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PERMANENT ADDRESS:

.....13528-114 Ave.

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FELT POWERLESSNESS AS RELATED TO PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR

by

© PHILIP J. PATSULA

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Felt Powerlessness as Related to Perceived Parental Behavior" submitted by Philip J. Patsula in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

H. W. Ziegle
Supervisor

Thomas D. Maguire

Gary R. Lee

Lyle E. Larson

External Examiner

Date October 17, 1967

ABSTRACT

Several studies have indicated that a measure of the degree to which a person feels that he does not have general power over the reinforcements which he receives has potential for predicting certain types of learning performance. The present study was designed to explore parental "antecedents" of the individual's feeling of general powerlessness. Replicated findings were obtained using two samples each of 220 eighth grade students within a large urban state-supported Catholic school system in Western Canada. The individual's degree of perceived powerlessness was measured by factors obtained through factor analyses of Rotter's Internal-External Control of Outcomes Scale, Crandall, Katkovsky and Preston's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale, and the present writer's Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale. The perceived parental behaviors of rejection, psychological control, and lax control were measured by factors obtained through separate factor analyses of Schaefer's eighteen-subscale Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory for both mothers and fathers.

Estimates of the reliability of the instruments used were computed using both an internal consistency method and a test-retest procedure. Multiple regression analyses were performed primarily using the powerlessness measures as criterion variables and the parental behavior variables as predictor variables.

Findings which were significant at the .05 level were that the adolescent's perception of himself as being powerless in respect to general outcomes (as opposed to the perception of outcomes as being

within his/her control) was more pronounced among individuals who perceived their parents as psychologically controlling as opposed to psychologically autonomy-granting, rejecting as opposed to accepting, and promoting lax control as opposed to firm control.

Individuals of lower socio-economic status and lower scholastic aptitude also tended to exhibit greater powerlessness. No sex differences were observed.

Relevant implications to theory, research, and practice are discussed. It is recommended that further research in the area of powerlessness continue to delve into the etiology of the individual's feeling of powerlessness and take into account the distinction between those individuals who use such a feeling as a spur for more positive compensatory behavior as opposed to those individuals who use such a feeling as a check for more negative withdrawal behavior.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Individuals coming into counselling often report a generalized feeling of helplessness in overcoming their life problems. The basic therapeutic technique of Adlerian counselling in such cases is that of encouragement--the instilling of courage within the individual--in short, the fulfilling of the therapeutic goal of aiding the individual in his movement along the continuum from a position of felt powerlessness to a position of felt powerfulness in respect to interactions with his personal environment. A better understanding of the dimension of felt powerlessness would be profitable both to the therapist in his contact with clients and other social psychologists in their further understanding of human behavior. Indeed, the concept of general powerlessness, which is the focus of the present study, appears already to be incorporated in the more recent concepts of efficacy (White, 1959), effective force of the individual versus effective force of the environment (Heider, 1968), latent power of the individual (Minton, 1968), powerlessness (Seeman, 1959), and internal versus external control of reinforcements (Rotter, 1954, 1966).

Rotter's concept of internal versus external locus of control of reinforcement, in particular, has generated much recent research in the area of powerlessness. In Rotter's framework, individuals exhibiting internal control are depicted as those individuals who are more likely to believe that what happens to them in a particular situation depends upon their own efforts; i.e., they have control of their own destiny; they are the effective agents in determining the occurrence

of reinforcements relative to their behavior; they perceive positive and/or negative events as being consequences of their own actions. Individuals exhibiting external control are depicted as those individuals who are more prone to perceive outcomes across varying situations as being attributable to outside forces; i.e., luck, chance, fate, supernatural powers, task or situation characteristics, more powerful others, the complexity of the world, the unpredictability of people and/or the world. Using the same instrument as does Rotter, Seeman (1963, 1966, 1967) has preferred, as does the present writer, to use the term "powerlessness" rather than "external control." The term "powerlessness" tends to place the concept more within the context of the literature on self-alienation (Seeman, 1959). Research to be reported in succeeding chapters suggests that the individual's perception of powerlessness (both situationally or generally defined) affects his performance on specified tasks and that the concept of perceived general powerlessness merits continued investigation as a personality variable of importance to both the theory and practice of social psychology.

General Problem

On the assumption that the concept of powerlessness has relevance to the social psychologist, the present writer contends that a needed area of research which yet has not been properly emphasized is that of the etiology of the degree of the feeling of powerlessness within the individual. In an attempt to prepare for such research, the primary task of the present study was to investigate selected parental behaviors which are here hypothesized to covary with felt powerlessness.

Such parental behaviors are viewed along the parent-child relationship dimensions of rejection, psychological control, and lax control. The social learning theory of Rotter (1954, 1966) is mainly utilized in the description of the powerlessness construct, whereas the theory and research surrounding Schaefer's (1965a, 1965b) investigations of the dimensions of parent-child interactions is utilized in the description of the parental behaviors. The relevance of the concept of powerlessness to counselling and therapy is emphasized through Adler's (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1956) formulations of individual psychology.

Parenthetically, it is to be noted that the present study is delimited to showing relationships among selected variables and, therefore, does not attempt to demonstrate causal occurrences. It is also noted that although felt powerlessness at all times arises from the individual's perception of himself in interaction with his personal environment, such perception may frequently be inconsistent with reality.

Theoretical Background

Within the framework of Rotter's (1954) social learning theory, internal versus external control of reinforcement is conceptualized as a generalized expectancy on the part of the individual that he has control over the reinforcements that occur relative to his behavior. A reinforcement is viewed by Rotter as anything which "acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behavior or event will be followed by that reinforcement in the future" (Rotter, 1966, p. 2). In respect to the individual's conception of the task as being within or outside of his control, it would seem likely that if an individual

views an outcome as not being contingent upon his own behavior, its occurrence will not increase an expectancy as much as when it is seen as being contingent upon his behavior. Furthermore,

> Expectancies generalize from specific situations to a series of situations which are perceived as related or similar. Consequently, a generalized expectancy for a class of related events has functional properties and makes up one of the important classes of variables in personality description (Rotter, 1966, p. 2).

Through this generalized expectancy, which is herein termed "powerlessness," Rotter and others have related behavior to reinforcement in a wide variety of learning situations. Before reporting on studies dealing with the individual's feelings of powerlessness, however, it may be profitable to review selected contemporary powerlessness-related concepts.

Although Rotter (1966) does not specifically use the term "power," his concept of locus of control appears to be consistent with the concept of subjective power as used by Heider (1958), Thibaut and Kelley (1959), and Adler (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1956). Such views of power do not reflect personal power over others. Rather, they reflect personal power or mastery over one's environment. Influenced by Lewin's (1936) field theory, Heider (1958) distinguished the non-motivational ability of a person to perform an act and the motivational aspect of a person attempting to perform an act. The effective force of the person was seen as a combination of the non-motivational ability factor and the motivational "trying" factor, with the actual outcome being a function of the effective force of the person and the effective force of the environment. It is thus seen in Heider's naive

analysis of action that the attitude of powerfulness or powerlessness accompanying a successful action outcome is developed from the individual's differential attribution of the causal locus to himself (personal powerfulness), or the environment (personal powerlessness). In essence, Heider describes a functional relationship [Outcome of task = f(Effective force of the individual + Effective force of the environment)] in which it would seem reasonable to assume that the personal characteristics of ability, skill, or strength lead to the person as the power source; whereas variable environmental dimensions such as luck or opportunity lead to the environment as the causal source.

Similar to Heider's conception, Thibaut and Kelley (1959) viewed the individual's development of an attitude of power on the level and source of outcomes as resulting from the performance of an act. By introducing the additional concept of "comparison level," however, Thibaut and Kelley placed more emphasis on the development of expectancies for what is satisfying and unsatisfying in the level of outcomes. The comparison level, or neutral point on a scale of outcomes, shifts according to salient outcomes and thus a generalized comparison level giving a subjective basis for successful or satisfying feedback is said to be developed across situations. Thus individuals with relatively consistent high comparison levels would be expected to emphasize rewards and have attitudes of optimism and powerfulness, whereas, individuals with relatively consistent low comparison levels would tend to emphasize costs and have attitudes of pessimism and powerlessness (Minton, 1968). Once again, such a conception is very

close to Lewin's et al. (1944) "time sequence" model with the comparison level corresponding to the individual's level of aspiration partially set on the basis of the individual's previous performance.

Minton (1968) also emphasized a subjective aspect of power. Defining power as the ability to cause environmental change so as to obtain an intended effect, he distinguished between "manifest and latent power; the former referring to objective behavioral effectiveness and influence, the latter to power as a subjective attitude of how powerful one feels and believes himself to be and how set one is to implement power at the manifest level" (Minton, 1968, p. 47). Minton's concept of latent power as varying along a dimension of powerfulness-powerlessness, is similar to the previously mentioned concepts of Heider, Thibaut and Kelley, and Rotter. Likewise, using the term "competence" to refer to an individual's capacity to interact effectively with his environment, and the term "effectance" to refer to the motivating state underlying activities in the service of competence, White (1959) used the term "efficacy" (in a manner similar to that of Piaget, 1954) as the feeling of actively having an influence on something, hence, an attitude which accompanies the satisfaction of the effectance motive.

As Minton (1968) has pointed out in his discussion of power, the above conceptualizations appear to somewhat parallel Adler's concept of "striving for superiority," which has been variously termed the striving for mastery over one's environment, the striving for betterment, the striving for perfection or totality, the striving for a security-giving plus situation. More specifically, Rotter's concept

of the individual's feeling of internal control parallels the Adlerian concept of powerfulness, superiority, success, self-esteem, security, being-at-home-in-the-world; whereas the feeling of external control parallels feelings of powerlessness, inferiority, failure, worthlessness, insecurity, being-as-if-in-enemy-country. The significance of such parallelism becomes evident when one considers that the striving for betterment or superiority is postulated in Adlerian personality theory to be the basic dynamic force underlying the activities of the individual and that the Adlerian emphasis in therapy is on the overcoming of helplessness and the development of mastery and effectiveness in the individual's control of his/her personal world.

It is thus through Rotter and Adler that one is provided with a link between powerlessness as a research concept in social learning theory and powerlessness as an essential feature of psychotherapeutic theory and practice. A further link between child development and therapeutic theory and practice must still be explored in order to complete the present theoretical position in respect to the relation of felt powerlessness to selected parental behaviors.

In respect to a possible connection between child development and the individual's feelings of powerlessness, it would seem that the infant through the experiencing of reinforcements has the opportunity to develop and acquire the ability to differentiate events which are causally related to preceding events initiated by him and those which are not so related. Also, it would seem that individuals with differing histories of reinforcement would possibly exhibit differing tendencies of attribution of reinforcements to their own actions

(Rotter, 1966). That is, through particular reinforcements in specific situations the individual may generalize his feelings of powerlessness in respect to control of reinforcement into a pervasive perceptual set (in Adlerian terms, "an embedded style of life") which permeates the individual's social and cognitive activity. That the social and emotional behaviors of children are greatly influenced through their interactions with their parents is highly documented in research literature (Bowlby, 1966). In respect to what appears to be general widespread parental behaviors, Schaefer (1965b) and others (Becker, 1964, Roe and Siegelman, 1963) have independently found two main dimensions of parental behavior in interaction with their children--acceptance-rejection and control-autonomy. Schaefer (1965b) has further commented that the parental control-autonomy dimension fruitfully could be divided into the two more specific dimensions of psychological control-psychological autonomy and lax control-firm control. It is the present writer's contention that the development of the style of life characterized by the feeling of greater powerlessness in the control of reinforcements is facilitated by rejection, psychological control, and laxness of discipline in the parental relationships of the adolescent.

Indeed, Adler (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1956) has observed that the child's feeling of weakness in the face of adults provides the starting point for the feeling of powerlessness or helplessness. From this feeling of weakness there "arises a need for support, a demand for affection, a physiological and psychological dependency and submission" (pp. 47-48). It is contended by the present writer that

controlling and rejecting behaviors on the part of the parents may thus unknowingly coerce the child into accepting and maintaining a role of weakness which often has the effect of hampering the child's self-concept. Being moulded and maintained in a position of inferiority, weakness and powerlessness, the child may, therefore, learn to base his pride on allowing others to decide for him. This unwitting investment of powers to others precludes any pursuit of the struggle for autonomy, and may easily lead to the later generalized belief that control of most reinforcements does not lie entirely within one's domain. Accepting and autonomy-granting parental behaviors, on the other hand, may allow the child to test the limits of his own capabilities in his trial-and-error interaction with his personal environment.

In respect to the control dimension, the reader may recall the child-like, passive, irresponsible behavior of the Negro "Sambo" sterotype (Elkins, 1961) and the prisoners-of-war within the concentration camps who developed the "strong feeling that fate was one's master, and that one must not try to influence it any way..." (Frankl, 1965, p. 89). Both of the above examples of behavior are speculated by Lefcourt (1966a) to be "products of constricted fields of alternatives where there is little chance for any role other than that of total dependence on a possibly capricious and absolute authority" (pp. 187-188). Additionally, the general finding of the two studies conducted by Katkovsky, Crandal, and Good (1967) would seem to lend some support to the above:

> ...the parent who maintains a supportive, positive relationship with his child is more likely to foster his child's belief in internal control than is the parent whose relationship with his child is punitive, rejecting, and critical (p. 774).

Also, parental acceptance and autonomy-granting could be viewed as the parental giving of unconditional love to children. Paralleling Hobart's (1968) conception of the experiencing of childhood conditional love versus unconditional love in respect to later individual freedom, it would seem that parents giving unconditional love to the child give the child the impression that he is worthwhile as a person, regardless of his spontaneous actions. Among such parents and their children would be observed the fine distinction between the rejecting of the action but not the person (unconditional love: "I love you because of <u>you</u>, not because of your <u>action</u>), and the rejecting of the person because of his action (conditional love: "I will love you as long as you do as I say, feel as I say, believe as I say, choose as I say, be as I would have you be. But I cannot love you if you do you, feel you, believe you, choose you, be you," Hobart, 1966). The child given conditional love, with the need to keep his "radar antennae" on the expectations of significant others, would seem to develop the feeling of distrust of his own worth and his own ability to obtain control over desired reinforcements. Furthermore, the more he would manipulate his behavior in order to obtain reinforcements from others the more powerless he himself would become. Regardless of the degree of success of the manipulation, the crucial point is that the manipulator is still relying upon others for the accomplishing of tasks which he should be accomplishing through his own skill. The longer he

delays developing the skills to perform such tasks himself, the less able he is to accomplish them on his own.

In conclusion, to the present writer's knowledge, although previous limited studies have dealt with the relation of powerlessness-like variables to parental behavior, few studies have included the father and fewer studies have included both the mother and the father. It would seem that although the mother (or mother-figure) plays a most important role in the life of the young child, the father's role takes on great importance in the life of the growing child both by direct influence on the child and by indirect influence through his effect on the interactions within the family constellation. It would also seem important from the view of the modelling effect for the researcher to distinguish the dominant parent as perceived by the child.

In summary, the present section has linked the powerlessness concept to social learning theory of Rotter, the individual psychology of Adler, and the developmental work of Schaefer. The following section will report on literature and research which expand and further relate the above three areas.

CHAPTER II

RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

Perception of the Situational Task as Being the Result of Skill as Opposed to Chance

Logically, the concept of powerlessness could be viewed in respect to the situational feeling of powerlessness, the generalized feeling of powerlessness, or the interaction of both situational and generalized perceived powerlessness. Indeed, research seems to have dealt with the concept of powerlessness in the above manner. Once establishing the relevance of the individual's situational and generalized feelings of powerlessness through the reporting of studies dealing with such expectancies with consideration of the above three perspectives, the present chapter will focus on selected developmental parental "antecedents" of the individual's generalized feeling of powerlessness.

Summarized below are a number of studies indicating that the perception of <u>situations</u> as controlled by chance, luck, fate or more powerful others leads to predictable differences in behavior of individuals in comparison to <u>situations</u> where a person feels that reinforcement is controlled by his own behavior. Generally, such studies have attempted to experimentally manipulate the perceived <u>situational</u> locus of control variable and have then measured the relative differences in performance.

Phares (1967) found that subjects who were instructed that performance on colour-matching and line-matching tasks was due to skill exhibited significantly greater and more frequent shifts of expecta-

tion than those subjects given instructions that their performance was due to luck or chance. The trend for subjects given chance instructions was towards more unusual shifts in expectation. The measure of expectancy used was the number of chips a subject would bet on his probability of being correct on the succeeding trial. In a further study, Rotter, Liverant, and Crowne (1961) found that the above trend for unusual shifts reached statistical significance when they gave both groups the same directions but varied the tasks along more culturally defined chance-skill dimensions. The above two studies tend to support the view that an individual who categorizes a situation as requiring skill as opposed to luck is more likely to use profitably the results of his past performance in formulating expectancies for his future performances.

Again indicating the importance of situational expectations, Rotter (1966) reported a study by Holden and Rotter in which three groups of subjects on an extra-sensory perception task were given chance, skill, and ambiguous instructions, respectively. When all the groups were given 50 per cent reinforcement it was found that both the chance- and ambiguously-instructed groups had significantly greater trials to extinction than the skill-instructed group.

James and Rotter (1958), having administered 50 per cent and 100 per cent reinforcement schedules to both chance- and skill-instructed groups found, as did Holden and Rotter, that with 50 per cent reinforcement the chance-instructed group had significantly longer extinction trials than the skill-instructed group in respect to verbal expectancies in an extra-sensory perception task (a simple card

guessing task in which success was experimentally manipulated). Interestingly, the opposite relation was found for the 100 per cent reinforcement groups. A more important finding for our present discussion, however, was that, although the usual finding of the superiority of partial over 100 per cent reinforcement in trials to extinction was found among the chance-instructed group, a trend in the opposite direction was found for the skill-instructed group. That is, the usually found longer extinction trials for 50 per cent reinforcement than for 100 per cent reinforcement was not upheld with the skill-instructed group. We possibly have in this finding a demonstration of the importance of the subject's perception of success in a task as being either within or outside his personal control. In attempting to explain their findings, James and Rotter suggested that under the skill-instruction condition, the greater the previous reinforcement the longer it took the subject to accept the fact that he was no longer able to do the task successfully, whereas, under the chance conditions the extinction series (administering of zero per cent reinforcement) was interpreted as a change in the situation in the 100 per cent reinforcement condition but not in the 50 per cent reinforcement condition.

Such findings of longer extinction trials for the 100 per cent reinforcement group than the 50 per cent reinforcement group under skill instructions have been subsequently confirmed by Rotter, Liverant, and Crowne (1961) who found a significant relationship when using culturally-defined skill (motor-skill) and chance (card-guessing)tasks. Holden and Rotter (1962), providing only 50 per cent

reinforcement in an extra-sensory perception task similar to that used by James and Rotter (1958), also found the chance-instructed group to have significantly longer trials to extinction over the skill-instructed group.

Phares (1962) concluded from the studies in the above-reported field that subjects who feel that they have control of the situation are more likely to exhibit perceptual behavior that will better enable them to cope with potentially threatening situations than subjects who feel chance or other noncontrollable forces determine whether or not their behavior will be successful. Such a finding is reminiscent of Richter's (1959) rats placed in situations where no solutions were possible and Mowrer and Viek's (1948) rats receiving either one of controllable or uncontrollable stimuli. Also, similar to Mowrer and Viek's rats, Phares (1962) found that humans exhibited less concern with pain (electric shocks) when personal control of that pain appeared possible as opposed to humans for whom personal control of the pain did not appear possible.

In summarizing the studies showing that expectancies in respect to reinforcements are differentially affected when specific tasks are perceived as dependent upon skill as opposed to chance or luck, Lefcourt (1966) has stated

> Generally speaking, when given tasks are described to Ss as requiring skill, which implies that the outcomes are personally controllable, Ss are found to behave in a more adaptive achievant fashion than when the task is described as requiring luck or some other external factors. When Ss believe that tasks demand skill, they make predictions about future successes more on the basis of previous experience than when they believe that the tasks are externally controlled...when people believe that a

> given success is related to a given behavior on their part they perform and make estimates of their performance more adequately in that situation, than otherwise; there is more self-monitoring or evaluation (pp. 186-187).

Generalized Perception of Internal Versus External Control of Outcomes (Scale Studies)

The studies outlined below indicate that the behavior of individuals differs reliably in the degree to which they generally perceive reinforcement in a variety of ambiguous social situations to be controlled either by themselves or by external forces. The studies to be first considered are those which used Rotter's current Internal versus External Locus of Control (I-E) Scale or previous longer versions of the scale.

In respect to knowledge attainment, internally-controlled tuberculosis patients matched with externally-controlled patients on socio-economic status and hospital experience variables, were found to exhibit greater knowledge of their condition and to exhibit greater self-effort towards recovery (Seeman and Evans, 1962); among reformatory inmates, internals were found to retain significantly more fictional information on parole and reformatory procedures affecting their future goals but no differences were found in the learning of information irrelevant to personal control of important goals; i.e., the long-range prospects of a non-criminal career (Seeman, 1963); controlling for education, age, and income with a sample of workers in Sweden, a low but statistically significant positive relation was found between internality and membership in unions versus nonmembership, activity within unions, and general knowledge of political

affairs (Seeman, 1967). Further studies have indicated a positive relation between internality and higher school achievement; i.e., Coleman et al. (1966) found that the I-E variable predicted school achievement among children in minority groups better than many other attitudinal familial, school, and teacher variables.

In various studies internals have been found to exhibit shorter decision time for easy items and longer decision time for more difficult items (Julian and Katz, 1968; Rotter and Mulry, 1965). Viewing risk-taking as a behavioral variable, internals have been found to prefer high or intermediate probability choices through which to maximize their successes, whereas externals have been found to prefer low probability choices (Lefcourt, 1966b; Liverant and Scodel, 1960). Also externality has been found to be significantly negatively related to facilitating anxiety and constructive responses to frustration (Butterfield, 1964; Watson, 1967).

Indicating a possible functional value of a tendency toward externality in an academically-oriented society, Efran (1963) found that the tendency to forget (repress) failures among high school students was significantly related to the tendency toward the internal end of the I-E continuum; such an interpretation of less need for denial by externals is supported in the finding of Lipp, Kolstoe, and Randall (1967; reported by Phares, Ritchie, and Davis, 1968) that tachistoscopically exposed pictures of physically-handicapped persons had lower recognition thresholds by handicapped externals than by handicapped internals.

The above findings dealing with possible functional values of the

feeling of powerlessness are congruent with Adlerian theory in respect to the understanding of an individual's feelings of helplessness as being of service to the individual. That is, the feeling of helplessness is considered by the Adlerian therapist as serving the client as a double edged sword, which allows for retreat from the frustrating demands of existence on the one hand, and which provides a means of maintaining an ostensibly respectable status within his inner circle of associates on the other hand. Viewing such a condition in the extreme as evidenced in the neurotic:

> The neurotic is utterly convinced by his experience that he must at all times act is if he were powerless... As one who acts powerless, he remains a spectator or onlooker to significant events and decisions of his life, which unavoidably further compounds his dilemna. The meaning of the symptom (of powerlessness) for the patient now becomes evident: it is precisely that which enables him to persist in his role of one who is powerless, and yet simultaneously to maintain a semblance of pride (Waldman, 1969, p. 22).

Viewing socio-economic status, lower class individuals in studies representing various age, educational, and economic levels have been found to generally score more in the direction of externality than middle class individuals (Dean, 1961; Franklin, 1963; Lefcourt and Ladwig, 1965; Patsula, 1968; Seeman, 1962, 1966, 1967; Strodtbeck, 1958). Likewise, willingness for, commitment to, and action in, civil rights movements also have been found to be significantly related to powerlessness measures (Gore and Rotter, 1963; Strickland, 1965).

In summary of the above studies, generalized locus of control has been reported to be a variable predictive of behavior, with individuals exhibiting internal control tending to learn more materials relevant to their goal strivings and to behave in ways that would better

facilitate personal control than do individuals exhibiting external control. Indeed, differences between generalized internal and external control have been observed both in children and in adults and would appear to be generalized over a wide variety of social situations.

Parenthetically, Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall (1965) devised the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR) to measure the child's belief that he causes the reinforcements in intellectual-academic achievement situations. Using this scale, McGhee and Crandall (1968) found a trend for high internal boys and girls to have higher average aggregate teacher-assigned achievement grades. Similarly, Crandall et al. (1965) found a positive relation between internality and report card grades of third through twelfth grade students. Also, Cellura (1963) found boys to have a positive relation between internality and arithmetic achievement scores (IQ partialled out), although no relation was found among girls. Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston (1962) found among boys that (a) high internals spent more time in free-play activities of an intellectual nature and exhibited more intense striving in these activities than did low internals, and (b) that internality and reading achievement test scores were positively related. Once again, no significant relations were found among girls.

The Interaction of Generalized Expectancies and Situational Expectancies

When discussing any personality trait which is deemed to have generalized behavioral consequences, three general variables would

seem to be of importance--the person, the situation, and the modes of response which serve to indicate the trait. Hunt (1961) has suggested that the personologist often solely emphasizes the person even though the proportion of the variance attributable to persons has often been found to be very limited. Sociologists, such as George Herbert Mead (1934), on the other hand, have often contended that the major source of the variance resides in the situation. It would seem that both views are incorporated in the conceptual slant of the social psychologist whose view of the importance of the interactions of the person and the situation may well be more nearly congruent with reality. As Hunt (1967) has stated

> ...for either understanding variations of behavior or making clinical predictions, we should be looking toward instruments that will classify people in terms of the kinds of responses they make in various categories of situations (p. 135).

The present subsection attempts to focus on the research done with such interaction of generalized and situational expectations of control of reinforcements.

Rotter (1966) has reported a study by James who found that locus of control scale scores predicted individual differences among subjects in the same direction as skill versus chance instructions (correlations were low but statistically significant). Also in comparison with externals, internals had greater, more stable, and more predictable increments in expectancy statements to a new situation; and were more resistant to extinction.

Although not an interaction study in the statistical use of the term, James' study seems logically to lead to the interaction-type

study of Rotter and Mulry (1965) who gave their 120 male and female subjects an extremely difficult angle-matching situation. Half of the subjects were given instructions indicating that the correct solutions would be the result of skill, whereas the other half of the subjects were given instructions indicating that the correct solutions would be the result of chance. Eight trials with 75 per cent reinforcement were followed by extinction series of no correct answers. Using decision time as the criterion variable, internals given skill instruction were found to have significantly longer decision times than both internals given chance instruction and externals given skill instructions; whereas, externals tended (not significantly) to take longer under chance instruction as opposed to skill instructions. In short, significant locus of control main effect and locus of control instruction interaction were found. The implications drawn by Rotter and Mulry were that internals have greater involvement under skill conditions and tend to value reinforcement for skill much more than for chance, but that skill versus chance instruction does not significantly differentiate the decision time of externals.

Consistent with the finding of Rotter and Mulry, Julian and Katz (1968) likewise found that internally controlled subjects tended to have longer decision times than externally controlled subjects on a word-pairing task under difficult skill-determined conditions. The opposite tendency was found with easy items. In their analysis, although the I-E main effect was not found to be significant, both the item difficulty main effect and the I-E - item difficulty interaction were found to be significant. They also found that internals, when

given the opportunity of using or taking advantage of the answer of more successful peers in a game condition, adopted self-determining strategies both under chance conditions as well as under skill conditions. This was so even though from a rational decision-making standpoint they would have profited by using the strategies of their peers. Parenthetically, although the externals also tended to rely upon themselves, the difference between the number of times subject chose to rely on himself minus number of times subject chose to rely on his opponent was significant at the .01 level. The authors proposed that this behavior was due to (a) the greater motivational need of internals to predict their own outcomes, and (b) the greater feeling of efficacy among internals. On the reliance-on-self criterion, besides the significant I-E control main effect, the situational skill-chance main effect was also significant with the chance-instructed group having greater preference for reliance on self than the skill-instructed group. The lack of significant interaction would suggest that although it would appear that internals and externals preferred different strategies in playing the game, the skill-chance variation did not affect these preferences.

Finally, if the situational factor is of such great importance in actual performance on a task, the question may well be asked: Why the interest in the individual's generalized feeling of powerlessness versus powerfulness in the control of outcomes? In answer to this query, it would appear that if the individual's perception of degree of control could be thought of as arising from the combination of both situationally-specific expectations and more generalized expectations,

then in approaching a novel situation in which the individual has not yet derived situational expectations, generalized expectations take on much added importance both in the individual's performance on the task and in the individual's development of situational expectations. Also, it may be possible to designate the individual's overall or general I-E level of functioning on the basis of an estimate of his characteristic or predominant mode of functioning in both specific and more general situations. Such a general designation may be most helpful in prediction because an individual when first introduced to a wholly unfamiliar situation probably tends to initially function on the basis of cognitions formed from previous situations.

Developmental Aspects of the Generalized Expectancy of Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcements

The question to be considered in the remaining part of the present chapter is that of possible developmental aspects of the generalized feeling of powerlessness. Rotter (1966) has suggested that little research has been done in the area. Indeed, Cromwell (1963) previously had stated that no research had yet directly attacked the question of how locus of control develops in children --- "...whether more by direct accrual of associations of event outcomes with behavior or by adopting conceptions and attitudes about the world from parents and other important figures..." (p. 77). Additionally, Phares, Ritchie, and Davis (1968) have indicated that there is a need for research designed to increase our understanding of the origins of the powerlessness dimension.

None of the limited studies dealing with developmental aspects of

general powerlessness was deemed pertinent to the present discussion. Thus all of the studies to be quoted here have used the concept of powerlessness in regard to intellectual-academic domains rather than general powerlessness. Katkovsky et al. (1967) found the feeling of such school-related powerlessness to be negatively related to nurturative parental behaviors and positively related to punitive, rejecting, critical parental behaviors (N = 23 boys and 18 girls of above average intelligence, ages 6 years 10 months to 12 years 5 months). Such a finding tended to support the authors' hypothesis that if the parents' behavior is one of impotence and rejection whenever the child errs, then the threatened child may resort to the defensive response of attributing the error to an external source rather than to himself. Indeed, further support for such a functional value of the tendency toward externality seems to also be found in Efran's (1963, cf. supra, p. 13) high school students. Viewing the development of internality, Katkovsky et al. (1967) also suggested that

> ...if the parent expresses tolerance and encouragement concerning the child's difficulties, the child is more likely to feel secure enough to accept responsibility for the error. Thus a supportive and nonthreatening attitude on the part of the parent seems likely to promote the child's belief in internal control, while a critical, rejecting attitude is apt to encourage belief in external control (p. 767).

Previously, Chance (1965), using boys and girls from grades three through seven, observed that son's belief in internal control was significantly related to maternal permissiveness, early independence training, mother's flexibility of expectations. Daughter's belief in internal control was not found to be related to the above maternal variables.

A further study by Katkovsky et al. (1967) indicated that sex differences may be evident with boys appearing more likely to develop external orientations if they receive paternal rejection and authoritarian control.

Strodtbeck (1959) found that the less the son is dominated by the father in the power area, the greater the son's disposition to believe that the world can be rationally mastered. Strodtbeck has speculated that perhaps sons are more likely to get ideas about "controlling their own destiny, not from their mothers' value systems, but from a family situation in which the father has less power (whether because he is inadequate, or because the mother is stronger, or because he believes in democratic methods)," p. 183. The latter explanation (use of democratic methods) would seem to fit into the pattern of parental treatment of children based on equality, which presupposes a degree of acceptance and psychological autonomy.

Dealing with the democratization of our society as affecting child-rearing practices, Dreikurs and Grey (1968) have stated that the "best formula for the proper attitude toward children is to treat them with kindness and with firmness" (p. 43). In the light of the present discussion, kindness would seem to express respect for the child. Such respect would seem to connote an acceptance <u>of</u> the child as an individual. Firmness, on the other hand, would seem to evoke respect <u>from</u> the child. The combination of both kindness and respect (or psychological autonomy, acceptance, and firmness) may result in a relationship of mutual respect which guarantees the child's right and ability to decide for himself instead of yielding to a superior power.

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Such a guarantee would seem to make possible the development of a greater feeling of personal control over one's environment.

Considering further developmental aspects of felt powerlessness, Crandall et al. (1965) have suggested that

> ...The dependence of young children upon others for instrumental help and emotional support is, of course, a necessary condition of early development. However, the resolution of dependence on such caretakers and the concomitant acquisition of independent problem-solving techniques are equally important requisites of normal personality development. It would not be surprising, then, to find that infants and preschool children--if they could report such beliefs--would ascribe reinforcement responsibility to the powerful others in their environment. But with age and experience, most children should begin to feel that their own actions are often instrumental in attaining the reinforcements they receive (p. 94).

It would seem, in conclusion, that the factors bringing the attitude of powerlessness into being may well be operative over many years and cumulative in their impact. For example, one may consider the many intentional or unintentional ploys perpetuated by parents which foster dependence within their children. One may also consider the many actions of parents which deprive the child of the right to succeed or fail through his own efforts and thus experience his own strength. Such considerations do not rule out the sudden appearance of discontinuously new determinants; i.e., the dramatic reports of Ainsworth, Bowlby, Goldfarb, Spitz and others on the effects of maternal deprivation. Still another consideration might well be the degree towards which internality or externality is directly taught in the home. Not negating the possible role of the child himself in influencing his/her parents' behavior toward him/her (Bell, 1968), it would seem that parental attitudes and behaviors both as models and as dis-

pensers of reinforcements may well be important developmental aspects of the degree of perceived locus of control among individuals.

Summary of Related Research and Literature

> The notion that individuals build up generalized expectancies for internal-external control appears to have clear implications for problems of acquisition and performance. If a human can deal with future events with the use of verbal symbols and can perceive an event as following a preceding behavior of his own, then the strength of that connection will depend at least in part on whether or not he feels there is a causal or invariable relationship between his behavior and the event. Once a person has established a concept of randomness or chance the effects of reinforcement will vary depending upon what relationship he assigns to the behavior-reinforcement sequence (Rotter, 1966, p. 4).

The findings reviewed in the previous subsections would seem to imply:

(1) An individual with a high degree of felt powerfulness is likely to (a) be more attentive to those aspects of the environment which are personally relevant and potentially useful for his future behavior; (b) take steps to improve his environmental conditions and be more involved in social action-taking behavior; (c) be more involved in situations he sees as depending on his skill or ability rather than on chance factors; (d) be resistive to subtle attempts to influence him; and (e) see his own behavior as determining his life and what happens to him. An individual with a high degree of felt powerlessness is more likely to exhibit opposite patterns of behavior.

(2) When an individual perceives the outcome of a task as being the result of chance he relies less upon past experience and possibly learns less. Therefore, it may well be that differences in learning

may not only be a matter of the nature of the learning task as perceived by the outside observer but may also be a matter of the attitude of the learner in respect to internal versus external control of the outcome.

(3) The individual's perception of behavior-reinforcement contingencies is affected by the combination of both the specific situation in which a task is set and also upon the individual's generalized expectancy of internal or external control over the outcomes of tasks. Of the two expectations, situational and generalized, the situational expectation appears to exert the greater influence upon the individual.

(4) Generally, felt powerlessness, at least in intellectual-academic achievement situations, would seem to be negatively related to nurturative parental behaviors and positively related to punitive parental behaviors.

CHAPTER III

DEFINITIONS, POSTULATES, AND HYPOTHESES

The individual's feeling of general powerlessness and perception of selected parental behaviors comprise the main variables of the present study. Other variables to be controlled and considered are socio-economic status, sex, grade level, and scholastic aptitude. The major research question is: To what extent is the individual's feeling of powerlessness associated with the individual's perceptions of his/her parental behaviors along the dimensions of psychological control versus psychological autonomy, acceptance versus rejection, and lax control versus firm control?

Definition of Terms

Locus of Control (Feeling of Powerlessness)

Locus of control refers to the degree to which the individual feels that he has some control over his personal environment. An individual with an internal locus of control (variously termed internally controlled, internality, powerfulness) tends to believe that what happens to him in varying situations depends upon his/her own efforts. On the other hand, an individual with an external locus of control (variously termed externality, externally controlled, powerlessness) tends to believe that what happens to him in varying situations is attributable to outside forces rather than to himself. Such outside forces could include luck, chance, fate, or more powerful others. Such a dimension is operationally defined in the present study by the general powerlessness factor score. This particular factor score was

derived from a factor pattern with high loadings on both Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale and the present writer's previously developed Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (cf. infra. p.52).

The Individual's Perceived Parental Behaviors

The perceived parental behavioral dimension of psychological control refers to the adolescent's perception of his/her parents' behaviors as exhibiting covert, psychological methods of controlling the adolescent's activities in a manner which prevents development of individuality apart from the parent. Such control involves the instilling of guilt and persistent anxiety within the adolescent. The dimension of rejection refers to the adolescent's perception of his/her parents' behaviors as exhibiting detachment, rejection, and hostile reaction towards, as opposed to positive involvement and warm acceptance of, the adolescent. The dimension of lax control refers to the adolescent's perception of his/her parents' behaviors as lacking in the enforcement of rules or regulations.

The above parental behavioral dimensions are operationally defined by the factor scores obtained from the loadings obtained from the factor analyses of Schaefer's 18-scaled Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory. Higher scores on the above dimensions are in the direction of greater psychological control, acceptance, and lax control.

Postulates

1. Parental behaviors as they are perceived by the adolescent can

be adequately reported by the adolescent. More specifically, the scores obtained from the Children's Reports of Parental Behaviors Inventory are valid in assessing parents' behaviors in interaction with their children.

2. Each of these obtained perceived parental behavior dimensions are viewed as a general characteristic of parents. Such unidimensional conceptualization support use of overall factor scores to represent the parental dimensions as perceived by adolescents.

3. An individual's responses to powerlessness items provide an indication of the direction of his/her general feelings of powerlessness. Thus individuals may be arranged on a continuum in respect to the powerlessness dimension.

4. The responses of the individual to the scales used in the present study are an outgrowth of his current circumstances and his/her earlier experiences.

Summary of Hypotheses

Major Hypothesis

Individuals' degrees of perceived general powerlessness are positively related to their perceptions of their parents' behaviors as being psychologically controlling, rejecting, and exhibiting lax control.

Specific Sub-Hypotheses

There exists significant positive relations between individuals' degrees of perceived powerlessness and their perceptions of their

(1) mothers as psychologically controlling
(2) mothers as rejecting
(3) mothers as exhibiting lax control
(4) fathers as psychologically controlling

(5) fathers as rejecting
(6) fathers as exhibiting lax control

Controlling Variables

In any study which purports to measure the degree of relationship among selected variables, the obtained findings may be clouded by many other controllable and noncontrollable variables. A precautionary check on the test of the stated sub-hypotheses was made through the testing of the hypotheses with control for selected variables. The controlling variables of socio-economic status, scholastic aptitude, and sex were chosen because of their possible relation to both sets of main variables under study. A discussion on the relevancy of each controlling variable follows.

Socio-economic status (SES). A thought which arises as to the possible developmental antecedents and/or concomitants of the locus of control variable is the following: Would the generalized control construct merely be a factor which could be subsumed by the concept of socio-economic status? That is, could it be that the middle-class, success-directed individual with his need to strive for material improvement generally be led to expect that the outcome of a task is determined by his own skill and efforts; with the lower-class individual generally feeling that his efforts do not contribute much to the final outcome of a task? Such a view, however, appears to render to the concept of socio-economic status (usually defined on the basis of some general variable such as father's education, occupation, income, or type of dwelling) an overly holistic role which is difficult

to substantiate when one views the tremendously variable behavioral characteristics among individuals within any one segment of the SES continuum. On the other hand, socio-economic status would seem to play some role. One would theoretically expect that lower SES individuals who are restricted by environmental barriers would generally tend to develop "external" attitudes, i.e., would consider themselves more controlled by external forces, whereas higher SES individuals may be in the position to develop "internal" attitudes manifested in the attitude of feeling more control over their life situation. Hess and Shipman (1966) have suggested that

> ...A family in an urban ghetto has few choices to make with respect to such basic things as residence, occupation, and condition of housing and on the minor points of choice that come with adequate discretionary income. A family with few opportunities to make choices among events that affect it is not likely to encourage the children to think of life as consisting of a wide range of behavioral options among which they must learn to discriminate (p. 4).

The finding of Brophy, Shipman, and Hess (1965) would seem to partially confirm such an observation as the above. Observing a mother-child interaction situation within four Negro social status groups (middle class intact families, upper lower class intact families, lower lower class intact families, and lower lower class father absent), Brophy et al found that the middle class group indicated significantly higher expectations of success and provided significantly higher performance.

Research results on the relation of powerlessness to SES variables have been somewhat varied, but some studies have indicated the exist-

ence of a statistically significant, but not substantive, negative relation (Battle and Rotter, 1963; Dean, 1961; Franklin, 1963; Hess and Shipman, 1966; Lefcourt and Ladwig, 1965; Patsula, 1968; Seeman, 1963, 1966, 1967; Seeman and Evans, 1962; Strodtbeck, 1958). In the above studies the higher SES groups exhibited less feeling of powerlessness. The frequent relation found between the control construct and SES, along with the mass of research done on the relation between SES and child rearing practices (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Hess and Shipman, 1966; Brophy, Shipman, and Hess, 1965; Shipman and Hess, 1966), tend to suggest that the child rearing practices of the various SES groups may, indeed, be related to generalized expectancy of control among children and adolescents. Also, the findings of the research on parent-child interactions suggest that such interactions may affect the way in which the child learns to interact with his environment, both social and non-social. Indeed, Hess and Shipman (1966) have stated that imperative maternal control tends to discourage questioning and to cut off thought and the search for rationale, thus subjecting the child to external versus internal control over his/her cognitive activity.

Hess and Shipman have also reported on a five item powerlessness scale developed through interviews, pilot administrations and item analyses of items relating to mothers' attitudes toward education. They stated that the items "...suggest frustration, futility, and the uselessness of attempting to change either the system or the unruliness of children" (p. 10). This powerlessness scale was found to be significantly related to the social status groups of the study (the lower the status,

the greater the feeling of powerlessness) and was found to be

> ...negatively related to the child's tendency to engage in initiatory behavior in the Stanford-Binet testing situation, to his quickness of response, social confidence and comfortableness with an adult examiner. Thus the mother's attitude toward the school, which is apparently part of a larger cluster of attitudes toward herself and toward achievement in areas related to education, already has a discernable influence on her child's ability to deal with adults in formal testing situations and his ability to perform on cognitive tasks(p. 23).

In conclusion, the above findings suggest that the individual's level of socio-economic status may be related to both his degree of felt powerlessness and his interactions with his parents. As such, it is contended that SES is an important variable to be controlled for in the present study.

Sex. It has been observed that our society tends to expect greater independence among adolescent boys than among adolescent girls (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Kagan and Moss, 1960). It would seem to the present writer that concurrent with the cultivation of indepence is the cultivation of a feeling that one need not be dependent upon others for the control of reinforcements but that the individual himself exercises some such control. Likewise, the cultivation of dependence may often presuppose the feeling that control of reinforcements is in the hands of more powerful others. However, with the feeling that one is expected to exhibit greater independence may also develop the greater awareness of, and concern for, the discrepancy between the independence or powerfulness one ought to possess and the actual dependence and powerlessness one actually possesses. This greater focus

on the independence-dependence or powerfulness-powerlessness dimensions may actually increase one's perception of felt dependence or powerlessness -- particularly among young adolescent boys with their idealistic tendencies.

In support of the above hypothesis, Patsula (1968) found that tenth grade boys reported low but statistically significantly greater feelings of personal powerlessness than did tenth grade girls. Also, Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall (1965) found that at the upper grade levels, boys gave significantly more external responses than girls. Conflicting relations, however, have been found at the college level (Phares, Ritchie, and Davis, 1968).

Besides the above indication of possible relation between sex and the powerlessness dimension, there is the probable relation between sex and parental behaviors which also warrants the consideration of the sex variable in the hypotheses of the present study.

Scholastic Aptitude. Rotter (1966) has reported zero order correlations between the I-E dimension and measures of scholastic aptitude among university subjects within the normal range of intelligence. Nevertheless, one could speculate that in general the greater the individual's cognitive ability, the greater would be his knowledge concerning the world, and thus the greater his potential control of the world. Such potential control, as well as the greater ability of the brighter individual to perceive the causal relationship between his own instrumental behavior and the rewards and punishments that he receives, may well lead to the perception of a greater feeling of personal control

as measured by the instruments of the present study.

Such a line of argument is admittedly weak. However, the use of Eighth Grade subjects with their wider range of scholastic aptitude as compared to university students would seem to at least warrant some check on this variable. Indeed, Crandall et al. (1965) did find statistically significant, although extremely low, relationships among scholastic aptitude and IAR scores of a group of individuals in grades six, eight, ten, and twelve. An additional reason for the control of scholastic aptitude in the present study arises from the probable parental differential treatment of children of higher scholastic aptitude than of lower scholastic aptitude.

CHAPTER IV

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Sample

Questionnaires were administered to the total eighth grade population within six schools of a large urban state-supported Catholic school system in Western Canada. The six schools selected were considered by administrative and pupil personnel service staff of the above school system to be representative of the total eighth grade population of the system--the main criterion of representativeness being socio-economic status. To control certain variables which were not relevant to the theory underlying the study but which might have influenced scores on both perceived parental behaviors and degree of felt powerlessness, it was decided to homogenize the sample. Thus non-native-born Canadians and non-Caucasian subjects were eliminated from the sample. The actual remaining sample included 220 boys and 220 girls. A subsample (Sample I) of 120 boys and 120 girls was then randomly drawn from the original homogeneous sample (stratified on sex). The remaining subsample (Sample II) was used for replication of the findings obtained using the data of Sample I. The primary purpose behind the use of the second subsample was to obtain confirmatory evidence for the findings obtained from the first subsample. It was believed that the nature of the variables studied would lead to the finding of limited relationships. Such anticipated limited relationships would suggest that statistical probabilities of acceptance or rejection could possibly be highly affected by chance factors. A replication study also helped mitigate against the over-weighting of

spurious findings and thus may spare the researcher the disaster of using an unverified finding as a basis for a next theoretical step when, indeed, the first step is nonexistent (Yarrow et al., 1968). It is important for the reader to note that such use of a second sample does not extend, in any appreciable manner, generalizability of the study.

It was felt that the use of eighth grade students would provide a sample of individuals with less loss of lower scholastic aptitude or lower socio-economic status than would be found among students at the senior high school or university levels. A lower grade or age level was not advisable primarily because of the readability of some of the scales used. Relevant characteristics of the obtained subsamples are reported in Table 1.

Testing Instruments Used

Schaefer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)

Description. The 1965 revision of the CRPBI (developed from item and factor analyses of the initial version, Schaefer, 1965b) is a 192-item description of concrete, specific, easily observable parental behaviors which are combined into 18 scales of either eight or 16 items each. Previous factor analyses of the 18 scales by Schaefer have resulted in the proposal of a three dimensional model which accounted for a major portion of the variance of parental behavior. Similar dimensions have been found by other researchers (parent behavior ratings, Becker, 1964; Lorr and Jenkins, 1953; children's perceptions of parental behavior, Roe and Siegelman, 1963; Siegelman, 1965). Factor analyses done in the present study and reported in the follow-

TABLE 1

PRELIMINARY SUMMARIZING DATA ON THE 440 SUBJECTS USED

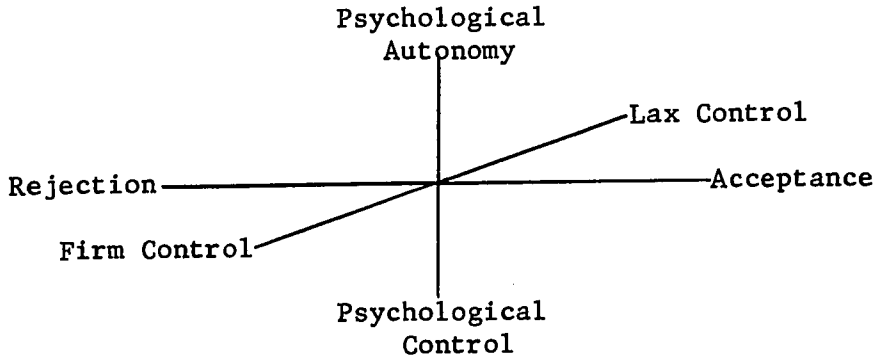
Variable					
Age in years	12 or less	13	14	15	16 or over
	3[a]	135	66	13	3
	2[b]	132	76	9	1
Sex	Male			Female	
	110			110	
	110			110	
No. of Years in School Since Beginning Grade One	6	7	8	9	10
	4	10	174	28	4
	1	10	180	25	4
Always Lived at Home With Parents	Yes			No	
	198			22	
	191			29	
Location (Lived Mostly on/in)	Farms	Small Towns		Small Cities	Large Cities
	4	9		24	183
	7	16		11	186
Mother	Working			Not Working	
	70			150	
	68			152	
Birth Order	First	Second	Last	Only	Other
	69	52	24	3	72
	61	57	29	4	69
Academic Aptitude	$\bar{X}$			S.D.	
	99.94			15.28	
	101.22			14.84	
Socio-economic Status (Blishen, 1967)	$\bar{X}$			S.D.	
	46.19			15.72	
	42.92			14.13	

[a] Sample I

[b] Sample II

ing pages also support Schaefer's three dimensional model.

Figure 1 Three Dimensional Model of Parental Behavior



The three orthogonally-rotated factors obtained in the present study (as well as in previous studies) are depicted in Figure 1. From the factor loadings given in Tables 2 and 3, the reader may note that the defining scales for the psychological autonomy versus psychological control factor are: hostile control, instilling persistent anxiety, control, intrusiveness, control through guilt, enforcement, possessiveness, and withdrawal of relations. Such defining scales describe "covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behaviors that would not permit the child to develop as an individual apart from the parent" (Schaefer, 1965b, p. 555). The defining scales for the acceptance-rejection factor are: acceptance, positive involvement, child-centeredness, acceptance of individuation, hostile detachment, and enforcement, whereas the defining scales for the lax control versus firm control factor are nonenforcement, lax discipline, extreme autonomy, and inconsistent discipline. Schaefer (1965b) has reported that the heaviest negative loadings for the ac-

TABLE 2

VARIMAX SOLUTIONS OF THE

CRPBI (Mother) SUBSCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Subscale	Sample I				Sample II			
	factor loadings				factor loadings			
	I	II	III	h^2	I	II	III	h^2
1. Acceptance	-174[a]	920	-015	877	-160	920	-027	873
2. Childcenteredness	126	892	100	822	048	842	125	727
3. Possessiveness	646	333	066	533	721	238	111	588
4. Rejection	562	-701	186	843	581	-681	212	847
5. Control	722	047	-394	678	778	-009	-382	751
6. Enforcement	734	-165	-313	664	669	-299	-284	658
7. Positive Involvement	017	907	-062	826	024	891	-028	796
8. Intrusiveness	728	071	-242	594	764	-033	-109	597
9. Control through Guilt	703	-216	257	607	712	-122	112	535
10. Hostile Control	859	-344	-040	857	810	-431	042	844
11. Inconsistant Discipline	452	-220	516	519	376	-244	619	575
12. Nonenforcement	-058	-094	871	770	-031	-040	867	755
13. Acceptance of Individuation	-248	819	168	761	-246	840	097	776
14. Lax Discipline	009	117	849	752	002	194	830	727
15. Instilling Persistent Anxiety	782	-319	047	716	803	-309	021	741
16. Hostile Detachment	479	-733	263	836	442	-741	293	832
17. Withdrawal of Relations	645	-404	209	623	589	-418	313	619
18. Extreme Autonomy	-181	006	758	608	-226	-043	698	540
Proportion of Common Variance	400	375	225		404	374	222	
Proportion of Total Variance	287	263	161		287	266	157	

[a]Decimal points have been omitted.

TABLE 3

VARIMAX SOLUTIONS OF THE

CRPBI (Father) SUBSCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Subscale	Sample I				Sample II			
	factor loadings				factor loadings			
	I	II	III	h^2	I	II	III	h^2
1. Acceptance	-119[a]	921	065	866	-155	916	-043	866
2. Childcenteredness	097	903	080	831	021	852	154	751
3. Possessiveness	617	424	098	571	528	472	269	574
4. Rejection	635	-564	338	836	721	-509	270	852
5. Control	764	145	-260	672	741	119	-374	703
6. Enforcement	803	-092	-209	696	756	-111	-321	688
7. Positive Involvement	111	899	047	823	111	893	033	811
8. Intrusiveness	775	155	-024	625	732	206	039	579
9. Control through Guilt	765	-120	286	681	731	041	365	670
10. Hostile Control	891	-203	082	842	884	-192	104	829
11. Inconsistant Discipline	390	-100	692	642	537	-074	570	618
12. Nonenforcement	000	-033	877	771	125	-010	845	731
13. Acceptance of Individuation	-202	856	132	791	-183	849	-006	754
14. Lax Discipline	-000	232	813	714	084	247	812	728
15. Instilling Persistent Anxiety	854	-197	077	774	827	-140	163	730
16. Hostile Detachment	533	-640	362	824	567	-579	391	809
17. Withdrawal of Relations	649	-305	399	674	685	-321	383	719
18. Extreme Autonomy	-129	108	765	614	-055	-044	776	607
Proportion of Common Variance	428	334	237		432	323	245	
Proportion of Total Variance	315	246	175		313	233	177	

[a]Decimal points have been omitted.

ceptance versus rejection dimension indicated "a more detached, less involved type of hostile reaction to the child" (p. 554), whereas the positive loadings for the third dimension of firm control versus lax control reflect "the degree to which the parent makes rules and regulations, sets limits to the child's activities, and enforces these rules and limits" (p. 555).

Scale items. In the present study, the 192 items comprising the eighteen subscales of the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory were cyclically arranged according to Schaefer's directions. The reader is referred to Appendix A for specific instructions given in the administration of the scale and for a presentation of the items included in each subscale.

Response mode. On IBM Answer Sheets, the subjects of the present study indicated whether the item was "Like" (A), "Somewhat Like" (B), or "Not Like" (C) his/her parent's behavior for separate but essentially identical forms for mother and father.

Scoring. The responses of "Like," "Somewhat Like," and "Not Like" were assigned scores of 3, 2, and 1, respectively. Scores were then totalled for each of the eighteen subscales and the subscales were subjected to factor analyses. Three factors were obtained in the present study for both maternal and paternal perceived behaviors. The three factors were rotated orthogonally. The loadings of the CRPBI subscales on these factors were highly consistent with those found in previous studies (see Renson, Schaefer, and Levy, 1966). For use in

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* Personal communication, April, 1969.

the present analyses, factor scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 were obtained for each individual on each of the three factors:

Factor I* Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy with higher scores indicating greater perceived controlling behavior on the part of the parent

Factor II Acceptance versus Rejection, with higher scores indicating greater perceived acceptance of the child by the parent

Factor III Lax Control versus Firm Control, with higher scores indicating more perceived lax control of the child by the parent.

Norms. Norming data are presented by Schaefer (1965b) on seventh grade Catholic school children as well as on delinquent and normal samples both in the United States and in Europe. The means, standard deviations and intercorrelations found in the present study are reported in Tables 4 and 5.

Validity. Schaefer (1959) has reported that analyses of psychologists' ratings of parental behavior have revealed two orthogonal dimensions of love versus hostility and autonomy versus control. Similar two-dimensional models also have been developed from different types of data by Roe (1957) and Slater (1962). From the above dimensions, Schaefer devised less molar dimensions and concepts for which items defining specific, observable parental behaviors were devised and rated by three psychologists. Criteria for item selection were "high predicted item variability, high predicted item-scale correla-

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* The reader may refer to page 30 for further definition of the perceived parental behavior dimensions.

TABLE 4

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE CRPBI SUBSCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Subscale	No. of Items	Maternal $\bar{X}$		Maternal S.D.		Paternal $\bar{X}$		Paternal S.D.	
1. Acceptance	16	35.37[a]	35.26[b]	8.01[a]	7.66[b]	34.69[a]	34.39[b]	7.40[a]	6.98[b]
2. Childcenteredness	8	16.45	16.61	3.59	3.42	15.81	15.91	3.84	3.51
3. Possessiveness	8	15.27	15.27	2.92	3.16	14.48	14.47	3.20	3.21
4. Rejection	16	26.47	26.57	7.06	7.32	26.25	26.84	7.01	6.88
5. Control	8	16.26	16.35	2.92	3.29	15.98	15.72	3.71	3.24
6. Enforcement	8	13.90	14.05	3.25	3.46	14.82	15.11	3.74	3.33
7. Positive Involvement	16	33.07	33.15	6.87	6.16	32.26	31.55	6.52	6.09
8. Intrusiveness	8	15.12	15.07	3.45	3.79	13.79	13.56	3.69	3.66
9. Control through Guilt	8	15.25	14.98	3.79	3.89	13.67	13.36	3.83	3.63
10. Hostile Control	16	29.83	29.59	6.51	7.05	28.57	28.15	6.67	6.36
11. Inconsistant Discipline	8	14.05	13.71	3.12	3.60	13.36	13.58	3.33	3.45
12. Nonenforcement	8	12.80	12.59	3.08	3.00	13.27	13.82	3.22	3.29
13. Acceptance of Individuation	16	35.09	35.36	6.56	6.68	34.56	34.40	6.95	6.53
14. Lax Discipline	8	13.89	13.93	3.10	3.29	13.89	13.90	3.45	3.40
15. Instilling Persistent Anxiety	8	14.49	14.15	4.07	4.20	13.60	13.39	3.92	3.90
16. Hostile Detachment	16	25.82	25.22	7.38	7.09	26.34	26.75	6.65	6.81
17. Withdrawal of Relations	8	13.38	13.47	3.80	3.75	12.99	12.83	3.80	3.72
18. Extreme Autonomy	8	13.13	12.95	3.58	3.41	14.17	14.12	3.61	3.37

[a]Sample I

[b]Sample II

TABLE 5

RELIABILITY MEASURES OF THE CRPBI SUBSCALES

Subscale	No. of Items	Pearson Product Moment test-retest reliability N=56 Mother	Pearson Product Moment test-retest reliability N=56 Father	KR_{20} Internal consistency index N=220 Mother	KR_{20} Internal consistency index N=220 Father
1. Acceptance	16	.538	.579	.926	.890
2. Childcenteredness	8	.694	.324	.784	.802
3. Possessiveness	8	.452	.335	.563	.641
4. Rejection	16	.656	.686	.878	.875
5. Control	8	.476	.632	.614	.745
6. Enforcement	8	.548	.480	.744	.784
7. Positive Involvement	16	.619	.470	.864	.831
8. Intrusiveness	8	.654	.368	.731	.760
9. Control through Guilt	8	.416	.473	.762	.796
10. Hostile Control	16	.732	.597	.837	.837
11. Inconsistant Discipline	8	.396	.606	.647	.688
12. Nonenforcement	8	.616	.535	.662	.685
13. Acceptance of Individuation	16	.598	.486	.861	.864
14. Lax Discipline	8	.526	.370	.674	.730
15. Instilling Persistent Anxiety	8	.554	.516	.794	.795
16. Hostile Detachment	16	.666	.611	.891	.848
17. Withdrawal of Relations	8	.498	.488	.780	.788
18. Extreme Autonomy	8	.662	.412	.784	.753

tion, and applicability of the item to both maternal and paternal behavior" (1965b, p. 552). The use of a large number of items to measure each of the scales would seem to lend greater psychometrical soundness to the instrument.

The items were then administered by Schaefer and his colleagues to various groups of children and adults. Three factors (labelled acceptance-rejection, psychological control-psychological autonomy, and lax control-firm control) were then obtained through factor analyses using the principal-components method with the first three components being rotated to simple structure by the varimax method. The same type of factor analyses were performed on the data of the present study.

Presented in Tables 2 and 3 are the loadings on the varimax (orthogonal) rotated factors and the communalities for each CRPBI subscale plus the proportion of the common and total variance accounted for by each factor obtained using the data of the present study. Also presented in Table 6 are the intercorrelations of the perceived parental behavior factor scores.

In respect to the advisability of having adolescents report on their parents' behaviors, Bronson, Katten, and Livson (1959) have concluded from their reports gathered from children that, on the whole, children are accurate in their representation of parental behaviors of affection and authority. Kohn and Clausen (1956) also found that the reported patterning of parental dominance and affection of schizophrenic patients was highly related to parental characteristics obtained from independent sources.

TABLE 6

INTERCORRELATIONS[a] OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR FACTOR SCORES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
Paternal						
1. Psych. Control	-					
Psych. Autonomy						
2. Acceptance	.001[b]					
Rejection	.001[c]	-				
3. Lax Control	.001	.001				
Firm Control	.001	.001	-			
Maternal						
4. Psych. Control	.574	.140	.172			
Psych. Autonomy	.507	.295	.186	-		
5. Acceptance	.104	.529	-.152	.001		
Rejection	.108	.395	-.212	.001	-	
6. Lax Control	.066	-.064	.580	.001	.011	
Firm Control	.082	-.021	.131	.012	-.058	-

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

Finally, significant differences have been found between children's reports of maternal and paternal behavior (Droppleman and Schaefer, 1963) and between reports by two groups of boys differing in adjustment, age, and socio-economic status (Schaefer, 1965a).

Reliability. The median internal consistency reliability (KR_{20}) for previous reports by Schaefer and others (Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b) on both mothers and fathers by normal boys, normal girls, and delinquent boys was .76 (ranging from .38 to .93). Schaefer had reported that the scales designed to measure the acceptance versus rejection dimension had been found to have higher internal consistencies than the scales designed to measure the autonomy versus control dimension. From the reliability coefficients reported in Table 5, the reader will note similar trends in the present samples. The modest test-retest correlations might indicate to the reader that perceived parental behaviors are not static over time but may be functionally related to many situational variables which were not controlled in this measuring study. The use of standardized instructions in both the test and retest situations (see Appendices A, B, and D) was an attempt to control some such situational variables but it would appear that the application of further more stringent controls would be desirable in future studies using the CRPBI.

The I-E Scale

Description. The I-E Scale consists of 29 forced-choice items. Twenty-three of the items deal with the individuals' expectations about how reinforcement is controlled in a wide variety of situations, whereas six of the items are merely used as "filler" items designed to

make the purpose of the test somewhat more ambiguous to the testee.

Scale items. The I-E items are presented as item numbers 35 through 63 inclusive of the Alustap Questionnaire - Dl (see Appendix B). The filler items are numbered 35, 42, 48, 53, 58, and 61.

Scoring. The score is the total number of external choices. (Key: 36a, 37b, 38b, 39b, 40a, 41a, 43a, 44b, 45b, 46b, 47b, 49b, 50a, 51a, 52a, 54a, 55a, 56b, 57a, 59a, 60b, 62b, 63a). A high score denoted high externality (powerlessness).

Norms. Means (ranging from 5.48 to 10.00) and standard deviations (ranging from 2.78 to 4.20) for samples of diverse populations are reported by Rotter (1966, pp. 15 and 26). Means of 9.98 and 9.48, and standard deviations of 3.61 and 3.33 were found for Samples I and II, respectively, in the present study.

Validity. Rotter (1966) conceptualized the I-E scores as measuring the construct of generalized expectancies in respect to the locus of control of reinforcements. In the development of the scale, items with high correlation with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale were eliminated. Providing discriminant validity of the I-E scale, correlations with intelligence were reported to be negligible in university and prisoner populations. Rotter (1966) has suggested that the theoretical expectation of the relation of I-E scores to adjustment among a normal group would be depicted in a low linear correlation coefficient.

Two separate factor analyses of the scale reported in Rotter (1966) indicated that much of the variance (53 per cent of the total scale variance in Franklin's 1963 study) was included in a general

factor with additional factors involving only a few items and accounting for only a small degree of the variance.

Correlation with other methods of obtaining some indication of an individual's degree of felt powerlessness are reported by Rotter (1966). Construct validity was indicated by a series of studies which are reported in the body of the present paper.

Reliability. Rotter (1966) reported reasonable estimates of internal consistency for an additive scale and satisfactory test-retest reliabilities (for example: Spearman-Brown, .65 to .79; Kuder-Richardson, .69 to .76; test-retest, .49 to .83). A test-retest reliability of .47 (Pearson Product-Moment, one-month lapse, N = 79) and an internal consistency index of .64 (KR_{20}, N = 220) were obtained using the data of the present study.

Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS)

The FPPS is a shortened version of the scale derived from the factor analysis of the 38 items from Dean's Alienation Scale, Srole's Anomia Scale, and McClosky-Schaar's Anomy Scale (Patsula, 1968). The actual items comprising the FPPS are those items which were found to have a factor loading beyond ± 3 on the first factor in the orthogonal rotation of the responses to the items of the above scales. Also used in the present study was a further revised version of the FPPS comprising those ten items which correlated with at least half of the other individual items beyond the .01 level of significance. High scores on both the old and the revised scales reflect an individual who feels that there is a great deal of flux in today's complex world and that the individual is simply a cog and is thus unable to exhibit

personal control over his relevant environment. Such an individual "...does not experience himself as the center of his world, as the creator of his own acts" (Fromm, 1955, p. 120). In this respect C. Wright Mills (1960) has commented on a societal condition:

> ...Caught in the limited milieux of their everyday lives, ordinary men often cannot reason about the great structures--rational and irrational--of which their milieux are subordinate parts. Accordingly, they often carry out series of apparently rational actions without any ideas of the ends they serve--like Tolstoy's generals--only pretend they know (p. 112).

The FPPS items are included in item numbers 64 through 94 of the Alustap Questionnaire - D1 (see Appendix B). Subjects responded to the FPPS items by checking one of five alternatives: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree. The responses were scored from one to five, with five indicating the greatest amount of perceived powerlessness. The FPPS total scores were obtained by simple addition.

Using Tenth Grade Catholic students from a large urban area, Patsula (1968) found boys to have significantly higher scores on this factor than girls; found that the factor exhibited a low but significant ($F = 3.34$; $df = 2,365$; $p = .04$, $r = -.10$) negative relation with socio-economic status (using the Pineo-Porter Occupational Prestige Scale scores); and found, post factum, that it exhibited a significant negative correlation to both Literature and Language achievement. The reader may refer to Table 7 for reliability and normative data found for the samples of the present study.

TABLE 7

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE

POWERLESSNESS SCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Scale[a]	No. of Items	Sample I		Sample II		Reliability	
		$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Test-Retest[c] N=79	KR_{20} N=220
IAR_{+}[b]	17	4.127	2.384	3.736	2.055	.440	.561
IAR_{-}[b]	17	4.864	2.553	5.068	2.527	.542	.569
IAR_{total}	34	8.991	4.022	8.804	3.608	.583	.667
I-E[b]	23	9.982	3.606	9.482	3.332	.474	.636
FFPS[b]	22	64.682	10.778	65.432	10.595	.566	.739
$FPPS_{rev.}$	10	27.127	6.503	27.041	6.151	.523	.684

[a]All scales are scored in the direction of increased powerlessness designated by increased score.

[b]Scales used in the factor analyses.

[c]Pearson Product Moment Correlations, time lapse of one month.

Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR)

Description. The IAR, dealing with the degree to which the child believes that his successes and failures in common intellectual-academic achievement situations result from his own efforts (internal responsibility) as opposed to the behaviors and reactions of other important adults or peers (external responsibility), consists of 34 forced-choice questions with 17 stems describing positive achievement experiences and 17 stems describing negative achievement experiences. Each stem is followed by two alternatives, one attributing the cause of the achievement experience to the child's own behavior while the other attributes the cause to an external source.

The reader will note that the IAR scale is more situation-specific than the I-E scale. The external agents in the IAR scale are confined solely to parents, teachers, and peers whom the younger individual might feel are in control of his intellectual-academic rewards and punishments, whereas more general external agents or forces as luck, fate, chance, or impersonal social or political forces are alluded to in the I-E scale.

Scale items. The IAR was included in items one through 36, inclusive, of the Alustap Questionnaire - D1 (Appendix B).

Scoring. The subject was presented with a pair of intellectual-academic descriptions and was requested to choose the one which most often happens to him/her. The three scores obtained in the present study gave the number of external (the scale is usually scored in the direction of internality) alternatives the individual endorsed for positive intellectual reinforcements (IAR_+), the number of external

alternatives the individual endorsed for negative intellectual reinforcements (IAR_-), and the sum of internal alternatives given ($IAR_+ + IAR_- = IAR_{total}$). A high score indicated belief in external control in intellectual-academic achievement situations whereas a low score indicated belief in internal control in such situations. (Key: E_+ items 1a, 2b, 5b, 6b, 9a, 12b, 13a, 16a, 17b, 20b, 21a, 24b, 25a, 28a, 29b, 31a, 32b; E_- items 3a, 4a, 7a, 8b, 10a, 11b, 14b, 15a, 18b, 19a, 22a, 23b, 26b, 27a, 30b, 33a, 34a.)

Norms. Katkovsky, Crandall, and Good (1967) found that, for a population of 41 (23 boys and 18 girls) predominantly middle class children (6 years 10 months to 12 years 5 months) of above average intelligence (mean Stanford-Binet IQ 117.6, s.d. 15.0), the IAR_+, IAR_-, and IAR_{total} scores decreased only slightly with age and that girls tended to score less externally than boys (particularly from the sixth grade and on). Relatively low mean externality scores with small standard deviations and short ranges of sub-total and total scores have been reported for samples of boys, girls, and combined boys and girls at the elementary and secondary school levels. Provided in Table 7 are pertinent data on the samples used in the present study. It is to be noted that the above suggested differences between boys and girls was not upheld in the present samples.

Validity. Construct validation studies were reported in the body of the present paper (Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall, 1965; Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston, 1962; Katkovsky, Crandall, and Good, 1967; McGhee and Crandall, 1968). Further validity studies (Crandall, 1969) have indicated that individuals of internal orientation, parti-

cularly boys, exhibit more persistence, efficiency, and a greater conceptual approach to intellectual-type tasks than do individuals of external orientation.

Reliability. Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall (1965) reported moderately high test-retest reliabilities (two months, .47 to .74; $p < .001$) and internal consistency measures (N = 130; .54 to .60, corrected) for the separate scales. They also reported that self-responsibility for success and failure seemed to be more generalized at the eighth grade level than at the lower grade levels.

Test-retest and internal consistency data on the IAR scales from the present study are reported in Table 7.

Powerlessness Factor Scores

Rotter's I-E scale, the FPPS, and the two subscales of the IAR were subjected to factor analyses with two factors resulting in eigenvalues greater than one in Sample II, and with the second factor of Sample I having an eigenvalue approaching one. Factor scores with mean 50 and standard deviation 10 were obtained for each sample from the separately-done factor analyses with two factors called out in both samples. Intercorrelation matrices upon which the factor analyses were performed are presented in Table 8. Presented in Table 9 are the factor loadings from which the factor scores were obtained.

The FPPS and I-E scales were found to have heavy loadings on Factor I, which was named "General Powerlessness" because of the rather general nature of the items of both scales. Seeman (1963, 1966, 1967) has used Rotter's I-E scale extensively under the label of "Powerlessness" and the present writer had previously suggested

TABLE 8

INTERCORRELATIONS[a] AMONG THE POWERLESSNESS SCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

	Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	General Powerlessness (Factor I)	-						
2.	School Related Powerlessness	.001[b] .001[c]	-					
3.	IAR+	.024 .001	.890 .829	-				
4.	IAR-	.346 .195	.677 .729	.332 .238	-			
5.	IAR_{total}	.233 .137	.955 .980	.802 .735	.830 .834	-		
6.	I-E	.774 .837	.287 .102	.275 .105	.341 .212	.379 .208	-	
7.	FPPS	.881 .826	.046 .094	.165 .145	.284 .155	.324 .191	.463 .414	-
8.	$FPPS_{revised}$	.777 .737	.119 .167	.203 .203	.322 .193	.277 .250	.428 .422	.881 .858

[a] All scales are scored in the direction of increased powerlessness designated by increased score.

[b] Scales used in the factor analyses.

[c] Pearson Product Moment Correlations, time lapse of one month.

TABLE 9

VARIMAX SOLUTIONS OF THE

POWERLESSNESS SCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Scale	Sample I Factor Loadings I	II	h^2	Sample II Factor Loadings I	II	h^2
IAR^+	024[a]	890	793	001	829	688
IAR_-	346	677	578	195	729	570
I-E	774	287	682	837	102	711
FPPS	881	046	778	826	094	692
Proportion of Common Variance	528	472		534	466	
Proportion of Total Variance	374	334		355	310	

[a]Decimal points have been omitted.

(Patsula, 1968) that Rotter's I-E scale seemed to theoretically fit Seeman's (1959) powerlessness category of alienation. The dimension of general powerlessness measured by this factor encompasses the definition of powerlessness used in the present study.

Factor II loaded heavily on the two IAR subscales which were designed by the authors of the scale to measure the degree to which the individual felt that he, as opposed to forces outside of himself, usually caused his successes and failures in intellective achievement situations. The emphasis of the felt powerlessness measured by this factor would be the powerlessness in more intellective achievement areas rather than the more general situations incorporated in the FPPS and I-E scales. Factor II was labelled "School-Related Powerlessness."

Presented in Table 7 are data on the powerlessness scales used in the present factor analyses. The correlations of the two factor scores were +.001 for both Samples I and II.

Revised Moulton's Dominance in Discipline Scale

The present writer revised this five-item scale which purported to indicate the dominating parent as seen by the adolescent in respect to parental discipline. The dominance scale was included in item numbers 95 through 99 of the Alustap Questionnaire - Dl (see Appendix B). For each of the five items the subject responded "mother," "father," "neither," or "both." If the number of items checked as "mother" exceeded the number of items checked as "father," the subject was designated as mother dominated; if the number of items checked as "father" exceeded the number checked as "mother," the subject was designated as father dominated. Subjects answering all of the items

"both" or "neither" were recorded as being neutral in regard to parental domination.

Socio-Economic Status Scale (SES)

Individuals were assigned SES scores on the basis of the Blishen (1967) Socio-Economic Index for Occupations in Canada. The 1967 Blishen rating of the various Canadian occupations is arrived at through regression formulae employing distribution of education and income with Pineo-Porter ratings of occupational prestige. It is based upon 1961 Canadian census data. Blishen (1967) reported high correlation between his new scale based on the 1961 census and his older scale based upon the 1951 census. The present writer had previously found Blishen (1958) scores to correlate +.593 with a modified version of the MacArthur and Elley (1963) Home Index Scale, and +.915 with the Pineo-Porter Canadian Occupational Prestige Scale (N = 77 ninth grade students, Patsula, 1968). In the present study, the mean SES scores were 46.19 and 42.92 with standard deviations of 15.72 and 14.13 for Samples I and II, respectively.

Scholastic Aptitude

Scholastic aptitude was measured primarily by the total score of the California Test of Mental Maturity (CTMM), Form JH, which is a widely accepted and well-standardized group-administered test. It is administered annually to all eighth grade students within the large urban school system sampled for the present study. An exception to the use of the California Test of Mental Maturity was one school in which the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Scale was administered in place

of the CTMM. Administrators at this particular school, as well as at the other schools used in the present study, agreed that the scholastic ability level of the pupils at this school was average relative to that of the other schools. It was thus deemed acceptable to standardize the CTMM and Lorge-Thorndike IQ scores to mean 100 and standard deviation 16 in order to have more comparable scholastic aptitude measures across the schools.

Data Collection

Permission was obtained from the Superintendent and the Director of Pupil Personnel Services for a large Catholic urban state-supported school system to approach the Principals in each of the six schools designated to be representative of the schools within the system and to elicit both their co-operation and the co-operation of the Eighth Grade teachers within their respective schools. Arrangements were thus made for the teachers to group administer the Alustap Questionnaire - D1 (the general name arbitrarily given to the questionnaire booklet which included the powerlessness scales and other information gathering scales) and the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory to their respective students. The use of written standardized instructions to both the teachers and the pupils facilitated uniform administration of the scales (see Appendices A and B). Scholastic aptitude scores were obtained from central Pupil Personnel Services files based upon tests administered within the previous two months. The total testing time for any one student for the two separate administrations (except for those taking part in the one-month retest reliability check) was approximately 140 minutes.

Statistical Analyses

Factor Analyses*

Factor analyses, a set of methods for analyzing a table of intercorrelations, is a mathematical technique which permits the factor analyser to consider several items or tests in terms of fewer and more manageable dimensions. In the present study, intercorrelations of the 18 subscales of the CRPBI (mother) were calculated, and factor loadings expressing the correlation between the subscales and the common variables (factors) were obtained. The above procedures were repeated both for the 18 subscales of the CRPBI (father) and the four powerlessness scales (I-E, FPPS, IAR_+, and IAR_-). The factors thus obtained were hypothetical constructs (or intervening variables) common to several subscales, whereas the factor loadings expressed the correlations between the subscales and the hypothetical constructs represented by each of the factors. The factors obtained were viewed as dimensions rather than substantial entities in themselves.

The actual verbal psychological meaning given to a particular factor was dependent upon the subjective judgement of the factor analyser in searching out the common thread intertwining the various subscales having the highest correlations with the factor. Such judgement was guided by the nature of the subscales with high (e.g., greater than ± 0.500) loadings on the particular factor being studied, the manner in which some of these same items loaded highly (or lowly)

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* The reader may refer to Patsula, 1968, for a similar treatment of analyses procedures.

on other factors in the analyses, and the psychological insight of the factor analyser.

Principal-axis factor analyses. The present investigator made use of the principal-axis method of factor analysis, which maximized the contribution of the factors to the total variance by each factor successively extracting as much variance as possible from the pooled subscales and thus making the residuals as small as possible after each factor was extracted. The principal-axis method thus yielded the largest general factor which was mathematically possible from the correlation matrices of the subscales used. The three factors obtained from the CRPBI (mother), the three factors obtained from the CRPBI (father), and the two factors obtained from the powerlessness scales were then subjected to orthogonal rotation.

Varimax (orthogonal) factor rotation. Using Kaiser's varimax factor rotation, each successive factor was rotated orthogonally. Under the orthogonality restriction, the variance of the squared loadings of factors were thus maximized. Such orthogonal rotation facilitated the grouping of the subscales into unique factors, the loadings from which factor scores were obtained. The program used to obtain the factor scores computed factor scores for each individual on all of the three factors by means of the following equation:

$$F = S^{1} R^{-1} Z$$

where F (r x N) factor score matrix

S (n x r) factor structure matrix
R (n x n) correlation matrix
Z (n x N) standardized scores

for n variables, r factors, and N persons.

Multiple Regression Analyses Test of Hypothesis

Although the Factor I General Powerlessness score was the major measure of powerlessness used in the present study, each of the powerlessness scores (Factor I General Powerlessness, P1; Factor II School-Related Powerlessness, P2; IAR_{+}, P3; IAR_{-}, P4; IAR_{total}, P5; I-E, P6; FPPS, P7; $FPPS_{revised}$, P8) were used respectively as a criterion variable in the multiple linear regression (MLR) analyses using adaptations of the following general model.

$$Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2A2 + A3X3 + A4X1X2 + A5X1X3 + A6X2X3 + A7X1X2X3 + e$$

where Y_{P_x} was a vector of the criterion variable (powerlessness) in its raw score form;

X1, X2, . . ., X3 were vectors of predictor variables in their raw score form, X1 being maternal (paternal) autonomy-control, X2 being maternal (paternal) acceptance-rejection, and X4 being maternal (paternal) lax control-firm control;

A2, A3, . . ., A7 were unknown raw score weights which varied in each analysis; e was a raw score residual vector; and k was a constant.

Essentially, the vector of the criterion data was expressed as a linear combination of the continuous predictor variables plus an error term and a constant term. For each criterion variable, the actual analyses attempted to find sets of weights (A2, A3, . . ., A7; called "least square weights") which would minimize the sums of squares of the elements of the residual vectors e. Such weights were found for each of the nine models used separately for both maternal and paternal behavior variables:

1. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + A3X3 + A4X1X2 + A5X1X3 + A6X2X3 + A7X1X2X3 + e_1$

2. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + A3X3 + A4X1X2 + A5X1X3 + A6X2X3 + e_2$
3. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + A3X3 + A4X1X2 + A5X1X3 + e_3$
4. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + A3X3 + A4X1X2 + A5X2X3 + e_4$
5. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + A3X3 + A4X1X3 + A5X2X3 + e_5$
6. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + A3X3 + e_6$
7. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + e_7$
8. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1X1 + A2X2 + e_8$
9. $Y_{P_x} = k + A2X2 + A3X3 + e_9$

It is to be noted that the predictor variable symbols (X1, X2, X3) were constant for all models, whereas the weight symbols (A1, A2, . . ., A7) were numbered merely for ease of the reader. In reality, no two weights were identical from model to model.

An example of the F-ratios tested follows:

$$F_1 = \frac{\text{Model 1}}{\text{Model 2}} \qquad F_5 = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 7}}$$

$$F_2 = \frac{\text{Model 2}}{\text{Model 3}} \qquad F_6 = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 8}}$$

$$F_3 = \frac{\text{Model 2}}{\text{Model 4}} \qquad F_7 = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 9}}$$

$$F_4 = \frac{\text{Model 2}}{\text{Model 5}}$$

It can be seen from the above models that each F-ratio is a statistic which compares one (full or unrestricted) model to another (restricted) model which is lacking one of the predictor or interacting predictor variables. For example, the question simply asked by the models guiding F-ratio number seven which omits the control-autonomy vectors in the restricted model is: Does knowledge of the individual's perception of his/her parental behavior along the

control-autonomy dimension help one in predicting the powerlessness criterion scores from acceptance-rejection and lax-firm control scores significantly better than the prediction of the powerlessness criterion scores from the same two variables not having knowledge of the individual's perception of his/her parental behavior along the control-autonomy dimension? The actual F-ratio essentially tests the ratio of the difference in the size of the error sum of squares of the unrestricted (e_u^2) and the restricted (e_r^2) models. Thus the null hypotheses are expressed as:

H_o: $(e_u^2) = (e_r^2)$, and the F-ratio statistics are calculated as:

$$F = \frac{R_u^2 - R_r^2 / df_1}{(1 - R_u^2) / df_2}$$

where R_u^2 is the squared multiple correlation from the unrestricted (full) model;

R_r^2 is the squared multiple correlation from the restricted model;

df_1 is equal to $P_1 - P_2$

df_2 is equal to $n - P_1$

P_1 is the number of linearly independent predictors in the unrestricted model

P_2 is the number of linearly independent predictors in the restricted model

n is the total number of elements in the vector (number of cases).

An example of the statistical test of the relation of General Powerlessness to maternal autonomy-control follows:

Full Model: $k + X1 + X2 + X3 + e_6$

Restricted Model: $k + X2 + X3 + 3_9$

Null Hypothesis: General Powerlessness is not a function of the maternal control-autonomy dimension (when the acceptance-rejection and lax-firm control dimensions are controlled).

$\alpha = .05$ df = 1, 216 for numerator and denominator respectively

$$F_7 = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 9}}$$

If $F_{observed} \leq F_{critical}$, there is not differential General Powerlessness in respect to maternal autonomy-control (non-rejection of null hypothesis).

If $F_{observed} > F_{critical}$, there is differential General Powerlessness in respect to maternal autonomy-control (rejection of the null hypothesis).

Results of further MLR analyses following the same general format as described above are reported in Chapter V. Such analyses include various controls of pertinent variables. The reader will note that the use of factor scores obtained from orthogonal rotations of the parental behavior subscales resulted in maternal/paternal factor scores unrelated to one another. An example of the importance of this notation would be that the statistical unrelatedness of the maternal factor scores made control of any of the other maternal factor scores unnecessary when testing for the relation of any one of the maternal factor scores with the powerlessness scores. Essentially, a simple Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient would give the required information. However, for the sake of consistency, all of the findings of the present study will be reported in both MLR form and in the form of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

The tests of nonlinearity of the powerlessness-paternal behavior or powerlessness-controlling variable were made by forcing linearity

on the relationship by simply defining the continuous powerlessness variable as "one" if the individual's score was at or beyond minus one standard deviation, "two" if the individual's score was within plus or minus one standard deviation, and "three" if the individual's score was at or beyond plus one standard deviation from the mean. Essentially, the above defining of the powerlessness dimension superimposed a constancy of differences of adjacent powerlessness categories. F-ratios were then calculated using the regular continuous powerlessness variable in the full model and with the restricted model having the powerlessness dimension vector replaced by trichotomized low, middle, and high powerlessness dimension vectors generated by the above method. The differences between the error sum of squares of the two models thus indicated the possible variation from linearity and the plotting of the raw weights indicated the direction of the possible nonlinearity.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the factor analyses of the parental and powerlessness scales were reported either in the appendices or in the section dealing with instruments used in the present study. The results obtained in the MLR Analyses of the controlling variables--scholastic aptitude, socio-economic status, and sex--are presented in Appendix D. The present section deals only with the statistical tests of the major hypothesis.

It is to be noted that the powerlessness scales used in the present study were subjected to factor analyses in order to arrive at a more powerful measure of the dimension of general powerlessness as defined by Rotter (cf. supra, p. 3) in his discussion of the concept of generalized internal versus external locus of control of reinforcements. This was achieved through Factor I, which loaded heavily on the Internal versus External Locus of Control of Reinforcements Scale and the Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale. Although Factor I powerlessness factor scores were thus the measure of powerlessness as defined in the present study, analyses using other measures of powerlessness have been reported for use by the reader and the present writer in the generation of future hypotheses. Discussion of the findings related to these other measures, however, are essentially outside the scope of the present paper.

Statistical Tests of the Hypothesis

Major Hypothesis: Powerlessness and Parental Behavior

Individuals' degrees of perceived general powerlessness are positively related to their perception of their parent's behaviors as being psychologically controlling, rejecting, and exhibiting lax control.

Specific Sub-Hypotheses

There exists significant positive relations between individuals' degrees of perceived general powerlessness and their perceptions of their

(1) mothers as psychologically controlling
(2) mothers as rejecting
(3) mothers as exhibiting lax control
(4) fathers as psychologically controlling
(5) fathers as rejecting
(6) fathers as exhibiting lax control

It was reported in Table 10 that there was found statistically significant linear relationship between an individual's perceived general powerlessness and perceived parental behaviors of psychological control, rejection, and lax control. In short, sub-hypotheses numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 were not rejected at the .05 level of statistical significance. The test of sub-hypothesis number five indicated a trend relationship in the direction hypothesized. Keeping in mind that the parental behavior scales are scored in the direction of psychological control, acceptance, and lax control, the reader may check the probable directional aspects of the relationships from the correlation coefficients reported in the first column of Table 10.

The generally limited size of the actual correlation coefficients as well as the squared-multiple-correlations (R_u^2, R_r^2) findings cautions

TABLE 10

RESULTS OF MLR TEST OF THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE PARENTAL BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS

d.f. = 1/216

Parental Behavioral Dimension	r[a]	R_u^2	R_r^2	F	P
Maternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.250[b]	.1428	.0803	15.742	.000
	.180[c]	.0637	.0316	7.406	.007
Acceptance - Rejection	-.230	.1428	.0895	13.428	.000
	-.141	.0637	.0456	4.168	.042
Lax Control - Firm Control	.165	.1428	.1157	6.831	.010
	.116	.0637	.0524	2.604	.108
Paternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.156	.0814	.0572	5.699	.018
	.100	.0666	.0567	2.301	.131
Acceptance - Rejection	-.106	.0814	.0701	2.659	.104
	-.058	.0666	.0632	.791	.375
Lax Control - Firm Control	.214	.0814	.0355	10.797	.001
	.231	.0666	.0134	12.322	.000

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

one against the sole use of correlational significance of F-test significance in interpreting data. Indeed, although the use of a replication study gave evidence supporting the robustness of the present statistically significant findings, substantive relationships were not uncovered. Such limited findings would seem to be the rule in developmental studies (Yarrow et al., 1968).

Reported in Table 11 are the relationships among the general powerlessness measure and parental behaviors with statistical control for socio-economic status, sex, and scholastic aptitude. The findings reported in this table were based upon the use of parental behaviors as predictor variables in the Multiple Linear Regression analyses. The choice of criterion and predictor variables was based upon the obtained correlational results of generally higher relationship of socio-economic status, sex, and scholastic aptitude to the general powerlessness dimension than the parental behavior dimensions (see Table 12). The reader may note that the use of the controlling variables did not alter the previous findings to any great extent and thus did not mitigate against the general formula expressed by Dreikurs and Grey (1968, cf. supra, p. 25).

Consistent with the suggestion of Katkovsky, Crandall, and Good (1967) that parental positive reactions are more likely to promote children's beliefs in internal control than parental negative reactions, it would seem in the present study that adolescents who perceived their parents as exhibiting controlling, rejecting and, inconsistent disciplining behaviors tended to exhibit feelings of general

TABLE 11

RESULTS OF MLR TEST OF THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE PARENTAL BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS

(with control for SES, sex, and scholastic aptitude)

d.f. = 1/215

Parental Behavioral Dimension	r^a	R_u^2	R_r^2	F	P
Maternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.250[b]	.1430	.0980	11.300	.001
	.180[c]	.1053	.0826	5.451	.020
Acceptance - Rejection	-.230	.1293	.0980	7.729	.006
	-.141	.0923	.0826	2.306	.130
Lax Control - Firm Control	.165	.1076	.0980	2.299	.131
	.116	.0946	.0826	2.860	.092
Paternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.156	.1169	.0980	4.589	.033
	.100	.0928	.0826	2.413	.122
Acceptance - Rejection	-.106	.1022	.0980	1.000	.319
	-.058	.0853	.0826	.648	.422
Lax Control - Firm Control	.214	.1160	.0980	4.366	.033
	.231	.1126	.0826	7.283	.008

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

TABLE 12

CORRELATIONS[a] AMONG CONTROLLING VARIABLES

AND OTHER PERTINENT VARIABLES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

	IQ	SES	Sex
General	-.298[b]	-.133	-.004
Powerlessness	-.251[c]	-.180	.006
Paternal			
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	-.048 -.023	-.043 .042	-.033 -.091
Acceptance - Rejection	.097 .007	.179 .033	-.056 .206
Lax Control - Firm Control	-.236 -.184	-.136 -.139	-.094 .035
Maternal			
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	-.103 -.117	-.119 -.039	.018 .118
Acceptance - Rejection	.131 .129	.203 .100	.074 .100
Lax Control - Firm Control	-.199 -.010	-.110 -.031	-.066 -.062

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

TABLE 13

CORRELATIONS[a] AMONG MEASURES OF POWERLESSNESS AND OTHER SELECTED MEASURES TO MEASURES OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIORS FACTOR SCORES

N = 220 eighth grade students for each sample

Powerlessness Scales	Maternal			Paternal		
	Psy. Control - Psy. Autonomy	Acceptance - Rejection	Lax Control - Firm Control	Psy. Control - Psy. Autonomy	Acceptance - Rejection	Lax Control - Firm Control
General Powerlessness	.250[b] .180[c]	-.230 -.141	.165 .116	.156 .100	-.106 -.058	.214 .231
School Related Powerlessness	-.062 -.012	-.003 -.071	.161 .008	.047 .018	-.017 .005	.021 .164
IAR+	-.016 .028	-.047 -.066	.172 .075	.063 .053	-.013 -.002	.036 .099
IAR-	.015 -.018	-.037 -.071	.132 -.054	.047 -.014	.037 -.002	.096 .208
IAR_{total}	-.000 .003	-.052 -.088	.185 .005	.067 .021	-.031 -.002	.082 .201
I-E	.125 .078	-.166 -.165	.171 .163	.171 .043	-.142 -.083	.100 .135
FPPS	.271 .230	-.233 -.086	.166 .049	.120 .137	-.052 -.015	.248 .271
$FPPS_{rev.}$	.267 .168	-.208 -.059	.183 .093	.169 .076	-.044 .012	.239 .301
Parental Dominance in Discipline	.048 -.042	-.082 -.120	.052 -.099	.091 .072	.004 -.090	-.075 -.080
SES	-.119 .042	.203 .033	-.110 -.139	-.043 -.039	.179 .100	-.163 -.031
Sex	.018 .118	.074 .100	-.066 -.062	-.033 -.091	-.056 .206	-.094 .035
Scholastic Aptitude	-.103 -.023	.131 .007	-.199 -.184	-.048 -.117	.097 .129	-.236 -.010

[a]Preason Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

TABLE 14

RESULTS OF MLR TEST OF THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE PARENTAL BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS - BOYS

d.f. = 1/106

Parental Behavior Dimension	r[a]	R_u^2	R_u^2	F	P
Maternal					
Psych. Control	.249[b]	.1786	.1116	7.641	.004
- Psych. Autonomy	.175[c]	.0624	.0258	4.133	.044
Acceptance	-.232	.1786	.0987	10.310	.002
- Rejection	-.160	.0624	.0306	3.595	.061
Lax Control	.220	.1786	.1344	5.711	.019
- Firm Control	.026	.0624	.0618	.060	.806
Paternal					
Psych. Control	.237	.1504	.1038	5.814	.018
- Psych. Autonomy	.191	.1718	.1509	2.677	.105
Acceptance	-.214	.1504	.0942	7.016	.009
- Rejection	-.238	.1718	.1116	7.709	.006
Lax Control	.229	.1504	.1085	5.233	.024
- Firm Control	.298	.1718	.0916	10.264	.002

[a] Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b] Sample I

[c] Sample II

TABLE 15

RESULTS OF MLR TEST OF THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE PARENTAL BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS - GIRLS

d.f. = 1/106

Parental Behavior Dimension	r^a	R^2_u	R^2_r	F	P
Maternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.252[b]	.1206	.0640	6.816	.010
	.188[c]	.1081	.0648	5.147	.025
Acceptance - Rejection	-.230	.1206	.0822	4.626	.034
	-.128	.1081	.0975	1.266	.262
Lax Control - Firm Control	.114	.1206	.1052	1.852	.176
	.223	.1081	.0478	7.173	.008
Paternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.071	.0505	.0397	1.209	.274
	.005	.0433	.0430	.041	.274
Acceptance - Rejection	-.014	.0505	.0505	.001	.979
	.119	.0433	.0276	1.744	.189
Lax Control - Firm Control	.199	.0505	.0052	5.062	.026
	.164	.0433	.0142	3.233	.075

[a] Pearson Product Moment Correlations

[b] Sample I

[c] Sample II

TABLE 16

RESULTS OF MLR TEST OF THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO INTERACTIONS OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR WITH MOULTON'S DOMINANCE IN DISCIPLINE SCALE (K)

d.f. = 1/208

Interactions	r^a	R_r^2	R_r^2	F	P
M^1K	.159[b]	.1986	.1971	.371	.543
	.180[c]	.1808	.1545	6.690	.010
M^2K	-.073	.2027	.1971	1.460	.228
	-.141	.1636	.1545	2.264	.134
M^3K	.126	.1972	.1971	.018	.894
	.116	.1589	.1545	1.083	.299
F^1K	.133	.2125	.1971	4.072	.045
	.100	.1545	.1545	0.000	1.000
F^2K	-.010	.2073	.1971	2.663	.104
	-.058	.1568	.1545	.579	.448
F^3K	.148	.1985	.1971	.362	.548
	.231	.1638	.1545	2.303	.131
M^1F^1	.218	.2005	.1971	.879	.350
	.162	.1545	.1545	.003	.954
M^2F^2	-.209	.2111	.1971	3.697	.056
	-.115	.1561	.1545	.399	.528
M^3F^3	.207	.1970	.1971	-.017	1.000
	.226	.1540	.1545	-.113	1.000

[a] Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b] Sample I

[c] Sample II

M^1 - Maternal Psych. Autonomy-Control
M^2 - Maternal Acceptance-Rejection
M^3 - Maternal Lax-Firm Control
F^1 - Paternal Psych. Autonomy-Control
F^2 - Paternal Acceptance-Rejection
F^3 - Paternal Lax-Firm Control

powerlessness. That is, they tended to see themselves as lacking in control of the reinfocements resulting from their own behaviors. An interesting observation, however, would be that the above relation was not upheld in respect to the academic-intellective-related IAR scale (see Table 13 and Appendix C). An additional observation would be that the relationships between perceived parental behavior and feelings of powerlessness would tend to be more pronounced among boys than among girls. That is, when boys and girls were analyzed separately (Tables 14 and 15) one saw that the paternal psychological autonomy-control and acceptance-rejection dimensions tended to exhibit less relation to girls' general powerlessness than to boys' general powerlessness.

From the findings reported in Table 16 the reader can also discern that the Moulton Domination Scale bore little relation to any of the parental behavioral variables used in the present study. Conservatively, significant correlations which did exist (with the following interactions, for example: paternal lax-firm control X SES, $r = -.232$; paternal autonomy-control X sex, $r = -.424$; maternal autonomy-control X sex, $r = .343$; maternal acceptance-rejection X sex, $r = .424$; maternal lax-firm control X sex, $r = .422$) could be considered to be random in nature. In Table 16 there was some reported indication of the MLR findings on the interaction of Moulton's Domination Scale and the parental behavior factor scores in relation to the powerlessness scales. With few exceptions, such interaction was non-significant.

One can also see from the data presented in Table 13 that the

controlling variables (socio-economic status, sex, and scholastic aptitude) did not appear to have much effect upon perceived parental behaviors. To comment upon a few possible trends in the data, however, it would appear that individuals of higher socio-economic status tended to perceive their parents as providing more acceptance and firmer control than did individuals of lower socio-economic status. Also, possibly somewhat reflecting the above through the relation of socio-economic status to scholastic aptitude, individuals of higher scholastic aptitude tended to perceive their parents as exerting firmer control, and possibly being more accepting, than did individuals of lower scholastic aptitude.

A final but important finding was that none of the two-way or three-way interactions of maternal or paternal behaviors were significantly related to any of the powerlessness dimensions. The inclusion of tests of interactions allowed for the test of the possibility that the effect of one parental behavioral dimension upon the powerlessness criterion depended upon the value of one or both of the other parental behavioral dimensions.

Tests of Nonlinearity

The precautionary tests of nonlinearity reported in Table 17 indicated that generally there were no statistically significant nonlinear relationships in respect to general powerlessness and the other parental and controlling variables used in the present study. An interesting exception was the trend towards an inverted "U"-shaped distribution between general powerlessness and paternal autonomy-control, for which

TABLE 17

RESULTS OF MLR TEST OF NONLINEARITY OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS AND CONTROLLING VARIABLES

(with control of sex, SES, and Scholastic aptitude where applicable)

Criterion	r^a	R^2_u	R^2_r	F	p
Paternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.156[b]	.0410	.0259	1.678	.189
	.010[c]	.0523	.0218	3.422	.034
Acceptance - Rejection	-.106	.0474	.0431	.484	.617
	-.058	.0507	.0468	.432	.649
Lax Control - Firm Control	.214	.1181	.1058	1.486	.228
	.231	.0927	.0781	1.710	.183
Maternal					
Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	.250	.0521	.0705	-2.063	1.000
	.180	.0731	.0515	2.483	.086
Acceptance - Rejection	-.230	.0826	.0935	-1.264	1.000
	-.141	.0402	.0441	- .428	1.000
Lax Control - Firm Control	.165	.0635	-.0640	- .068	1.000
	.116	.0187	.0180	.078	.925
Scholastic Aptitude	-.298	.1107	.1063	.522	.594
	-.251	.0751	.0792	- .470	1.000
SES	-.133	.0696	.0345	4.035	.019
	-.180	.0529	.0491	.426	.654

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

the raw weights from the MLR analyses are plotted in Figure 2. Additionally, the relation of general powerlessness to paternal lax-firm control would seem to be slightly better described by a "U"-shaped distribution as shown in Figure 3. Such nonlinear trends tend to suggest that although extremes of paternal controlling behavior and paternal lax behavior are related to greater perceived powerlessness, greater perceived powerfulness is not necessarily any more related to the opposite extreme of autonomy and firm control than middling degrees of perceived powerfulness.

FIGURE 2

PLOT OF MLR RAW WEIGHTS TO ILLUSTRATE THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE PATERNAL AUTONOMY-CONTROL DIMENSION

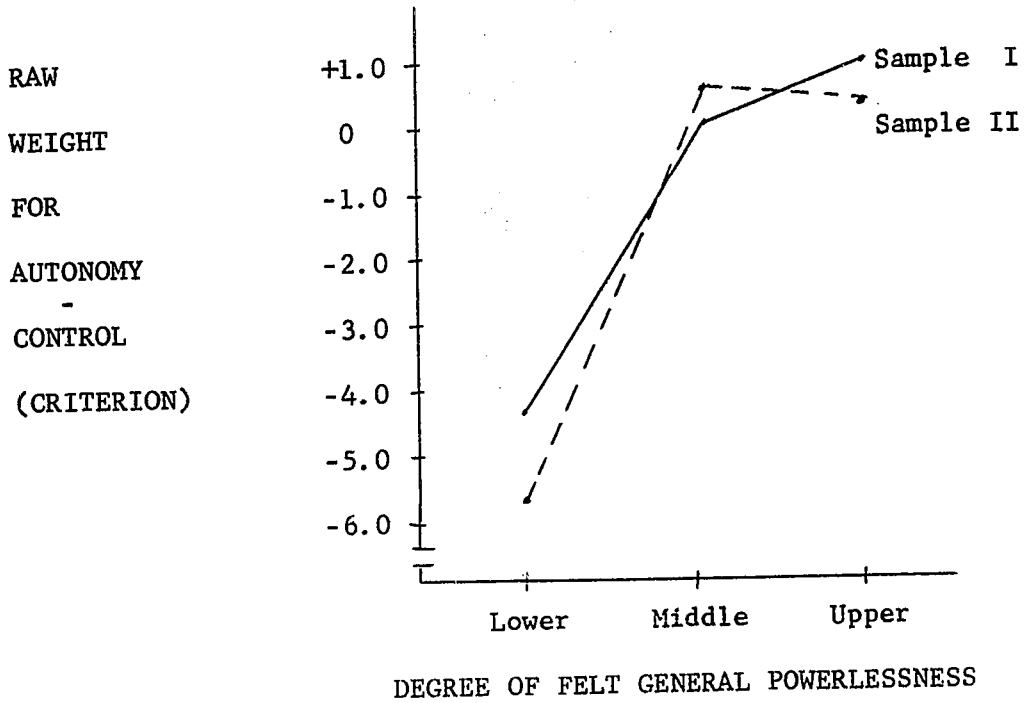
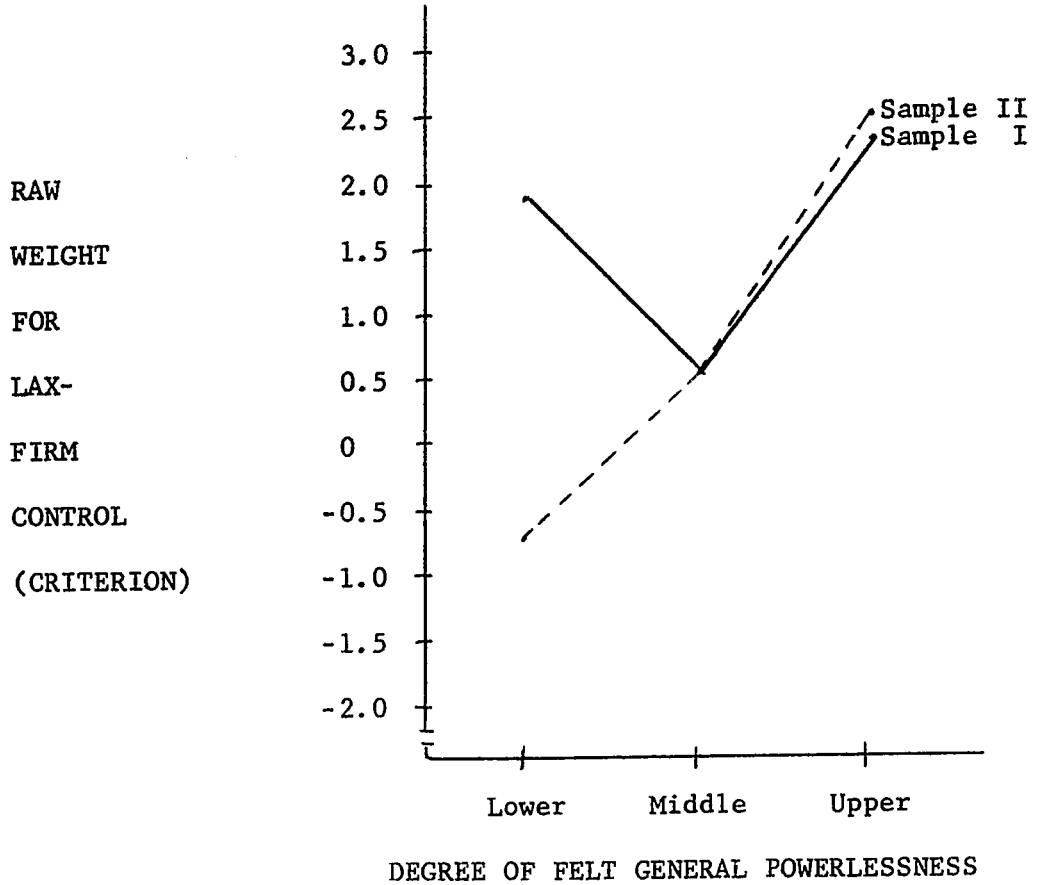


FIGURE 3

PLOT OF MLR RAW WEIGHTS TO ILLUSTRATE THE RELATION OF GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE PATERNAL LAX-FIRM CONTROL DIMENSION



CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATION

Summary

Using a replicated design, the interrelationships of the individual's degree of powerlessness and perceived parental behaviors were investigated both with and without statistical controls for socio-economic status, sex, and scholastic aptitude.

Two questionnaires consisting of Schaefer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), Rotter's I-E Scale, Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), and Patsula's Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS), plus a section devoted to demographic data were administered by the classroom teacher to all eighth grade students within six schools representing a cross-section of the schools within a large state-supported Catholic school system in Western Canada.

An index of socio-economic status was obtained by use of the Blishen (1967) Socio-Economic Index for Occupations in Canada scale. Scholastic aptitude was measured primarily by the California Test of Mental Maturity.

Parental behavior factors were obtained through factor analyses of the eighteen subscales of the CRPBI; powerlessness factors were obtained through factor analyses of the I-E, IAE_{+}, IAR_{-}, and FPPS. Factor scores were used along with other pertinent information in a Multiple Regression Analyses 360-67 computer program to test, along

with additional Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients, the major hypothesis.

Conclusions

Major Hypothesis: Powerlessness and Parental Behavior

> Individuals' degrees of perceived general powerlessness are positively related to their perceptions of their parents' behaviors as being psychologically controlling, rejecting, and exhibiting lax control.

The Multiple Linear Regression Analyses indicated a significant positive linear relationship among the individual's level of general powerlessness and parental psychological control, parental lax control, and maternal rejection. The major hypothesis was not rejected.

No non-linear relationships were found between the general powerlessness dimension and any of the other variables of the present study.

Controlling Variables

A statistically significant negative relation was observed between the individual's degree of general powerlessness and his/her level of scholastic aptitude, whereas a trend negative relation was observed in respect to general powerlessness and socio-economic status. The only significant relation found among level of scholastic aptitude and parental behaviors was that of the low negative relation with parental lax control.

Implications

Since the conclusions for the present study were based upon statistically significant but not substantive results derived from ex-

tremely low squared-multiple-correlations with the F-ratios tested, such conclusions should be considered only tentative and the general implication of the study is that the obtained results favour further research. However, since it is anticipated that further refined research will confirm the hypotheses of the study and strengthen the conclusions found, an outline of relevant implications to theory, practice, and research for both educators and social psychologists is warranted.

One purpose of the present study was to prepare for the expansion of Rotter's concept of internal versus external control of reinforcements into the area of the etiology of the concept. Such an expansion would seem advisable if one views the present expansion of Canadian federal and provincial governmental programs into the problem areas of poverty and racial inequality; such problem areas that seem to help generate orientations of powerlessness with its concomitants of apathy and lack of goal-striving behavior. Indeed, Reissman has stated that culturally-deprived people commonly attribute their failures to others. The presently found trend towards lower socio-economic class individuals tending to exhibit greater feelings of powerlessness may help interpret their apathy and lack of goal striving behavior, not as the less workable hypothesis of simply being related to lower SES, but, rather, as the more workable hypothesis that it may reflect their disbelief in their ability to affect their fates. Such an interpretation would seem to elicit more prognoses for treatment. For example, the motivation of the lower-class delinquent student might

then be viewed from his possible belief that he simply cannot perform middle-class tasks eventuating in middle-class goals. Indeed, Sherif and Sherif (1964) in their work on reference groups found among delinquent, middle SES, and lower SES groups no difference in values but did find differences in expectations.

> ...It would not seem that lower class youth react against the middle class concept of success. On the contrary, the concept would be more vital in lower than higher strata. What differs seems to be not motivation for, but probability of, success for youth in these differing circumstances (p. 219).

In viewing the concept of general powerlessness, one caution might be that the reader not fall into the over-simplified dichotomy of viewing the individual's feeling of powerlessness as being a negative attribute and his feeling of powerfulness as being a positive attribute. Indeed, some of the motivation for school study that may be fostered in some schools is the image of the teacher as a dispenser of rewards in the form of verbal praise, coloured stars, and percentage or stanine marks for work judged by the teacher as being acceptable. It would seem advisable that schools take heed of the powerlessness dimension in their philosophical formulations as to the role they play in the conscious increasing or decreasing of the feeling of powerlessness dimension with the students under their jurisdiction. If the position taken was the development of a feeling of powerfulness within each student, then extrapolating from parental behaviors, the development of an atmosphere of acceptance, consistent controls, and respect for the individuality of others would seem to be important. Also important would be the abolition of the superior-inferior type of relationship so often implicit in the reward-punishment situation. Such a position would also

enable the educator to view the "lazy" child as does Adler (1956)

> Such a child no longer believes that he can advance. He has lost all courage. He knows that he can no longer advance on the useful side (p. 391).

In respect to theory it would appear that there exists a definite distinction in the parental role in the etiology of a generalized feeling of powerlessness within the individual's total environment (as measured by the General Powerlessness Scale) as opposed to powerlessness related to more intellective-achievement situations (as measured by the School-Related Powerlessness Scale). It would appear that School-Related Powerlessness, except for it's possible relation to paternal laxness of control, and maternal psychological control is essentially unrelated to perceived parental behaviors, whereas General Powerlessness is so related. It would be interesting to hypothesize that the individual's degree of School-Related Powerlessness is primarily related to the individual's interactions with the school environment. Such an hypothesis would appear to be contrary to the observations of many educators who occasionally view the home environment as the source of most of their pupils' attitudes in respect to intellective and academic matters.

The findings of the present study would appear to have relevance also to the practice of the counsellor. The client often comes into the counselling situation with generalized predispositions in regard to his ability to determine his life and what happens to him. Although such predispositions have no direct relation to the counselling

situation, it does clearly contribute to determining reactions to it. Through a psychologically autonomy-granting, accepting, and concerned atmosphere the counsellor may structure situations both inside and outside of the counselling situation so that the client reaches the point where he has acquired some faith in his own mental and physical powers. That is, the client reaches the point where he feels the contingency between act and outcome has been restored and the client thus moves from a position of felt powerlessness to a position of greater felt powerfulness.

Considering another application, it would seem that most magazines for parents or housewives carry a column giving contradictory advice from month to month on how parents are to raise their children. In respect to the counsellor and classroom teacher in their dealings with parental questions in regard to confusion as to the parental role in child rearing, the present study may give some direction. Such direction would be that the child requires encouragement in the form of pure acceptance of him for what he is rather than for what he does. Along with such acceptance would appear to be the requirement of firmness without domination. The concept of firmness without domination brings to mind Dreikurs's (1968) distinction among autocracy, anarchy, and democracy as related to child rearing practices. The distinction would be that autocracy may be viewed as having order without freedom, anarchy as having freedom without order, and democracy as having freedom with order.

In respect to theory and research, a final implication might arise from the effective behavioral distinction arising from the

individual's feeling of powerlessness. Just as both positive compensatory endeavours and negative withdrawal behaviors may result from inferiority feelings and result in the developing or hindering of positive qualities and accomplishments, so also may the feeling of powerlessness as defined in the present paper result in positive or negative types of behaviors. A useful research direction might therefore be to distinguish among individuals with extreme feelings of powerlessness those who use such feelings to spur them on to overcoming obstacles in life from those who become crushed and discouraged by such feelings.

A final implication for research would be the additional partial construct validation of the instruments used in the present study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory

DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE P.B. INVENTORY NIH - 71

As introductory comments prior to distributing the questionnaire and answer sheets to your pupils, please read to them the following directions printed in upper-case letters:

THE PURPOSE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH YOU ARE BEING REQUESTED TO FILL OUT IS TO GAIN A GENERAL IDEA OF INDIVIDUALS' FAMILY EXPERIENCES. IT IS HOPED THAT YOUR COOPERATION IN THE ANSWERING OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL ENABLE ADULTS TO BETTER UNDERSTAND AND PROVIDE FOR THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS.

YOUR INDIVIDUAL ANSWERS WILL NOT BE SEEN BY ANYONE OTHER THAN THE STAFF OF THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA.

FURTHER DIRECTIONS ARE PROVIDED FOR YOU ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH I WILL NOW PASS OUT TO YOU.

Please distribute to each pupil, one P.B. Inventory NIH - 71 and IBM Answer Sheet. (After the pupils have been working on the questionnaire for ten minutes or so, please pass out two more IBM answer sheets to each pupil.)

Provide time for the pupils to fill out their names, et cetera on the top portion of the IBM answer sheet. Please direct the pupils to use H or HB pencil, and then say the following:

I WILL READ ALOUD THE INSTRUCTIONS ON THE FIRST PAGE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE. PLEASE FOLLOW ALONG, READING THE INSTRUCTIONS SILENTLY WHILE I READ THEM ALOUD.
Read the directions aloud.
Please emphasize that no question is to be omitted.

The questionnaire is in no way meant to be "snoopy" in respect to an individual's particular home life. Rather, it is felt that a great deal of contradictory comments have been made on the effects of various types of child-rearing techniques used by parents and that it would seem worthwhile to actually ask students about the child-rearing practices that they have encountered and to see how these practices affect their behavior. It must be kept in mind that we are not really interested in the true child-parental interaction picture, but are only interested in how the individual perceives his/her interactions with his/her parents. That is, the individual's subjective perception may not really be any indication of actual objective child-parental interaction conditions, but, nevertheless, may affect the individual's behavior in academic-achievement-type situations.

If any student appears reluctant to answer the questionnaire, please

indicate to him that his co-operation would be greatly appreciated but that his personal decision not to complete the questionnaire will be respected.

Thank you.

Cordially,

PJP:fb

Philip J. Patsula
Student Counselling Services
University of Alberta

Bus. 432-5205
Res. 434-9829

P.B. INVENTORY NIH-71

INSTRUCTIONS

We are interested in learning more about the different experiences people have had in their families. We are, therefore, asking a number of people to report their experiences during their home life.

If you are under sixteen and have lived at home up to this time, answer the questions as they describe what happens there. If you left home before the age of sixteen, answer as you would have before you left home. If you are over sixteen and have always lived at home up to that time, answer as you would have around the age of sixteen. If you did not grow up with your real mother or father, but someone took the place of that parent in your life, please describe that person.

Read each item on the following pages and black-in on the answer sheet the answer that most closely describes the way each of your parents acts toward you. BE SURE TO MARK EACH ITEM FOR EACH PARENT.

If you think the item is LIKE your parent, black-in "A" on the answer sheet.

If you think the item is SOMEWHAT LIKE your parent, black-in "B" on the answer sheet.

If you think the item is NOT LIKE your parent, black-in "C" on the answer sheet.

LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
A	B	C
....	....	....
....	....	....

Section I deals with your <u>mother's</u> behavior in relation to you.

Section II deals with your <u>father's</u> behavior in relation to you.

Note: When you have finished the questionnaire, please place your answer sheets into the large brown envelope provided. This envelope will be sealed after all of the students' answer sheets have been placed in it.

PLEASE BEGIN.

SECTION I - FORM FOR MOTHER

NOTE: THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE TO BE ANSWERED IN RELATION TO YOUR MOTHER'S BEHAVIOR.

LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
A	B	C
....	....	....

1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her.
2. Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time.
3. Isn't very patient with me.

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.

137. Tells me where to find out more about things I want to know.
138. Tells me of all the things she has done for me.
139. Wants to control whatever I do.

DIRECTIONS: BLACK-IN GUIDELINE "A" FOR NUMBER 140 ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET. ON A NEW ANSWER SHEET PLEASE PRINT YOUR NAME AND BLACK-IN GUIDELINE "B" FOR NUMBER 140. THEN CONTINUE ON WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

1. Does not bother to enforce rules.
2. Makes me feel at ease when I'm with her.
3. Thinks that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future consequences.

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51. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.
52. Is never interested in meeting or talking with my friends.
53. Lets me do anything I like to do.

SECTION II - FORM FOR FATHER

NOTE: THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE TO BE ANSWERED IN RELATION TO YOUR FATHER'S BEHAVIOR.

LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
A	B	C
....	....	....
....	....	....

54. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with <u>him</u>.
55. Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time.
56. Isn't very patient with me.

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137. Is less friendly with me if I don't see things his way.
138. Is able to make me feel better when I am upset.
139. Becomes very involved in my life.

NOTE: GUIDELINE "B" FOR NUMBER 140 ON THE ANSWER SHEET SHOULD BE BLACKED-IN. ON ANOTHER NEW ANSWER SHEET PLEASE PRINT YOUR NAME AND BLACK-IN GUIDELINE "C" FOR NUMBER 140. THEN CONTINUE.

1. Almost always complains about what I do.
2. Punishes me when I don't obey.
3. Always listens to my ideas and opinions.

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.
.
.
.

104. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.
105. Is never interested in meeting or talking with my friends.
106. Lets me do anything I like to do.

THE END ---- THANKS FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

THE ITEMS COMPRISING THE INDIVIDUAL SCALES OF THE CHILDREN'S REPORTS OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY (Form for Mother)

Acceptance: CRPBI Subscale 1

A 1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her.

13. Seems to see my good points more than my faults.

25. Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.

37. Understands my problems and my worries.

49. Enjoys talking things over with me.

61. Enjoys going on drives, trips or visits with me.

73. Smiles at me very often.

85. Is able to make me feel better when I am upset.

97. Enjoys doing things with me.

109. Enjoys working with me in the house or yard.

121. Comforts me when I'm afraid.

133. Cheers me up when I am sad.

B 6. Often speaks of the good things I do.

18. Has a good time at home with me.

30. Seems proud of the things I do.

42. Isn't interested in changing me, but likes me as I am.

Childcenteredness: CRPBI Subscale 2

A 2. Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time.

26. Is always thinking of things that will please me.

50. Gives me a lot of care and attention.

74. Often gives up something to get something for me.

98. Makes me feel like the most important person in her life.

122. Enjoys staying at home with me more than going out with friends.

B 7. Makes her whole life center about her children.

31. Spends almost all of her free time with her children.

Possessiveness: CRPBI Subscale 3

A 14. Doesn't let me go places because something might happen to me.

38. Seems to regret that I am growing up and am spending more time away from home.

62. Worries about me when I'm away.

86. Becomes very involved in my life.

110. Usually makes me the center of her attention at home.

134. Does not approve of my spending a lot of time away from home.

B 19. Worries that I can't take care of myself unless she is around.

43. Wishes I would stay at home where she could take care of me.

Rejection: CRPBI Subscale 4

A 3. Isn't very patient with me.

15. Thinks my ideas are silly.

27. Says I'm a big problem.

39. Forgets to help me when I need it.

51. Sometimes wishes she didn't have any children.

63. Forgets to get me things I need.

75. Is always getting after me.

87. Almost always complains about what I do.

99. Gets cross and angry about little things I do.

111. Often blows her top when I bother her.

123. Doesn't work with me.

135. Doesn't get me things unless I ask over and over again.

B 8. Doesn't seem to know what I need or want.

20. Acts as though I'm in the way.

32. Tells me to quit "hanging around the house" and go somewhere.

44. Makes me feel I'm not loved.

Control: CRPBI Subscale 5

A 4. Sees to it that I know exactly what I may or may not do.

28. Believes in having a lot of rules and sticking to them.

52. Believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way.

76. Sees to it that I'm on time coming home from school or for meals.

100. Believes in punishing me to correct and improve my manners.

124. Insists that I must do exactly as I'm told.

B 9. Sees to it that I keep my clothes neat, clean, and in order.

33. I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.

Enforcement: CRPBI Subscale 6

A 16. Is very strict with me.

40. Sticks to a rule instead of allowing a lot of exceptions.

64. Gives hard punishments.

88. Punishes me when I don't obey.

112. Almost always punishes me in some way when I am bad.

136. Sees to it that I obey when she tells me something.

B 21. If I do the least little thing that I shouldn't, she punishes me.

45. Has more rules than I can remember, so is often punishing me.

Positive Involvement: CRPBI Subscale 7

A 5. Says I'm very good natured.

17. Tells me I'm good looking.

29. Tells me how much she loves me.

41. Likes to talk about what she has read with me.

53. Hugs and kisses me often.

65. Believes in showing her love for me.

77. Tries to treat me as an equal.

89. Always listens to my ideas and opinions.

101. Often has long talks with me about the causes and reasons for things.

113. Often praises me.

125. Encourages me to read.

137. Tells me where to find out more about things I want to know.

B 10. Is happy to see me when I come home from school or play.

22. Hugged or kissed me goodnight when I was small.

34. Is very interested in what I am learning at school.

46. Says I make her happy.

Intrusiveness: CRPBI Subscale 8

A 6. Wants to know exactly where I am and what I am doing.

30. Is always checking on what I've been doing at school or at play.

54. Asks me to tell everything that happens when I'm away from home.

78. Keeps a careful check on me to make sure I have the right kind of friends.

102. Wants to know with whom I've been when I've been out.

126. Asks other people what I do away from home.

B 11. Questions me in detail about what my friends and I discuss.

35. Almost always wants to know who phoned me or who wrote to me and what they said.

Control through Guilt: CRPBI Subscale 9

A 18. Feels hurt when I don't follow advice.

42. Thinks I'm not grateful when I don't obey.

66. Feels hurt by the things I do.

90. Tells me how much she has suffered for me.

114. Says if I loved her, I'd do what she wants me to do.

138. Tells me of all the things she has done for me.

B 23. Says if I really cared for her, I would not do things that cause her to worry.

47. When I don't do as she wants, says I'm not grateful for all she has done for me.

Hostile Control: CRPBI Subscale 10

A 7. Decides what friends I can go around with.

19. Is always telling me how I should behave.

31. Keeps reminding me about things I am not allowed to do.

43. Tells me exactly how to do my work.

55. Doesn't forget very quickly the things that I do wrong.

67. Tells me how to spend my free time.

79. Keeps after me about finishing my work.

91. Would like to be able to tell me what to do all the time.

103. Is unhappy that I'm not better in school than I am.

115. Gets cross and nervous when I'm noisy around the house.

127. Loses her temper with me when I don't help around the house.

139. Wants to control whatever I do.

B 12. Doesn't give me any peace until I do what she says.

24. Is always trying to change me.

36. Doesn't like the way I act at home.

48. Doesn't let me decide things for myself.

Inconsistent Discipline: CRPBI Subscale 11

A 8. Soon forgets a rule she has made.

32. Punishes me for doing something one day, but ignores it the next.

56. Sometimes allows me to do things that she says are wrong.

80. Depends upon her mood whether a rule is enforced or not.

104. Only keeps rules when it suits her.

128. Frequently changes the rules I am supposed to follow.

B 13. Insists I follow a rule one day and then forgets about it the next.

37. Changes her mind to make things easier for herself.

Nonenforcement: CRPBI Subscale 12

A 20. Usually doesn't find out about my misbehavior.

44. Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior.

68. Doesn't insist that I do my homework.

92. Doesn't check up to see whether I have done what she told me.

116. Seldom insists that I do anything.

B 1. Does not bother to enforce rules.

25. Lets me get away without doing work I had been given to do.

49. Lets me get away with a lot of things.

Acceptance of Individuation: CRPBI Subscale 13

A 9. Doesn't mind if I kid her about things.

21. Enjoys it when I bring friends to my home.

33. Allows me to tell her if I think my ideas are better than hers.

45. Likes me to choose my own way to do things.

57. Wants me to tell her about it if I don't like the way she treats me.

69. Lets me help to decide how to do things we're working on.

81. Makes me feel free when I'm with her.

93. Asks me what I think about how we should do things.

105. Really wants me to tell her just how I feel about things.

117. Tries to understand how I see things.

129. Allows me to have friends at my home often.

B 2. Makes me feel at ease when I am with her.

14. Gives me the choice of what to do whenever possible.

26. Is easy to talk to.

38. Lets me do things that other children my age do.

50. Tries to be a friend rather than a boss.

Lax Discipline: CRPBI Subscale 14

A 10. Is easy with me.

34. Lets me off easy when I do something wrong.

58. Can't say no to anything I want.

82. Excuses my bad conduct.

106. Lets me stay up late if I keep asking.

130. Does not insist I obey if I complain or protest.

B 15. I can talk her out of an order, if I complain.

39. Can be talked into things easily.

Instilling Persistent Anxiety: CRPBI Subscale 15

A 22. Worries about how I will turn out, because she takes anything bad I do seriously.

46. If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time.

70. Says some day I'll be punished for my bad behavior.

94. Thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after its over.

118. Says that some day I'll be sorry that I wasn't a better child.

B 3. Thinks that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future consequences.

B 27. Says that sooner or later we always pay for bad behavior.

51. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.

Hostile Detachment: CRPBI Subscale 16

A 11. Doesn't talk with me very much.

23. Spends very little time with me.

35. Almost never brings me a surprise or present.

47. Doesn't seem to think of me very often.

59. Thinks I am just someone to "put up with".

71. Doesn't seem to enjoy doing things with me.

83. Doesn't show that she loves me.

95. Doesn't share many activities with me.

107. Almost never goes on Sunday drives or picnics with me.

119. Complains that I get on her nerves.

131. Hardly notices when I am good at home or in school.

B 4. Is always finding fault with me.

16. Often makes fun of me.

28. Wishes I were a different kind of person.

40. Often seems glad to get away from me for a while.

52. Is never interested in meeting or talking with my friends.

Withdrawal of Relations: CRPBI Subscale 17

A 12. Will not talk to me when I displease her.

36. Sometimes when she disapproves, doesn't say anything but is cold and distant for a while.

60. Speaks to me in a cold, matter-of-fact voice when I offend her.

84. Is less friendly with me if I don't see things her way.

108. Will avoid looking at me when I've disappointed her.

132. If I take someone else's side in an argument, is cold and distant to me.

B 17. If I've hurt her feelings, stops talking to me until I please her again.

41. When I upset her, won't have anything to do with me until I find a way to make up.

Extreme Autonomy: CRPBI Subscale 18

A 24. Allows me to go out as often as I please.

48. Doesn't tell me what time to be home when I go out.

72. Gives me as much freedom as I want.

96. Lets me go any place I please without asking.

120. Lets me dress in any way I please.

B 5. Allows me to spend my money in any way I like.

29. Lets me go out any evening I want.

53. Lets me do anything I like to do.

TABLE A-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF CRPBI (MOTHER) SUBSCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students in Sample I

(Pearson Product Moment Correlations)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.[a]	1.000								
2.	0.760	1.000							
3.	0.111	0.393	1.000						
4.	-0.706	-0.522	0.132	1.000					
5.	-0.071	0.070	0.301	0.316	1.000				
6.	-0.242	-0.073	0.287	0.472	0.675	1.000			
7.	0.863	0.751	0.206	-0.593	0.105	-0.089	1.000		
8.	-0.087	0.087	0.501	0.274	0.510	0.544	0.028	1.000	
9.	-0.346	-0.066	0.345	0.567	0.340	0.396	-0.191	0.335	1.000
10.	-0.447	-0.205	0.399	0.722	0.613	0.667	-0.295	0.597	0.667
11.	-0.255	-0.131	0.183	0.501	0.131	0.221	-0.203	0.159	0.426
12.	-0.081	0.000	0.017	0.203	-0.387	-0.272	-0.138	-0.189	0.123
13.	0.812	0.632	0.014	-0.650	-0.151	-0.356	0.720	-0.172	-0.304
14.	0.102	0.223	0.130	0.005	-0.304	-0.301	0.075	-0.143	0.169
15.	-0.423	-0.203	0.333	0.640	0.516	0.542	-0.277	0.497	0.676
16.	-0.722	-0.573	0.078	0.873	0.217	0.444	-0.630	0.243	0.499
17.	-0.463	-0.244	0.266	0.638	0.372	0.444	-0.337	0.327	0.531
18.	0.043	0.066	-0.176	0.032	-0.302	-0.238	-0.024	-0.317	0.048

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
10.	1.000								
11.	0.409	1.000							
12.	-0.051	0.371	1.000						
13.	-0.503	-0.171	0.067	1.000					
14.	-0.075	0.342	0.646	0.242	1.000				
15.	0.776	0.384	0.019	-0.397	-0.019	1.000			
16.	0.625	0.467	0.284	-0.622	0.070	0.585	1.000		
17.	0.649	0.453	0.164	-0.451	0.099	0.594	0.645	1.000	
18.	-0.169	0.197	0.603	0.189	0.548	-0.096	0.140	0.009	1.000

[a]The reader may refer to Table 2 for the keyed CRPBI subscales.

TABLE A-2

INTERCORRELATIONS OF CRPBI (FATHER) SUBSCALES

N = 220 eighth grade students in Sample I

(Pearson Product Moment Correlations)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.[a]	1.000								
2.	0.790	1.000							
3.	0.240	0.448	1.000						
4.	-0.551	-0.388	0.163	1.000					
5.	0.043	0.120	0.384	0.342	1.000				
6.	-0.141	-0.027	0.322	0.539	0.693	1.000			
7.	0.799	0.801	0.380	-0.384	0.225	0.034	1.000		
8.	-0.000	0.198	0.559	0.341	0.481	0.504	0.198	1.000	
9.	-0.183	-0.016	0.459	0.603	0.415	0.460	-0.041	0.546	1.000
10.	-0.283	-0.081	0.455	0.685	0.611	0.698	-0.108	0.656	0.701
11.	-0.091	-0.006	0.227	0.515	0.155	0.163	0.011	0.219	0.482
12.	0.024	0.034	0.074	0.321	-0.209	-0.125	0.021	0.012	0.204
13.	0.836	0.711	0.146	-0.537	-0.013	-0.232	0.716	-0.067	-0.219
14.	0.245	0.263	0.183	0.123	-0.145	-0.215	0.209	0.040	0.185
15.	-0.272	-0.103	0.420	0.642	0.565	0.637	-0.104	0.610	0.728
16.	-0.611	-0.478	0.067	0.860	0.232	0.456	-0.451	0.297	0.538
17.	-0.294	-0.159	0.253	0.682	0.336	-.445	-0.177	0.407	0.609
18.	0.163	0.112	0.024	0.117	-0.237	-0.192	0.125	-0.118	0.104

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
10.	1.000								
11.	0.390	1.000							
12.	0.070	0.569	1.000						
13.	-0.342	-0.087	0.086	1.000					
14.	0.053	0.484	0.628	0.276	1.000				
15.	0.790	0.387	0.075	-0.302	-0.002	1.000			
16.	0.621	0.459	0.343	-0.561	0.145	0.550	1.000		
17.	0.641	0.551	0.288	-0.311	0.236	0.621	0.667	1.000	
18.	-0.050	0.331	0.603	0.223	0.521	-0.034	0.133	0.160	1.000

[a]The reader may refer to Table 2 for the keyed CRPBI subscales.

APPENDIX B

Alustap Questionnaire - D1

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS FOR ADMINISTERING ALUSTAP QUESTIONNAIRE D-1

As introductory comments prior to distributing the questionnaire and answer sheets to your pupils, please read to them the following directions printed in upper-case letters.

YOU ARE REQUESTED TO FILL OUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH I WILL DISTRIBUTE TO YOU. THE PURPOSE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IS TO GAIN A GENERAL IDEA OF THE OPINIONS OF EDMONTON STUDENTS ON QUESTIONS OF CONCERN TO STUDENTS BOTH IN ALBERTA AND IN OTHER PARTS OF THE WORLD.

IT IS HOPED THAT YOUR FRANK AND HONEST ANSWERS WILL ENABLE EDUCATORS TO BETTER UNDERSTAND AND PROVIDE FOR THE NEEDS OF INDIVIDUALS IN THE SCHOOLS.

YOUR SPECIFIC ANSWERS WILL BE SEEN ONLY BY THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA. THE EDMONTON SCHOOLS WILL BE GIVEN ONLY GENERAL SUMMARIES OF GROUP ANSWERS.

FURTHER DIRECTIONS ARE PROVIDED FOR YOU ON THE QUESTIONNAIRES WHICH I WILL NOW PASS OUT TO YOU.

Hand out a questionnaire and answer sheet to each pupil. Page ten is not attached to the rest of the questionnaire and is to be passed out to the students by you only after the students are well into answering the questionnaire. Please check to see that each pupil has an H or HB pencil, and then say the following:

I WILL READ ALOUD THE INSTRUCTIONS ON THE FIRST PAGE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE. PLEASE FOLLOW ALONG, READING THE INSTRUCTIONS SILENTLY WHILE I READ THEM ALOUD.

Also, please go over with the students the directions given for Section A of the questionnaire in order to ensure that the students understand how to mark the answer sheets properly.

Once again, please emphasize the use of H or HB pencils (fountain pens or ball-point pens are not to be used) for the marking of answers on the answer sheets.

Thank you for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

If I may be of any assistance to you at any time in the future, or if you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call upon me.

Cordially,

Philip J. Patsula
Student Counselling Services
University of Alberta.

PJP:fb

Bus. 432-5205
Res. 434-9829

ALUSTAP QUESTIONNAIRE - D1

GENERAL

With the current unrest among students throughout the world, it is of utmost importance that the frank opinions of students be communicated to educators and others. Many educators, parents, and other adults have opinions on the attitudes of Junior High School students. However, such opinions may or may not be true. We are interested in getting closer to the true attitudes of students by having them tell us directly about themselves. You can help us by giving your own frank opinions to the statements in this questionnaire.

DIRECTIONS

PRINT your name, school, etc. at the top of the answer sheet provided. You may be sure that in spite of this, your answers on this paper will be kept in strictest confidence.

As you read each statement, decide how you feel about it, and then mark your answer on the special answer sheet. Use HB or H pencil. Please do not place any marks on the questionnaire booklet.

Indicate your own personal opinion of each statement. Do not indicate what you think you ought to believe or what other people want you to believe. Try to indicate what you really think about these statements.

Work quickly. Do not puzzle too long over any statement; we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process.

Answer every question. Be sure not to omit any questions.

There are no right or wrong answers. This is in no way a test of intelligence or ability of any kind, but is simply a measure of your usual way of feeling or behaving.

REMEMBER

You need not fear that your opinions will be exposed. No one in this school will ever see your individual answers. The Edmonton schools will be given only general summaries of group answers. When you finish, place your answer sheet and questionnaire booklet in the large brown envelope provided. (This envelope will be sealed after all the class papers have been placed in it).

PLEASE BEGIN

SECTION A

DIRECTIONS: Item numbers 1 to 34 are included in this section. You are to pick the answer which best describes what happens to you or how you feel. To record you answer, find the number of the item on the answer sheet and black-in the space under the "A" or the "B".

Example: I am presently attending school in the city of
A. Calgary
B. Edmonton

1. If a teacher passes you to the next grade, would it probably be
   A. because she liked you, or
   B. because of the work you did?

2. When you do well on a test at school, is it more likely to be
   A. because you studied for it, or
   B. because the test was especially easy?

3. When you have trouble understanding something in school, is it usually
   A. because the teacher didn't explain it clearly, or
   B. because you didn't listen carefully?

4. When you read a story and can't remember much of it, is it usually
   A. because the story wasn't well written, or
   B. because you weren't interested in the story?

5. Suppose your parents say you are doing well in school. Is this likely to happen
   A. because your school work is good, or
   B. because they are in a good mood?

6. Suppose you did better than usual in a subject at school. Would it probably happen
   A. because you tried harder, or
   B. because someone helped you?

7. When you lose at a game of cards or checkers, does it usually happen
   A. because the other player is good at the game, or
   B. because you don't play well?

8. Suppose a person doesn't think you are very bright or clever.
   A. Can you make him change his mind if you try to, or
   B. are there some people who will think you're not very bright no matter what you do?

A B

:::: ::::

9. If you solve a puzzle, is it
   A. because it wasn't a very hard puzzle, or
   B. because you worked on it carefully?

10. If a boy or girl tells you that you are dumb, is it more likely that they say that
   A. because they are mad at you, or
   B. because what you did really wasn't very bright?

11. Suppose you study to become a teacher, scientist, or doctor and you fail. Do you think this would happen
   A. because you didn't work hard enough, or
   B. because you needed some help, and other people didn't give it to you?

12. When you learn something quickly in school, is it usually
   A. because you paid close attention, or
   B. because the teacher explained it clearly?

13. If a teacher says to you, "Your work is fine," is it
   A. something teachers usually say to encourage pupils, or
   B. because you did a good job?

14. When you find it hard to work arithmetic or math problems at school, is it
   A. because you didn't study well enough before you tried them, or
   B. because the teacher gave problems that were too hard?

15. When you forget something you heard in class, is it
   A. because the teacher didn't explain it very well, or
   B. because you didn't try very hard to remember?

16. Suppose you weren't sure about the answer to a question your teacher asked you, but your answer turned out to be right. Is it likely to happen
   A. because she wasn't as particular as usual, or
   B. because you gave the best answer you could think of?

17. When you read a story and remember most of it, is it usually
   A. because you were interested in the story, or
   B. because the story was well written?

18. If your parents tell you you're acting silly and not thinking clearly, is it more likely to be
   A. because of something you did, or
   B. because they happen to be feeling cranky?

A B

:::: ::::

19. When you don't do well on a test at school, is it
    A. because the test was especially hard, or
    B. because you didn't study for it?

20. When you win at a game of cards or checkers, does it happen
    A. because you play real well, or
    B. because the other person doesn't play well?

21. If people think you're bright or clever, is it
    A. because they happen to like you, or
    B. because you usually act that way?

22. If a teacher didn't pass you to the next grade, would it probably be
    A. because she "had it in for you," or
    B. because your school work wasn't good enough?

23. Suppose you don't do as well as usual in a subject at school. Would it probably happen
    A. because you weren't as careful as usual, or
    B. because somebody bothered you and kept you from working?

24. If a boy or girl tells you that you are bright, is it usually
    A. because you thought up a good idea, or
    B. because they like you?

25. Suppose you become a famous teacher, scientist or doctor. Do you think this would happen
    A. because other people helped you when you needed it, or
    B. because you worked very hard?

26. Suppose your parents say you aren't doing well in your school work. Is this likely to happen more
    A. because your work isn't very good, or
    B. because they are feeling cranky?

27. Suppose you are showing a friend how to play a game and he has trouble with it. Would that happen
    A. because he wasn't able to understand how to play, or
    B. because you couldn't explain it well?

28. When you find it easy to work arithmetic or math problems at school, is it usually
    A. because the teacher gave you especially easy problems, or
    B. because you studied your book well before you tried them?

A B

:::: ::::

29. When you remember something you heard in class, is it usually
    A. because you tried hard to remember, or
    B. because the teacher explained it well?

30. If you can't work a puzzle, is it more likely to happen
    A. because you are not especially good at working puzzles, or
    B. because the instructions weren't written clearly enough?

31. If your parents tell you that you are bright or clever, is it more likely
    A. because they are feeling good, or
    B. because of something you did?

32. Suppose you are explaining how to play a game to a friend and he learns quickly. Would that happen more often
    A. because you explained it well, or
    B. because he was able to understand it?

33. Suppose you're not sure about the answer to a question your teacher asks you and the answer you give turns out to be wrong. Is it likely to happen
    A. because she was more particular than usual, or
    B. because you answered too quickly?

34. If a teacher says to you, "Try to do better," would it be
    A. because this is something she might say to get pupils to try harder, or
    B. because your work wasn't as good as usual?

SECTION B

DIRECTIONS: Item numbers 35 to 63 are included in this section. For each item you are to choose the statement which you believe to be more true. In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the ONE you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. Be sure to find an answer (either "A" or "B") for every item.

Example: A. I am presently attending school in the city of Calgary.
B. I am presently attending school in the city of Edmonton.

A B

:::: ■■■■

A B

:::: ::::

35. A. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
    B. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.

36. A. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
    B. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

37. A. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
    B. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

38. A. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
    B. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

39. A. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
    B. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

40. A. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
    B. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

41. A. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
    B. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

42. A. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
    B. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.

43. A. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
    B. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

44. A. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
    B. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

45. A. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
    B. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

A B

:::: ::::

46. A. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
    B. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

47. A. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
    B. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

48. A. There are certain people who are just no good.
    B. There is some good in everybody.

49. A. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
    B. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

50. A. Who gets to be boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
    B. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

51. A. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
    B. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

52. A. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
    B. There really is no such thing as "luck".

53. A. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
    B. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.

54. A. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
    B. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

55. A. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
    B. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

56. A. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
    B. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

A B

:::: ::::

57. A. Sometines I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
B. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

58. A. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
B. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.

59. A. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
B. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

60. A. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
B. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people; if they like you, they like you.

61. A. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
B. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.

62. A. What happens to me is my own doing.
B. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

63. A. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
B. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

SECTION C

DIRECTIONS: Item numbers 64 to 94 are included in this section. Indicate <u>your own personal opinion</u> of each item by blacking-in one of the guidelines on the answer sheet as follows:

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
A	B	C	D	E
::::	::::	::::	::::	::::

Thus, if you strongly agree with a statement, black-in guideline "A" on the answer sheet; if you strongly disagree, black-in guideline "E" on the answer sheet. If you don't care either way, black-in guideline "C". If you agree or disagree less strongly, black-in guideline "B" or "D".

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
A	B	C	D	E
::::	::::	::::	::::	::::

64. I sometimes talk about things I know nothing about.

65. We're so rigidly organized today that there's not much room for choice even in personal matters.

66. There is little chance for promotion on a job unless a man gets a break.

67. There are few dependable ties between people anymore.

68. The only thing one can be sure of today is that he can be sure of nothing.

69. I sometimes gossip.

70. We are just so many cogs in the machinery of life.

71. With so many religions abroad, one doesn't really know which to believe.

72. I have never been late for an appointment or for school.

73. People's ideas change so much that I wonder if we'll ever have anything to depend on.

74. Most public officials are not really interested in the problems of the average man.

75. Everything is relative and there just aren't any definite rules to live by.

76. I would always declare everything at the customs, even if I knew that I could never be found out.

77. The future looks very dismal.

78. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.

79. Of all the people I know there are some whom I definitely do not like.

80. These days a person doesn't know whom he can count on.

81. Most people today seldom feel lonely.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
A	B	C	D	E
::::	::::	::::	::::	::::

82. I occasionally have thoughts and ideas that I would not like other people to know about.

83. Most people don't really care what happens to the next fellow.

84. In spite of what some people say, the lot (the condition) of the average man is getting worse, not better.

85. All my habits are desirable ones.

86. There is little or nothing I can do towards preventing a major "atomic" war.

87. People were better off in the old days when everyone knew just how he was expected to act.

88. There are so many decisions that have to be made today that sometimes I could just "blow up."

89. The end often justifies the means.

90. Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.

91. It is frightening to be responsible for the development of a little child.

92. The trouble with the world today is that most people really don't believe in anything.

93. Once in a while I lose my temper and get angry.

94. If I say I will do something I always keep my promise, no matter how inconvenient it might be to do so.

SECTION D

DIRECTIONS: Item numbers 95 to 99 are included in this section. Blacken-in the appropriate guideline.

MOTHER	FATHER	NEITHER	BOTH
A	B	C	D
::::	::::	::::	::::

MOTHER	FATHER	NEITHER	BOTH
A	B	C	D
::::	::::	::::	::::

95. Who disciplines you if you do something wrong that is serious?
    A. Mother
    B. Father
    C. Neither mother nor father
    D. Both mother and father

96. If there is some question as to whether your conduct is right or wrong, who decides?
    A. Mother
    B. Father
    C. Neither mother nor father
    D. Both mother and father

97. Whose discipline do you fear the most?
    A. Mother
    B. Father
    C. Neither mother nor father
    D. Both mother and father

98. Who disciplines you when you disobey?
    A. Mother
    B. Father
    C. Neither mother nor father
    D. Both mother and father

99. Whose discipline is most effective?
    A. Mother
    B. Father
    C. Neither mother nor father
    D. Both mother and father

CENSUS DATA

100. Your age in years
    A. 12 or less
    B. 13
    C. 14
    D. 15
    E. 16 or over

101. Sex
    A. Male
    B. Female

MOTHER	FATHER	NEITHER	BOTH
A	B	C	D
::::	::::	::::	::::

95. Who disciplines you if you do something wrong that is serious?
A. Mother
B. Father
C. Neither mother nor father
D. Both mother and father

96. If there is some question as to whether your conduct is right or wrong, who decides?
A. Mother
B. Father
C. Neither mother nor father
D. Both mother and father

97. Whose discipline do you fear the most?
A. Mother
B. Father
C. Neither mother nor father
D. Both mother and father

98. Who disciplines you when you disobey?
A. Mother
B. Father
C. Neither mother nor father
D. Both mother and father

99. Whose discipline is most effective?
A. Mother
B. Father
C. Neither mother nor father
D. Both mother and father

CENSUS DATA

100. Your age in years
A. 12 or less
B. 13
C. 14
D. 15
E. 16 or over

101. Sex
A. Male
B. Female

102. Number of years in school (not including kindergarten)
   A. 6 or less
   B. 7
   C. 8
   D. 9
   E. 10 or more

103. Have you always lived at home with both of your own parents?
   A. Yes
   B. No

104. Have you lived mostly
   A. on farms
   B. in small towns (less than 2500 population)
   C. in or near small cities (less than 50,000 population)
   D. in or near larger cities

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following census questions directly in the spaces provided on this sheet. When you are finished, in order to ensure confidentiality please place both this page and your answer sheet in the large brown envelope provided. The envelope will be sealed when all the answer sheets have been placed in it.

105. Name .....

106. Which teacher in this school would you most want to imitate?

107. Which Eighth Grade student in this school would you most want to imitate?

108. Occupation of Father (or guardian): .....

.....(Please be specific. For example: sales clerk at Eaton's furniture department; or door-to-door salesman for Fuller Brush; or travelling salesman for Massey-Ferguson.)

109. Occupation of Mother: .....

.....

110. If you have any brothers or sisters, please list their present ages

Brothers ....

Sisters: ....

THAT'S ALL ... THANKS FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX C

Miscellaneous

March 13, 1969

TO: GRADE EIGHT HOMEROOM TEACHER

RE: Request for assistance in a research project

May I elicit your co-operation in a research project designed to test some possible correlates of one aspect of the "alienation" concept--the feeling of personal powerlessness?

I am particularly interested in ascertaining some of the factors related to why some of our students develop the feeling that they have the responsibility for their academic successes and failures, whereas other students tend to develop the belief that forces outside of themselves (i.e., luck, fate, more powerful others, the complexity of the world) are accountable for their academic successes and failures.

I am requesting that you initially supervise a self-administering questionnaire to your Eighth Grade pupils during one of your regular periods with them.

This project has the sanction of the University of Alberta, Mr. H. A. MacNeil, and Mr. J. Brosseau. I would be most grateful for, and am optimistic concerning, your co-operation.

Thanking you for your consideration.

Yours sincerely,

PJP:fb

Philip J. Patsula, Counsellor
Student Counselling Services
University of Alberta

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHER FOR RE-ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRES

1. Alustap D-1

As explanatory comments prior to reading to the pupils the original "Directions for Administering Alustap D-1 Questionnaire," please read to your pupils the following explanation printed in upper-case letters.

ONE VALID, SCIENTIFIC WAY OF TESTING THE RELIABILITY OF A QUESTIONNAIRE IS SIMPLY TO HAVE INDIVIDUALS FILL OUT THE SAME QUESTIONNAIRE TWICE.

MOST OF YOU HAVE BEEN RANDOMLY SELECTED TO AID US IN CONDUCTING A TEST OF THE RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH MANY OF YOU FILLED OUT LAST MONTH.

ALTHOUGH THE QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH I WILL PASS OUT TO YOU CONTAINS THE SAME QUESTIONS WHICH YOU ANSWERED LAST MONTH, PLEASE ANSWER EACH ITEM AS YOU NOW FEEL. OVER A PERIOD OF A FEW WEEKS, AN INDIVIDUAL'S OPINIONS AND FEELINGS SOMETIMES DO CHANGE--AND SOMETIMES DO NOT CHANGE. THEREFORE, PLEASE DO NOT MAKE ANY SPECIAL EFFORT TO RECALL HOW YOU ANSWERED THE QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS FORMERLY. RATHER SIMPLY ANSWER THE QUESTIONS AND STATEMENTS AS YOU FEEL TODAY. THAT IS, TRY TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONNAIRE AS IF YOU WERE DOING IT FOR THE FIRST TIME.

Please refer to the sheet entitled "Directions for Administering Alustap D-1 Questionnaire" and give instructions as you did in the initial administration of the questionnaire.

2. P.B. Inventory

Provide the same instructions as above except replace the term "Alustap D-1" with the term "P.B. Inventory."

COMMENTS:

Thank you.

TABLE C-1

BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE ALPHA LEVELS OF F-RATIOS FOR MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF MEASURES OF POWERLESSNESS TO PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR FACTOR SCORES

	Parental Behaviors					
	Maternal			Paternal		
Powerlessness Scales	Psy.Con. Psy.Aut.	Accept. Rej.	Lax-Firm Control	Psy.Con. Psy.Aut.	Accept. Rej.	Lax-Firm Control
General Powerlessness	000[ac] 007[b]	000 042	010 108	018 131	104 375	001 000
School Related Powerlessness	351 863	961 301	017 952	488 792	800 938	757 015
IAR^{+}	815 686	484 359	011 293	358 433	851 980	595 145
IAR_{-}	827 793	579 272	052 393	482 837	582 975	155 002
IAR_{total}	440 965	440 197	006 1.000	326 760	643 969	225 003
I-E	058 253	012 019	010 022	010 526	032 214	130 045
$FPPS_{revised}$	000 013	001 418	004 190	010 240	496 861	000 000
FPPS	000 000	000 206	008 529	068 036	421 816	000 000

[a]Sample I

[b]Sample II

[c]Decimal points omitted

TABLE C-2

BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE ALPHA LEVELS OF F-RATIOS FOR MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF MEASURES OF POWERLESSNESS TO PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR FACTOR SCORES - BOYS

Powerlessness Scales	Maternal			Paternal		
	Psy.Con. Psy.Aut.	Accept. Rej.	Lax-Firm Control	Psy.Con. Psy.Aut.	Accept. Rej.	Lax-Firm Control
General Powerlessness	004[ac]	002	019	018	009	024
	044[b]	061	806	105	006	002
School Related Powerlessness	313	713	118	302	044	402
	480	662	456	992	715	754
IAR^+	923	701	041	429	268	115
	775	706	898	312	955	936
IAR_-	624	086	215	102	001	559
	305	543	177	398	994	252
IAR_{total}	714	191	052	136	007	199
	539	487	338	968	970	403
I-E	225	200	111	017	015	238
	248	064	789	132	004	160
$FPPS_{revised}$	001	001	002	019	007	006
	399	339	472	679	130	000
FPPS	001	000	004	078	044	004
	017	154	514	128	091	000

[a] Sample I

[b] Sample II

[c] Decimal points omitted

TABLE C-3

BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE ALPHA LEVELS OF F-RATIOS FOR MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF MEASURES OF POWERLESSNESS TO PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR FACTOR SCORES - GIRLS

Powerlessness Scales	Maternal			Paternal		
	Psy.Con. Psy.Aut.	Accept. Rej.	Lax-Firm Control	Psy.Con. Psy.Aut.	Accept. Rej.	Lax-Firm Control
General Powerlessness	010[ac]	034	176	274	979	026
	025[b]	263	008	839	189	075
School Related Powerlessness	796	765	057	972	215	736
	568	409	323	547	985	003
IAR+	745	492	128	802	603	455
	673	371	153	741	980	052
IAR-	260	295	059	852	034	123
	318	496	542	434	786	000
IAR_{total}	612	818	033	966	101	623
	389	361	247	500	853	001
I-E	186	021	043	205	473	364
	442	086	002	544	407	205
$FPPS_{revised}$	007	147	355	190	141	024
	006	973	181	384	078	008
FPPS	008	066	355	422	548	025
	004	734	128	316	192	040

[a] Sample I

[b] Sample II

[c] Decimal points omitted

TABLE C-4

BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE ALPHA LEVELS OF F-RATIO RESULTS OF MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF POWERLESSNESS MEASURES TO PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR FACTOR SCORES

(with control for SES, sex, and scholastic aptitude)

Powerlessness Scales	Maternal			Paternal		
	Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	Acceptance - Rejection	Lax Control - Firm Control	Psych. Control - Psych. Autonomy	Acceptance - Rejection	Lax Control - Firm Control
General Powerlessness	001[ac] 020[b]	006 130	131 092	033 122	319 422	038 008
School Related Powerlessness	432 925	694 271	010 902	443 872	615 883	590 008
IAR^{+}	867 789	354 373	011 254	345 494	702 967	615 177
IAR_{-}	880 957	598 257	060 405	498 803	628 896	174 001
IAR_{total}	1.000 912	377 195	007 953	325 835	591 949	246 002
I-E	121 419	033 025	043 015	325 488	591 166	246 123
$FPPS_{revised}$	021 040	930 947	020 184	000 241	022 726	091 000
FPPS	119 002	859 654	011 552	000 037	005 948	149 001

[a]Sample I

[b]Sample II

[c]Decimal points omitted

TABLE C-5

BRIEF SUMMARY OF ALPHA LEVELS OF F-RATIO RESULTS OF MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF INTERACTIONS OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIOR WITH MOULTON'S DOMINANCE IN DISCIPLINE SCALE (K)

Interactions	General Powerlessness	School Related Powerlessness	IAR^+	IAR^-	IAR_{total}	I-E	$FPPS_{revised}$	FPPS
M^1K	543	1.000	832	722	1.000	906	074	175
	010	273	921	332	396	034	092	042
M^2K	228	789	343	527	920	072	1.000	1.000
	134	751	328	580	951	217	311	384
M^3K	894	404	270	794	383	1.000	958	453
	299	884	937	883	814	927	387	126
F^1K	045	354	990	033	154	004	681	1.000
	1.000	1.000	655	331	872	531	463	300
F^2K	104	448	244	987	727	050	1.000	768
	448	062	450	037	054	603	944	606
F^3K	548	667	949	726	774	809	1.000	420
	131	773	815	959	989	060	937	670
K	270	659	558	828	840	328	727	538
	148	772	344	733	749	274	152	109
M^1F^1	350	960	1.000	706	851	983	777	209
	954	930	253	382	1.000	650	733	549
M^2F^2	056	176	124	336	135	094	270	046
	528	605	1.000	092	282	366	409	953
M^3F^3	1.000	659	797	794	716	1.000	1.000	1.000
	1.000	1.000	610	932	1.000	222	580	408

M^1 - Maternal Psychological Autonomy-Control

M^2 - Maternal Acceptance - Rejection

M^3 - Maternal Lax - Firm Control

F^1- Paternal Psychological Autonomy - Control

F^2- Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

F^3- Paternal Lax-Firm Control

APPENDIX D

Results of the Multiple Linear Regression Analyses of the Controlling Variables

The controlling variables considered in the present study were socio-economic status, sex, and scholastic aptitude. The preliminary Multiple Linear Regression analyses on these controlling variables used the following models and F-ratios.

Model

1. $Y_{P_x} = K + A1B + A2C + A3D + A4BC + A5BD + A6CD + A7BCD + e_1$
2. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1B + A2C + A3D + A4BC + A5BD + A6CD + e_2$
3. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1B + A2C + A3D + A4BC + A5BD + e_3$
4. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1B + A2C + A3D + A4BC + A5CD + e_4$
5. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1B + A2C + A3D + A4BD + A5CD + e_5$
6. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1B + A2C + A3D + e_6$
7. $Y_{P_x} = k + A1B + A2C + e_7$
8. $Y_{P_x} = K + A1B + A2D + e_8$
9. $Y_{P_x} = K + A1C + A2D + e_9$

where B = socio-economic status
C = sex
D = scholastic aptitude

F-ratio

$F_{BCD} = \frac{\text{Model 1}}{\text{Model 2}}$

$F_{CD} = \frac{\text{Model 2}}{\text{Model 3}}$

$F_{BD} = \frac{\text{Model 2}}{\text{Model 4}}$

$F_{BC} = \frac{\text{Model 2}}{\text{Model 5}}$

$F_{D} = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 7}}$

$F_{C} = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 8}}$

$F_{B} = \frac{\text{Model 6}}{\text{Model 9}}$

Socio-economic status (SES). The findings presented in Tables D-1, D-2, and D-3 indicate that there is limited relationship between SES and measures of powerlessness. Factor I (General Powerlessness) and one of its main contributing scales (FPPS) show definite trends of negative relationship. These trends lend support to the suggestion that individuals of lower SES tend to experience greater feelings of powerlessness. The IAR scales give little indication of relationship to SES and what relationship that is indicated would appear to be contrary to that of Factor I, the I-E scale, and the FPPS. That is, there appears to be the hint that individuals of higher SES tend to decline personal responsibility for their own academic successes.

Provided in Table D-4 is a summary of more detailed analyses of the SES variable in relation to felt powerlessness.

Sex. The reader will note from the results reported in Table D-1 that there is a neglible relation of sex to any of the powerlessness scales. It would thus seem that at least with the present sample, and probably at the Eighth Grade level within the Edmonton Separate School System, there are no distinguishable differences among boys and girls in respect to degree of felt powerlessness as herein measured.

Scholastic aptitude. From the results depicted in Table D-1 there would appear to be a definite relation between scholastic aptitude and degree of general powerlessness (Factor I). The individual scale which would appear to contribute most to this relationship would

TABLE D-1

RELATIONSHIPS[a] OF THE CONTROLLING VARIABLES

TO THE MEASURES OF POWERLESSNESS

N = 220 eighth grade students in each sample

Powerlessness Scales	SES (B)	Sex (C)	Scholastic Aptitude (D)	Interactions BC	BD	CD	BCD
General Powerlessness	-.133[a]	-.044	-.298	-.086	-.220	-.140	-.166
	-.180[b]	.006	-.251	-.101	-.245	-.107	-.168
School Related Powerlessness	.116	.032	-.028	.110	.087	.023	.096
	.081	-.036	-.002	.029	.066	-.047	.014
IAR^+	.118	.012	-.096	.101	.063	-.020	.072
	.073	-.004	-.110	.045	.028	-.051	.010
IAR_-	.002	.032	-.055	.025	-.018	.002	.003
	.017	-.056	.074	-.023	.031	-.042	-.022
IAR_{total}	.071	.027	-.091	.076	.026	-.010	.045
	.053	-.042	-.011	.009	.037	-.058	-.010
I-E	-.051	.033	-.197	.001	-.112	-.063	-.058
	-.078	.055	-.144	-.002	-.118	-.023	-.050
FPPS	-.116	-.030	-.328	-.094	-.219	-.170	-.178
	-.197	-.046	-.307	-.156	-.286	-.169	-.299

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

$r \geq .164$ required for significance at the .05 level (1-tailed).

$r \geq .230$ required for significance at the .01 level (1-tailed).

TABLE D-2

RESULTS OF MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF

GENERAL POWERLESSNESS TO THE CONTROLLING VARIABLES

Controlling Variable	r^a	R_u^2	R_r^2	d.f.	F	P
SES (B)	-.133[b]	.0980	.0895	1/216	2.033	.155
	-.180[c]	.0826	.0631		4.582	.033
Sex (C)	-.004	.0980	.0968	1/216	.292	.590
	.001	.0826	.0826		.002	.968
Scholastic Aptitude (D)	-.298	.0980	.0178	1/216	19.213	.000
	-.251	.0826	.0324		11.822	.001
Interactions BC	-.086	.1097	.1062	3/213	.274	.844
	-.101	.1013	.0921		.728	.536
BD	-.220	.1097	.1042	3/213	.436	.727
	-.245	.1013	.1021		-.060	1.000
CD	-.140	.1097	.1070	3/213	.211	.889
	-.107	.1013	.0900		.899	.443
BCD	-.166	.1096	.1097	1/212	-.009	1.000
	-.168	.1030	.1013		.392	.532

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

TABLE D-3

BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE ALPHA LEVELS OF F-RATIOS FOR MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF CONTROLLING VARIABLES TO POWERLESSNESS

Powerlessness Scales	SES (B)	Sex (C)	Scholastic Aptitude (D)	Interactions BC	BD	CD	BCD
General Powerlessness	.155[a]	.590	.000	.844	.727	.899	1.000
	.033[b]	.968	.001	.536	1.000	.433	.532
School Related Powerlessness	.068	.583	.529	.900	1.000	.785	.725
	.226	.612	.809	1.000	.522	.165	.367
IAR^+	.047	.858	.094	1.000	1.000	.743	.636
	.170	.944	.067	.993	.981	1.000	.533
IAR_-	.866	.678	.434	1.000	.998	.988	.666
	.959	.424	.298	.997	.420	.120	1.000
IAR_{total}	.200	.711	.138	1.000	.998	.996	1.000
	.418	.550	.756	1.000	.875	.387	.376
IE	.748	.825	.005	.791	.859	.853	1.000
	.426	.453	.050	.709	1.000	.289	.487
$FPPS_{revised}$	.183	.060	.000	1.000	1.000	.943	.449
	.024	.811	.000	.319	1.000	.280	.646
$FPPS_{old}$	.256	.332	.000	.920	.772	1.000	.691
	.015	.382	.000	.624	1.000	.888	.895

[a] Sample I

[b] Sample II

TABLE D-4

RESULTS OF MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION

OF SES TO POWERLESSNESS SCALES

Criterion	r[a]	R_u^2	R_r^2	F	P
General Powerlessness	-.133[b]	.0980	.0895	2.034	.155
	-.180[c]	.0826	.0631	4.582	.033
School Related Powerlessness	.116	.0170	.0016	3.372	.068
	.082	.0081	.0013	1.475	.226
IAR^+	.118	.0272	.0091	4.003	.047
	.073	.0207	.0121	1.898	.170
IAR_-	.002	.0039	.0037	.029	.866
	.017	.0084	.0084	.003	.959
IAR_{total}	.071	.0162	.0087	1.650	.200
	.053	.0049	.0019	.659	.418
I-E	-.051	.0394	.0389	.103	.748
	-.078	.0263	.0235	.635	.426
FPPS	-.116	.1161	.1108	1.296	.256
	-.197	.1214	.0970	5.997	.015
$FPPS_{revised}$	-.122	.1146	.1073	1.783	.183
	-.205	.1269	.1062	.514	.024

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II

seem to be the FPPS. The findings of the present study in respect to scholastic aptitude would support McClosky and Schaar's (1965) findings of anomic feelings being inversely related to cognitive capacity. The findings, however, do not support those of Rotter (1966), Seeman (1963), and Seeman and Evans (1962). The possibly greater variability of the scholastic aptitude dimension in the present study may explain the relation found in the present study but not found in the above mentioned studies. An unexpected observation is the significant relation of scholastic aptitude to general powerlessness but not to school-related powerlessness. Table D-5 contains a more detailed summary of the scholastic aptitude-powerlessness relationship.

TABLE D-5

RESULTS OF MLR TESTS OF THE RELATION OF

SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE TO POWERLESSNESS SCALES

Criterion	r[a]	R_u^2	R_r^2	F	P
General Powerlessness	-.298[b]	.0980	.0178	19.213	.000
	-.251[c]	.0826	.0324	11.822	.001
School Related Powerlessness	-.028	.0170	.0152	.398	.529
	-.002	.0081	.0078	.058	.809
IAR^+	-.096	.0272	.0144	2.285	.094
	-.110	.0207	.0053	3.398	.067
IAR_-	-.055	.0039	.0010	.614	.434
	.074	.0084	.0034	1.089	.298
IAR_{total}	-.091	.0162	.0061	2.214	.138
	-.011	.0049	.0044	.096	.756
I-E	-.197	.0394	.0034	8.804	.005
	-.144	.0263	.0089	3.868	.050
FPPS	-.328	.1161	.0150	24.714	.000
	-.307	.1214	.0445	18.921	.000
$FFPS_{revised}$	-.306	.1146	.0246	21.947	.000
	-.326	.1269	.0388	21.805	.000

[a]Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

[b]Sample I

[c]Sample II