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A COMPARISON OF PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTS BY STUDENTS IN THREE DIFFERENT SCHOOLS

by

Lorin A. Broadbent

A report submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

in

Counseling Psychology

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
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1971

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Lorin A. Broadbent

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INTRODUCTION

Educators, psychologists and sociologists are continuing to emphasize that a very important relationship for the child and the adolescent is that involving parents. Adults, when asked to recall their early lives, emphasize their family relationships. Jersild (1965), in agreeing with other educators, found in a study of graduate students that parents and the home were the most important life influence factors to these students. When asked to write on burdensome and trying conditions in adolescence, 90 per cent of these students mentioned matters related to their home life.

The child learns from the parents child rearing practices whether or not he is being accepted or rejected. The child begins to learn when the parent can be trusted to fulfill his needs.

Kagan, Hosken and Watson (1961) believe that how a child labels people and events has a good deal to do with the child's personal behavior. They note:

> Parent's figures are an important set of social objects with whom the child constantly interacts. The constellation of labels that a child ascribes to each parent will influence not only his reaction to them, but also his behavior with parent substitutes figures (teachers, relatives, employers). Since the parents supply the child with his first definition of sex roles the labels that are applied to father and mother are apt to generalize initially to all males and females. (Kagan, Hosken and Watson, 1961, p. 625)

Contemporary America has placed child and adolescent problems as being some of the most serious facing our society. Crow and Crow (1956)

states that there is a need for insight among all adults about the problems of youth. They added:

> Perhaps never in history have adults evidenced a greater interest in adolescent psychology and mental hygiene than now is apparent. There is danger, however, in the fact with this increased concern for the welfare of young people there may develop an undue emphasis upon failure rather than upon success in achieving adolescent adjustment. (Crow and Crow, 1956, p. 10)

With the increased concern for mental hygiene and the problems of young people at all ages comes the problem of parental role. Most sociologists and psychologists believe that the family does have a dynamic part to play in bringing up the young. Witmer and Kotinsky (1952) indicate three dynamic functions:

> 1. To produce children and provide them with a setting of supporting affection. 2. To induct them, from infancy on, into the ways and values of the society. 3. To give them their initial identity with the community. (Witmer and Kotinsky, 1952, p. 177)

The family offers the natural setting for the young person to receive the love and support he needs. A mother and father can provide the models of behavior for the young child to follow and more often than not have a desire to see the child grow and achieve beyond just material rewards.

Novak and Vanderveen (1969) concur with many other sociologists and psychologists that it is how the child perceives his parent's attitude toward him as a most important factor in emotional adjustment. Their studies showed that disturbed children viewed their parents having lower positive regard and empathetic understanding for them when compared with normal children.

The increasing evidence showing the importance of the good child-parent relationship has caused many parents to question the effectiveness of their own

parent-child relationship. Also, there are those who ask if there are more problems in our contemporary western civilization than in the past; and, if more conflict is the cause of these problems. Davis (1940) identified three universal reasons and four variables for the increased conflict between parent and youth. He states:

> Our parent-youth conflict thus results from the interaction of certain universals of the parent-child relation and certain variables the values of which are peculiar to modern culture. The universals are: (1) the basic age or birth-cycle differential between parent and child, (2) the decelerating rate of socialization with advancing age, and (3) the resulting intrinsic differences between old and young on the physiological, psychosocial and sociological planes. Though these universal factors tend to produce conflict between parent and child, whether or not they do so depends upon the variables.
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> . . . . . .
>
> Yet certainly the following four complex variables are important: (1) the role of social change, (2) the extent of complexity in the social structure, (3) the degree of integration in the culture, and (4) the velocity of movement (e.g. vertical mobility) within the structure and its relation to the cultural values. (Davis, 1940, p. 535)

There seems to be little doubt about the complexity of the parent-child relationship. Increasing research continues to emphasize the importance of this relation to the healthy personality and the self-concept of the youth. Gregory (1958) notes that there is considerable data showing that children who have lost parents due to separation or death have a much greater chance of manifesting antisocial, delinquent, or psychopathic disorders.

There is a great deal of research pointing to the problems, reasons for the problems, and the results of the problems in parent-child relationships. Many studies indicate that it is important for a child to have a good self-concept.

Rogers (1951) has supported this contention through his work. How a person feels about himself is a reaction to how he believes others see him. Symonds (1939) indicates that parental attitudes towards their children are a most important factor in the children's self-concept. Parents seeking to develop a healthy, normal child need to help him to be accepting of himself. Medinnus (1965) states that in a study he found that those parents that are perceived to be loving have children with good self-concepts.

In summary, it is important for the child to perceive his parents in a positive way. Those children reporting a good relationship with parents generally have healthier personalities. However, because of the many factors and the complexity of their interactions upon a child's perception of his parent it becomes obvious that much research is needed in this area of inquiry. This study will consider some of the elements of the perceptions which the child has of his parents.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Rationale for Using Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Parents

The development of a healthy child has long been an important goal of psychologists. In order to better understand the child's personality, many psychologists have studied the parent-child relationship. The method to best study this relationship poses an interesting research problem in itself. Most researchers feel the best way to study the relationship is by studying the child's perceptions of the relationship.

Ausubel (1954) notes that the child's attitude toward the parent is not always a true reflection of the way the parent feels toward him. But, since Combs and Syngg (1959) note that behavior is the result of awareness and that what a child does is caused by how he feels and thinks, it becomes apparent that the child's perceptions of the relationship is of prime importance in his behavior.

Perceived attitudes are very important when considering the child's personality development. Adler (1927) and Stogdill (1937) indicate that the child's perceptions of the parent behavior has a direct bearing on the child's personality development, and is more important than what actually happened or is reported to have happened by observers or parents. The way a child perceives the situation affects behavior, as further indicated by Kurt Lewin (1951) when he states:

> Any behavior or any other change in a psychological field depends only upon psychological field at that time. (Kurt Lewin, 1951, p. 45)

Lewin, further stressing this point, writes:

> Objectively the psychology demands representing the field correctly as it exists for the individual in question at that particular time. For this field the child's friendships, conscious and "unconscious" goals, dreams, ideals and fears are at least as essential as any physical settings. (Kurt Lewin, 1951, p. 45)

Ausubel (1954) indicates two basic assumptions that are made when using the child's perceptions of his parent's behavior. First, he states that what a parent does is objective and real, but that it affects the child's ego and behavior only as he perceives the parental behavior. Therefore, in trying to identify those features of the environment that make up personality, it is best to explore how an individual perceives his world. Second, there seems to be good reason to research children's perceptions of parent's behavior and attitudes since this method will give a more accurate picture for interpreting research dealing with the child. Not only does it seem best to view parent-child research from the child's point of view, but Schaefer (1965) reports in his research that children have the ability to report parental behavior quite accurately. Rosen (1964) also supports the accuracy of child perceptions, but indicates that extra-familial influences must be considered when interpreting children's reports of their parent's behavior. He states:

> What the parent actually does may in some cases be less important so far as the child's perception is concerned than extra-familial influences which provide interpretation of parental behavior. (Rosen, 1964, p. 557)

Collectively, research indicates the importance of the parent-child relationship. However, it also indicates that the way in which the child perceives the relationship is not necessarily related to the parent's behavior or their perceptions of the same behavior. It also indicates that children can make useful perceptions of parents.

Younger children and parents

This section will attempt to cover some of the major experimental studies done in the past ten years on children's perceptions of the parent and how these perceptions affect personality formation. In addition, other family relationships that have a direct bearing on the child's ego development will be discussed.

One of the earliest researchers working with children's perceptions of parents is Earl S. Schaefer. Schaefer developed the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) comprised of 26 scales. This paper was read at the American Psychological Association in 1961. The instrument was first known as Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (RPBI), but after 1965 it became known as CRPBI.

In addition to Schaefer's work, Roe and Siegelman (1963) have developed the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire. They indicate that they have been able to isolate three factors (loving-rejecting, casual-demanding, overt-attention) from ten scales.

Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) analyzed two separate groups of boys and girls. The purpose of the second study was to see if there was consistency in the

two samples using a sample different in age, social class and a somewhat different instrument. The findings indicate a very significant consistency in the two groups. They further noted:

> Differences between maternal and paternal behavior were highly consistent between the two samples, suggesting that these roles may be stable cross samples differing in age and social class. Mothers appear to be consistently perceived as more nurturant and as more controlling through indirect, covert methods by both boys and girls. Difference between boys and girls reports of mother and of father were different for all comparisons in both samples, suggesting that there may be an interaction between two or more of the following variables: sex of parent, sex of child, age of child, social class, and religious affiliation. (Droppleman and Schaefer, 1963, p. 648)

These findings seem to indicate that there are many areas in which boys and girls perceive parents in a similar way, but that other factors do cause differences in perceptions.

Kagan and Lemkin (1960) compared 35 girls and 32 boys whose median age was five to six for the subjects tested. They were interested in how well early school age children could conceptualize parental roles, and how they specifically characterized each parent. As expected from other research, some already cited in this paper, the children indicated mother as more nurturant as compared with father. Father is seen as more competent, punitive and more frequently a figure representing fear and power. Both boys and girls agree that mother is nurturant, father punitive, but the girls perception of father is more ambivalent than the boys. It might be said that the girls characterized the father as more loving and more punitive than boys.

Kagan (1956), in a similar study with boys and girls, reports similar findings when he states:

> Both girls and boys stated that fathers were less friendly and more dominant, punitive and threatening than mothers. (Kagan, 1956, p. 258)

The perceptions of the parent by the child go further than just the parent-child relation. It has important ramifications in all aspects of the child's development.

An interesting research study carried out by Norman Livson (1966) dealt with child involvement with parents. He reports:

> Significantly more sons showed high involvement with their fathers than with their mothers; daughters showed no significant same sex preferences. Daughters, significantly more than sons, were strongly involved with their mothers; there was, however, no reliable son-daughter difference in level of involvement with the father. This sex difference in involvement had no obvious relation to differential treatment of boys and girls, since there were no significant son-daughter differences in any of the six measures of parental behavior. (Norman Livson, 1966, p. 176)
>
> . . . . . .
>
> For boys and girls alike the child's involvement with the mother was related to mother's involvement and to her affection, two aspects of maternal behavior which themselves were positively interrelated to both boys and girls families. While involvement with the father for girls was a function of the level of paternal involvement, for boys no direct relationship between any aspect of father's behavior and the son's involvement with him was found. There was only the suggestion that paternal involvement tends to preclude, or at least to have occurred in the absence of the son's strong involvement with his mother. Correspondingly, high maternal involvement was associated with the son's failure to have become closely attached to the father. (Norman Livson, 1966, p. 177)
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> . . . . . .
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> Considered together, these results fall into a clear pattern for girls: one or the other of the parents became strongly involved with the daughter who reciprocated this emotional attachment. While boys showed the same direct response to the mother's affection and interest, their involvement with the father seems to have been affected by some interplay among the family members . . . . (Norman Livson, 1966, pp. 177-178)

Many research studies also emphasize that boys and girls feel closer to mother in terms of warmth. Also, there is evidence that boys, in some ways, seem to be less satisfied with the home and their relationship with parents than girls. Much of this research has been collected from urban children.

Hawkes, Burchinal and Gardner (1957) using data from children from a small town and rural area, found similar perception. They noted:

> For the most part, the children chose responses which indicated that they were involved to a considerable degree in family activities and were reasonably well satisfied with their treatment in their homes and with their relationships with their parents . . . . that boys as compared with girls report less satisfactory relations with their parents. These results are in agreement with the findings of other researchers who found that boys were less satisfied with or more critical of their relations with their parents than girls. Although the children gave favorable ratings to both their parents for questions pertaining to number of characteristics of the parents, mothers were seen in a more favorable manner for some characteristics for both boys and girls. (Hawkes, Burchinal and Gardner (1957, pp. 398-399)

A study of Gulo (1966) of rural children indicated that the attitudes of the child towards the mother and father differ in dimensionality. The study also indicated that the child perceives mother as more complex, and this is connected to the way mother meets needs of the child.

The different ways of studying the parent-child relationship are many. However, one way not yet mentioned is social class and its impact on the parent-child relationship. Rosen (1964), using a structured questionnaire, examined 367 boys from middle and lower class homes. From the data collected he noted the following:

> . . . boys from middle class tend to perceive their parents as more competent, emotionally secure, accepting and interested in their children's performance than do lower class boys. Social class differences in the boy's perception of the parent were much greater with respect to the father than the mother. (Rosen, 1964, p. 1147)

Rosen further states:

> . . . the data show that the boy's perceptions of parental interest, support, competence, and security (particularly the father) are congruent with researcher's reports of differences in the socialization practices employed by various social classes. (Rosen, 1964, p. 1152)

Many researchers, including Rosen and Kohn, have indicated that parent-child relations are greatly affected by the social class of the parent, and the values he (the parent) draws from sociological perspective.

Kohn (1963) found that it was extremely difficult to show how social class affects behavior, nevertheless there was a positive relationship. Using "values" as a bridge from social class to his behavior, he postulates that social class is the conditioner of life values behavior.

Researchers have also looked at those children displaying problem behavior, having adjustment problems, and delinquent children; and questioned how this behavior might have been affected by the parent-child relationship.

The child deprived of parental contact is one area that has been studied with great interest. The effects on the child is the question being posed. The importance of parental contact is recognized as most vital. Alcorn (1962) believes that a child deprived of parental contact could easily form an unresolved Oedipus complex as described by Freud. This may lead to a homosexuality and femininity in boys. Alcorn (1962) stated: "It takes a good adult male contact and experience to keep this in check." (Alcorn, 1962, p. 343)

Rabkin (1964) compared three groups of disturbed boys (schezophrenic, neurotic and behavior disorder) whose ages ranged from nine to ten with normal children. He found that in the schezophrenics versus normal group that schezophrenic boys saw mother as more competent and punitive, and father as more nurturant than normal boys. In the neurotics versus normal group it was noted that neurotic boys reported father as more nurturant. And, between the behavior disorders versus normal group it was apparent that "more behavior disorder boys, like the schezophrenics and neurotics desired to grow up to be like mother." (Rabkin, 1964, p. 175)

In another study by McCord, McCord and Howard (1961) working with male children, it was found that aggressive boys perceive parents as rejecting and punitive and frequently using threats, while nonaggressive boys perceived parents as affectionate, nonpunitive and using few or no threats.

At the risk of oversimplification there seems little doubt that the parent does affect the type of behavior the child displays. With regard to juvenile delinquency, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck (1952) write:

> There is abundant eivdence for the conclusion that lawbreakers far more than the nondelinquents, grew up in a family atmosphere not conducive to the development of emotional well-integrated, happy youngsters conditioned to legitimate authority. (Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck (1952, p. 68)

Throughout the literature there seems to be emphasis placed on the importance of parental worth, understanding and flexibility.

Becker (1964) mentions the importance of the child seeing the parent as warm, thus becoming an object of importance; one who uses reason when disciplining, which is made possible by parental worth; and who is consistent in his behavior.

Adolescents and parents

Many of the research studies involving parent-child relationships that have been done in the last ten years have tried to differentiate between children and adolescents. This section will only deal with those studies that have researched the adolescent relationships with parents, and its affect on the adolescent. However, most researchers will agree that there are many commonalities in the two types of research. A study by Johnson (1952) was designated to see if there was any difference in adolescents who lived with parents and those who lived away from home. Johnson (1952) reported:

> Those adolescents who were separated from their parents were judged to have expressed more positive feelings toward parents, family, and father more frequently than did those adolescents who were living with their parents. (Johnson, 1952, p. 785)
>
> . . . . . .
>
> No significant differences were found between the two groups in their expression of negative feeling towards family, father, mother, or children. (Johnson, 1952, p. 786)

Gulo (1966), as was noted in the section entitled "Younger Children and Parents," investigated rural school children's perceptions of parents. He has also studied on the attitudes of rural adolescents attitudes toward their parents. Gulo (1967) was interested in looking at attitudes of adolescents toward parents and then seeing if there were differences in the attitudes as a result of age and sex. He found that there are similar attitudes among the same age and sex. However, some of these seem to change with age. Gulo (1967) further stated:

> Employing the strongest criteria available interesting-uninteresting and pleasant-unpleasant seem to be most permanent, persisting as they go through most grades in the attitudes of both sexes toward mother. (Gulo, 1967, p. 271)
>
> . . . . . .
>
> It can be seen as a result of this study that only two attitudes appear to have any permanence; and there are numerous suggestions of attitudes being specific at given ages. (Gulo, 1967, p. 271)

There are many articles that point out the importance of how an adolescent perceives the family power structure. However, as has been mentioned, age, sex and social class may have an effect on how the parents are perceived.

Bowerman and Elder Jr. (1964) believe that the research indicates that:

> 1. Adolescents are most likely to report that final decisions are made by both parents, and least likely to perceive mother as the principal decision maker on matters.
> 2. Boys are more likely than girls to see father as dominant in both conjugal and parental relations , and girls are more likely than boys to see mother as dominant in both areas. Sex differences will be most pronounced in perception of the authority pattern in child rearing. (Bowerman and Elder Jr., 1964, p. 554)

There is increasing evidence that it is most important for the adolescent to accept himself. Self-acceptance is a factor in self-adjustment.

Medinnus (1965), studying a group of 44 college freshmen, found that older adolescents who were high in adjustment and self-acceptance perceived their parents as not neglectful or rejecting, but loving. He further noted:

> Ss' self-regard was more closely related to their mothers' than their fathers' child rearing attitudes. Correlations between self-regard measures and evaluation of parents' child rearing attitudes were higher for boys than girls. (Medinnus, 1965, p. 150)

Siegelman (1965), working with college students, indicates the importance of love and acceptance on the part of parents. Siegelman found that introverted males reported their fathers and mothers as rejecting. Loving fathers seem to produce extrovert females. Love and warm parental behavior seem to have significant impact on adolescent healthy personalities.

Meissner (1965), supporting the findings of other researchers, found that adolescents answer questions about parents and family in relation to his own need, and that there was a difference between the mother and father. Meissner notes the following:

> Thirty-five per cent of the students felt that their fathers were cold or indifferent. Only 13 per cent thought this of their mothers. Fifty-one per cent thought their fathers more or less old-fashioned, 41 per cent regarded their mother that way. Thirty-nine per cent thought their fathers understood the subject's difficulties, 54 per cent thought their mother did. Thirteen per cent thought their fathers "nervous." The typical relationship that emerges is decidely more positive in regard to the mother than it is in regard to the father. Although the configuration may or may not run counter to the presumptive identification of the male child with father figure, it raises a question about the influence of typical parental perceptions of the course of child development. Apparently the father figure becomes fixed with the role of mediator of parental authority and restriction; while the mother is perceived as responding more to emotional needs for sympathy acceptance, and understanding. (Meissner, 1965, pp. 227-228)
>
> . . . . . .
>
> In general, the attitudes toward parents tapped by our questions were positive. The majority thought their parents were not overly careful or concerned about them (62 per cent) or overly strict (85 per cent). Most felt proud of their parents and liked to have them meet their friends (74 per cent). (Meissner, 1965, p. 228)

Although many studies paint an optimistic picture of parent-adolescent relations, there are still many real problems facing the adolescent. There,

too, is good reason to believe that the more advanced societies add to the problems of adolescence.

Schiamberg (1969) suggests that a modern society is keynoted by change. It becomes more difficult for the adolescent to find a place for himself in the world.

A modern changing society increases the problem for adolescents, but there is evidence to the effect that parents fail to see the changes happening or cannot see how the instability of the society causes problems for the adolescent.

Rue (1960) reports 150 adolescents commenting on their parents and the most frequent complaint was that parents did not see students as having any problems. If parents are perceived as feeling that the adolescent has no problems it could be that communication between the adolescent and the parent is a major problem.

Scherz (1967) believes that the great change in communication happens at the time of adolescence. He states:

> Communication becomes more difficult because the adolescent tends to be explosive, hostile, provocative, demanding, withholding, and withdrawing. Parents find themselves responding in kind to some extent. Furthermore, it is difficult for parents to accept the fact that the adolescent no longer wants to confide in them or let them know too much of what he is doing outside the family. To them, his withdraw represents a loss of intimacy. What makes communication even more difficult is the tendency of the youngster in the middle teens to communicate more by behavior and attitude than by verbalization. (Scherz, 1967, p. 213)

In a well known study by Block (1937) concerning the attitudes of some 500 high school students towards matters it was found that:

> (1) Differences in thinking regarding personal appearances, habits and manners; (2) differences in thinking regarding vocational, social, recreational and educational choices; (3) differences in thinking regarding the value of certain activities, habits, attitudes, etc., in the attainment of goals; and (4) differences in philosophy regarding recreational and physical activities. (Block, 1937, p. 199)

Block (1937) notes, as have many others, that what may be a major problem to a boy may not be a problem for a girl, and vice versa. The study also indicated that girls report significantly more problems than boys in the higher grades.

Further evidence of girls having problems in the home is the number who run away. Robey, Rosenwald, Snell and Lee (1964) found in a study of middle class suburban population that 55 per cent of the girls having serious enough problems to be brought to Court Clinic had already ran away from home. They further noted:

> In evaluating and treating these 42 runaway girls we saw a consistent pattern of family interaction that we feel is basic to the etiology of running away. This pattern includes a disturbed marital relationship, inadequate control by the parents over their own and the girl's impulses, deprivation of love of the mother and subtle pressure by her on the girl to take over the maternal role. (Robey, Rosenwald, Snell and Lee, 1964, p. 763)

Robey, Rosenwald, Snell and Lee (1964) noted that Oedipal complex has primarily been used to explain run away boys behavior. The Oedipal complex could apply to the behavior of run away girls. They feel that the girl who runs away may be threatened by an unconscious desire for incest with father.

Novak and Ferdinand Vanderveen (1969) report a study which compared adolescents in the family. Abnormal siblings were compared to one or more

normal brother or sister. Where possible the comparison was made between the same sex and the sibling closest to the same age of the patient was compared. Their finding showed:

> The results are that the patient group saw fathers and mothers as lower on the Total Score than their siblings. They saw both parents as lower on Positive Regard and Empathic Understanding and the father as lower on Genuineness. (Ferdinand Vanderveen, 1969, p. 563)

They further state:

> In addition to the above finding regarding the covariation of mother and father perceptions, there was a consistent and significant trend for all mothers to be rated somewhat high on the inventory variables than all fathers, though again with the clear exception of Unconditionality of Regard. It is noteworthy that Unconditionality of Regard completely failed to differentiate between any of the groups. (Ferdinand Vanderveen, 1969, p. 564)

Most researchers will agree that personality and child raising practices of parents are positively connected. However, most seem to focus on relation of the child and mother and few on the father-child relationship. One of the problems of this type of research is a suitable instrument.

Platt, Jurgensen and Chorost (1962) have attempted to make a comparison between the child rearing attitudes of fathers and mothers using a new attitude scale, The Inventory of Family Life and Attitudes. It is reported to have the ability to measure attitudes of mothers, fathers and adolescents. In this study the PARI was used to measure child rearing attitudes of 680 mothers and fathers of adolescents of both sex who were enrolled in Devereux Schools. These schools specialize in the treatment of behavioral and educational adjustment problems. They reported:

> Significant differences were found between the scores of mothers and fathers on 12 of the 23 scales of the Inventory Attitudes of Authoritarian Control and Parental Warmth were compared for the fathers and mothers. The Authoritarian Control scores for fathers were significantly higher than those of mothers. No significant difference was found between Parental Warmth scores of mothers and fathers. (Platt, Jurgensen and Chorost, 1962, p. 121)

Vogel and Lauterbach (1963) indicate similar findings in their research with normal and disturbed sons. They found:

> Normal adolescents (and to an even greater degree behavior problem adolescents) consider their mothers to be their chief source of nurturance, acceptance and affection, but the behavior problem adolescents (unlike the normal) perceive their fathers as harsh and rejecting. (Vogel and Lauterbach, 1963, p. 55)

Medinnus (1965) conducted a study with 30 nondelinquent boys and 30 delinquent, institutionalized boys. He used the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire which was developed by Roe and Siegelman (1963). Medinnus (1965) was careful to match father's occupational status and chronological age. All of the boys were members of the white race. The results of the questionnaire showed significant differences between the way the two groups reported attitudes toward parents. As might be expected, the nondelinquents were more favorable in their attitudes. Also, there was a greater difference between the two groups on the way they perceived father as compared to mother. The delinquent boys perceived father as more rejecting, demanding and neglecting than nondelinquents.

Siegelman (1965) found some of the same attitudes in working with females who were emotional or not mature as Medinnus (1965) noted. Siegelman reports:

> Females who are emotional or not mature described their father as rejecting, neglecting, and low on loving. Rejecting fathers were also associated with self-sufficient daughters and neglecting fathers with lax, rather than exacting, daughters. Sociable females

> noted protecting fathers, and trustful females reported demanding fathers. Females who were dominant, emotional and critical recalled neglecting mothers. Rejecting mothers were also reported by emotional females. Casual mothers and self-sufficient daughters. (Medinnus, 1965, pp. 561-562)

There is evidence that children from low economic backgrounds and subcultures perceive parents in somewhat the same way as middle class Americans. However, there seems to be good indication that subcultures do influence results.

Siegelman's (1965) sample of approximately 65 per cent Puerto Rican, 25 per cent Negro, and 10 per cent Italian found that children saw mothers as friendlier and more nurturant than fathers. Also, the sample indicated that girls perceived their mothers as more punishing, demanding and loving than fathers.

The research strongly indicates that studies can measure how adolescents perceive their parents; that mother and father are perceived differently, and that the sex, age and adjustment of the child will influence the way he or she perceives his parents. Also, that parental love and affection does have an important part to play in the normal development of the adolescent.

Self-Concept

There can be little doubt about the importance of the self-concept and the development of a healthy personality. Most researchers indicate that one's self-concept is the result of how a person perceives the feelings of others toward him, and this perceived feeling has a direct bearing on his attitude toward them. It has already been noted that parents are very important to the child's self-concept because of their closeness to the child, and that he perceives people

other than parents much as he perceives parents. Restated, if parents are perceived as warm and loving it carries over to other people. However, parents are not the only ones who affect a person's self-concepts; friends also are important in one's self-concept. A study by Kipnis (1961) of 87 students living together in a university dormitory gives some interesting findings on friends and self-evaluation. He states:

> 1. Ss perceived smaller differences between themselves and their best friends than between themselves and a least liked roommate. 2. Ss who perceived their best friends to be relatively unlike themselves changed their self-evaluations more in a six-week time interval than did Ss who perceived their best friends to be like themselves. 3. Ss changed their self-evaluations during the six-week time interval so that they perceived smaller differences between themselves and their best friends. This reduction in perceived difference was accomplished through a process such that at the end of the six weeks, Ss tended to evaluate themselves in the way that they had previously evaluated their best friends. 4. Ss who ascribed relatively "good" personality traits to their best friends, as compared with themselves, changed their self-evaluations so that they later ascribed more positive traits to themselves. Ss who gave their best friends relatively poor descriptions changed their self-evaluations in a negative direction. 5. Ss who ascribed more negative traits to their best friends than to themselves broke off their friendships more frequently than did Ss who ascribed more positive traits to their best friends than to themselves. (Kipnis, 1961, pp. 464-465)

Long, Ziller and Henderson (1968) also indicate the importance peers may have on the changing self-concept. They found that sex did make a difference on how peers affect self-concept. They report: " . . . the greater freedom of boys may lead to a greater social inclusiveness--a perception of the self as a part of a larger and more varied group than is the case for girls." (Long, Ziller and Henderson, 1968, p. 224)

. . . . . .

> . . . the boy during early and middle adolescence is relatively stable in his perceptions of distance from others, in contrast to the girl, who first withdraws and then reapproaches. This conclusion is supported by studies which find boys having fewer conflicts than girls with parents during this period, and by those reporting that the emotional crises and bad relations with parents found in junior high girls are not found for boys. In addition to those findings differentiating the sexes, there are a number common to both sexes. One of the most striking of these is the high position accorded father in the power items, in contrast to teacher or principal. In addition, father is placed increasingly higher as a function of increased grade, particularly by the boys. (Long, Ziller and Henderson, 1968, p. 226)

Long, Ziller and Henderson (1968) further indicate that there is increased dependence by the adolescent in the early adolescent years, but this is followed by a decrease in dependency and an increase in self-esteem with increasing age.

Research dealing with the self-concept and client-centered therapy is numerous. Rogers and Dymond (1954) indicate the importance of the client to perceive the therapist different from himself at the beginning of treatment. The ideal being if the therapist is an important person to the client he will (hopefully) see less difference between himself and the therapist as treatment continues and he will have a more positive self-picture. The new self would be more congruent with the persons self-ideal.

Chrodorkoff (1954) states:

> The greater the correspondence between the perceived and ideal self, the more adequate the individuals personal adjustment. (Chrodorkoff, 1954, p. 268)

Stock (1949) found that people who have negative feelings toward themselves usually feel dislike for other people. A person's self-attitudes affects

his emotional involvement with other people. It would seem that a person's self-concept is the single most important factor in his mental health and in facilitating meaningful involvement with others.

Indians and Navajos

There are many problems that different Indian tribes have in common. Some of the problems Indians have are very similar to other minority groups living in America.

Havighurst (1958) writes that the needs of any race of people or culture are similar in that all need to belong, need to participate, need recognition, and need security. Different cultures meet these common needs in different ways, which causes problems for minorities trying to move into the Anglo community. Differing value systems cause many problems for Indians. Indians looking at the Anglo culture often see only how it differs from their own, which leads to maladjustment.

Cockrill (1957), working with Indian students, found that poor attitude was a result of the inability of students to relate to a new culture. The poor attitude on the part of the student often led to behavior problems.

According to Krush, Bjork, Sindell and Nelle (1965) an Anglo society which necessitates change for the Indian can cause disorganization of the child's personality. Psychologists and sociologists have found other deprived minority groups suffering from the same problem.

The Anglo society has sterotyped Indians as shy, drunken, lazy, and quiet, but never as high achievers. Lately, many people are asking what has been

holding the Indian back. Some authorities point to poor self-concept, inability to relate to Anglo culture, child rearing practices of real parents, and the boarding schools.

Spilka (1965) believes that the child rearing practices of Indian people give the child too much freedom, which later causes him to reject authority. Children are taught to mind by shaming or by a warning. Few things are not right or wrong, but nothing should be done in excess. Love is seldom withdrawn for failure to obey, but a child may be warned or shamed about other consequences.

Strict discipline or threats as a means of enforcing behavioral standards upon an Indian often cause him to withdraw or run away.

Navajo indians

Of all the Indians living in America, the Navajo is the largest tribe and one of the most traditional. Bylund (1970) quoting Wise (1970) indicates that by the close of 1969 the area population was 129,265. The Bureau of Indian Affairs lists the area as the reservation proper and those areas outside the reservation which are close to the reservation and where Navajos are in the majority and live the traditional way of life. The Navajo reservation at present is more than 15,000,000 acres and is located in Southeastern Utah, Northwestern New Mexico and Northeastern Arizona.

Traditionally, women are the property owners (a matrilineal society). The men, when they marry, become a part of the wifes family. Navajo lack the Calvinistic spirit of competition found in the Anglo society. It would be contrary

to acceptable behavior for a Navajo to compete against a member of his extended family or the tribe.

Kluckhohn and Leighton (1962) note that wealth is looked upon in reference to the family. They further state:

> The Navajo lack of stress upon the success goal has its basis in childhood training but is reinforced by various patterns of adult life. A white man may start out to make a fortune and continue piling it up until he is a millionaire, where a Navajo, though also interested in accumulating possessions, will stop when he is comfortably off, or even sooner, partly for fear of being called a witch if he is too successful. (Kluckhohn and Leighton, 1962, p. 301)

Kluckhohn and Leighton also observed that work for a Navajo is less personal than it is for an Anglo American. The Navajo works to satisfy his immediate needs and those of the family. Guilt and fear are less prevalent as motivators than is the case in the Anglo society.

The Navajo culture and the Anglo culture both put great value on the child. The child rearing practices of the Navajo are very loving and warm.

According to Leighton and Kluckhohn (1948) the Navajo baby is given the feeling of being accepted and loved by the consistent attention given him by parents and relatives. Few children receive strict discipline, and psychologists believe this is good. However, others have stated that this traditional Indian care of the child may have worked in the past in the traditional culture, but causes problems for the children in an Anglo society.

According to Bryde (1964) the Indian of the traditional past had great freedom but there was control on his behavior. If he got out of line he was laughed at by his own people. Also, the need to do the right thing was as

clear as the laws of nature. If he went against the laws of nature he would not survive. Today the motivation that curbed the Indian does not exist. This has caused him problems.

In the Navajo society the father seems to hold a somewhat different relationship than in the Anglo society. Fathers are away from home much of the time. Leighton and Kluckhohn (1948) indicate that fathers of the Navajo are somewhat like the sailor in an Anglo society, and there is less sentimental attachment. The father, while he teaches the son, is also a playful companion. Much of the discipline is done by the mother, brother and grandparents. Many of the needs that are fulfilled by the father are parcelled out among other males in the extended family. The job of mother is also extended to the other members of the family. The child never has to rely on his security coming from a single mother or father.

Many researchers have placed great emphasis on the importance of mother in a matriarchal society; but, it seems that because of the importance of the extended family in the Navajo culture that the importance of the mother's role may have been over-emphasized.

Reeder (1970) found mother was not as important in the Navajo's life as their white teachers had thought they were. He states:

> Only 27 per cent of the students indicated "Mother is Most" as belonging to the Navajo culture while 71 per cent of the teachers made this observation. (Reeder, 1970, p. 22)

Evidence is abundant showing the problems of the Indian and the Navajo child, and the child rearing practices that affect the child's ego identity must

bear some responsibility for the problem even though these practices might have been ideal for a traditional society.

Kluckhohn (1944) wrote: "Navajo personality is not geared to meet the demands of white men and the psychological atmosphere of the schools in which these children find themselves." (Kluckhohn, 1944, p. 76)

The problems of white children have, in recent years, been attributed to the confusion of a complete change in society. If this be the case, the problems for the traditional Indian child trying to bridge the gap between his culture and the Anglo culture are greatly increased.

PROCEDURE

Objectives and Questions

Using Leary's Interpersonal Check List the study was interested in comparing eight different attitudes students held toward their parents. The following objectives were considered:

1. To determine different attitudes towards each parent by the students in the three different educational institutions.

2. To determine whether there will be a difference in the ways students perceive mother and father in the same school.

3. To determine whether there is a difference between the schools in students perceptions of mothers and fathers.

4. To determine if culture is a factor that will affect the responses of students.

Hypotheses

To give form and order to this study the above objectives and questions will be stated in the following null hypotheses form.

1. There will be no significant relationships between the real and ideal attitudes toward mother and father as reported by the students on the Interpersonal Check List at each of the study schools. To further clarify, the following two related questions were posed: The first asked, will one school

show more relationships between real and ideal than others? And the second questioned, in what areas will these relationships be demonstrated?

2. There will be no significant difference between the variance of the student's responses of the real or ideal for each parent among the schools on eight attitude factors as surveyed by the Interpersonal Check List at each of the study schools.

Subjects and Sampling Procedures

The data was collected from Bonneville High School (Washington Terrace, Utah), State Industrial School (North Ogden, Utah), and Intermountain School (Brigham City, Utah).

A total of 315 students were tested at the three different schools. Students of both sexes, ages ranging from 15 to 18, were administered Leary's (1956) Interpersonal Check List.

Bonneville high school

At Bonneville High School tests were taken in the social studies classes. Because of their accessibility, the students at this school were selected to act as the control group. Social studies classes at Bonneville High School are divided so that about 50 per cent of the senior class take a class in social studies the first half of the year, and the remaining 50 per cent the last half of the year. The time a particular student takes a social studies class depends on his other classes. Tests were given at random (as best conditions would

permit) to 139 students of the approximately 250 students enrolled in social studies. Only those students who knew both mother and father were included.

Intermountain school

Students at Intermountain School whose ages ranged from 16 to 18 were tested. A total of 102 students were tested. This number represented all the students in the above age group except for absentees due to illness and those students who indicated that they did not know their mother or father well enough to take the test.

Intermountain School is a coeducational, all Navajo, school with students whose ages range from 12 to 23. It is the largest boarding school in the United States, with a population as large as 2300 in recent years. It is operated and directed by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Intermountain School was chosen because it is where the author has been employed for the past three and a half years as a social studies teacher and senior advisor.

State Industrial School

Students at the State Industrial School whose ages ranged from 15 to 18 were tested. All students in this age range were asked to take the test (this included about 74 students). Only 50 tests were used either because the students did not finish or wrote on the test that they were not giving accurate information. Also, there were some of the 24 students who did not complete the test that wrote they had never known a father or a mother. One girl wrote that she had never known her father and that the world would be a better place if there were no men.

The State Industrial School is a state supported school for juvenile delinquents. This school was selected to add contrast and because of its accessibility.

Random sampling

The 139 tests at Bonneville High School and the 102 tests at Intermountain School were taken at random so that a group of 50 were remaining from each group. This meant that there were now 50 tests for each of the three schools.

Instrument

The Interpersonal Check List has a list of 128 descriptive concepts. Leary (1956) would classify this study as a "Level II, Conscious Description." (Leary, 1956, p. 11) Each student gives a conscious report to all 128 items for each person he is asked to describe.

Content, validity and test-retest reliability

Luckey (1961), points out that the Interpersonal Check List has content validity:

> When used as a classification of direct surface statements that a subject makes about himself and others, the check list may be considered a valid expression of the way he chooses to present himself and his view of the world. On this basis the ICL can be said to have content validity. (Luckey, 1961, p. 237)

Leary (1956) reports that average test-retest reliability range from +.75 to +.83 (average +.78) when correlations were done on each category.

Test categories

The 128 descriptive test items are divided into eight interpersonal categories, and each category is made up of 16 items. The categories are equally divided on a circular profile. The intersecting lines on the circle graph form a continuum. Items located near the center of the circle graph would generally be thought of as positive and items near the outer edge of the circle are negative personality classifications. A score is determined by the number of checks in a given category. The categories are divided into eight parts.

Description of categories

Managerial-autocratic: This category includes items such as; helpful, well thought of, respected by others, and big-hearted near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; dictatorial, expects everyone to admire him, manages others, and tries to be too successful, appear.

Competitive-explorative: This category includes items such as; able to take care of self, self-respecting, businesslike, and independent, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; cold and unfeeling, egotistical and conceited, shrewd and calculating, and somewhat snobbish, appear.

Blunt-aggressive: This category includes items such as; can be frank and honest, can be strict if necessary, irritable, and firm but just, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; hard-hearted, cruel and unkind, often unfriendly and impatient with others, appear.

Skeptical-distrustful: This category includes such items as; can complain if necessary, able to doubt others, skeptical, and hard to impress, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; rebels against everything, distrusts everybody, compaining, and slow to forget a wrong, appear.

Modest-self effacing: This category includes items such as; able to criticize self, can be obedient, apologetic, and modest, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; always ashamed of self, spineless, self-punishing, and obeys too willingly, appear.

Docile-dependent: This category includes items such as; grateful, appreciative, often helped by others, and accepts advice readily, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; clinging vine, will believe anyone, agrees with everyone, lets others make decisions, and wants everyones love, appear.

Cooperative-over conventional: This category includes items such as; cooperative, friendly, wants everyone to like him, and warm, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; agrees with everyone, loves everyone, wants everyones love, and friendly all the time, appear.

Responsible-over generous: This category includes items such as; helpful, considerate, bighearted and unselfish, and tender and softhearted, near the center of the circle graph. Near the outer edge of the circle graph items such as; spoils

people with kindness, tries to comfort everyone, too willing to give to others, and too lenient with others, appear.

Procedures for Administration of the Test

Intermountain School

Permission was granted by the school principal to give the Interpersonal Check List during social studies and to use social studies teachers where necessary. The majority of the tests were administered by the author. However, when this was not possible social studies teachers administered the Interpersonal Check List with the author's supervision.

Students were asked to read the instructions as they were read aloud by the test administrator. Each of the 128 items were then read aloud and questions could be asked by students if further clarification was needed. Students were asked to proceed on their own but to raise their hands if they encountered any problems. Students who could not describe their mother or father for any reason were excluded, and no students were permitted to take the test whose reading score was below 7.0 according to the California Reading Test.

Students were allowed as much time as they needed--some taking as long as one and a half hours.

State Industrial School

Permission was obtained by a teacher counselor from the proper authorities to give the tests during the English period. Because boys and girls are segragated the Interpersonal Check List was given to the boys by the teacher

counselor, and to the girls by an English teacher under the supervision of the teacher counselor.

Test instructions were the same as Intermountain School except that there was no exclusion from the test for any reason except that a boy or girl had to be at least 15 years of age or because of absence due to illness. Students were asked to write on the test if they could not identify a mother or father and to go on to the next part.

It would have been a problem to exclude students from the test because there was no one to provide supervision. It was felt that the majority of the students would not have a problem reading the test and that those not knowing their mother or father could so indicate on the test.

Bonneville High School

Permission was obtained from the proper school authorities by a school counselor to test students taking social studies the second half of the year. The author and the school counselor instructed social studies teachers in giving the test.

Test instructions were read aloud while students read them silently. Students were asked to request help if they needed it. Students who did not know their father or mother were excluded from taking the test.

RESULTS

The comparison of three schools was determined by using an analysis of variance of 150 scores (50 at each school) as reported on the Interpersonal Check List. The treatment also indicated significant relationships between real and ideal fathers and mothers at each school.

The first two pages of tables that are listed as Table 1 and 2 report a correlation of real versus ideal responses for fathers and for mothers at each of the three schools.

Table 1 shows that students at Intermountain School indicated significant relationships between real and ideal fathers on eight of eight factors, and the State Industrial School students indicated significant relationships between real and ideal fathers on five of eight factors. Bonneville High School students did not indicate any significant correlations on any of the eight attitude factors.

Table 2 shows that students at Intermountain School indicated significant correlations on all eight attitude factors for mother as did the students at the State Industrial School. However, students at Bonneville High School did not indicate any significant correlations on any of the eight attitude factors.

Tables 3-10 shows seven of sixteen significant differences among the variances of the schools.

Tables 11-18 shows six of sixteen significant differences among the variances of the schools.

Summary of Results

In the students perceptions of real and ideal fathers and mothers, the most apparent statistical result was that Intermountain School students and the State Industrial School students noted significant relationships between real and ideal mothers in all eight factors, whereas, in comparison, the "regular" high school did not.

Intermountain students and State Industrial students also demonstrated very similar perceptions in noting the relationships between real and ideal fathers. Intermountain students indicated a positive relationship between real and ideal fathers on eight of eight factors, while Industrial students showed a positive relationship on five of eight factors.

The results of the analysis of variance among the schools produce significant differences on thirteen of thirty-two items of comparison. Significants were:

Ideal Fathers	Managerial-Autocratic and Rebellious-Distrustful
Real Fathers	Competitive-Narcissistic, Aggressive-Sadistic, Rebellious-Distrustful, Self Effacing-Masochistic and Coop-Over Conventional
Ideal Mothers	Managerial-Autocratic, Competitive-Narcissistic, Aggressive-Sadistic and Rebellious-Distrustful
Real Mothers	Coop-Over Conventional and Responsible-Hypernormal

The general picture of nonsignificants was that Docile-Dependent was the only factor of the eight attitude factors that had no significance for real or

ideal. Three other factors (Managerial-Autocratic, Self Effacing-Masochistic and Responsible-Hypernormal) produce only one significant difference.

Table 1. Comparison of the relation between real and ideal fathers at each of the schools on eight factors

	AP	BC	DE	FG	HI	JK	LM	NO
A	CORR .64	CORR .63	CORR .70	CORR .70	CORR .63	CORR .59	CORR .42	CORR .65
	F 33.69**	F 32.87**	F 48.25**	F 47.55**	F 32.95**	F 26.91**	F 10.29**	F 35.88**
B	CORR .18	CORR .53	CORR .30	CORR .32	CORR .47	CORR .45	CORR .20	CORR .15
	F 1.62	F 19.56**	F 4.76*	F 5.62*	F 14.15**	F 12.73**	F 2.21	F 1.18
C	CORR -.05	CORR -.03	CORR -.07	CORR -.11	CORR .10	CORR .06	CORR .25	CORR -.05
	.15	.04	.26	.61	.55	.21	3.22	.14

* Significant beyond the .05 level

** Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 2. Comparison of the relationship between real and ideal mothers at each of the schools on eight factors

	AP	BC	DE	FG	HI	JK	LM	NO
A	CORR .51	CORR .66	CORR .73	CORR .80	CORR .74	CORR .60	CORR .43	CORR .63
	F 17.20**	F 37.28**	F 54.82**	F 86.47**	F 58.61**	F 27.41**	F 10.91**	F 32.80**
B	CORR .29	CORR .56	CORR .42	CORR .57	CORR .47	CORR .58	CORR .46	CORR .39
	F 4.61*	F 21.95**	F 10.28**	F 23.77**	F 14.28**	F 27.76**	F 12.92**	F 8.89**
C	CORR .21	CORR .14	CORR .24	CORR .12	CORR .22	CORR .19	CORR .18	CORR .16
	F 2.33	F 1.04	F 3.11	F .71	F 2.64	F 1.97	F 1.61	F 1.40

* Significant beyond the .05 level

** Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 3. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor AP for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	AP	2			
Schools			A - 7.68	3.22	
			B - 8.90	2.54	2.55
			C - 8.28	2.23	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	AP	2			
Schools			A - 8.44	2.64	
			B - 9.44	2.97	1.35
			C - 9.04	3.51	
Error 147					

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 4. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor BC for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	BC	2			
Schools			A - 5.90	2.99	
			B - 7.32	3.35	3.40*
			C - 6.68	2.04	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	BC	2			
Schools			A - 6.68	2.06	
			B - 8.10	3.20	4.06*
			C - 6.90	2.66	
Error 147					

* Significant beyond the .05 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 5. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor DE for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	DE	2			
Schools			A - 5.36	3.21	
			B - 6.32	2.44	2.26
			C - 5.38	1.70	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	DE	2			
Schools			A - 6.28	2.99	
			B - 8.02	3.04	4.15*
			C - 7.42	3.14	
Error 147					

* Significant beyond the .05 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 6. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor FG for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	FG	2			
Schools			A - 3.38	2.43	
			B - 3.46	2.90	7.31**
			C - 1.86	1.51	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	FG	2			
Schools			A - 4.50	2.90	
			B - 6.16	3.75	3.56*
			C - 6.08	3.78	
Error 147					

* Significant beyond the .05 level

** Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 7. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor HI for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	HI	2			
Schools			A - 3.86	2.49	
			B - 3.88	2.76	1.14
			C - 3.26	1.57	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	HI	2			
Schools			A - 3.80		
			B - 4.64	2.98	6.38**
			C - 2.70	2.65	
Error 147					

** Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 8 Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor JK for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	JK	2			
Schools			A - 5.48	2.82	
			B - 6.10	3.09	.76
			C - 5.60	1.88	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	JK	2			
Schools			A - 6.32	2.42	
			B - 5.90	2.98	.75
			C - 4.28	2.87	
Error 147					

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 9. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor LM for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	LM	2			
Schools			A - 8.42	3.85	
			B - 7.86	4.04	.54
			C - 8.60	3.15	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	LM	2			
Schools			A - 8.80	3.42	
			B - 7.06	3.63	7.84**
			C - 6.04	3.49	
Error 147					

**Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 10 Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor NO for fathers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	NO	2			
Schools			A - 6.78	3.82	
			B - 7.86	3.59	1.55
			C - 7.80	2.83	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	NO	2			
Schools			A - 7.28	3.20	
			B - 6.44	3.65	2.59
			C - 5.70	3.52	
Error 147					

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 11. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor AP for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	AP	2			
Schools			A - 7.12	2.95	
			B - 8.40	2.57	3.93*
			C - 7.16	2.17	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	AP	2			
Schools			A - 7.76	2.67	
			B - 9.02	3.06	2.26
			C - 8.36	3.13	
Error 147					

* Significant beyond the .05 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 12. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor BC for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	BC	2			
Schools			A - 5.72	5.18	
			B - 7.10	2.68	4.37*
			C - 5.72	2.10	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	BC	2			
Schools			A - 6.34	2.56	
			B - 7.34	3.36	2.23
			C - 6.20	2.83	
Error 147					

* Significant beyond the .05 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 13. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor DE for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	DE	2			
Schools			A - 5.26	3.16	
			B - 6.12	2.60	4.39*
			C - 4.54	2.12	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	DE	2			
Schools			A - 5.90	2.80	
			B - 7.14	3.37	2.08
			C - 6.44	2.92	
Error 147					

* Significant beyond the .05 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 14. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor FG for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	FG	2			
Schools			A - 3.08	2.21	
			B - 3.30	2.90	7.13**
			C - 1.70	1.58	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	FG	2			
Schools			A - 4.02	2.66	
			B - 5.30	3.72	2.32
			C - 5.30	3.77	
Error 147					

** Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 15. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor HI for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	HI	2			
Schools			A - 3.76	2.51	
			B - 4.18	2.84	1.18
			C - 3.42	1.98	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	HI	2			
Schools			A - 4.52	2.68	
			B - 5.68	3.81	2.91
			C - 4.28	2.66	
Error 147					

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 16. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor JK for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	JK	2			
Schools			A - 5.50	2.79	
			B - 6.06	2.90	1.08
			C - 5.30	2.27	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	JK	2			
Schools			A - 6.44	3.00	
			B - 7.24	3.42	2.34
			C - 5.90	2.87	
Error 147					

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 17. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor LM for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	LM	2			
Schools			A - 8.74	3.87	
			B - 8.02	4.09	.42
			C - 8.42	3.75	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	LM	2			
Schools			A - 9.22	3.73	
			B - 8.52	3.92	4.21**
			C - 7.04	3.83	
Error 147					

** Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

Table 18. Analysis of variance for ideal and real of students from three different high schools using Leary's Interpersonal Check List on factor NO for mothers

Analysis of Variance	Factor	DF	Means	SD	F
Variable 1 (Ideal)	NO	2			
Schools			A - 6.88	4.02	
			B - 7.76	3.27	1.37
			C - 8.02	3.45	
Error 147					
Variable 2 (Real)	NO	2			
Schools			A - 7.96	3.88	
			B - 9.52	3.94	5.03**
			C - 7.16	3.49	
Error 147					

**Significant beyond the .01 level

A - Intermountain School

B - State Industrial School

C - Bonneville High School

DISCUSSION

Limitations

1. A major limitation in this study is that the Navajo people are changing their values and culture. The extended family is not as important as it once was. The Navajo people are becoming better educated and demanding an important part in shaping their own destiny. The student that took part in this study may be quite different in his values and attitudes from a Navajo taking the test in five or ten years.

2. Another limitation of the study is that the students who were tested at the State Industrial School are not representative of all schools for juvenile delinquents. Most schools for delinquents will have a greater per cent of minority students than is normally found in the population of this area. In this regard the State Industrial School in North Ogden does not represent a typical institution if one does exist. And, of course, the number of minority students at any institution will somewhat depend on the population of the area where the school is located. Students from different backgrounds and representing different minority groups could have an affect on attitudes toward parents.

3. One other limitation was the sampling procedure at Bonneville High School. A random sample technique was not used. However, about half of the senior students at Bonneville take social studies the first semester and the second half. An attempt was made to give the test to all those who were taking

social studies the second semester. Students determine which semester to take social studies mainly by how a particular social studies class will fit in with their other classes.

In general, the first two limitations present more serious problems to this study than does the last. It would be of great interest to the author to see a similar research done in five years using Navajo students from a boarding school, students from the Ogden State Industrial School and one other industrial school out of the state.

Implications

It was interesting to note that Intermountain School students and Industrial School students demonstrated similar perceptions relative to real and ideal parental behavior when compared to Bonneville High School students. Because these two groups produced 13 to 16 similar positive relationships, it would lead one to conclude that among sub-culture groups and institutionalized delinquents there are more similarities between the way they perceive their parents real behavior and the way they wished their parents behavior might be.

The fact that Industrial School students perceived positive relationships between real and ideal mother behavior on all eight factors and indicated father as having inconsistencies on only three of these factors leads one to suspect that it is the multiple role, as dictated by many disrupted family organizations that mothers are forced to play, that may well have contributed to these results. Nearly one-fourth of the students at the State Industrial School who took the test were let out of the final fifty because they had no father, and it is not unreasonable to believe that many of the others did not know their fathers well.

Compared to Intermountain School and the Industrial School, students at Bonneville High School showed response patterns that were more consistent, but with lower correlations. The reason for the lack of positive relationships between real and ideal fathers and mothers as indicated by the Bonneville students perceptions may be related to a keener awareness of parents behavior, or more freedom in discussing it.

It may be that separation from parents tends to create more positive regard for mother and father. Also, the greater impact of internalization of ideals (Judo-Christian values) could cause Bonneville students to find fault in their parents.

There should be a lack of tempering of Bonneville students in their limited exposure to some harsh realistic experiences which has preserved their idealism. Comforts of white, middle-class society do not lend themselves to tempering of idealistic notions. The feeling that there is a large gap between real and ideal on the part of Bonneville students could form the basis for students to do better than their parents, and to strive for perfection in life.

The Intermountain School and the State Industrial School have shown greater similarities in response patterns in that both differ from a "typical" pattern. Zollinger (1969) suggests that Indians and those found in penal institutions have many similar attitudes. He further indicated that Indians tend toward poor social adjustment because of traditional-bound values, customs and attitudes. There are indications that the findings in this research bear this out. Not that Indians are delinquent, but they have some kind of cultural dissociation comparable to that of delinquents.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The essential purpose of this research project was to examine the different attitude of students in three different educational settings toward their parents. The study yielded data on the relationship between perceived real and ideal parents on eight attitude factors at all three schools.

The results made it possible to see if one school had more significant relationships than the others as to one parent or the other at any particular school or group of schools on the eight attitude factors. In addition to the correlations, an analysis of variance was computed for real and ideal among the schools.

The subjects for this study were students from Intermountain Indian School, Bonneville High School and the State Industrial School who, during the second semester (1969) were enrolled in social studies and english.

The subjects answered 128 questions on the Interpersonal Check List about their mother and the same 128 questions about their father. Then, they were asked to repeat the same questions about what they would consider an ideal father and mother would be like.

Hypotheses One

There will be no significant relationships between real and ideal attitudes toward mother and father as reported by the students on the Interpersonal Check

List at each of the study schools. To further clarify, the following two related questions were posed: The first asked, will one school show more relationships between real and ideal than others? And the second questioned, in what areas will these relationships be demonstrated?

There was a positive relationship between Intermountain School students perceptions of the real and ideal mothers and fathers on eight of eight attitude factors. The range of correlation was from positive .43 to positive .80 and significant beyond the .01 level on all of these correlations.

There was a positive relationship between the State Industrial School students perception of real and ideal mothers. The range of correlations was from positive .29 to positive .58. Seven of these were significant beyond the .05 level. Five of the eight factors related to students perceptions of real and ideal fathers showed a positive correlation. The range was from positive .30 to positive .53. Three were significant beyond the .01 level. Two were significant beyond the .05 level, and three of the factors showed no significant relationship.

There were no significant relationships at Bonneville High School between the students perceptions of the real and ideal mother and father on eight of eight factors. The range was a negative .11 to positive .25.

Intermountain School students showed significant relationships between real and ideal fathers and mothers beyond the .01 level on 16 of 16 factors. The State Industrial School students showed a positive relationship between real and ideal fathers and mothers on 13 of 16 factors. However, only ten of these were significant beyond the .01 level.

Bonneville High School students showed no significant relationships between real and ideal for mother and father on 16 of 16 factors.

Hypothesis Two

There will be no significant difference between the variance of the student's responses of real and ideal for each parent among the schools on eight attitude factors as surveyed by the Interpersonal Check List at each of the study schools.

Significant differences were noted among the variances of student's responses as follows: Ideal fathers, two of eight (BC, FG); real fathers, five of eight (BC, DE, FG, HI, LM); ideal mothers, four of eight (AP, BC, DE, FG); and real mothers, two of eight (LM, NO). There was a combined total of 13 significant factors out of a possible 32.

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APPENDIXES

The Interpersonal Check List

SCHOOL_____AGE_____SEX____DATE_____

DATE OF BIRTH_____PLACE OF BIRTH_____

CITY_____GRADE (No.of full school years completed) _____

GROUP_____OTHER_____TESTING NO._____

DIRECTIONS: This booklet contains a list of descriptive words and phrases which you will use in describing yourself and members of your family or members of your group. The test administrator will indicate which persons you are to describe. Write their names in the spaces prepared at the top of the inside pages. In front of each item are columns of answer spaces. The first column is for yourself, and there is another column for each of the persons you will describe.

Read the items quickly and fill in the first circle in front of each item you consider to be generally descriptive of yourself at the present time. Leave the answer space blank when an item does not describe you. In the example below, the subject (Column 1) has indicated that Item A is true and and item B is false as applied to him.

Item

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

A ● ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ **well-behaved**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

B ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ **suspicious**

After you have gone through the list marking those items which apply to you, return to the beginning and consider the next person you have been asked to describe, marking the second column of answer spaces for every item you consider to be descriptive of him (or her). Proceed in the same way to describe the other persons indicated by the test administrator. Always complete your description of one person before starting the next.

Your first impression is generally the best so work quickly and don't be concerned about duplications, contradictions, or being exact. If you feel much doubt whether an item applies, leave it blank.

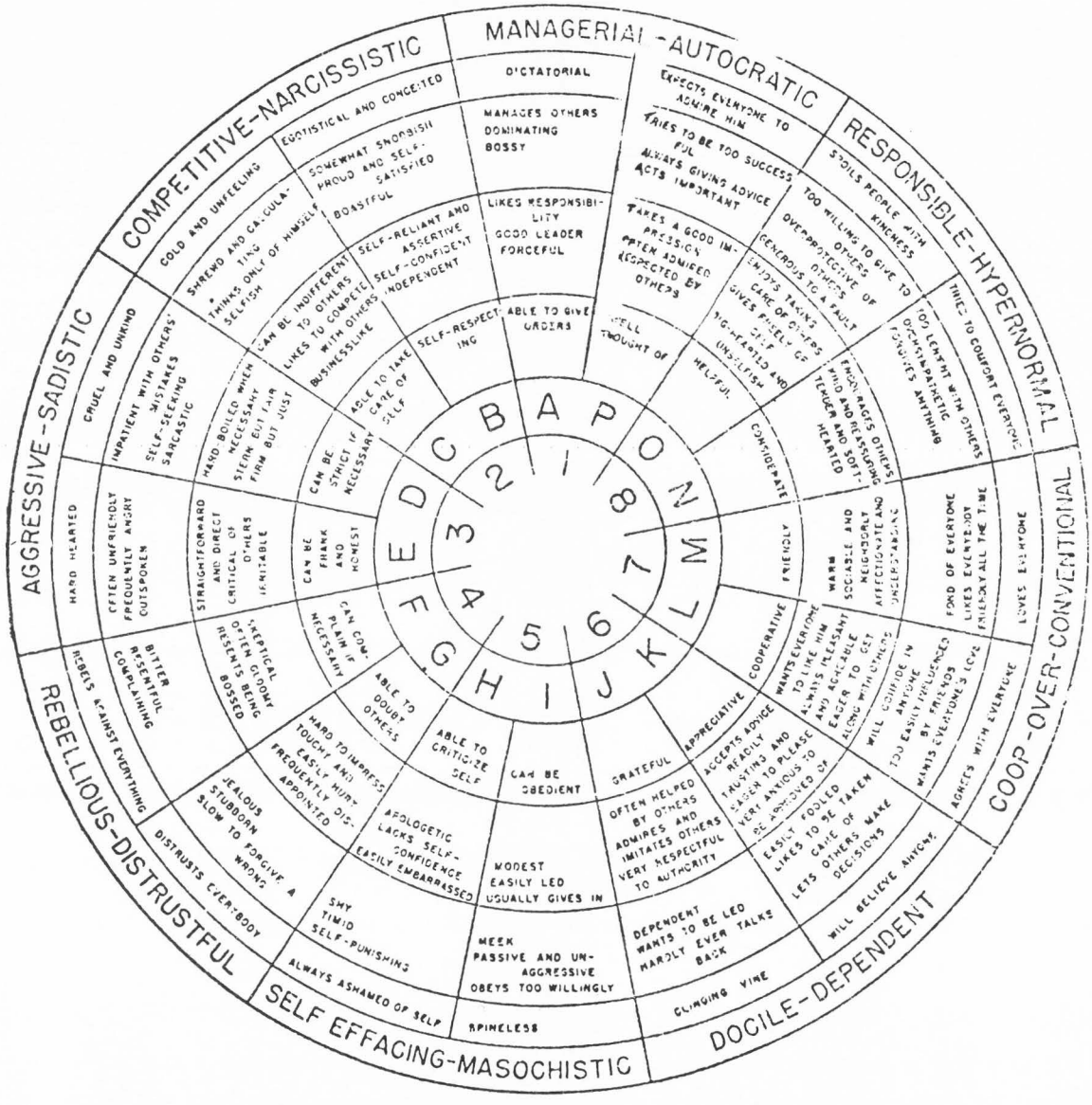
Col. 6 **IDEAL MOTHER**

		Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6	Col. 7	Col. 8
		Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials	Initials
97 tries to be too successful	P								
98 expects everyone to admire him	P	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP	AP
99 manages others	A								
100 dictatorial	A	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC	BC
101 somewhat snobbish	B								
102 egotistical and conceited	B	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE	DE
103 selfish	C								
104 cold and unfeeling	C	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG	FG
105 sarcastic	D								
106 cruel and unkind	D	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI	HI
107 frequently angry	E								
108 hard-hearted	E	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK	JK
109 resentful	F								
110 rebels against everything	F	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM	LM
111 stubborn	G								
112 distrusts everybody	G	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
113 timid	H	D							
114 always ashamed of self	H	S							
115 obeys too willingly	I	L							
116 spineless	I	H							
117 hardly ever talks back	J								
118 clinging vine	J								
119 likes to be taken care of	K								
120 will believe anyone	K	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM	DOM
121 wants everyone's love	L								
122 agrees with everyone	L	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV	LOV
123 friendly all the time	M								
124 loves everyone	M								
125 too lenient with others	N								
126 tries to comfort everyone	N								
127 too willing to give to others	O								
128 spoils people with kindness	O								

Appendix B

INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST

ILLUSTRATING THE CLASSIFICATION OF INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIORS INTO 16 VARIABLE CATEGORIES



Appendix C

Comparison of Means and Standard Deviation from Three Different High Schools

		AP		BC		DE		FG		HI		JK		LM		NO	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
IDEAL FATHERS	A	7.68	3.22	5.90	2.99	5.36	3.21	3.38	2.43	3.86	2.49	5.48	2.82	8.42	3.85	6.78	3.82
	B	8.90	2.54	7.32	3.35	6.32	2.44	3.46	2.90	3.88	2.76	6.10	3.09	7.86	4.04	7.86	3.59
	C	8.28	2.23	6.68	2.04	5.38	1.90	1.86	1.51	3.26	1.57	5.60	1.88	8.60	3.15	7.80	2.83
REAL FATHERS	A	8.44	2.64	6.68	2.06	6.28	2.99	4.50	2.90	3.80	2.49	6.32	2.42	8.80	3.42	7.28	3.20
	B	9.44	2.97	8.10	3.20	8.02	3.04	6.16	3.75	4.64	2.98	5.90	2.98	7.06	3.63	6.44	3.65
	C	9.04	3.51	6.90	2.66	7.42	3.14	6.08	3.78	2.70	2.65	4.28	2.67	6.04	3.49	5.70	3.52
IDEAL MOTHERS	A	7.12	2.95	5.72	3.18	5.26	3.16	3.08	2.21	3.76	2.51	5.50	2.79	8.74	3.87	6.88	4.02
	B	8.40	2.57	7.10	2.68	6.12	2.60	3.30	2.90	4.18	2.84	6.06	2.90	8.02	4.09	7.76	3.27
	C	7.16	2.17	5.72	2.10	4.54	2.12	1.70	1.58	3.42	1.98	5.30	2.27	8.42	3.75	8.02	3.45
REAL MOTHERS	A	7.76	2.67	6.34	2.56	5.90	2.80	4.02	2.66	4.52	2.68	6.44	3.00	9.22	3.73	7.96	3.88
	B	9.02	3.06	7.34	3.36	7.14	3.37	5.30	3.72	5.68	3.81	7.24	3.42	8.52	3.92	9.52	3.94
	C	8.36	3.13	6.20	2.83	6.44	2.92	5.30	3.77	4.28	2.66	5.90	2.87	7.04	3.83	7.16	3.49

A - Intermountain School B - State Industrial School C - Bonneville High School

VITA

Lorin A. Broadbent

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Education

in

Counseling Psychology

Thesis: A Comparison of Perceptions of Parents by Students in Three Different Schools

Major Field: Counseling Psychology

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born at Ogden, Utah, July 28, 1943, son of Joseph L. and Mary T. Broadbent; married LaRae Thurgood December 17, 1964; two children--Paul and Gary.

Education: Attended elementary school in Ogden, Utah; graduated from Ogden Senior High School in 1961; received Bachelor of Science degree from Utah State University with a major in History and a minor in Political Science in 1965; completed requirements for the Master of Education degree, specializing in counseling, at Utah State University in 1971.

Professional Experience: 1966 to present, teacher of the World of Work, Economics, Psychology, College Orientation and counselor for students planning college at Intermountain High School in Brigham City, Utah; 1965 to 1966, teacher of American History, World Geography, and Utah History at Sunset Junior High School in Sunset, Utah.