anglos, and Hispanics born in the United States. Results showed that the three groups: Blacks, U.S.-born Hispanics, and Anglo parents were similar in their perception of the timing of behavioral capabilities in children. However, foreign-born Hispanics differed from the other three groups. In general this latter group perceived the behavioral capabilities of young children in the areas of self help, language, social and motor skills as developing latter than the other three groups do. According to Zepeda and Espinosa, these findings might assist in understanding certain differences in child rearing practices in Hispanic groups such as their failure to stress independent behaviors early in the life of a child.

The ideas presented in this chapter can be summarized as follows. An examination of the differences between the

school culture and the student's culture appear to be important for assessment and intervention purposes. There is a range of behaviors that serve as pre-requisites in making a functional adaptation to the school setting. Some of the desirable behaviors needed are assertiveness, conformity to rules and regulations, focusing on task behaviors, independence, and self-regulation. These are behaviors reportedly fostered in most middle class home atmospheres, but are not behaviors encouraged in most low income home environments. In addition to the socioeconomic factor, there are differences between the culture of the school and the culture of the students which might be related to his/her ethnic background. Some of the investigative questions emerging from the theoretical framework discussed earlier in this manuscript are as follows: Do parents of students classified as behavior disordered exhibit child rearing practices which encourage behaviors incompatible with those behaviors expected in the school environment? Does the manifestation of specific behavior problems vary across cultures, and are there variations related to specific culturally embedded socialization practices?

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

- 1-There are no significant differences in the Revised Behavioral Problem Checklist scores across ethnic groups.
- 2-There are no significant differences in scores on the Revised Behavioral Problem Checklist across types of educational program.
- 3-There are no interaction effects among ethnicity, type of educational program, and scores on the Revised Behavioral Problem Checklist.
- 4-There are no significant differences in scores on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire across type of educational program.
- 5-There are no significant differences in the Child Rearing Practices scores across ethnic groups.
- 6-There are no significant interaction effects among ethnicity, types of educational program, and scores on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire.

Subjects

The experimental group consisted of the mothers of

students (7 to 13 year old males) who were enrolled in the behavior disorder instructional programs of districts 4, 5, and 6 of the Chicago Public Schools. This experimental group consisted of 105 mothers (35 Puerto Ricans, 35 Blacks, and 35 White Americans). The control group consisted of the mothers of children (7 to 13 year old males) who were enrolled in regular instructional programs and were not receiving any type of special education services. This control group also consisted of 105 mothers (35 Puerto Ricans, 35 Blacks and 35 White Americans). All mothers, in both the experimental and control groups, were from low income families residing in the same school districts (4, 5, and 6). The selection of school districts and specific schools from which the subjects were identified was based on information compiled from the United States Census report, the number of children receiving free lunches in the targeted schools, the number of students qualifying for the Chapter 1 programs, and the number of families within the school districts reported to be on welfare.

Criteria considered in selecting mothers for this study were ethnicity, income level, the instructional program, and age of their children. Information with respect to ethnicity was found in the students' record and corroborated by the participating subjects. That is to say that occupation and salary, marital status, and ethnicity were corroborated in an interview with the potential subjects before administering

the RBPC and the CRPQ. The sample of mothers selected had the following characteristics: 43% were on welfare, 22% of the mothers were employed in working class jobs, and 35% had husbands employed in working class jobs. Jobs considered as "working class" were jobs such as factory worker, janitor, waiter and waitress, bus attendant, and other jobs where salary was \$12,000 or less per year.

Fifty-seven percent of the mothers of the students in the behavior disorder instructional programs were heads of the households (single, divorced, widows). Twenty-seven percent of the mothers of the students in the regular programs of instruction were heads of the households. There were 70 first generation Puerto Ricans (born in Puerto Rico), 70 White Americans, and 70 Black Americans.

Procedure

Instructions to the Subjects

The investigator described the overall purpose of the study to the mothers. The investigator told the mothers that the information collected would be confidential, that names and other personal information would be carefully coded and that their participation was voluntary. Data was collected using a combination of individual and group administration procedures. The investigator administered both The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist and The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire to all participants. In all cases, it was noted that the information was to be used only for the

purpose of this investigation and their responses under no circumstances would influence their children's present instructional programs of study.

Materials

The instruments used in the study were: The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (Dielman & Barton, 1983) and The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay & Peterson, 1983).

The Revised Behavioral Problem Checklist

Quay and Peterson (1987) revised the Behavior Problem Checklist to strengthen the psychometric characteristics of the first version. The original Behavior Problem Checklist (1975) is a symptom rating scale designed to be completed by parents, teachers or other significant adults. It has 55 items that contribute to four factorially independent dimensions: conduct problems, anxiety withdrawal, inadequacy-immaturity, and socialized delinquency. Researchers have used this scale frequently for more than 15 years in schools and other applied settings for purposes of screening and assessment. The scale resulted from a series of factor analytic studies into the structure of deviant behavior in children and adolescents. Quay and Peterson developed the original item pool from an analysis of complaints about children seen in a child guidance clinic. Quay and Peterson performed the initial factor analysis on a sample of children (kindergarten through sixth grade). Since 1961, different

researchers have used The Behavior Problem Checklist in more than 100 published studies using a variety of clinical and normal samples. Quay and Peterson began the revision of the BPC by adding 99 items to the original to make an initial total of 150. This expanded scale eventually became the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist consisting of 89 items. Quay and Peterson performed factor analyses independently on a variety of samples including psychiatric inpatients and outpatients, and children with specific learning disabilities. Four scales resulted:

1-Conduct Disorder-(CD) 22 items

2-Socialized Aggression-(SA) 17 items

3-Attention Problems-Immaturity-(AP) 16 items

4-Anxiety-Withdrawal-(AW) 11 items

Two minor scales were also derived from the factor analytic clusters:

5-Psychotic Behavior-(PB) 6 items

6-Motor Tension-Excess-(ME) 5 items

The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist uses weighted scoring. Each item circled "1" earns one point and each item circled "2" earns two points for the respective scale. Each sub-scale measures a dimension or continuum of deviant behavior. An individual child or adolescent's score on a sub-scale gives him or her a place on the dimension underlying the sub-scale. The interpretation of scores is a two-fold process. The clinician has to understand the

psychological meaning of each dimension underlying the six sub-scales. The clinician interprets the scores obtained by each individual in terms of how extreme each score is in light of the individual's age and sex when his or her score is compared, first to normative and clinical data and second to his or her scores on the other sub-scales.

Interpretation of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist Sub-Scales

CD-represents a dimension of aggressive, noncompliant, quarrelsome, interpersonally alienated, acting out behavior which has been found in multivariate statistical studies of deviance in children and adolescents.

SA-also represents a dimension of an acting-out, externalizing behavior. Individuals scoring high in this scale tend to reject authority and the norms of the larger society. This dimension has previously been referred to as one of sub-cultural or socialized delinquency.

AP-refers to problems in concentration, perseverance, impulsivity, and direction which lead to a deficient ability to satisfy the demands of school and home. This sub-scale reportedly measures many of the characteristics of what is called Attention Deficit Disorder.

AW-represents the internalizing dimensions of disorder subsuming such characteristics as anxiety, depression, fear of failure, social inferiority, and self-concern. This dimension reflects subjective distress and neuroticism.

PB-contains items that are clearly related to overt psychosis (e.g. delusions) and items related to language dysfunctions. According to the authors (Quay & Peterson, 1983), this scale has to be interpreted with great caution, high scores might be considered as an indication of the need for further behavioral assessment.

ME-involves both gross motor and apparent motoric tension (nervous, jittery, easily startled). The presence of these characteristics does not necessarily imply the presence of psychopathology. According to the authors, children who are simply exuberant, enthusiastic and very active may score high on this sub-scale.

The clinician or researcher interprets the obtained scores on the different sub-scales by making reference to the means and standard deviations for both normal and clinical groups. Both sex and age must be considered. The present investigation used raw scores to make group comparisons. No reference to norms was made. The mothers of children who were enrolled in the behavior disorder programs as well as a sample of mothers of children in the regular programs (ages 7 to 13) completed the scale. A Spanish translation of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist developed in Miami by Rios (1983) was administered to those mothers whose dominant language was Spanish. For more information about the Spanish translation of the RBPC refer to the section "Instruments Utilized in the Evaluation of Behavior Problems and Child

Rearing Practices" in Chapter Two.

Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire

The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire developed from the research that Dielman, Barton, Cattell and others began in the early 1970s. The CRPQ originates as a factor analysis of the interview questionnaire used by Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) to study rearing practices. In 1971, Dielman, Cattell, Lepper and Rhodes studied the responses of 156 mothers and fathers of six to eight year old children. They identified a core set of factors which Dielman, Barton and Cattell (1973) subsequently replicated on a sample of 307 fathers and 331 mothers of junior high school students. In this investigation, Dielman, Barton and Cattell provided cross validation evidence on the structure of the factors they identified in their adaptation of the Sears, Maccoby and Levin's instrument. The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire factors are related to variables such as school achievement, child personality, motivational factors, family attitudes, cognitive style and sex role preferences (Barton, Dielman & Cattell, 1973; Edgerton, 1976). Originally there were separate forms of the CRPQ for fathers and mothers but in 1981, the authors developed a combined form with 60 items, 10 in each sub-scale. The data collected on the previous mentioned studies served as the basis for the final factor analysis and final form of the CRPQ. Six factors were found common to both mothers and fathers.

Factor 1-Punishment vs. Reason: These items relate to the differential merits and effects of punishment or reason in controlling child behavior. A parent receiving a high score on this factor tends to believe that physical punishment works much better than reasoning with children. A parent receiving a low score prefers to utilize reasoning rather than punishment.

Factor 2-Dependence-Independence: These items involve the degree to which parents should or should not encourage the child to stand on his/her own feet. The term autonomy control is also used to describe this scale. A high score indicates a parent who encourages a child to be around the parent and intervenes in many of the child's affairs. A low score indicates more freedom or autonomy given to the child.

Factor 3-Rules and Regulations: These items reflect the degree to which parents have a set of rules for child behaviors such as play, table manners, fighting, arguing, obedience, etc. A high score indicates that the parents have a range of rules and regulations for acceptable child behavior whereas a low score suggests a lack of such structure.

Factor 4-Spouse Involvement: Items on this factor sample the relative involvement of the mother versus the father in a whole variety of roles like rule maker and disciplinarian. A high score indicates that the father is more involved than the mother. A low score indicates that the mother is more

involved.

Factor 5-Use of Rewards: This item reflects the degree to which parents use rewards to change and reinforce child behaviors. A parent with a high score gives many rewards for desired child behaviors, whereas a low score indicates that few or no rewards are used.

Factor 6- Preferred Age of Children: This factor indicates preference for younger or older children. A high scoring parent prefers younger children. The low scoring parent prefers older children.

A final version of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire was constructed with 10 items per factor for a total of 60 items. Each item has several alternatives. These alternatives have a value ranging from zero to five. The Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire was translated to Spanish by the investigator with the collaboration of a professional translator from the Bureau of Multilingual Education, Chicago Public Schools, and a Bilingual-Bicultural Psychologist. The Spanish translation of the CRPQ was administered to those mothers whose dominant language was Spanish.

Design and Statistical Analysis

Two analytic paradigms are presented in Figure 1 and 2. For the first analytic paradigm, the independent variables were the ethnic group category (Blacks, Whites, Puerto Ricans), and the type of programs (behavior disorders

programs, regular programs). The dependent measures consisted of scores on the six factors of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire. For the second analytic paradigm, the dependent variable consisted of scores on the six subscales of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist. The independent variables consisted of the tricotomized ethnicity variable (Puerto Ricans, Blacks, and Whites), and the type of program dimension (behavior disorder program, regular program). Finally, the statistical procedure used to test the null hypotheses consisted of the multivariate analyses of variance.

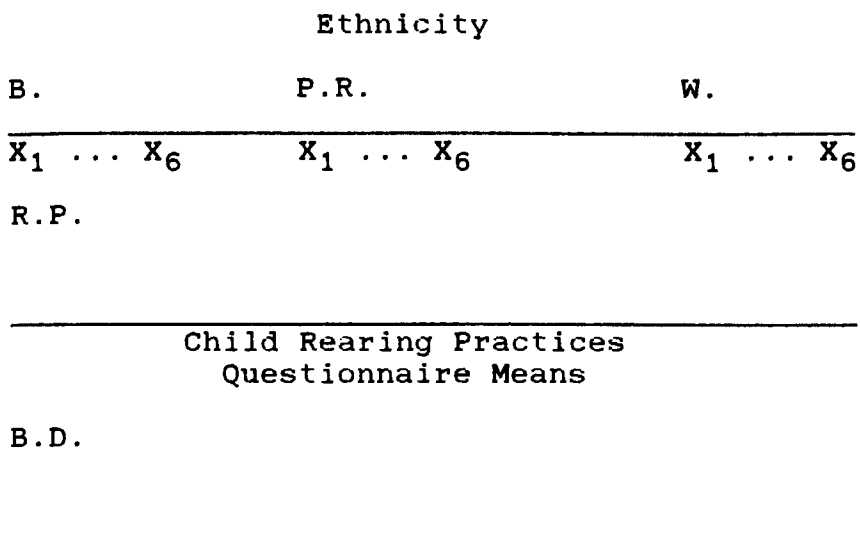


Figure 1. Relationship Between Levels of the Independent Variables Ethnicity (Puerto Rican, White, Black) and Educational Program (Behavior Disorder, Regular Program) on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Factors of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (PR, DI, RR, SI, UR, PO).

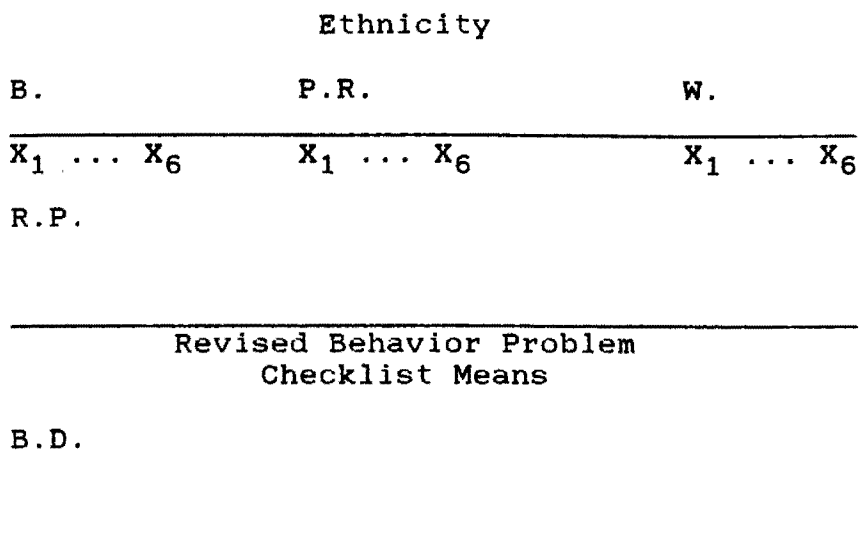


Figure 2. Relationship Between Levels of the Independent Variables Ethnicity (Puerto Rican, White, Black) and Educational Programs (Behavior Disorder, Regular Program) on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Factors of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (CD, SA, AP, AW, PB, ME).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Relation Between RBPC Scores and Variables Ethnicity and Educational Program

Table 1 shows a list of the independent and dependent variables levels and values in the multivariate analysis of variance.

Table 1

Model of MANOVA Design

	Independent Variables		Dependent Variables	
	Ethnicity	Educational Program	RBPC Scores	CRPQ Scores
Levels	3	2	6	6
Values	1. Black 2. White 3. Puerto Rican	1. Regular 2. Behavior Disorder	1. Conduct Disorder 2. Socialized Aggression 3. Att. Problems 4. Anxiety Withdrawal 5. Psychotic Behavior 6. Motor Excess	1. Punishment - Reason 2. Prom Dep. - Ind. 3. Rules - Regula. 4. Spouse Inv. 5. Rewards 6. Preferred Age of Children

There are two main independent variables: ethnicity (Puerto Ricans, Whites, Blacks) and educational programs

(regular, behavior disorder). There are two dependent variables (rearing practices, behavior problems). The dependent measures in this study were the six factors scores on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist and the six factors scores on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire.

Appearing in Table 2 are the means and standard deviations for the combined sample (N=210) on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Combined Sample on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (N = 210)

Variable	Mean	SD
CD	13.619	10.196
SA	3.419	3.686
AP	6.124	5.002
AW	5.067	2.979
PB	0.443	1.062
ME	2.643	1.954

The mean scores on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist range from .443 for the Psychotic Behavior (PB) to 13.619 for the Conduct Disorder (CD) factors. Other factors fall within this range of mean scores.

Table 3 shows the means on the six factors of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist for the three levels of the independent variable ethnicity (Blacks, Whites and Puerto Ricans). Appearing in Table 3 are the group means on the six

factors of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist for the two levels of the independent variable educational program (regular education program, behavior disorders program). The mean for the behavior disorder group is considerably larger across ethnicities in the factor of conduct disorder of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist than for the regular education group. The BD group had higher means in most of the factors across ethnic groups.

Table 3

Means on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist by Ethnicity and Educational Program (N = 210; n = 35)

Independent Variables	Ethnicity and Educational Program					
	White		Black		Puerto Rican	
	Reg.	BD	Reg.	BD	Reg.	BD
CD	4.657	20.629	9.286	21.457	5.029	20.657
SA	1.343	4.800	2.371	3.886	0.914	7.200
AP	2.286	8.771	3.571	9.743	2.028	10.343
AW	4.857	5.000	6.029	5.000	4.457	5.057
PB	0.171	0.629	0.229	0.457	0.086	1.086
ME	1.657	3.143	2.171	3.514	1.400	3.371

Table 4 presents the intercorrelation matrix among the six factors of the dependent variable (RBPC) across the entire sample (N = 210). Some correlations are as modest as .675 (AP and CD). Overall, the low to modest intercorrelations suggest that each of the factors are relatively independent and account for unique variances in the attributes they reportedly measure.

Table 4

Intercorrelation Matrix Among the Factors of the DependentVariable RBPC (N = 210)

	CD	SA	AP	AW	PB	ME
CD	--					
SA	.618	--				
AP	.675	.524	--			
AW	.017	.066	.210	--		
PB	.303	.284	.389	.406	--	
ME	.416	.353	.520	.278	.362	--

The Multivariate Analysis of Variance procedure was used to test null hypotheses numbers 1, 2 and 3 (i.e. it was expected that no statistically significant main effects of ethnicity would manifest themselves on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist scores, that no statistically significant main effects of educational programs would be found on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist scores, and that no interaction effects among ethnicity and type of educational program would be found with respect to the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist scores).

Table 5 presents the overall MANOVA results for the main effects of the independent variables ethnicity and educational program on the dependent variable (the Revised Behavioral Problems Checklist scores).

Table 5

Overall MANOVA Analysis of The Effect of Ethnicity and Educational Program Variables on the RBPC Scores

Ind. Variables	Wilks Criterion	F	DF	P-value	Inference
Ed. Program	0.376	55.06	6,199	.0001	Reject Ho
Ethnicity	0.850	2.81	12,398	.0011	Reject Ho
Ed. Program X Ethnicity	0.866	2.47	12,398	.0040	Reject Ho

The results reported in Table 5 indicate that null hypothesis one was rejected at the .05 level of significance ($F = 2.81$, $p = .001$), null hypothesis number two was also rejected at the .05 significance level ($F = 55.06$, $p = .0001$), and null hypothesis number three was also rejected ($F = 2.47$, $p = .004$).

Table 6 shows the MANOVA results for each of the six factors of the RBPC for the entire sample of subjects ($N = 210$). Statistical inferences were made at the .05 level of significance.

Table 6

MANOVA Results on Each Factor of the RPBC (N = 210)

Factor	Source	SS	F	DF	P	Inference
CD	Ed. Program	11176.305	226.35	1	.0001	Sig.
	Ethnicity	323.838	3.28	2	.0396	Sig.
	Ed. Program & Ethnicity	154.638	1.57	2	.2114	Non Sig.
SA	Ed. Program	739.219	81.27	1	.0001	Sig.
	Ethnicity	42.867	2.36	2	.0973	Non Sig.
	Ed. Program & Ethnicity	201.495	11.08	2	.0001	Sig.
AP	Ed. Program	2565.505	203.53	1	.0001	Sig.
	Ethnicity	44.981	1.78	2	.1705	Non Sig.
	Ed. Program & Ethnicity	46.867	1.86	2	.1585	Non Sig.
AW	Ed. Program	0.476	0.05	1	.8169	Non Sig.
	Ethnicity	22.067	1.25	2	.2901	Non Sig.
	Ed. Program & Ethnicity	24.695	1.39	2	.2506	Non Sig.
PB	Ed. Program	16.576	15.99	1	.0001	Sig.
	Ethnicity	2.257	1.09	2	.3386	Non Sig.
	Ed. Program & Ethnicity	5.495	2.65	2	.0731	Non Sig.
ME	Ed. Program	102.900	32.02	1	.0001	Sig.
	Ethnicity	26.257	4.08	2	.0182	Non Sig.
	Ed. Program & Ethnicity	13.400	2.08	2	.1270	Non Sig.

Examination of the interaction effects in Table 6 indicates a statistically significant multivariate interaction, using Wilks statistical procedure. Multivariate interaction effects confounds the inferences regarding the main effects. The main and interaction effects of the independent variables (educational program and ethnicity) on

each one of the six factors of the dependent variable (RBPC) are presented in Table 6 for the total sample of subjects (N=210). Once again statistical inferences were made at the .05 significance level.

No significant interaction effects were found for five of the six factors of the RBPC. There was, however, a significant interaction effect between ethnicity and educational program on the socialized aggression (SA) factor. As indicated in Table 6, the main effect, educational program, was significant for the RBPC factors CD, SA, AP, PB and ME and the main effect ethnicity was significant for the RBPC factor CD.

Figures 3 through 8 are presented in an attempt to illustrate the relation between the independent variables ethnicity (W, B, PR), and educational programs (RP, BD), on each one of the six factors of the dependent variable (RBPC).

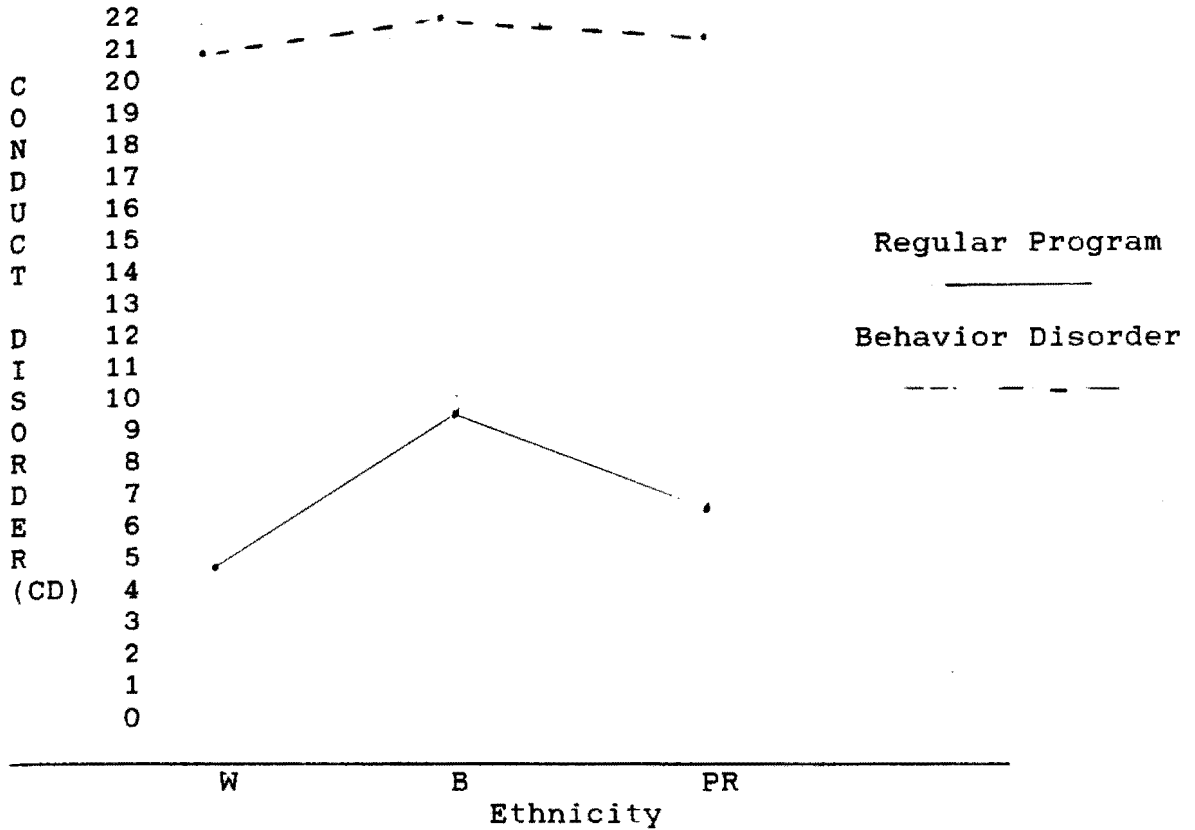


Figure 3. Relation Between Ethnicity (W, B, PR) and Educational Program Means on the Factor Conduct Disorder (CD)

Figure 3 displays an ordinal relationship between ethnicity and educational program on the factor conduct disorder. The mean of the behavior disorder groups was significantly higher across ethnicity on the factor conduct disorder of the RBPC. The mean of the Black group was higher for both programs (regular and behavior disorder) than the means of the other two ethnic groups (Whites, Puerto Ricans). But the magnitude of the difference between the means of the BD and the RP groups was smaller for the Black group than for

the other two ethnic groups.

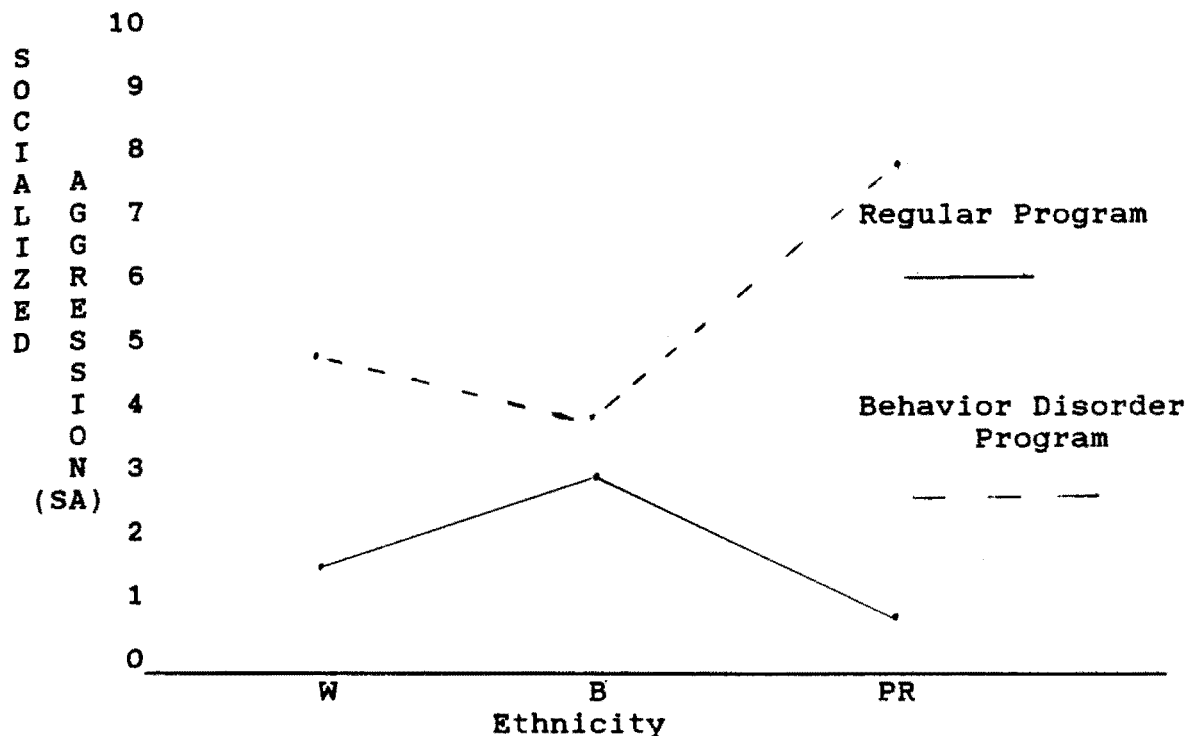


Figure 4. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Socialized Aggression Factor (SA)

An examination of Figure 4 reveals an ordinal relation between the variables educational program and ethnicity on the social aggression factor. The magnitude of the difference between the means of the BD and the regular program groups is larger for the Puerto Rican group. The order within the three groups is also reversed on the SA scale in the two educational programs. The interaction between ethnicity and educational program was found to be significant. That is, the interaction between the variables ethnicity and educational program produced different trends

in the factors (SA) across the values of ethnicity and the values of educational program.

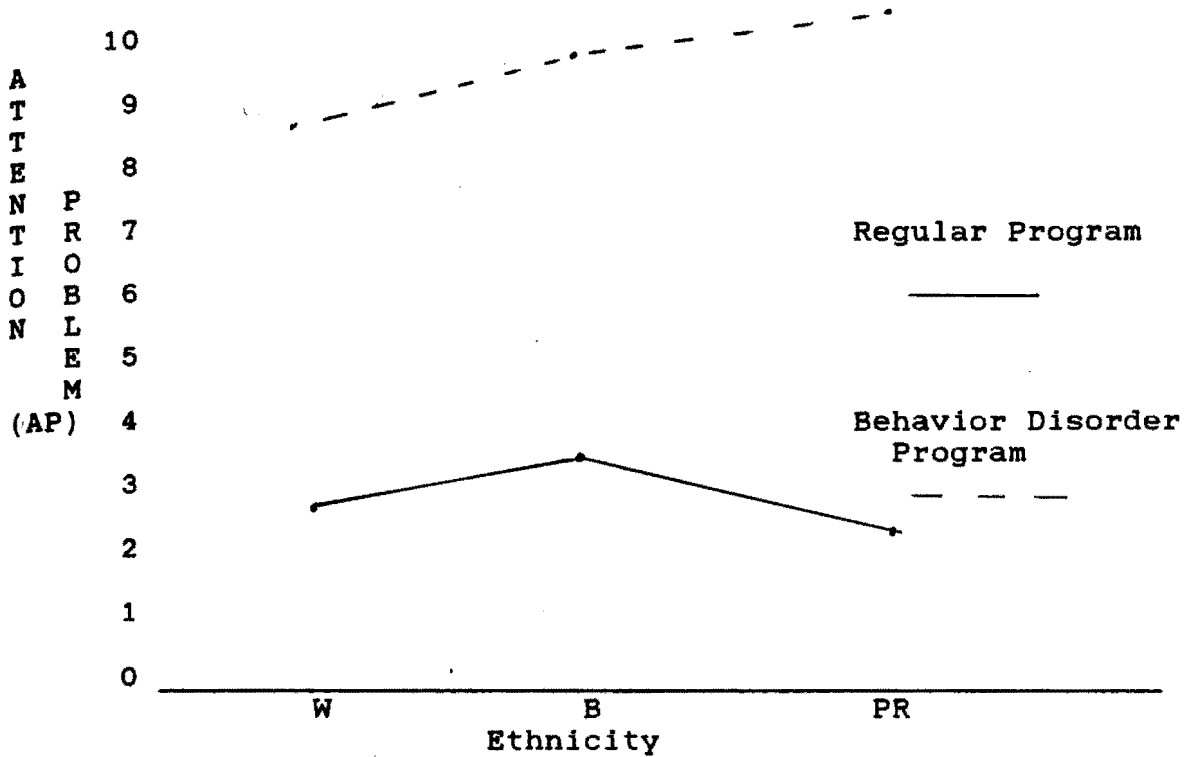


Figure 5. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Attention Problem Factor (AP)

As seen in Figure 5, there is an ordinal relation between the variables (educational program and ethnicity). The magnitude of the difference between the means of the two different educational programs was not found to be significantly different across ethnicity. The means of the behavioral disorder groups were significantly higher than those of the regular program groups (see Table 6). The trend of scores on attention problems (AP) is similar for Whites and Blacks but different for the Puerto Rican group.

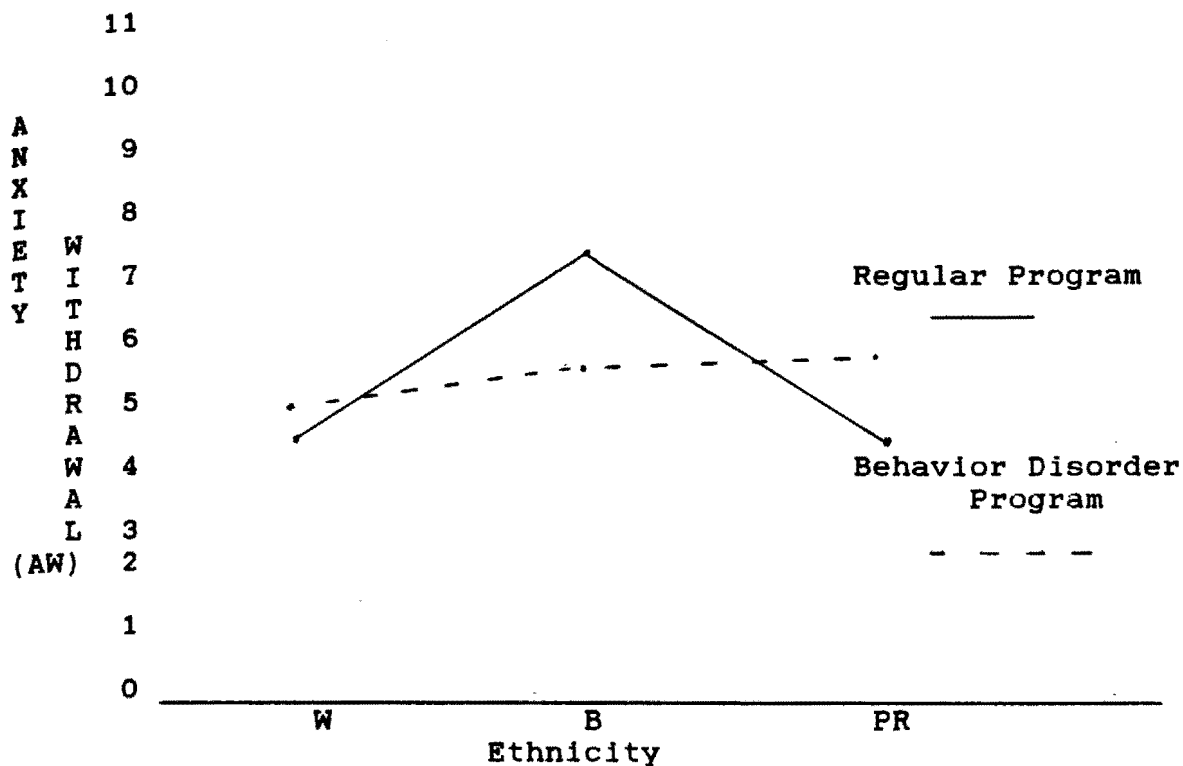


Figure 6. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Anxiety Withdrawal Factor (AW)

As seen in Figure 6, there is a disordinal relationship between the independent variables educational program and ethnicity on the dependent variable factor anxiety withdrawal (AW). The means of the regular program are slightly smaller than the means of the behavior disorder group for the Whites and Puerto Ricans. However, the mean of the Blacks in the regular program is slightly larger than the mean of the Blacks in the behavior disorder group. This pattern is different from that observed in the other factors where the behavior disorder group means are larger than the regular program group means across ethnicity. However, none of the

main effects, nor the interaction effect were found to be statistically significant for this factor (see Table 6).

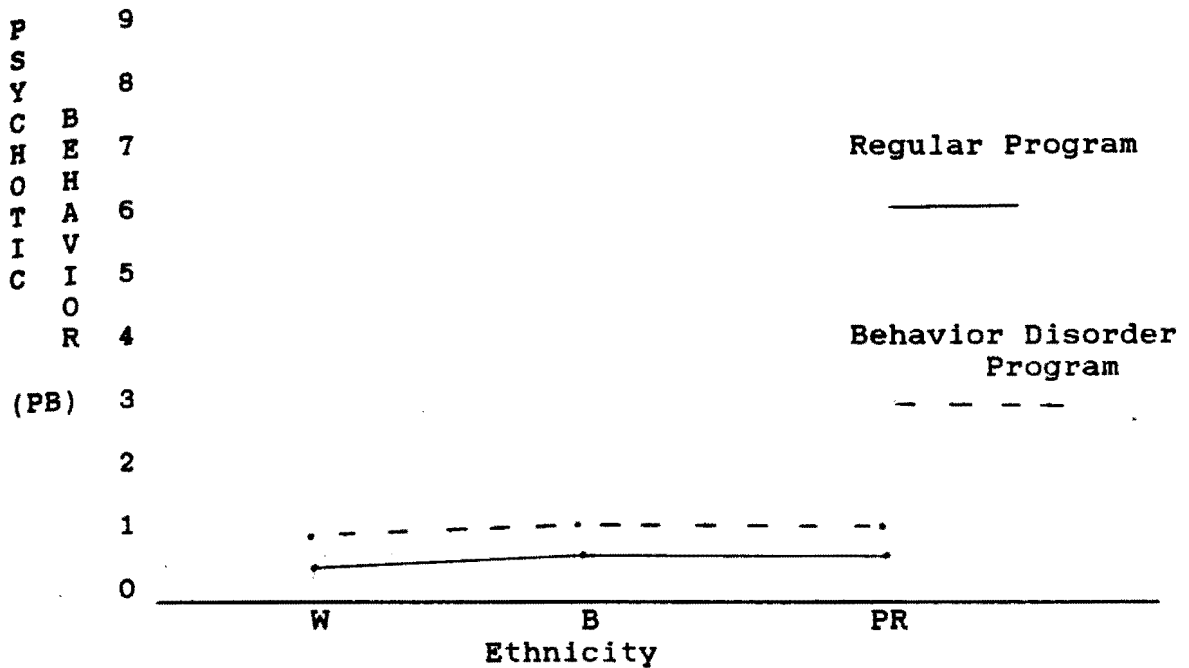


Figure 7. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Psychotic Behavior Factor (PB)

The relation between ethnicity and educational program on the factor psychotic behavior appears to be ordinal. The means of the behavior disorder groups are larger across ethnicity than the means of the regular program groups.

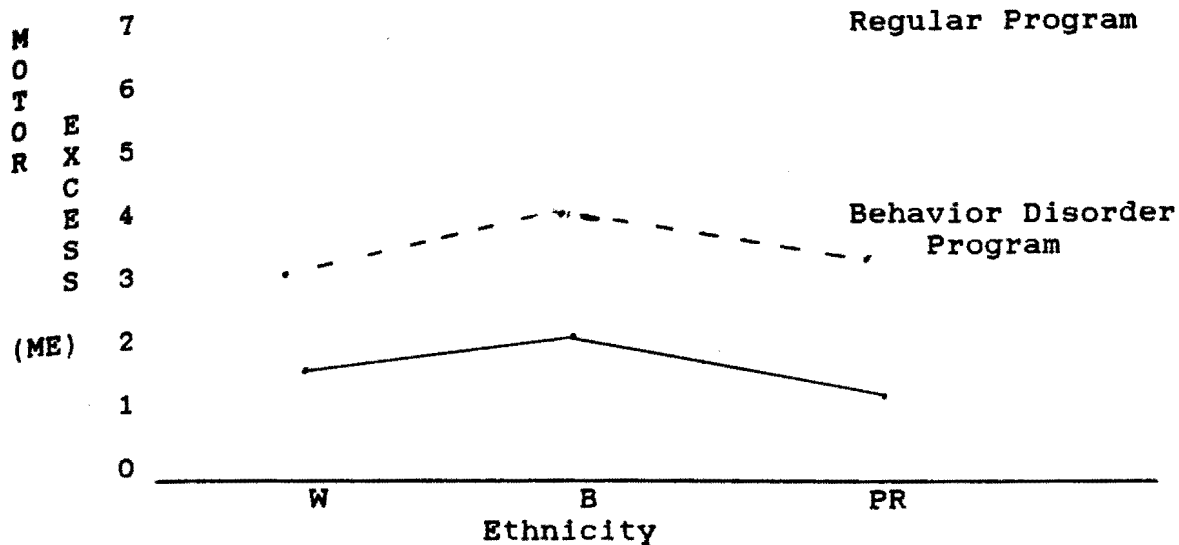


Figure 8. Relation Between Ethnicity and Educational Program on the Motor Excess Factor (ME)

Figure 8 illustrates the ordinal relation between ethnicity and educational program on the motor excess factor (ME). The means of the BD program are larger than the means of the regular programs across ethnicity. This pattern is similar to that presented for the factors CD, SA, AP, and PB of the RBPC. The trend of scores on the motor excess (ME) factor is similar across ethnicity and educational program. That is, in both educational programs, Blacks scored higher than Whites and Puerto Ricans who had approximately the same means on the ME factor.

Table 7

Group Means for Each One of the Factors of the RPBC By Educational Program and Ethnicity (N=210; n=35)

	Whites						Blacks						Puerto Ricans					
	CD	SA	AP	AW	PB	ME	CD	SA	AP	AW	PB	ME	CD	SA	AP	AW	PB	ME
Regular Program	4.66	1.34	2.28	4.86	0.17	1.66	9.29	2.37	3.57	6.03	0.23	2.17	5.03	0.91	2.03	4.46	0.09	1.4
	n=35						n=35						n=35					
Behavior Disorder	20.63	4.80	8.77	5.00	0.63	3.14	21.46	3.89	9.74	5.00	0.46	3.51	20.66	7.20	10.34	5.06	1.09	3.37
	n=35						n=35						n=35					

After reviewing results of the multivariate analysis of variance (Table 6), univariate analyses were performed on those factors of the dependent variable in which statistically significant results were observed in the overall MANOVA. Factors on which significant differences were observed (i.e. where the null hypotheses were rejected) were subjected to Tukey's post hoc pairwise comparisons. Results of the univariate post hoc tests are reported in Table 8. Statistical inferences were made at the .05 level of significance.

Table 8

Tukey's Post Hoc Pairwise Procedure for Comparison of Means
Across Ethnicity and Educational Program on the RBPC (n=35)

RBPC	Ethnicity	Educational Program					
		Regular Education			Behavior Disorders (BD)		
		Black X	White X	Puerto Rican X	Black X	White X	Puerto Rican X
CD		A 9.286*	B 4.657*	B 5.029*	--	--	--
SA		--	--	--	A 3.886*	A 4.800*	B 7.200*
AP		--	--	--	--	--	--
AW		--	--	--	--	--	--
PB		--	--	--	B 0.457*	A,B 0.629*	A 1.856*
ME		A 2.771*	B 1.657*	B 1.400*	--	--	--
n		35	35	35	35	35	35

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different ($p < .05$).

Tukey's post hoc pairwise comparisons results indicate that the mean of the Black group in the regular education program category was found to be significantly greater than the means of the White and Puerto Rican groups respectively in the regular educational program on the conduct disorder factor.

The mean of the Black group was also found to be

significantly greater than the means of the Puerto Rican and White groups in the regular education program on the Motor Excess factor of the RBPC.

The mean of the Puerto Rican group on the Behavioral Disorder educational program was found to be significantly greater than the Black and the White sample for the socialized aggression factor (SA).

Tukey's Post hoc Pairwise comparison procedure was also used to compare the means within ethnicity across educational program on the RBPC. Results are presented in Table 9. All pairwise comparisons within ethnicity reported in Table 9 are significant at the .05 level.

Table 9

Tukey's Post Hoc Pairwise Procedure for Comparison of Means Within Ethnicity Across Educational Program on the RBPC

Dependent Variable RBPC	Educa- tional Program	Ethnicity					
		Black		White		Puerto Rican	
		Reg.	ED	Reg.	ED	Reg.	ED
CD		9.286	21.457	4.657	20.629	5.029	20.657
SA		2.371	3.886	1.343	4.800	0.914	7.200
AP		3.571	9.743	2.286	8.771	2.029	10.343
AW		—	—	—	—	—	—
PB		—	—	—	—	0.086	1.086
ME		—	—	1.657	3.143	1.400	3.371

All pairwise comparisons within ethnicity reported here are significant ($p < .05$).

There was no significant main effect of the independent variable ethnicity across levels of educational program on the factor Anxiety Withdrawal (AW) of the RBPC. On the psychotic Behavior (PB) factor, there was a significant difference between the means of the regular and the behavioral disorder educational programs for the Puerto Rican group.

Finally, statistically significant differences were found between means of the regular and behavior disorder programs on the RBPC factor of motor excess within the White and the Puerto Rican groups.

Relation Between CRPQ Scores, Ethnicity
and Educational Program

The means and standard deviations for the combined sample (White, Black and Puerto Rican mothers with children in regular and behavior disorder programs) on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Combined Sample on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (N=210)

Variable	Mean	SD
PR	9.100	4.114
DI	-7.024	3.893
RR	4.962	5.969
SI	0.038	7.809
UR	10.090	4.133
PO	-9.110	6.558

As seen in Table 10, mean scores for the total sample range from -9.100 for the preferred age of children factor (PO) to 10.090 for the use of rewards factor (UR).

Group means for each one of the factors on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire across educational program and ethnicity are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Group Means for Each One of the Factors of the CRP by Educational Program and Ethnicity (n=35; N=210)

	Whites						Blacks						Puerto Ricans					
	PR	DI	RR	SI	UR	PO	PR	DI	RR	SI	UR	PO	PR	DI	RR	SI	UR	PO
Regular Program	9.05	-5.68	4.34	1.80	10.82	-7.41	9.97	-7.40	4.88	1.22	11.05	-8.37	9.40	-6.97	5.85	.48	10.05	-7.28
	n=35						n=35						n=35					
Behavior Disorder	8.51	-7.48	5.17	-.45	9.22	-11.05	9.00	-7.05	5.08	-2.40	9.68	-8.65	8.65	-7.54	4.42	-.42	9.68	-11.37
	n=35						n=35						n=35					

Table 12 shows the intercorrelation matrix among the six factors of the dependent variable Child Rearing Practices (CRP). The highest correlation is .242 (SI and RR). All other correlations are much lower. These low correlations suggest the uniqueness of each one of the factors of the CRP. Therefore, the factors are considered to be independent from each other and are assumed to be measuring different functions.

Table 12

Intercorrelation Matrix Among the Factors of the Dependent Variable CRP (N=210)

	PR	DI	RR	SI	UR	PO
PR						
DI	-0.053					
RR	0.091	-0.104				
SI	-0.004	-0.094	0.242			
UR	-0.085	0.130	0.136	0.102		
PO	-0.041	0.094	0.081	0.043	-0.073	

Results of the overall MANOVA for the main and interaction effects of the independent variables ethnicity and educational program on the dependent variable Child Rearing Practices (CRP) are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Overall MANOVA Analysis of Ethnicity and Educational Programs
on the Factors of the CRP (N = 210)

Independent Variable	Wilks Criterion	F	DF	P-value	Inference
Ed. Program	0.904	3.51	6,199	.0025	sig.
Ethnicity	0.971	0.49	12,398	.9234	Not sig.
Ed. Program X Ethnicity	0.956	0.75	12,398	.7023	Not sig.

Table 13 shows that the main effect of the educational program is significant on the CRP Variable ($F = 3.51$, $p = .0025$). Given these results, null hypothesis four claiming that there are no difference across educational programs is rejected.

On the other hand, neither the main effect of ethnicity (Hypothesis 5) nor the interaction effect of educational program X ethnicity (Hypothesis 6) were found to be statistically significant with respect to the dependent Child Rearing Practices scores (CRPQ).

Subsequent univariate F tests were conducted to identify factors on which the educational program differed significantly across types of Child Rearing Practices. These results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

MANOVA Analysis for Educational Programs on Each Factor of the CRP (N = 210)

Factor	Source	SS	DF	F	P	Inference
PR	Full Model	49.014	5	0.57	0.720	
	Error	3487.886	204			
	Ed. Prog.	29.719	1	1.74	1.89	Failed to reject Ho
	Ethnic	17.686	2	0.52	0.597	
	Ed. Prog. X Ethnic	1.610	2	0.05	0.954	
DI	Full Model	84.652	5	1.12	0.351	
	Error	3082.229	204			
	Ed. Prog.	24.005	1	1.59	0.209	Failed to reject Ho
	Ethnic	20.181	2	0.67	0.5139	
	Ed. Prog. X Ethnic	40.467	2	1.34	0.264	
RR	Full Model	53.695	5	0.30	0.915	
	Error	7394.000	204			
	Ed. Prog.	0.933	1	0.03	0.873	Failed to reject Ho
	Ethnic	5.267	2	0.07	0.930	
	Ed. Prog. X Ethnic	47.495	2	0.66	0.520	
SI	Full Model	389.524	5	1.29	0.271	
	Error	12354.171	204			
	Ed. Prog.	269.733	1	4.45	0.036	*Reject Ho
	Ethnic	55.324	2	0.46	0.6340	
	Ed. Prog. X Ethnic	64.467	2	0.53	0.588	
UR	Full Model	89.281	5	1.05	0.391	
	Error	3480.00	204			
	Ed. Prog.	65.186	1	3.82	0.053	Failed to reject Ho
	Ethnic	9.152	2	0.27	0.765	
	Ed. Prog. X Ethnic	14.943	2	0.44	0.646	
FO	Full Model	504.481	5	2.43	0.037	
	Error	8484.00	204			
	Ed. Prog.	329.376	1	7.92	0.005	*Reject Ho
	Ethnic	38.067	2	0.46	0.633	
	Ed. Prog. X Ethnic	137.038	2	1.65	0.195	

Results of the F tests showed that on the independent variable type of educational program, the groups were found to be significantly different only on the factors of spouse involvement (SI) and preference for older children (PO). These were the only statistically significant relationships. Subsequent post hoc analyses were performed on these two factors (SI and PO) to determine the magnitude of mean differences between educational programs. Results of these post hoc analyses are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Tukey's Post Hoc Pairwise Procedure for Comparison of Means Between Educational Programs on SI and PO

Dependent Variable	Educational Program		Difference* $X_B - X_{BD}$
	Regular Ed. X_B	Behavior Disorders (BD) X_{BD}	
SI	1.171	-1.095	1.171
PO	-7.857	-10.362	-2.505
N	105	105	

*Mean differences are significant at $p = .05$.

Tukey's post hoc analyses show that the mean differences between the regular educational program and the behavioral disorder sample were significant at the .05 level of probability on these two factors (SI, PO).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Relationship Between the Independent Variable Ethnicity on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist

Results of the present study suggest culturally specific patterning of behavior problems. Evidence was provided in support of cross cultural variation in the manifestation of some of the factors in the RBPC as tested in hypothesis one. Significant variation was found in the socialized aggression factor among the behavior disorder students. This finding also provides documentation related to testing hypothesis number three, it supports the existence of interaction effects between ethnicity and educational program. The Puerto Rican BD students' profile shows these students as exhibiting more behaviors related to the socialized aggression factor than the BD students of the other two ethnic groups. Among the items on this sub-scale (socialized aggression) are behaviors such as, stays out late at night; steals in the company of others; belongs to a gang; is truant from school, usually is in company with others; and seeks company of older more experienced companions.

The possibility of cultural differences in the

expression of aggression in the Puerto Rican group needs to be further explored in future research. Relevant to this interrogative is a study conducted by Gibbs (1982) in which he examined how the manifestation of psychopathology was related to the variables of ethnicity and SES in a sample of 48 White, Black, and Hispanic females, ages 13 through 18. The subjects completed a battery of personality tests. Results of the study indicated that personality patterns differed significantly among ethnic and SES groups. Four profiles, or patterns emerged from the analysis of tests: borderline, antisocial, neurotic, and socialized delinquent. White middle class delinquent females were more likely to be neurotic than lower SES delinquents. Middle class subjects were significantly more likely to have neurotic personalities than lower SES subjects across cultures. Gibbs found significant interaction between ethnicity and SES in low SES Hispanic females. The latter were more likely to be antisocial, revealing aggression in their adolescent identities. The author interpreted the finding of ethnic and SES differences in the distribution of personality patterns of delinquent females as probably reflecting the influence of different sociocultural patterns of socialization, value system, and group sanctions which relate to the handling of impulses and the preferred modes of dealing with conflicts.

Interaction Among Independent Variables Ethnicity
and Educational Program on Scores on the RBPC

The results reported in the present study also support the existence of ethnic differences in the manifestation of behaviors associated with the conduct disorder factor. The group of Black students in the regular program were rated by their mothers as exhibiting more behaviors under the factor of conduct disorder than the groups of White and Puerto Rican students in the regular program of studies. Given these findings there is support for hypothesis number one, related to anticipated cross cultural variance in scores on the RBPC, and hypothesis number two, related to expected variance in scores on the RBPC across educational program. A sample of the behaviors that are part of the factor of conduct disorder include the following: seeks attention; shows off; is disruptive, annoys, and bothers others; and is disobedience and difficult to control. The Black students in the regular program also exhibited more behaviors classified under the factor of motor excess than the two other ethnic groups of students in the regular program. This latter factor includes items such as, "is restless, is unable to sit still, and appears tense and unable to relax". Once again, further research would assist us in determining whether the results of cross cultural variance reported here related to the manifestation of the factors socialized aggression and conduct disorder are replicable events. However, it is

important to note that no significant differences were found in the manifestation of the conduct disorder factor across cultures for the behavior disorder students group. In previous research, Gajar and Hale (1982) used the Quay and Peterson's Behavior Problem Checklist with exceptional White and Black children and did find cross cultural similarity on the factors of conduct disorder, personality problems and immaturity inadequacy.

Relationship Between the Independent Variable Educational Program and the Dependent Variable Scores on the RBPC

Overall, the results of the study reported here provide further evidence in support of the content validity of the Revised Behavior Problem Checklist. The mothers of students in the behavior disorder programs rated their children significantly higher than the mothers of the students in the regular education programs on the following factors: conduct disorder, socialized aggression, attention problems, psychotic behavior, and motor excess. Thus, null hypothesis number two, which was designed to test for significant differences in scores on the RBPC between the BD groups and the regular education groups was rejected. This finding is consistent with previous research which has indicated that the factors of the Behavior Problem Checklist discriminate significantly between youths presenting behavior problems, and youths not presenting behavior problems in several different cultural groups. In cross cultural studies, the

factor of socialized aggression has discriminated between youths presenting behavioral problems and those not presenting them in the following countries: Japan (Kobayashi, Mizushima & Shinohara 1967); Scotland (Wolff 1971); and England (Collins, Maxwell & Cameron 1962). Several investigators also found cross cultural consistency in the BPC discriminative ability for the factor of conduct disorder (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1978; Gordon & Gallimore 1972; O'Donnell & Cress 1975; Quay 1979).

O'Donnell, Stein, Machabanski and Cress (1982) found cross cultural similarities in the BPC ability to discriminate between children presenting behavior problems and children not presenting behavior problems in factors such as anxiety-withdrawal, conduct, temper tantrums, distractive-hypoactive, and anxious negativism. They used a modified version of the BPC for their study and their sample was a group of Mexican and White American preschool children. However, results of item analyses performed on some of the factors, suggested the possibility of culturally specific symptom patterning. The authors interpreted their findings as possibly reflecting an active-passive dimension of coping with stress which varies across cultures.

There were no significant differences across educational programs on the RBPC factor of anxiety-withdrawal in the present study. This factor includes items such as "feels inferior; is shy; bashful; depressed; and is always sad".

One possible explanation for the low frequency of observance of this cluster of behaviors in the BD groups might be that these kinds of behaviors have been associated more with the syndrome of behavioral disorders with emotional problems rather than with the category of behavioral disorders with social adjustment problems. In addition, there were no significant cross cultural differences in the manifestation of the anxiety-withdrawal factor. These findings are different from those reported by O'Donnell, Stein, Machabanski and Cress (1982). They found cross cultural differences in the manifestation of this factor on the BPC.

Relationship Between Independent Variable Educational Program on the Dependent Variable Scores on the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire

When comparing the child rearing practices of the mothers of the BD students and the mothers of the regular education students (hypothesis number four) significant differences were found for the factors of Spouse Involvement (SI), and Preference for Older Children (PO). There was less spouse involvement in the decision making process and implementation of disciplinary strategies in the homes of children who were enrolled in the BD programs. Fifty-seven percent of the mothers of the BD students in this study were single or divorced and their children lived in female-headed households. Kazdin (1985) pointed out that broken homes and the experience of marital discord in the family are

significant factors which predispose a child to exhibit antisocial behavior. Gelfand, Jenson, and Drew (1988) reported that separation and divorce are factors related to the development of conduct disorders in children. Wilson (1987) focused on the marital status of the head of the family as a very important determinant of the poverty status of the family, which consequently contributes to other problems in the structure of the family. Poverty conditions reportedly lead to a degree of isolation from the mainstream, this represents a lack of contact with individuals and institutions that could represent positive role models with whom they might identify. Lieberman (1988), when discussing her clinical research about the interaction of Hispanics infants and their mothers, described many of the difficulties that single or divorced mothers have in providing the adequate mothering model that is required for a mentally healthy child. She described the Hispanic female head of the household in California as overwhelmed and under stress due to the problems of migration, lack of acculturation, and poverty. Those circumstances make them vulnerable and more at risk to fail in being good caretakers for their children.

The fact that the study reported here did not control or balance for the marital status factor in the two contrasting groups limits the interpretation and possible generality of the results of this study. Fifty-seven percent of the mothers of the students in the behavior disorder group were

head of the households in contrast with 27% of the mothers of the students in the regular program of instruction who were head of the households. This disproportion, or skewed sample does confound the results of the study related to how the characteristics of caretakers of BD students contrast with those of the caretakers of students not presenting behavior disorders. However, this finding might well represent a reality in the community of behavior disorders students from low socio-economic backgrounds. As indicated by Gelfand, Jenson, and Drew (1988) separation and divorce are highly related to the development of behavior problems in children. Wilson (1987) discussed the marital status of the head of the family as a key contributing factor to problems in the family structure of low socio-economic families in Chicago. Wilson pointed out that the rise in the proportion of female-headed families is a function of separation and divorce rates and the large increase in the percentage of never married women. Extramarital fertility among teenagers relates significantly to the rise of female-headed families. Wilson indicated that young women from low income families, who have children out of wedlock, are disadvantaged by the interruption of their schooling process, lack skills to secure employment, and tend to be persistently poor. Poverty, joblessness and lack of education are factors that generate tension. This tension and the lack of options to improve quality of life could make a young mother emotionally fragile and a poor caretaker for

her children.

The majority of the mothers of the behavior disorder students in this study who were head of the households were Puerto Ricans. A recent study conducted by the Aspira National Organization (1989) among Hispanic sub-groups in five cities in the United States including Chicago, found that one-third of the students interviewed lack a father figure in the home. It also found a high incidence of lack of a male figure in the homes of students at risk, especially dropouts.

This study failed to present information about how many of the subjects were minors when they gave birth to their children. That information was not gathered in the study. No control technique was used to have equal numbers of single, divorced, or married subjects in both the experimental and control groups. These weaknesses limit the possible generalization and interpretation of results.

The results of the study reported here also indicate that the group of mothers of students in the behavior disorder program showed a preference for older children rather than for younger children. What effect does a mother's preference for older children rather than for younger children have on their interaction with children in their first years of life? How this preference would affect the mother's ability to provide the attachment, bonding, and relation of emotional support in the infant's early years of

life (years in which the psychodynamic attachment theorists emphasize as extremely important for emotional development) arises as a possible investigative problem worth pursuing in further research.

This study found no significant differences between the mothers of the BD students and the mothers of students in the regular program on the four other factors of the CRPQ (punishment vs. reason; promotion of dependence-independence; rules and regulations; use of rewards).

Relationship Between Ethnicity as an Independent Variable on Scores on the CRPQ (Dependent Variable)

Overall, the findings of the study reported here did not support hypothesis five related to the possibility of cross cultural variance in child rearing practices. This study failed to find significant cross cultural differences in child rearing practices between Puerto Ricans, Whites, and Black mothers from poor SES backgrounds. The three different ethnic groups of mothers did not show significant differences in their child rearing strategies on any of the six factors under investigation (PR, DI, RR, SI, UR, and PO). These findings are similar to results reported by Geismar and Gerhart (1968) who found few if any ethnic differences in child rearing practices across samples of Blacks, Whites, and Puerto Rican mothers of low socio-economic status. Cahill (1966) also found little variance in child rearing practices using a sample of low socio-economic status families from

these same ethnic groups. However, he found that Puerto Rican mothers were more permissive and fostered more dependence than White and Black mothers. Contrary to these findings are those of Rojas (1980), who compared the child rearing practices of Puerto Rican and White mothers and found that Puerto Rican mothers were more protective toward their children, fostered less independence, and used more aversive control and physical punishment than White mothers.

Lieberman (1988) conducted a clinically oriented research project directed at exploring cultural differences between White and Hispanic mothers' child rearing attitudes and values. She found that when raising their infants, Hispanic mothers valued connectivism more than individualism and cooperation more than competition. Lieberman also discussed the fact that White mothers were found to value suppression of anger and self-control whereas Hispanic mothers were found to be more permissive. The same author pointed out that White mothers try to foster individuality and autonomy, while Hispanic mothers fail to encourage independence by being overprotective of their children. In the data set examined here, no cross cultural differences were found on the Dielman and Barton's Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire, in the factors measuring functions which are similar to some of the values studied by previous investigators, such as the dimension of independence vs. dependence and self control vs. permissiveness, (Promotion of dependence vs. independence,

Use of rules and regulations in the CRPQ). Furthermore, no interaction effects in support of hypothesis number six were found among the variables ethnicity and education program on child rearing practices.

One of the limitations of this study is the fact that the sample was relatively small (only 35 subjects were included in each one of the cross categorical groups, ethnicity X instructional program). There were some complaints related to the level of difficulty of the vocabulary on some of the questionnaires' items. As pointed out earlier, most of the subjects in this study had very little formal schooling. A number of provisions were made to control for this weakness. One of the strategies used to control for this limitation was to encourage subjects to ask questions if they had difficulty understanding the information on an item. Admittedly, there is a considerable margin of error in utilizing such a weak control procedure. Although the CRPQ was developed utilizing a representative sample of White and Black, urban and rural subjects, and low to upper middle class subjects of different educational levels (Dielman, Barton & Cattell, 1973, 1977; Barton, 1981), the subjects used in the study reported here encountered difficulties with respect to responding to several of the CRPQ items. A number of mothers complained about lack of clearness in certain items. Some items were described by the subjects as expressing ambiguous statements, others, as

presenting alternative statements which overlapped in their content. Given the multiple choice structure of the CRPQ, it is possible that subjects might have been inclined to select consistently two alternatives in the center of the distribution. In the majority of the questionnaire's items, the middle alternative conveys a rather safe conservative choice which may prevent a subject from selecting a more extreme category. The Puerto Rican group complained the most about the content of the CRPQ. A possible explanation for this situation could be that the items were not culturally relevant to the Puerto Rican group of respondents. Therefore, the group of first generation Puerto Rican mothers may have experienced considerable difficulty associating the content of the items with their concrete personal experiences. The CRPQ was translated to Spanish for this study. However, the questionnaire may have been adequately translated but not differentially adapted. No changes were made in the content or meaning of the items to make them culturally relevant. The other two groups of subjects also experienced some difficulty responding to the questionnaire but to a lesser degree. The other two groups of subjects were native Americans, and the content and structure of the questionnaire is probably more culturally relevant to their experiential background. Therefore, the questionnaire's content might be more related to the socio-cultural background of the Blacks and White groups of subjects than to

that of the Puerto Rican sample. But, the White and Black mothers also criticized the content of some of the CRPQ items. There is the possibility that the CRPQ reflects a middle class value orientation and this factor may have created a barrier for lower socioeconomic individuals to relate to its content. However, one of the theoretical problems addressed in this study was precisely whether the behavior expectations in the home (discipline rules) do correspond with expectations in the school setting, which are more reflective of a middle class value orientation. The CRPQ factors measure adherence to rules and discipline styles which are also expected to be followed in the school setting. A possible explanation of the subjects' discomfort with some items of the questionnaire might be that it asks for discipline strategies and caretaker behaviors unfamiliar to them because they are part of the repertoire of a more formally educated parent. The discipline strategies to which the CRPQ alludes follow principles of associationistic learning and behavior modification theories. Following this analysis, to investigate the effect of social class on the CRPQ scores it will be necessary to compare the scores of subjects representing different social classes. Although there were not many complaints about the level of difficulty of the vocabulary of items on the CRPQ, it would be advisable to review the instrument for future research, especially to correct for the ambiguity on some of the alternatives that

was reported by many of the subjects in the study at hand.

It is important to note that the groups of subjects in this study reportedly experienced minor difficulties understanding the items of the RBPC. The Puerto Rican mothers experienced less difficulty understanding the items of the Spanish version of the RBPC than the other two groups understanding the vocabulary in some items of the English version of the test. Results of this study supported evidence that the RBPC has the ability to identify children with behavior disorders. The RBPC continues to be utilized as an assessment tool to identify critical areas to focus on for intervention. Both parents and teachers might be the respondents on the RBPC; this arrangement allows for measures of interrater reliability and provides measures of the manifestation of the particular behaviors in different settings such as school and home.

Results of this study suggest that the RBPC might be considered as an instrument that a psychologist could utilize in an attempt to minimize discriminatory practices in the assessment and intervention procedures of students presenting behavior problems. The RBPC provides information about a student's functioning in several dimensions. During the years these dimensions or factors have been found to be crucial components of the structure of behavior disorders in children in cross cultural research. Results reported here corroborated that the RBPC may be useful to identify the

maladaptive behaviors which need to be considered for treatment in intervention programs.

One of the purposes of this research project was to compile data that would suggest ways to improve assessment and intervention procedures when psychologists are called upon to work with minority students presenting behavior problems. The child rearing practices variable was selected as a variable for study due to its high correlation with the development of behavior problems in children. The modification of parents' child rearing practices is viewed as a component in many intervention programs designed to change a child's maladaptive behavior. An example of a program performed with Hispanics is the study of Szapocknik et al (1989). These authors conducted a research project using as subjects Hispanic families who had children presenting behavior disorders. They described the High Risk Syndrome as the group of family characteristics that they identified as contributing to the development of a behavior problem syndrome in adolescents. They indicated that the basic factor underlying the High Risk Syndrome seems to be the family's pattern of interactions. Two other factors that were reported to influence the development of behavior problems are family intergenerational conflict and intercultural conflict. Family Effectiveness Training is the name of the intervention modality that Szapocknik et al have implemented. The first phase of the intervention model

includes taking measures reflecting current disfunction in both the child, and in the family structure. The instruments they selected allowed for the measurement of outcomes from the perspective of the child, the parents, and an independent rater. One of the instruments that these authors used to measure the behavior of the child was the Quay and Peterson's Behavior Problem Checklist. The Family Effectiveness Training approach has four components, the first one, the Family Development Component includes an effective parenting skills phase. In this stage the family confronts existing family interactions that are maladaptive. Communication skills, taking responsibilities, and decision making processes are all discussed.

Sugai (1988) suggested an interventionist model in the study of behavior problems based on theories of social learning and applied behavior analysis. As suggested by Sugai, the student comes to the learning situation with a set of predisposing factors that must be assessed, but assessed within the context of precipitating factors governed by the instructional conditions provided by the teacher. When a functional relationship has been established, it describes the nature of the problem, and provides a starting point to develop possible interventions. Sugai indicates that when working with culturally diverse students presenting behavior problems, the teacher's job is to change nonadaptive functional relationships and replace them with more adaptive

ones. According to Sugai, if the difference between maladaptive behaviors and adaptive ones is due to cultural factors, the students must be taught a large repertoire of skills to increase their opportunities for success.

This study failed to find cross cultural differences in child rearing practices between low income mothers. These results may suggest some evidence for the position assumed by Henderson (1982) and De Blassie (1983). These authors argued that differences between minority group children's behaviors and the behavioral expectations in the school are more a function of their social strata than to their belonging to an identifiable ethnic group or race. They pointed out that low income children of different ethnic groups have difficulties adjusting to the school setting because they lack the social skills necessary to be successful in the school setting. The results of the present study showed significant differences between the child rearing practices of the mothers of the BD students and the mothers of students in the regular program only in two of the factors of the CRPQ: spouse involvement and preference for older children. It is suggested that these two variables may be considered when designing an intervention model to treat maladaptive behavior in minority children. If we assume the theoretical position that there is inconsistency between behaviors fostered in the home and behaviors expected in the school setting, then an intervention model must involve the participation of the

family. One of the two factors in the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire used in this study in which significant differences were found between mothers of BD students and mothers of the regular education students, preferred age of children, reflect more an attitude rather than a particular rearing style. The other factor, Spouse Involvement, might be a variable subjected to modification in an intervention program, if the spouse is present in the family system but shows an attitude of no involvement in disciplining children. No significant differences were found between mothers of BD children and mothers with children in the regular program in any other of the factors of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire. Thus, this study failed to provide evidence that would support the importance of studying the child rearing practices related to the factors of punishment vs. reason, dependence vs. independence, use of rules and, use of rewards in an intervention model to modify maladaptive behavior in children from low socioeconomic background. However, as indicated earlier, there is the possibility that the content and structure of the CRPQ might need to be reviewed to improve its ability to discriminate between inadequate and adequate child rearing practices. Further research is needed to compare the responses on the CRPQ of samples from different socioeconomic status and ethnic groups. Further research must also seek to improve the content and construct validity of the instrument.

A methodological limitation of this and most research on child rearing practices is that the problem has been examined mainly through self-report measures. The utilization of self-report methods introduces possible distortions in data. The subjects' responses might not be accurate. They might reflect defensive attitudes. Some subjects will tend to respond in terms of what the most desirable answer should be instead of choosing alternatives that truly represent their own reality. This might have happened when parents responded to the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire in this study. Responses to self-report measures may also reflect respondents' own values and bias. The utilization of a form of triangulation where several methods are used to collect data might reduce the limitation of having to rely solely on data from self-reports. An example of a study that utilized several methodological procedures to study child rearing practices is that of Reis and Barton (1984). These authors conducted an intracultural study in which they studied the child rearing practices of a homogeneous community of suburban middle class White working and non working mothers. They used two different methodologies to measure the mother's attitudes toward child rearing. They used a questionnaire, The Maryland Parent Attitude Survey (Pumroy, 1966), a multiple choice instrument measuring four dimensions of attitudes towards rearing: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective and rejective. In addition they made use of

observational procedures. They observed the mother-child interaction in a situation of play, and collected verbal and nonverbal measures using the observational system developed by Whiting and Whiting (1975).

The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist might also be susceptible to an individual's own bias. It is advisable to have more than one respondent to reduce the possible effect of subjectivity when answering the Quay and Peterson's Revised Behavior Problem Checklist. A recommended technique to improve the accuracy and reliability of the information obtained by this rating scale is to ask both the mother and the father of a child to respond to the scale. If the father is not available, a teacher or other adult who frequently interacts with the child may also respond to the scale. Measures obtained from more than one respondent will increase the validity of the results.

According to Ogdu (1982) most research on child rearing practices have focused on a process-product approach. Most studies have been designed to show causal relationships between family processes especially parent child interaction on one hand, and child rearing outcomes such as language, cognitive, motivation and social competencies on the other. Ogdu questioned the usefulness of this type of research. He indicated that anthropological studies have demonstrated that products of child rearing practices such as the language, cognitive, motivational and social competencies, which

parents and other child rearing agents inculcate in children, depend on historical and contemporary economic, social and political realities of the population and not merely on the teaching competencies of its adult members. The most powerful forces that shape the language, cognitive, motivational, and social competencies inculcated in children are the kinds of economic opportunities open to parents and other adults in the population according to cultural ecological analyses of behavior. The adult economic roles and strategies for obtaining and advancing in jobs require unique patterns of language, cognitive, motivational and social competencies. Therefore, parents value and foster in their children, consciously and unconsciously, the pattern of behaviors and personal attributes that they anticipate would prepare them for future economic and social participation. The different economic realities of groups require and encourage parents to inculcate in their children language, cognitive, motivational and social competencies that might differ from those of White middle class groups. Minority groups like Blacks have been historically subjected for years to a different economic reality than White groups. Their social and economic reality have made parents to encourage certain adaptive strategies devised as ways of dealing with one another and exploiting the marginal resources they have available for subsistence. Ogdu argued that it is an error to judge the efficacy of the child rearing practices of one

group on the basis of their ability to produce the same competencies found in the children of another group unless we first establish that children in both groups have been generally prepared for the same social and economic realities in adult life. He criticized investigations which study the child rearing practices of minorities and how these differ from those of White middle class parents. Results of these studies have been interpreted as minority parents having deficient child rearing competencies which require intervention in order to correct their inability to develop White middle class competencies in their children. Ogdu considered that a more useful approach in studying the rearing practices of a particular group would be to study the competencies of that particular group within the context of that same group and community (intracultural perspective). He recommended ethnology as the best methodology to study child rearing practices. This is the study of people's own view of and knowledge of a subject matter under study, in this case their view of child rearing.

Super and Harkness (1986) proposed the concept of a developmental niche which they found to be useful in the study of human development in the area of socialization skills. This concept serves as a framework in which to relate psychological and anthropological findings when examining the process and mechanisms involved in child development. Human development has been viewed in psychology

as a process of growth: of stage transition, or the unfolding of specific abilities. Development has been defined in the field of anthropology as learning, as a process of molding from historical social events the culturally particular patterns of behavior. The concept of the developmental niche is an attempt to synthesize these two views to study the relationships between individual growth and its environmental context. The developmental niche is defined as a theoretical framework for studying cultural regulation of the micro-environment of the child. It attempts to describe this environment from the point of view of the child, in order to understand processes of development and acquisition of culture. It has three subsystems which operate together to mediate the individual's developmental experience within the larger culture. The three subsystems are: the physical and social settings in which the child lives; culturally regulated customs of child care and child rearing; and the psychology of the caretakers. These subsystems provide the thematic continuities from one culturally defined developmental stage to the next. They also provide material from which the child abstracts the social, affective, and cognitive rules of the culture. The third component, the psychology of caretakers, involves culturally relevant schemas of interpreting parental and community goals for rearing, beliefs concerning the nature and needs of children, and caretakers' beliefs about effective rearing practices.

According to Super and Harkness the concept of the niche provides a context in which child and culture are mutually interactive systems and delineates aspects of the child environment that has gone unrecognized in psychology.

Werner (1988) discussed the extent to which the information accumulated in studies done in western countries about infant caretaker behaviors and child development is applicable to other cultures. Werner also discussed how meaningful this information is in terms of the social issues that the developing countries are facing versus those faced by the developed countries of the world. According to Werner, future cross cultural research in child development must focus on problems such as identifying more precisely the constellation of protective factors within infants and their caregiving environment that enhance individual resilience. Among the possible protective factors that merit further examination, Werner mentioned the kinds of affectional ties that foster trust in children, and the quality of emotional support provided by caretakers such as parents, grandparents, older siblings and external support systems of friends and relatives and their effect upon the child's personality. Werner indicated (1988) that these protective factors have been found to have more cross-cultural universality than the social risk factors that have been identified as leading to pathology in specific cultures.

Future cross cultural research must find the range of

ecological niches and the effects of social factors that buffer the rate and quality of child development. Werner also suggested research that would test the limits of the favorite developmental frameworks of western cultures from attachment psychodynamic theories to Piagetian theories of development. These theories are based on assumptions that may not be applicable to human conditions in many countries in the world.

A possible topic of investigation that the author of this study suggests is to explore the definition and attitudes towards children's behavior disorders in the Hispanic community. It would also be of interest to explore the kinds of interventions the Hispanic family seek when confronted with having a behavior disordered child. Whether they rely more on the assistance of their extended family support system or they have began to utilize more the services of second support systems provided by social service agencies, schools, and churches. The proposed study might be conducted utilizing an intracultural perspective as discussed by Ogdu (1982). The concept of the ecological developmental niche proposed by Werner (1988) and Super and Harkness (1986) could serve as the theoretical framework to direct the research. A possible investigative problem is to what extent the values of the Hispanic family caretakers (primary support system) contrast with those of the school (secondary support system) as important influential components of the child's

"developmental niche."

There is a need for more ecological studies in the area of education as demographic changes shown a large culturally diverse student composition. This will require schools to adapt the curricula to meet the unique needs of these students and to develop content relevant educational experiences to match their student's experiential backgrounds.

The Executive Committee of the Council for Children with Behavior Disorders (1989) recommended the utilization of an ecological framework and a functional analysis of behavior approach as best assessment practices with culturally diverse students. The committee also recommended pre-referral intervention practices and curriculum accommodations to meet the specific cultural and individual differences of students.

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APPENDIX A

CHILD REARING PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1-If your child became angry and struck you, would you use
 - a)strong physical punishment
 - b)medium physical punishment
 - c)mild physical punishment
 - d)no physical punishment
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 2-How would you react to your child's "hanging on to you" and following you around?
 - a)do as much as possible to prevent it
 - b)allow it to happen only seldom
 - c)permit it, but try to keep it from becoming a habit
 - d)allow it: feel it is normal
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 3-Does your child have housekeeping chores?
 - a)yes, daily housekeeping duties
 - b)yes, child is responsible for keeping his/her room neat and clean
 - c)I help him keep his room orderly
 - d)He/She does not help keep the house orderly
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 4-In disciplining children, which parent should carry out the punishment? (Assuming both parents are present).
 - a)the mother, always
 - b)mother mostly, father sometimes
 - c)father mostly, mother sometimes
 - d)the father always
 - e)50% father, 50% mother
 - f)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 5-How do you react when your child does well in school?
 - a)do not comment: it is expected of the child
 - b)occasionally praise the child
 - c)often praise the child and maybe reward
 - d)always give praise and reward
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 6-With a small baby, how much affectionate attention should the mother give?
 - a)as much as possible
 - b)enough to keep the child happy
 - c)some, but not enough to spoil the child
 - d)little time
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 7-If your child became angry and struck you, would you
- go to great lengths to talk to child to find out the reason
 - probably would reason with the child
 - possibly might reason with the child
 - never use reason with the child
 - don't know or do not wish to answer
- 8-What is your usual reaction if your child demands attention while you are busy?
- always responds to such demands
 - usually give the attention
 - sometimes responds but not always
 - respond very little to this behavior
 - don't know or do not wish to answer
- 9-At what age should you be teaching children standards of neatness and cleanliness?
- 5 or over
 - 4 years
 - 3 years
 - 2 or under
 - don't know or do not wish to answer
- 10-Who should decide the rules concerning your child?
- the mother, always
 - mother mostly, father sometimes
 - father mostly, mother sometimes
 - the father always
 - 50% father: 50% mother
 - don't know or do not wish to answer
- 11-Babies are a great responsibility. Taking care of your baby can be a real chore. How much trouble is it to you?
- a great deal of trouble
 - get some enjoyment from it
 - take fair amount of pleasure in caring for the child
 - truly enjoy caring for the child
 - don't know or do not wish to answer
- 12-When your child does what he/she is told, what do you do?
- do not comment: it is expected of the child
 - occasionally praise the child
 - often praise the child and maybe reward
 - always give praise and reward
 - don't know or do not wish to answer
- 13-How would you react if your child shouted at you in anger?
- strong physical punishment
 - medium physical punishment
 - mild physical punishment
 - no physical punishment

e)don't know or do not wish to answer

14-What do you do if your child asks you to do something that you think could be done by him/herself?

- a)always insist that the child do it on own
- b)have child do it as often as possible
- c)ocassionally do it, but try to get child to do it
- d)do it most of the time
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

15-Do you allow your child to play on the furniture?

- a)never
- b)very rarely
- c)sometimes
- d)anytime
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

16-How well does your spouse handle discipline problems?

- a)very well
- b)moderately well
- c)not too well
- d)poorly
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

17-What age do you like best in your own child(ren)?

(Estimate if your children are not 8 yrs. yet)

- a)6-8
- b)4-6
- c)2-4
- d)less than 2
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

18-Why do you like this age? (In your own child-estimate if your child is not yet 8 yrs.)

- a)child more grown up
- b)now children are eager to learn
- c)children are cute at this age
- d)kids are fun to cuddle and take care of
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

19-In playing, when your child behaves nicely how do you react?

- a)do not comment: it is expected of the child
- b)occasionally praise the child
- c)often praise the child and maybe reward
- d)always give praise and reward
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

20-How would you react if your child shouted at you in anger?

- a)go to great lengths to talk to child to find out the reason
- b)probably would reason with the child

- c)possibly might reason with the child
- d)never would reason with the child
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

21-What do you do when your child is involved in a quarrel?

- a)let the children settle the quarrel themselves
- b)let them quarrel unless it upsets me
- c)maybe interfere myself
- d)definitely step in and settle the quarrel myself
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

22-What kinds of rules do you have for marking on walls, climbing on furniture, jumping on beds, etc?

- a)no rules
- b)a few rules
- c)many rules
- d)rules that just about cover everything
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

23-To what extent does your spouse take part in family life?

- a)takes a very large part
- b)assumes a fair part
- c)takes a little part
- d)takes a very small part
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

24-What amount of praise do you feel that your child deserves for good behavior at the table?

- a)no praise, good behavior is expected
- b>occasionally might praise
- c)often praise for good behavior
- d)always praise for good behavior
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

25-What would you do if your child fights just to be fighting?

- a)use strong physical punishment
- b)use medium physical punishment
- c)use mild physical punishment
- d)use no physical punishment
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

26-How would you prefer that your child behave when being bullied by another child?

- a)ask me to help
- b)ask for my help then both of us settle the problem
- c)as long as child is in no physical danger let him/her settle it
- d)definitely let the child settle it on his/her own
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 27-How strict are you about your child's bedtime?
- a)no set bedtime. Child goes to bed when ready to fall asleep
 - b)child has a bedtime but often goes much later
 - c)child has a bedtime and is expected to stick to it
 - d)child must be quiet and fall asleep when bedtime comes around
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 28-How much time does your spouse spend playing with the child each day, on the average?
- a)very little if any
 - b)about 1 hour
 - c)1-2 hrs.
 - d)more than 2 hrs.
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 29-What age do you like least in children?
- a)6-8
 - b)4-6
 - c)2-4
 - d)2 or less
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 30-Why do you dislike this age?
- a)children too independent
 - b)because they talk back and like to disobey
 - c)they are too active and get into many dangerous situations
 - d)too much trouble to take care of
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 31-What value is there in giving children rewards for good behavior?
- a)no value; it spoils the child
 - b)a little useful
 - c)very useful
 - d)great value; it works well in training
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 32-What would you do if your child fights just to be fighting?
- a)talk to child at length to find out reason for the behavior
 - b)probably would reason with the child
 - c)possibly might reason with the child
 - d)never would reason with the child
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

- 33-I think it is very important that from an early age (18 mo.-3 yrs.) my child learns to take responsibility for such things as cleaning up his/her toys, brushing teeth, care of pets, etc.
- a) I strongly agree
 - b) I agree
 - c) I disagree
 - d) I strongly disagree. There is plenty of time to learn responsibility later.
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 34-Children are often noisy. What are your rules about noisy behavior?
- a) children should not be allowed to make noise
 - b) children must be quiet enough not to disturb others
 - c) children can be noisy at certain times and places
 - d) children can be noisy almost anytime
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 35-Who answers most of your child's questions?
- a) usually myself
 - b) I do most often but my spouse helps
 - c) my spouse most often but I help
 - d) usually my spouse
 - e) 50% father: 50% mother
 - f) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 36-How often do you give your child a reward or praise for good behavior?
- a) very often
 - b) quite often
 - c) occasionally
 - d) never
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 37-How often does your child's behavior require a spanking
- a) never
 - b) rarely (2 or 3 times a yr.)
 - c) once a month
 - d) once or twice a week
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 38-You can harm a child by teaching independence at too early an age (18 mo. 3 yrs.)
- a) I strongly disagree
 - b) I disagree
 - c) I agree
 - d) I strongly agree
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer

- 39-In dealing with feeding problems how much influence did you try to have over your child?
- a) put no pressure on child
 - b) put some pressure on child
 - c) put moderate pressure on child
 - d) strict dealing with feeding problems
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 40-Does your spouse become angry with the child(ren) often?
- a) yes very often
 - b) quite often
 - c) sometimes
 - d) no, hardly ever
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 41-On the whole I like older children (5-8 yrs.) more than younger children (18 mos. to 3 yrs.)
- a) I strongly disagree
 - b) I agree
 - c) I disagree
 - d) I strongly disagree
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 42-When your child behaves as you want him/her to, what do you do?
- a) have a regular system of rewards such as candy or money
 - b) reward the child often but not every time
 - c) maybe praise, if I think of it
 - d) nothing; I expect good behavior
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 43-In dealing with children's misbehavior how often is a slap a good means of developing desirable behavior?
- a) never
 - b) rarely (2 or 3 times a yr.)
 - c) once a month
 - d) once or twice a week
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer
- 44-Young children (18 mos.-3 yrs.) are by nature very independent, so the real job is teaching them to be dependent (i.e., to learn that others are around to help if needed).
- a) I strongly agree
 - b) I agree
 - c) I disagree
 - d) I strongly disagree
 - e) don't know or do not wish to answer

- 45-In toilet training your child, how strict were you?
- a)very strict. Child was punished for making messes.
 - b)fairly strict. Child was scolded fairly often.
 - c)moderately strict. Child was only scolded for accidents which could have been avoided.
 - d)not strict at all. Child trained self.
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 46-How much importance does your spouse place on giving affection to your child(ren)?
- a)very much importance
 - b)pretty importance
 - c)of some importance
 - d)no importance
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 47-What age do you like best in other people's children?
- a)6-8
 - b)4-6
 - c)2-4
 - d)less than 2
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 48-Why do you like this age (in other people's children)?
- a)child is more grown up
 - b)now children are eager to learn
 - c)children are cute at this age
 - d)kids are fun to cuddle and take care of
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 49-When do you feel that your child deserves praise?
- a)very often
 - b)quite often
 - c)occasionally
 - d)never
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 50-How often does your child require some kind of physical punishment?
- a)never
 - b)once or twice a year
 - c)once a month
 - d)about once a week
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 51-Young children (18 mos.-3 yrs.) are by nature very dependent, so the real job is teaching them to be independent (ie., to be responsible).
- a)I strongly agree
 - b)I agree
 - c)I disagree
 - d)I strongly disagree

- e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 52-How important it is to you that your child does exactly those things that you tell him/her to do?
- a)not all that important
 - b)fairly important
 - c)very important
 - d)extremely important
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 53-Who is usually the best judge in deciding what rules to follow in bringing up your child?
- a)I am, usually
 - b)I am but my spouse helps
 - c)my spouse is best but I help
 - d)my spouse, usually
 - e)50% mother: 50% father
 - f)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 54-Giving rewards and praise to a child for good behavior is an excellent practice.
- a)I strongly disagree
 - b)I disagree
 - c)I agree
 - d)I strongly agree
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 55-How often does it work to reason with your child?
- a)always
 - b)often
 - c)seldom
 - d)never
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 56-In a young child (18 mos.-3 yrs.) there are times when it is appropriate to be dependent and time to act independent. What is the nearest to an "ideal" balance at 18 mos.-3 yrs.
- a)90% independence 10% dependence
 - b)60% independence 40% dependence
 - c)40% independence 60% dependence
 - d)10% independence 90% dependence
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer
- 57-How much "sassing" or backtalk do you permit your child when he/she is angry?
- a)none
 - b)a little
 - c)medium amount
 - d)permit quite a bit
 - e)don't know or do not wish to answer

58-In your family what part of the disciplining does each of you do?

- a)most done by my spouse
- b)a lot done by my spouse but I do some
- c)a lot done by me but my spouse helps
- d)most done by me
- e)50% mother: 50% father
- f)don't know or do not wish to answer

59-I need the feedback that you can get from older children.
(In contrast to young babies where the giving is all one way)

- a)I strongly agree
- b)I agree
- c)I disagree
- d)I strongly disagree
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

60-Rewarding children for behavior is just bribery

- a)I strongly agree
- b)I agree
- c)I disagree
- d)I strongly disagree
- e)don't know or do not wish to answer

REVISED BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHECKLIST

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and

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Donald R. Peterson, 1983

Please complete items 1 to 7 carefully.

1. Name (or identification number) of child

2. Date of birth _____

3. Sex _____

4. Father's occupation _____

5. Name of person completing this checklist

6. Relationship to child (circle one)

a. Mother b. Father c. Teacher d. Other _____
(Specify)

7. Date checklist completed _____

Please indicate which of the following are problems, as far as this child is concerned. If an item does not constitute a problem or if you have had no opportunity to observe or have no knowledge about the item, circle the zero. If an item constitutes a mild problem, circle the one; if an item constitutes a severe problem, circle the two. Please complete every item.

REVISED BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHECKLIST

1. Restless; unable to sit still	0	1	2
2. Seeks attention; "shows-off"	0	1	2
3. Stays out late at night	0	1	2
4. Self-conscious; easily embarrassed	0	1	2
5. Disruptive; annoys and bothers others	0	1	2
6. Feels inferior	0	1	2
7. Steals in company with others	0	1	2
8. Preoccupied; "In a world of his own;" stares into space	0	1	2
9. Shy, bashful	0	1	2
10. Withdraws; prefers solitary activities	0	1	2
11. Belongs to a gang	0	1	2
12. Repetitive speech; says same thing over and over	0	1	2
13. Short attention span; poor concentration	0	1	2
14. Lacks self-confidence	0	1	2
15. Inattentive to what others say	0	1	2
16. Incoherent speech, what is said doesn't make sense	0	1	2
17. Fights	0	1	2
18. Loyal to delinquent friends	0	1	2
19. Has temper tantrums	0	1	2
20. Truant from school, usually in company with others	0	1	2
21. Hypersensitive; feelings are easily hurt	0	1	2
22. Generally fearful; anxious	0	1	2
23. Irresponsible, undependable	0	1	2
24. Has "bad" companions, ones who are always in some kind of trouble	0	1	2
25. Tense, unable to relax	0	1	2
26. Disobedient; difficult to control	0	1	2
27. Depressed; always sad	0	1	2
28. Uncooperative in group situations	0	1	2
29. Passive, suggestible; easily led by others	0	1	2
30. Hyperactive; "always on the go"	0	1	2
31. Distractable; easily diverted from the task at hand	0	1	2
32. Destructive in regard to own and/or other's property	0	1	2
33. Negative; tends to do the opposite of what is requested	0	1	2
34. Impertinent; talks back	0	1	2
35. Sluggish, slow moving, lethargic	0	1	2
36. Drowsy; not "wide awake"	0	1	2
37. Nervous, jittery, jumpy; easily startled	0	1	2
38. Irritable, hot-tempered; easily angered	0	1	2
39. Expresses strange, far-fetched ideas	0	1	2
40. Argues; quarrels	0	1	2
41. Sulks and pouts	0	1	2
42. Persists and nags; can't take "no" for an answer	0	1	2
43. Avoids looking others in the eye	0	1	2
44. Answers without stopping to think	0	1	2
45. Unable to work independently; needs constant help and attention	0	1	2
46. Uses drugs in company with others	0	1	2
47. Impulsive; starts before understanding what to do; doesn't stop and think	0	1	2
48. Chews on inedible things	0	1	2
49. Tries to dominate others; bullies, threatens	0	1	2
50. Picks at other children as a way of getting their attention; seems to want to relate but doesn't know how	0	1	2
51. Steals from people outside the home	0	1	2

(please go on to next page)

52. Expresses beliefs that are clearly untrue (delusions)	0	1	2
53. Says nobody loves him or her	0	1	2
54. Freely admits disrespect for moral values and laws	0	1	2
55. Brags and boasts	0	1	2
56. Slow and not accurate in doing things	0	1	2
57. Shows little interest in things around him or her	0	1	2
58. Does not finish things; gives up easily; lacks perseverance	0	1	2
59. Is part of a group that rejects school activities such as team sports, clubs, projects to help others	0	1	2
60. Cheats	0	1	2
61. Seeks company of older, "more experienced" companions	0	1	2
62. Knows what's going on but is listless and uninterested	0	1	2
63. Resists leaving mother's (or other caretaker's) side	0	1	2
64. Difficulty in making choices; can't make up mind	0	1	2
65. Teases others	0	1	2
66. Absentminded; forgets simple things easily	0	1	2
67. Acts like he or she were much younger; immature, "childish"	0	1	2
68. Has trouble following directions	0	1	2
69. Will lie to protect his friends	0	1	2
70. Afraid to try new things for fear of failure	0	1	2
71. Selfish; won't share; always takes the biggest piece	0	1	2
72. Uses alcohol in company with others	0	1	2
73. School work is messy, sloppy	0	1	2
74. Does not respond to praise from adults	0	1	2
75. Not liked by others; is a "loner" because of aggressive behavior	0	1	2
76. Does not use language to communicate	0	1	2
77. Cannot stand to wait; wants everything right now	0	1	2
78. Refuses to take directions, won't do as told	0	1	2
79. Blames others; denies own mistakes	0	1	2
80. Admires and seeks to associate with "rougher" peers	0	1	2
81. Punishment doesn't affect his or her behavior	0	1	2
82. Squirms, fidgets	0	1	2
83. Deliberately cruel to others	0	1	2
84. Feels he or she can't succeed	0	1	2
85. Tells imaginary things as though true; unable to tell real from imagined ...	0	1	2
86. Does not hug and kiss members of family; affectionless	0	1	2
87. Runs away; is truant from home	0	1	2
88. Openly admires people who operate outside the law	0	1	2
89. Repeats what is said to him or her; "parrots" others' speech	0	1	2

	CD	SA	AP	AW	PB	ME
Raw Score	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
T Score	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

CUESTIONARIO DE CRIANZA

- 1-Si su nino/a se llena de ira y le golpea, usted usaria:
- a) un castigo fisico fuerte
 - b) un castigo fisico mediano
 - c) un castigo fisico leve
 - d) ningun castigo fisico
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 2- Como reaccionaria usted si su hijo/a estuviera pegado a usted constantemente y siguiendola por todas partes?
- a) haria todo lo posible por evitarlo
 - b) lo permitiria solo en ocasiones
 - c) permitirlo, pero evitaria que se convirtiera en un habito
 - d) dejar que ocurra: pensar que es normal
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 3- Tiene su nino/a responsabilidades o tareas asignadas en el mantenimiento del hogar?
- a) si, responsabilidades diarias
 - b) si, es responsable de mantener su habitacion ordenada y limpia
 - c) yo le ayudo a mantener su habitacion ordenada
 - d) el/ella no ayuda a mantener la casa ordenada
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 4-Al disciplinar al nino/a, cual padre deberia llevar a cabo el castigo? (Asumiendo que ambos padres estan presentes).
- a) la madre siempre
 - b) la madre mayormente, el padre a veces
 - c) el padre mayormente, la madre a veces
 - d) el padre siempre
 - e) 50% el padre, 50% la madre
 - f) no se o no deseo contestar
- 5- Como reacciona usted cuando su hijo/a tiene exito en la escuela?
- a) no hago comentarios, es lo que se espera de el/ella
 - b) a veces le elogio
 - c) frecuentemente le elogio y tal vez le premie
 - d) siempre le elogio y le premio
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 6-En el caso de un bebe, Cuanta atencion y afecto debe darle la madre?
- a) los mas posible
 - b) lo suficiente para mantener al bebe contento
 - c) alguna, pero no tanto que el bebe se malcrie
 - d) poco tiempo
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar

- 7-Si su nino/a se llena de ira y le golpea a usted, usted:
- a) emplearia gran cantidad de tiempo para hablar con el nino/a para encontrar la razon
 - b) probablemente razonaria con el nino/a
 - c) posiblemente razonaria con el nino/a
 - d) nunca razonaria con el nino/a
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 8- Como reacciona usted generalmente cuando su nino/a le pide atencion y usted esta ocupada?
- a) siempre respondo a sus demandas
 - b) usualmente brindo atencion
 - c) a veces respondo, pero no siempre
 - d) respondo muy poco a esta conducta
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 9- A que edad debe usted enseñar habitos de orden y limpieza?
- a) 5 anos o mas
 - b) 4 anos
 - c) 3 anos
 - d) 2 anos o menos
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 10- Quien debe decidir las reglas o normas relacionadas con su hijo/a?
- a) la madre siempre
 - b) mayormente la madre, algunas veces el padre
 - c) mayormente el padre, algunas veces la madre
 - d) el padre siempre
 - e) 50% el padre, 50% la madre
 - f) no se o no deseo contestar
- 11-Los bebes son un gran responsabilidad. El cuidar a su bebe puede ser un verdadero quehacer. Cuan problematico es esto para usted?
- a) una gran preocupacion
 - b) obtengo alguna satisfaccion de ello
 - c) obtengo una justa cantidad de placer en el cuidado del bebe
 - d) realmente disfruto cuidando al bebe
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 12-Cuando su nino/a hace lo que se le pide. Como reacciona usted?
- a) no comento: es algo que espero de el/ella
 - b) le elogio ocasionalmente
 - c) le elogio frecuentemente y quizas le premie
 - d) siempre le elogio y le premio
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar

- 13- Como reaccionaria usted si su nino/a le gritara con corage?
- a) con un castigo fisico fuerte
 - b) con un castigo fisico mediano
 - c) con un castigo fisico leve
 - d) no uso un castigo fisico
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 14-Que haria si su nino/a le pide a usted que haga algo que usted piensa que el/ella puede hacer por si mismo?
- a) siempre insistir en que el nino/a lo haga por si mismo/a
 - b) hacer que el nino/a lo haga tan frecuentemente como sea posible
 - c) ocasionalmente lo hare, pero tratare de insistir que el nino/a lo haga el mismo
 - d) lo hago la mayor parte del tiempo
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 15- Le permite usted a su hijo/a jugar sobre los muebles?
- a) nunca
 - b) rara vez
 - c) algunas veces
 - d) en cualquier momento
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 16- Con cuanto exito maneja su esposo los problemas de disciplina?
- a) muy bien
 - b) bastante bien
 - c) no muy bien
 - d) pobremente
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 17- Que edad le gusta a usted mas en su propio nino/a? (Estime o imagineselo si su nino no tiene ocho anos todavia.)
- a) 6-8
 - b) 4-6
 - c) 2-4
 - d) menos de 2
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 18- Porque a usted le gusta esta edad? (En su propio nino/a estime si su hijo/a aun no tiene ocho anos).
- a) el nino esta mas crecido
 - b) a esa edad el nino esta mas deseoso de aprender
 - c) los ninos/as son graciosos a esa edad
 - d) es divertido cuidar y mimar a los ninos de esta edad
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar

- 19- En el juego, cuando su niño/a se porta bien, Como reacciona usted?
- a) no comento: es algo que espero de el/ella
 - b) le elogio ocasionalmente
 - c) le elogio frecuentemente y quizas le premie
 - d) siempre le elogio y le premio
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 20- Como reaccionaria usted si su niño/a le grita con corage?
- a) emplearia un buen tiempo para hablar con el niño/a y encontrar la razon
 - b) probablemente razonare con el niño/a
 - c) posiblemente razonaria con el niño/a
 - d) nunca razonaria con el niño/a
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 21- Que hace usted cuando su niño/a esta envuelto en una discusion?
- a) dejar que los niños resuelvan la discusion entre ellos mismos
 - b) dejarles discutir a menos que me molesten
 - c) quizas intervenir yo misma
 - d) definitivamente intervenir y arreglar la discusion yo misma
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 22- Que clase de normas tiene usted para cuando los niños escriben las paredes, saltan en los muebles, brincan en las camas etc.?
- a) no tengo normas
 - b) unas pocas de normas
 - c) muchas normas
 - d) normas que cubren casi para todo
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 23- Hasta que punto su esposo toma parte en la vida familiar?
- a) mucho
 - b) algo
 - c) poco
 - d) nada
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 24- Que tanto elogio cree usted que su niño/a merece por buena conducta en la mesa?
- a) ninguno, se espera que exhiba buena conducta
 - b) ocasionalmente puede que le elogie
 - c) frecuentemente le elogio por buena conducta
 - d) siempre le elogio por buena conducta
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar

- 25- Que haria usted si su nino pelea por el solo hecho de pelear?
- a) usar un castigo fuerte
 - b) usar un castigo mediano
 - c) usar un castigo leve
 - d) no usar castigo fisico
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 26- Como prefiere usted que su nino/a se comporte cuando otro nino/a le molesta?
- a) que me pida ayude
 - b) que me pida ayuda y ambos resolvemos el problema
 - c) en tanto que el nino/a no este en peligro de ser agredido fisicamente, dejo que el/ella resuelva el problema
 - d) definitivamente dejar que el nino/a resuelva el problema por si mismo
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 27- Cuan estricta es usted sobre la hora en que su nino/a se debe acostar?
- a) no fijo la hora. Mi nino/a se va a acostar cuando tiene sueno
 - b) el nino/a tiene una hora fija para acostarse pero frecuentemente se acuesta mucho mas tarde
 - c) el nino/a tiene un hora para acostarse y se espera que la siga
 - d) el nino/a debe permanecer callado y dormirse cuando se acerca la hora de acostarse
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 28- Cual es el tiempo promedio que su esposo invierte jugando con su hijo/a cada dia?
- a) muy poco
 - b) como una hora
 - c) de una a dos horas
 - d) mas de dos horas
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 29- Cual es la edad que menos le gusta a usted en los ninos?
- a) 6-8
 - b) 4-6
 - c) 2-4
 - d) mas de dos horas
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 30- Porque a usted no le gusta esa edad?
- a) los ninos son muy independientes
 - b) porque les gusta contestar para atras y desobedecer
 - c) son muy activos y se envuelven en muchas situaciones peligrosas
 - d) son mucho problema para cuidar

e) no se o no deseo contestar

31- Que utilidad encuentra usted en premiar a los niños por buena conducta?

- a) ninguna: eso malcria a los niños
- b) un poco de utilidad
- c) bastante útil
- d) mucha utilidad; funciona bien en la disciplina
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

32- Que haría usted si su niño/a pelea por el solo hecho de pelear?

- a) emplearía un buen tiempo para hablar con el niño/a y encontrar la razón de su comportamiento
- b) probablemente razonare con el niño
- c) posiblemente razonaría con el niño
- d) nunca razonaría con el niño
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

33- Yo creo que es muy importante que desde una temprana edad (18 meses a tres años) mi niño aprenda a asumir responsabilidades por cosas como recoger sus juguetes, limpiarse los dientes, cuidar los animales, etc.

- a) estoy bien de acuerdo
- b) estoy de acuerdo
- c) no estoy de acuerdo
- d) estoy totalmente en desacuerdo. Hay mucho tiempo para aprender responsabilidades más tarde en la vida
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

34- Los niños frecuentemente son ruidosos. Cuales son sus normas sobre este tipo de conducta?

- a) a los niños no se les debe permitir hacer ruido
- b) los niños deben estar lo bastante callados como para no molestar a los demás
- c) los niños pueden hacer ruido casi todo el tiempo
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

35- Quien contesta la mayor parte de las preguntas de su niño/a?

- a) usualmente yo misma
- b) yo lo hago usualmente, pero mi esposo ayuda
- c) mi esposo mayormente, pero yo ayudo
- d) 50% el papa, 50% la mama
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

36- Con que frecuencia usted le da a su hijo/a un premio o elogio por buena conducta?

- a) con mucha frecuencia
- b) con bastante frecuencia
- c) ocasionalmente
- d) nunca

e) no se o no deseo contestar

37- Con que frecuencia la conducta de su hijo/a requiere que usted le pegue?

a) nunca

b) rara vez (dos o tres veces al ano)

c) una vez al mes

d) una o dos veces por semana

e) no se o no deseo contestar

38-Usted puede causarle dano a un nino fomentandole independecia a una edad muy temprana (18 meses a tres anos).

a) estoy totalmente en desacuerdo

b) estoy en desacuerdo

c) estoy de acuerdo

d) estoy completamente de acuerdo

e) no se o no deseo contestar

39-Al enfrentar el problema de un nino/a que no quiere comer. Cuanto trata usted de influir sobre el/ella?

a) no pongo presion en el/la nino/a

b) pongo alguna presion en el/la nino/a

c) pongo presion moderada en el/la nino/a

d) bregar directamente con el problema de comer

e) no se o no deseo contestar

40- Se pone su esposo molesto con el nino/a frecuentemente?

a) si, muy frecuentemente

b) bastante frecuente

c) algunas veces

d) no, casi nunca

e) no se o no deseo contestar

41-En general, a mi me gustan mas los ninos mayores (5 a 8 anos) que los ninos mas pequenos (18 a tres anos)

a) estoy totalmente de acuerdo

b) estoy de acuerdo

c) no estoy de acuerdo

d) estoy totalmente en desacuerdo

e) no se o no deseo contestar

42- Que hace usted cuando su nino/a se comporta como usted quiere?

a) tengo un sistema de premios tales como dulces o dinero

b) premiar al nino con frecuencia pero no todo el tiempo

c) quizas elogiarlo si se me ocurre

d) una o dos veces por semana

e) no se o no deseo contestar

- 43-Al enfrentarse con problemas de mala conducta, con que frecuencia se debe usar una bofetada como metodo para desarrollar conducta apropiada?
- a) nunca
 - b) rara vez (2 o 3 veces al ano)
 - c) una vez al mes
 - d) una o dos veces por semana
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 44-Los ninos pequenos (18 a 3 anos) son por naturaleza muy independientes, asi es que el verdadero trabajo es enseñarles a ser dependientes (por ejemplo aprender a que otros estan alrededor para ayudar si es necessario).
- a) estoy completamente de acuerdo
 - b) estoy de acuerdo
 - c) no estoy de acuerdo
 - d) estoy totalmente en desacuerdo
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 45- Cuan estricta fue usted cuando adiestro al nino/a a usar el servicio sanitario.
- a) muy estricta. El nino/a fue castigado por hacer regueros (cochinadas)
 - b) bastante estricta, se le pego al nino/a con frecuencia
 - c) moderadamente estricta. El nino/a fue unicamente castigado por accidentes que el podria haber evitado
 - d) no fui estricta en los absoluto. El nino/a se adiestro asi mismo
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 46- Cuanta importancia pone su esposo en darle afecto a sus ninos?
- a) muchisima importancia
 - b) lo considera bastante importante
 - c) de alguna importancia
 - d) no lo considera importante
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 47- Que edad le gusta mas a usted en los ninos de otra gente?
- a) 6-8
 - b) 4-6
 - c) 2-4
 - d) menos de dos anos
 - e) no se o no deseo contestar
- 48- Porque le gusta a usted esta edad (en los ninos de otra gente)?
- a) el nino/a esta mas crecido
 - b) ahora los ninos estan deseosos de aprender
 - c) los ninos son graciosos a esa edad
 - d) es divertido cuidar y mimar a estos ninos

e) no se o no deseo contestar

49- Cuando usted cree que su niño/a merece elogios?

- a) muy frecuentemente
- b) con bastante frecuencia
- c) ocasionalmente
- d) nunca
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

50- Con que frecuencia su niño/a requiere algún tipo de castigo físico?

- a) nunca
- b) una o dos veces al año
- c) una vez al mes
- d) como una vez por semana
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

51- Los niños pequeños (18 meses a 3 años) son por naturaleza muy dependientes, así es que la verdadera tarea es enseñarles a ser independientes (por ejemplo a ser responsables).

- a) estoy completamente de acuerdo
- b) estoy de acuerdo
- c) no estoy de acuerdo
- d) estoy completamente en desacuerdo
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

52- Cuan importante es para usted que su niño/a haga exactamente aquellas cosas que usted le dice?

- a) no es tan importante
- b) bastante importante
- c) muy importante
- d) extremadamente importante
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

53- Quien es usualmente el mejor juez al decidir que normas seguir en la crianza del niño?

- a) usualmente yo
- b) yo, pero mi esposo ayuda
- c) mi esposo lo hace mejor, pero yo ayudo
- d) mi esposo, usualmente
- e) 50% yo, 50% mi esposo
- f) no se o no deseo contestar

54- El darle premios y elogios a un niño por buena conducta es una práctica excelente.

- a) estoy totalmente en desacuerdo
- b) no estoy en desacuerdo
- c) estoy de acuerdo
- d) estoy completamente de acuerdo
- e) no se o no deseo contestar

- 55- Con que frecuencia funciona el razonar con su niño/a?
- siempre
 - frecuentemente
 - rara vez
 - nunca
 - no ~~see~~ o no deseo contestar
- 56- En un niño pequeño (18 meses a tres años) hay ocasiones en que es apropiado ser dependiente y ocasiones para actuar independiente. Que es lo más cercano a un balance ideal entre los 18 meses a los tres años?
- 90% independiente y 10% dependiente
 - 60% independiente y 40% dependiente
 - 40% independiente y 60% dependiente
 - 10% independiente y 90% dependiente
 - no ~~see~~ o no deseo contestar
- 57- Cuanta ~~masa~~ crianza u oportunidad de contestarle para atrás, ~~lese~~ permite usted a su niño/a cuando el/ella tiene coraje?
- nada
 - un ~~pooco~~
 - una ~~cc~~ cantidad moderada
 - le ~~pe~~ permito bastante
 - no ~~see~~ o no deseo contestar
- 58- Que participación en la disciplina tiene cada uno de ustedes ~~esen~~ en su familia?
- la ~~masa~~ mayor parte la ejerce mi esposo
 - una ~~gg~~ gran cantidad la ejerce mi esposo pero yo hago algo
 - una ~~gg~~ gran cantidad esta mi cargo pero mi esposo ayuda
 - la ~~masa~~ mayor parte esta a mi cargo
 - 50% ~~yy~~ yo y 50% mi esposo
 - no ~~see~~ o no deseo contestar
- 59- Yo necesito la reacción que uno puede recibir de los niños mayores. (En contraste de la relación que uno tiene con los bebés que es hacia una sola dirección, uno les da a ellos ~~todoo~~ el tiempo).
- estoy ~~yy~~ totalmente de acuerdo
 - estoy ~~yy~~ de acuerdo
 - no ~~es~~ estoy de acuerdo
 - estoy ~~yy~~ completamente en desacuerdo
 - no ~~see~~ o no deseo contestar
- 60- Premiar a los niños por comportamiento es solo soborno
- estoy ~~yy~~ completamente de acuerdo
 - estoy ~~yy~~ de acuerdo
 - no ~~es~~ estoy de acuerdo
 - estoy ~~yy~~ completamente en desacuerdo
 - no ~~see~~ o no deseo contestar

CUESTIONARIO REVISADO SOBRE PROBLEMAS DE COMPORTAMIENTO

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Traducción del inglés al español:

Spanish Family Guidance Center y
Departamento de Psicología
de la
Universidad de Miami

Por favor llene cuidadosamente los siguientes espacios en blanco:

1. Nombre (o número de identificación del (de la) muchacho(a):

2. Fecha de nacimiento: _____

3. Sexo: _____

4. Ocupación del padre: _____

5. Nombre de la persona que está llenando este cuestionario:

6. Parentesco o conexión con el muchacho o la muchacha (indique con un círculo):

a) Madre b) Padre c) Maestro d) Otro: _____

(especifique)

7. Fecha _____

Por favor indique cual de los siguientes son problemas referentes a este (esta) muchacho (a). Si alguna pregunta no es un problema del muchacho, o la muchacha o si se refiere a algo que usted no ha tenido la oportunidad de observar o de lo cual usted no conoce, marque el cero. Si la pregunta constituye un problema menor (no serio), marque el uno; si la pregunta constituye un problema grave, marque el dos. Por favor conteste todas las preguntas.

1. Inquieto, incapaz de estarse tranquilo
0 1 2
2. Busca atencion, le gusta lucirse
0 1 2
3. Esta fuera hasta muy tarde, en la noche
0 1 2
4. Muy centrado en si mismo, facilmente se averguenza
0 1 2
5. Majadero, tiende a molestar y a fastidiar a los otros ..
0 1 2
6. Se siente inferior
0 1 2
7. Roba en compania de otros
0 1 2
8. Preocupado, "en un mundo de el mismo" vaga en el espacio
0 1 2
9. Timido, vergonzoso
0 1 2
10. Retraido, prefiere actividades solitarias
0 1 2
11. Pertenece a una pandilla
0 1 2
12. Repite lo que dice, dice una misma cosa una y otra vez .
0 1 2
13. Nivel de atencion corto, pobre concentracion
0 1 2
14. Carece de confianza en si mismo
0 1 2

15. No presta atencion a lo que los otros dicen
0 1 2
16. Language incoherente, no tiene sentido lo que dice
0 1 2
17. Pelea
0 1 2
18. Leal a sus amigos delinquentes
0 1 2
19. Tiene arrebatos de caracter, perretas
0 1 2
20. Se fuga de la escuela, generalmente en compania de otros
0 1 2
21. Hipersensitivo, se siente herido facilmente
0 1 2
22. Generalmente temeroso, ansioso
0 1 2
23. Irresponsable, no se puede confiar
0 1 2
24. Tiene malas companias, generalmente aquellos que siempre
tienen algun tipo de problema
0 1 2
25. Tenso, incapaz de relajarse
0 1 2
26. Desobediente, dificil de controlar
0 1 2
27. Deprimido, siempre triste
0 1 2
28. No coopera en situaciones de grupo
0 1 2
29. Pasivo, sugestionable, facil de ser dominado por otros .
0 1 2
30. Hiperactivo, siempre haciendo algo
0 1 2
31. Facil de distraer, facilmente abandona lo que esta
haciendo
0 1 2

32. Destructivo, tanto en sus cosas como en las propiedades de otros
0 1 2
33. Negativo, tiende a hacer lo contrario de lo que se le pide
0 1 2
34. Impertinente, siempre riposta
0 1 2
35. Lento, movimientos lentos, letargico
0 1 2
36. Sonoliento, no completamente alerta
0 1 2
37. Nervioso, agitado, salta facilmente
0 1 2
38. Irritable, temperamento violento, facilmente encolerizado
0 1 2
39. Expresa ideas extrañas, traídas por los cabellos
0 1 2
40. Discute, pelea
0 1 2
41. Protesta, hace pucheros
0 1 2
42. Persistente y reganoso, no puede aceptar un no como respuesta
0 1 2
43. Evita mirar a los ojos de los otros
0 1 2
44. Contesta, sin detenerse a pensar
0 1 2
45. Incapaz de trabajar independientemente, necesita constantes atención y ayuda
0 1 2
46. Usa drogas en compañía de otros
0 1 2
47. Impulsivo, comienza a actuar antes de entender lo que

- va a hacer, no se para a pensar
0 1 2
48. Mastica cosas que no se comen
0 1 2
49. Trata de dominar a los otros, pelea, amenaza
0 1 2
50. Mortifica a los otros niños como una manera de llamar la
atención; parece que quiere relacionarse pero no sabe
como hacerlo
0 1 2
51. Roba a otras personas, fuera del hogar
0 1 2
52. Expresa creencias que son claramente inciertas
(alucinaciones)
0 1 2
53. Dice que nadie le quiere
0 1 2
54. Francamente admite que no respeta los valores morales
o las leyes
0 1 2
55. Jactancioso
0 1 2
56. Lento y poco cuidadoso al hacer las cosas
0 1 2
57. Muestra poco interés en las cosas que le rodean
0 1 2
58. No termina las cosas, les abandona fácilmente, carece
de perseverancia
0 1 2
59. Forma parte de un grupo que rechaza las actividades
escolares, como equipos de deportes, clubs, proyectos
para ayudar a otros
0 1 2
60. Engaña
0 1 2
61. Busca la compañía de otros, mayores y con más experiencia
0 1 2

62. Sabe lo que esta pasando, pero no escucha y no se interesa
0 1 2
63. Resiste alejarse de la madre, o de alguien que lo cuide.
0 1 2
64. Le es dificil tomar decisiones, no sabe decidirse
0 1 2
65. Se burla de otros
0 1 2
66. Distraido, olvida las cosas facilmente
0 1 2
67. Actua como si fuera mucho mas joven, de un modo inmaduro, aninado
0 1 2
68. Mentiria para proteger a sus amigos
0 1 2
69. Tiene dificultades para seguir orientaciones
0 1 2
70. Miedoso de tratar cosas nuevas por temor a fracasar
0 1 2
71. Egoista, no comparte, siempre toma para si la mayor parte
0 1 2
72. Usa del alcohol en compania de otros
0 1 2
73. Su tarea escolar esta sucia, emborronada
0 1 2
74. No responde a las alabanzas de los adultos
0 1 2
75. No es aceptado por los otros, es un solitario, por su conducta agresiva
0 1 2
76. No usa el language para comunicarse
0 1 2
77. No puede esperar, desea las cosas ahora mismo
0 1 2

IDENTIFICATION OF STUDENTS:

- 1-Name: _____.
- 2-ID Number: _____.
- 3-Program: _____.
- 4-Birth Date: _____.
- 5-Ethnic Group: _____.
- 6-Telephone number: _____.
- 7-Address: _____.
- 8-School: _____.
- 9-District: _____.
- 10-Room number: _____.
- 11-Student eligible for the following programs:

INFORMATION FROM THE MOTHER:

- 1-Name: _____.
- 2-Place of birth _____.
- 3-Number of years in U.S. (if applicable) _____.
- 4-Number of years in school: _____.
- 5-Employment: _____.
- 6-Marital status: _____.
- 7-Sources of income: _____.
- 8-Family annual income: _____.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Lillian Gonzalez has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Ronald R. Morgan, Co-Director
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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies 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.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

3/1/90

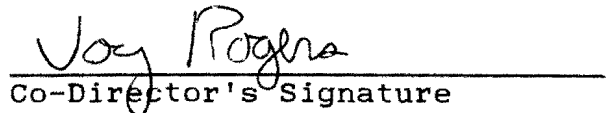
Date



Co-Director's Signature

3/1/90

Date



Co-Director's Signature