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CHILD'S PERCEPTION OF PARENTAL ATTITUDE AND ITS
RELATIONSHIP TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT
AND PROBLEM AWARENESS

by

Mohammed K. Fazel

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

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Psychology

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah

1968

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ABSTRACT

Child's Perception of Parental Attitude and Its
Relationship to Academic Achievement
and Problem Awareness

by

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Utah State University, 1968

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This study was aimed at finding relationships between the triad of academic achievement, child's perception of parental attitude, and his problem awareness. The study was designed with reference to three postulates of phenomenological psychology. (a) The perceptual field of an individual at any moment determines his behavior of the moment. (b) The term phenomenal self is formed by the individual's interaction with others. (c) The basic need of the organism is the maintenance and actualization of the self.

A survey of the literature tended to support the thesis that there was a positive relationship between educational achievement and parental acceptance. On the other hand, research in this area also contained some evidence showing that parents of achieving children tended to adopt power assertive techniques of child rearing.

Sixty achievers and sixty underachievers of both sexes were administered the Father and Mother form of the Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire and the Mooney Problem Check List and their relationships were noticed.

The results showed that the scales on the Mooney Problem Check List distinguished the underachieving and achieving boy but not the underachieving and achieving girl, except the School scale. The only scales which significantly differentiated the underachiever from the achiever for both boys and girls on both the forms were Punishment Direct-Object and Loving. The study did not reveal any significant relationship between the scales on the two forms of PCRQ and MPCL.

(75 pages)

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary America places a high premium upon academic achievement and considers it as the key to success. Yet difficulties in learning have been a frequent reason for psychological referral. Kessler (1966) believes that learning problems likely are responsible for at least three-fourths of the children between 4 and 7 years old who are being seen in clinics etc.

In trying to isolate factors which influence later learning, one facet which stands out is the family, especially the parent-child relationship. A child's parents are his first teachers and, if his early training has been unhealthy, a residue of resentment towards authority lingers in the child and "The teacher then inherits an unwilling pupil." (Kessler, 1966, p. 210)

Psychologists, educators, and sociologists all agree that the single most important influence in the development of the child is the family. Whether the child will be trustful or fearful and uncertain of others is learned in the family.

A child soon learns if mother cares and responds to his needs. Another child may soon learn that mother is unpredictable and inconsistent and not always to be trusted. This type of maternal attitude may have serious and far-reaching repercussions on the development of the child.

The child's first taste of love is in the family. The first experience of give-and-take is experienced in the family. His ability

to get along with his siblings help determine his peer relationships. His self-concept, so crucial for his later conquests and achievements, become crystalized in the matrix of his family.

Covington (1965, p. 9) in agreeing with most educators, states, "While the home offers no diploma, it educates with a deadly accuracy."

The significant role that the family played in the past century has been challenged in recent years. Some psychologists are of the opinion that the family no longer plays a vital role in the education of the individual, in his recreational activity, and in his choice of a vocation. But anthropological studies tell us that the family is still carrying on tasks unshared by other institutions. Witmer and Kotinsky (1952, p. 177) identify three such 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 within the community.

The family perhaps is the only institution where the child should be accepted for what he is and not solely for what he can achieve. Few would underestimate the value of such a training if the child is to develop a healthy personality.

With the advent of extra-familial sources of nurturance that contemporary Western civilization is witnessing, the educational role of the family is perhaps not as comprehensive as in the past; but it is still a vital one. The school, along with the other sources of psychological nurturance, is increasingly supplementing and aiding (and at times hindering) the developmental tasks of the child. These institutions have yet to substitute the family.

The attitude of the schools is becoming increasingly democratic. When the child notices that the teacher includes him in the day-to-day planning of the classroom, he becomes resistant to the authoritarian approach of his parents. The new democratic era demands new ways of dealing with children if they are to be spared the lure and final despair of Haight-Ashbury Road.

The recent shift from a child-centered to an adult-centered philosophy of child-rearing confounds many parents. Permissiveness and democracy are often confused. They oscillate between despotic authoritarianism, with its resulting guilt feelings and extreme permissiveness, which is equally damaging. No pattern of child-rearing is better suited to the development of problematic behavior than this inconsistent form of discipline.

Wolfenstein (1953) was most revealing with respect to this so-called "official" child-rearing practices in the United States. In studying the first nine editions of Infant Care (published by the U. S. Children's Bureau), which covered the period from 1914 to 1951, she explored the following five areas: thumbsucking, weaning, masturbation, bowel training, and bladder training. Her survey revealed that in the 37 year span there were substantial changes in the type of training recommended by the authors of Infant Care.

For instance, in the early 1910's, both masturbation and thumb-sucking spelled serious problems to be dealt with seriously. Parents were encouraged to take extreme steps in restraining masturbation and thumbsucking. With the passage of time, their seriousness was under-rated with a concomitant decline in the severity of the punitive measures recommended. By 1951, it was suggested that both the

problems were really nuisance behaviors which were best ignored.

Much of the research pertaining to parent-child relationship indicated that the interaction going on in such a relationship determined the self-concept of the child and the types of problems he would have difficulty solving. There was a need to find the relationship between parent-child interaction and the problems to which the child became susceptible. Sears et. al. (1957) pointed out that an angry child was not necessarily a happy child. They also mentioned that a significant effect of parental punishment was the prediction of anxiety which may interfere with the problem-solving ability. Skinner (1956, p. 30) pointed out that in tracing the causes of disturbances of behavior to a current anxiety, many details of early episodes like punishment was neglected. He added

The number of references to anxiety in treatises on behavior must greatly exceed the number of references to punishing episodes, yet we must lean to the latter (punishment) for full details.

Statement of the Problem

Many of the studies exploring parent-child relationship and academic achievement suffered from three shortcomings: (1) They were based on parental reports; (2) Almost exclusive attention had been paid to the mother to the neglect of the father (Sewell, Mussen of Harriss, 1955; Sears et. al., 1957); (3) The sex of the child under observation was not differentiated.

Schaefer (1965) noted that adjustment may be more related to the child's perception of his parents behavior than the actual behavior of his parents. A recent reviewer (Yarrow, 1963, p. 220) made the same

point when he said, "A major methodological weakness is an excessive reliance on parental reports." With respect to point (2) Nash (1965) said that the child-rearing assumption of Western industrial culture appeared decidedly matricentric. The relative neglect of the father he believed distorted our understanding of the dynamics of development. Because the father was usually the bread-earner engaged outside the household, he delegated child-rearing to his wife. Psychologists had adopted this view uncritically; so much so as to deny him any position of significance.

Existing studies of the child's perception of parent behavior that did take both the parents into account, did not analyze separately reports of maternal and paternal behavior. Dropplemane and Schaefer (1963) maintained that the data clearly demonstrated that the sex of the child and of the parent interacted in varied ways to determine how boys and girls reported the behavior of their mothers and fathers.

But the sex of the parents and the child are not the only determinants of how the child reports parental behavior. Anderson (1955) while discussing methods of research in child psychology isolated some of the difficulties. He pointed to the changes that take place in the ontological development of the individual from parental dependence to adult independence and the need to understand these principles of change. He also noted difficulties in separating simple functions of child behavior from the whole child, the need to understand why certain biosocial patterns were integrated and others were not. He stressed the fact that the child was engaged in an ongoing process which was not reversible. Hence the interrelationships that the child experienced could never be reproduced a second time in their exact original form.

The present behavior of the child is a function of his past history and immediate stimulation.

The foregoing argument cautions against the practice of stating a one to one, cause-and-effect relationship between patterns of child-rearing and academic achievement. Chess, Thomas, and Birch (1959) and Ausbel (1959) had emphasized in a similar vein that child-rearing practices were not solely responsible for later child development simply because they preceded the latter chronologically.

Undoubtedly, numerous other factors played decisive roles in determining academic achievement besides the attitude of the parents. It was for this reason that variables like (1) sex of the parent; (2) sex of the child; (3) the problem awareness of the child had been included in the study. This study would seek to find the interrelationship in the triumvirate of parent-child relationship, academic achievement of the child and his problem awareness.

Hypothesis Exploration

A study of the relevant literature would yield hypotheses which could be tested by the study. But an examination of the literature revealed confusing, inconsistent and equivocal results and methodology (see review of the literature section). The present author concurs with David and Hainsworth (1967, p. 32) who in pursuit of a similar study maintain

In view of this state of affairs, it seems more appropriate to regard this venture as exploratory rather than primarily hypothesis testing, with the view that whatever empirical findings are uncovered by this approach to the understanding of parent-child relations are likely to be of value to future investigators who endeavor to chart these waters which at this point are far from being adequately fathomed.

Basic Assumptions

The present study, in agreement with Covington's study (1966, was designed with reference to three postulates of phenomenological psychology. These postulates from Coombs and Selper (1963) are summarized as follows:

1. The perceptual field of an individual at any moment determines his behavior of that moment. In other words, what a child feels and thinks and his mode of perception determines his behavior. Hence a child responds to the situation as he perceives it, rather than the actual situation itself.

2. The authors use the term "Phenomenal Self" to refer to the totality of his self-definition. This is a crucial aspect of his being. This self-concept is formed by the individual's interaction with others. This self-concept the authors believe plays a vital role in determining behavior.

3. Like most other self-psychologists, the authors believe that the basic need of the organism is the maintenance and actualization of the self. This dual goal means that the individual not only seeks a status quo of the self of which he is aware, but he also seeks to enhance it. This enhancement of the self, like its very formation, is achieved by interacting with others, especially the significant others like his parents.

The theoretical rationale for the most part of this study was based upon a conceptual model of parental behavior developed by Roe and Siegelman (1963) as shown in Figure 1. The descriptions of the scores (see Procedure section) suggest the nature of these items.

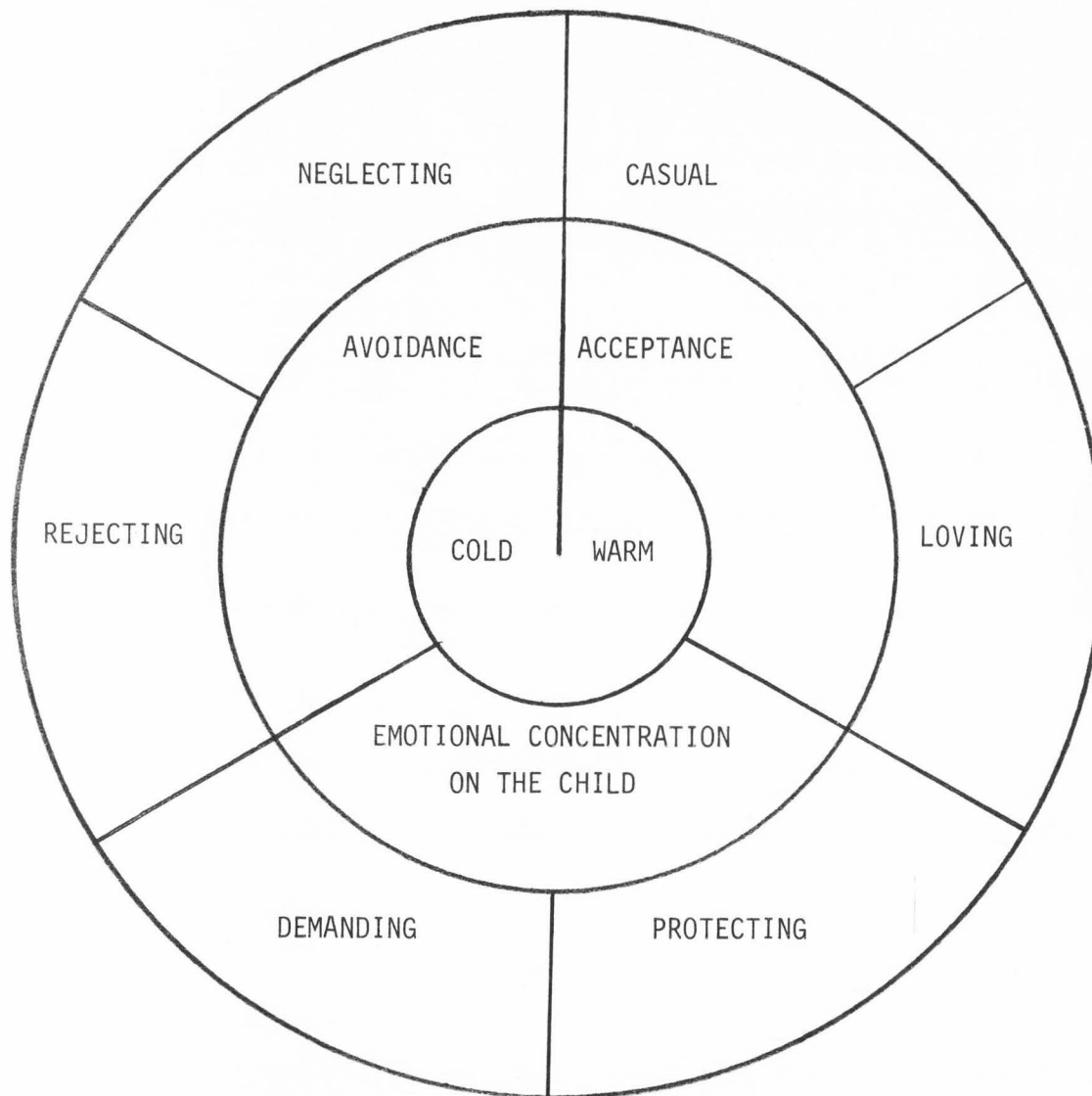


Figure 1. Hypothetical Model of the realm of parent attitudes. This is the model originally suggested. The intermediate categories (avoidance, acceptance, emotional concentration) have now been dropped.

Source: Roe (1963, p. 356)

The categories used for Reward and Punishment were based on the work of Sears et. al. (1957).

Limitations

This study should be evaluated in the light of the following limitations:

1. The statistical design and computation used in the study have inherent limitations which of necessity are reflected in the results of the present study.

2. That the parent-child relationship is a touchy area, no one denies. Although anonymity was maintained, it is conceivable to assume that some of the subjects may have withheld information consciously or otherwise.

3. The results obtained would perhaps be applicable to other schools of a similar setting.

4. It was pointed out that patterns of child-rearing are undergoing rapid changes. Jersild (1960) noted that practices in child-rearing occur so swiftly that parents face one set of pressures in rearing their first-born child and a different set in rearing a later child. Hence with this in mind and the distinct possibility that our knowledge of child development will increase in the future, it is perhaps safe to assume that a similar study might yield different results in the future.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will attempt to cover a broad perspective of the problem under discussion. It will then focus on a review of the literature on discipline, family relations and academic achievement and problem awareness.

Historical Perspective

That the child is a part of an environment very much larger than that of the school, few child psychologists would deny. Few again would deny the fact that the whole of that environment vitally affects his progress at school. The important ingredient in this whole environment is the family. The family encourages certain attitudes, provides motivation and serves as a source of stability and security. All these ostensibly affect a child's scholastic ability. It seems that the correlation between home environment and scholastic ability is higher than between home environment and intelligence.

But when one attempts to find precisely what this correlation is, he finds confusing and at times contradictory results in the existing literature. As it was pointed out in the Introduction section, Chess, Thomas and Bench (1959) and Ausbel (1959) had emphasized the fact that child-rearing practices were not solely responsible for child development simply because they preceded the latter chronologically. This problem will be discussed at greater length in a later section of the chapter.

General parental attitudes and characteristics as a determinant of the child's personality have been stressed by a number of psycho-analytical writers. Although Freud's contact with children was limited, through retrospective studies of his patients he emphasized the parent-child relationship as the chief architect of an individual's personality. Sullivan (1953) stressed the relationship of the child with significant others. He pointed to the emphatic relations that the child had with his parents. Approving parents create a feeling of well being in the child whereas hostile and critical parents breed intense and chronic anxiety in the child.

Fromm (1941) considered a basically loving parental attitude as the best safeguard against dejection and insecurity. Horney (1937) advocated a warm, affectionate and understanding parental outlook if the child was to develop into a normal and healthy individual.

Although Adler (1959) believed in the importance of family atmosphere and the family constellation, he took the teleological approach to the understanding of behaviors. The "life style" which he attributed to the individual gave him essentially a phenomenological flavor. The Adlerians take the teleological approach to the understanding of behavior. Their stance is essentially different from the advocates of a direct causal relationship between parental attitudes and the resulting behavior of the child. The developmentalists led by Arnold Gesell had emphasized the concept of maturation as a patterned and internally controlled regulatory mechanism. Parent-child relationship was considered of secondary importance as a modifier of behavior.

The cultural anthropologists placed child development in a broad spectrum encompassing the totality of his environment. For them a child was a function of the specific sociocultural forces which impinged upon him. Distinct personality types were produced by the values and institutions prevailing in the culture. For Mead (1947) personality stemmed from the interference of cultural trends with natural trends. Without underplaying the importance of parent-child relationship, the sociocultural point of view emphasizes culturally selected traits.

The behaviorist believed that the proper study of developmental psychology should concern itself with the history of the organism's previous interactions. Bijou and Baer (1961) saw the developments of the child as a series of changes in its interactions with the environment. Behavior becomes a direct functioning of current situations and past events. By their emphasis on the past history of the child, they attributed an indelible but modifiable role to parental attitudes in the developmental span of the child.

The study by Sears and associates (1957) linked the amount of aggression the child displayed to the amount of permissiveness and punitiveness exercised by the mother at home. According to them, mothers could be more effective if they accepted the child's dependency needs. Praise was a more effective coping technique than punishment.

Sears et al. (1957, p. 484) stated

Our evaluation of punishment is that it is ineffectual over the long term as a technique for eliminating the kind of behavior toward which it is directed.

Any theory or practice of child rearing is a reflection of the Zietgast. Wolfenstein (1953) had studied the changing trends in child-rearing practices. As observed in the Introduction, she found that people were likely to adopt the latest and discard the convictions of the past. The lay mother she found experienced considerable anxiety over the accumulated ideas of the past.

Another interesting historical survey of children's attitudes towards their parents came from Stogdill (1937). He conducted a survey of the literature dealing with children's attitudes towards parents between the years 1894 and 1936. The following is a summary of the results.

1. In general children felt highly dependent on their parents. As they advanced from age six to sixteen, their dependence decreased and they tended to select parents as ideals, less frequently.

2. The Mother stood out as the preferential parent for school children of both the sexes. Delinquent and problem children, however, preferred the parent of the opposite sex especially if that parent was overprotective.

3. As the child grew older he gave more sophisticated reasons for his parental preference.

4. The perennial cause of clash between parent and child as to how much supervision and control was desirable had always been present. The child it seemed resented severe and unjust discipline and preferred greater freedom than he got.

5. The author found that lax disciplinary and religious attitudes of the parents contributed to better and happier adjustment, whereas

strict religious and disciplinary measures were associated with discontent, delinquency and maladjustment.

6. Individuals who harbored hostile and resentful attitudes towards their parents were likely to hold liberal attitudes on moral and social issues.

7. He found evidence that the child's behavior was a function of the social environment which impinged upon him. Parental and familial attitudes appeared to be more potent factors than intelligence and the socioeconomic status as determinants of his behavior.

Although parental attitudes of adolescents have been changing there is a surprising attitudinal similarity in this diversity as witnessed in a historical perspective of the literature. The following two quotes were taken from Rogers (1962). She quoted Hal Boyle's mid-twentieth century view of the teenagers:

He dresses like a bum, has the manners of an ape, and if you look into one of his ears you can see daylight coming through the other ear.

He is noisy, shiftless, full time free loader off his parents, or else he earns his pin money selling dope to his high school buddies. He is a hot rod driver. He and his teen age girl friend spend their evening seeking panic thrills. Their favorite fun: smoking reefers, holding up filling stations, and dynamiting Sunday Schools.

It is all so familiar. Youth always seems to be going to hell in some kind of wagon, or so middle-age people want to believe. A generation ago the devils of their day were the daring flappers. (Rogers, 1962, p. 3)

Rogers also tells us what Socrates thought of the young 2350 years ago. What he has to say is not too different.

The children now love luxury; they show disrespect for elders and love chatter in place of exercise. Children are tyrants, not the servant of their households. They no longer rise when their elders enter the room. They contradict their parents, chatter before company, gobble up dainties at the table, cross their legs, and tyrannize over their teachers. (Rogers, 1962, p. 3)

Parental Discipline

Becker (1964) traced contemporary interest in the consequences of discipline to be the outcome of three main influences: the emphasis of the early functionalists and behaviorists on the learning process, the psychoanalytical focus on developmental tasks, and repeated clinical findings of a high incidence of atypical disciplinary measures in the past history of problem children and adults.

The first systematic information on the effects of discipline were gleaned during the 1910's and 1920's from the studies on delinquency. During the 1930's the University of California and Fels Research Institute launched longitudinal studies. Many centers were initiating studies of the correlates of strictness, permissiveness, consistency, and type of reinforcement. Although slow progress was being made the research design and the results left much to be desired.

It was during the 1940's that the behavior theorists focused their attention on the consequences of child-rearing. The multiple factors became more amenable to statistical analysis with the growth of computers in the 1950's. It was during this period that the father received a belated recognition as a parent in parent-child relationship research

Love-oriented vs. parent-assertive techniques

Becker (1964) lumped the large number of investigations of the consequences of discipline under the general classification of love-oriented versus power-assertive techniques. Under love-oriented techniques, he included positive methods, such as use of praise and

reasoning; and negative methods which jeopardized the parent-child relation, such as withdrawal of love and the removal of the child from the parent. Love-oriented methods were separated into positive and negative. Power-assertive techniques included physical punishment and sometimes yelling, shouting, forceful commands and verbal threats.

At the risk of oversimplification the research in this area may be summarized to the effect that love-oriented approaches to discipline correlate with non-aggressive or cooperative social relations on the part of the child, whereas power-assertive techniques tend to make the child non-cooperative, hostile and aggressive.

Hoffman (1960) provided evidence to show that a relationship existed between parental punitiveness and the manifestation of aggression in the child. He found significant relations between the amount of power-assertion displayed by the mother and the hostility of the child towards other children, power-assertion directed toward other children and resistance to influence by other children and the teacher.

A cross-cultural study by Lambert et al. (1959) also lends evidence to the relationship between the child's aggression and the use of power-assertive techniques by the parents. Tribes who perceived the gods as aggressive rather than benign practiced power-assertive and pain-generating punitive measures of child training.

The above mentioned studies along with some others (Bandura et al., 1961; McCord, et al., 1961) suggested that hostile parents resort to power-assertive techniques of discipline which breeds hostility in children, and made them resistant to authority. Becker (1964) believed that the aggression inducing effects of power-assertive

techniques were mediated by three mechanisms: (a) since power-assertion took place in a hostile context it generated more frustration and led to counter aggression; (b) since the parent became aggressive, he automatically sanctioned it in the eyes of the child which also served as a model for him; (c) some evidence existed to suggest that parents with a hostile-punitive attitude reinforced and encouraged aggressive behavior in others.

A number of studies dealing with love oriented techniques (Allensmith and Greening, 1955; Aronfreed, 1961; Unger, 1962) indicated that this pattern of discipline was likely to be used by warm parents and tended to encourage internalized reactions and self-responsibility. Four characteristics of the parent seemed to be mediating factors (Becker, 1964): (a) the parent gained importance in the eyes of the child because of his warmth. Compliance was assured thereby eliminating the need for severe forms of discipline; (b) the controlled behavior of the parent provided a constructive model; (c) since verbal cues (reason) were often used, understanding was facilitated and the child learned to expect non-erratic consequences; (d) certain facets of the timing of punishment termination seemed important.

Restrictiveness vs. permissiveness

Some of the studies (Sears et al., 1957; Becker and Associates, 1962; Becker, 1964; Sears, 1961; Kagan, 1962; and McCoby, 1961) seemed to indicate a consistency in the results of restrictive and permissive patterns of child rearing. This dimension was a reflection of the presence or absence of the control asserted over the child. The manner of achieving the control however, showed variance. There

seemed to be general agreement in this research area that both restrictiveness and permissiveness carried certain risks.

Restrictiveness although promoting well-controlled socialized behavior, was also likely to breed fear, dependency and submissiveness and a dulling of intellectual initiative. Whereas permissiveness, while promoting extroversion, sociability, assertion and intellectual striving, dampened persistence and increased aggression.

Almost everyone agreed that consistency was a desirable aspect of child discipline since it increased the degree of predictability in the child's environment. Various approaches had been utilized in research on consistency. Some had accumulated the aggregate rating of the stability in parent-child relationship; others had isolated a segment of disciplinary action and measured it in terms of its consistency; yet others had studied the discordance in the disciplinary actions of the two parents.

Glueck and Glueck (1950) and McCord et al. (1961) probably furnished some of the clearest studies done in this area. They found that the disciplinary antecedents of delinquency and antisocial behavior were significantly erratic and inconsistent.

Becker (1964) in summarizing consequences of parental discipline noted a few points. He pointed out that when both the parents had been included in a study, the father's role in determining the child's behavior was as important as that of the mother. He hoped that these findings would generate the need to include him in future studies. He was of the opinion that when disciplinary measures were not achieving the desired results the following factors should be given a detailed analysis: (a) what is the parent rewarding or punishing?; (b) the

timing of the punishment; (c) the degree of frustration involved; (d) how clear is the parent in communicating his expectations to the child?; (e) the intra- and inter-parent consistency of reinforcement; and (f) the type of model that the parent provides for the child.

From a historical point of view, the scientific knowledge that has accumulated in the past thirty years has been spectacular. But for the parent who has to put up daily with erratic behavior of a problem child, the gains may appear to be insignificant or trivial.

Parental Attitudes and Academic Achievement

One of the strongest cases in favor of parental attitudes as determinants of academic achievement came from Gilmore (1967) who maintained that underachievers were immature in their relationship with their parents and susceptible to frequent depression and anxiety. They also lacked insight of themselves. The high achiever on the other hand had a high energy output. He did not have dependency problems at home and at the same time harbored no hostile feelings towards the home. He notes:

From an observation of these two extreme groups on the academic continuum, it is apparent that these different behavior characteristics are not attributable to differences in I.Q. test scores, but in light of our theory are related to the family environments of both groups. In other words, the individuals of both groups have attempted to adjust to various degrees of empathy within their respective families. (Gilmore, 1967, p. 48)

He cited three studies with underachievers and behavior problem school age children where attempts were made to modify their behavior. One study dealt with student counseling, the other two approached the problem solely through parent counseling of the underachievers. He states:

If we can improve academic achievement by treating parents we must be dealing with some of the causes of behavior. If student counseling alone does not change behavior, as in the Brooklyn study, we must not be dealing with causes. If the child's academic achievement is to be changed, it is necessary to examine the family structure to learn the style of living within the family which may be contributing to his dysfunctioning. (Gilmore, 1967, p. 50)

Wilkinson (1964) found that studies of children deprived of parental affection revealed that: (a) these children often showed poor school adjustment; (b) clinical insight of this loving/learning ratio had just begun to influence educational theory and practice; and (c) such children often sought compensatory gratification.

Morrow and Wilson (1961) compared the family relations of 48 high school boys of superior intelligence making high grades with those of a group making mediocre or poor grades. The two groups were equated for school grades, socioeconomic status and general intellectual ability. The instrument used to assess parental attitudes was a set of six-items questionnaire with a four-point scale for each item. They found that the parents of bright high-achievers engaged in more sharing activities and ideas with the child. They were more approving and showed more confidence in the child, encouraging achievement in the child.

Shaw and Dutton (1962) compared the responses on the parent attitude research inventory (PARI) of parents of bright tenth and eleventh grade achievers with the responses of parents of bright underachievers. The responses were analyzed on the basis of both the sex of the parent and child. A significantly strong negative attitude towards the underachieving child was noted in the responses of their parents. There was also a pronounced tendency towards suppression of sexuality among parents of underachievers.

In a study by Colemand, Borrston and Fox (1958), the University of Southern California Parent-Attitude Survey (PAS) was administered to groups of parents matched for the intellectual ability of their children. The study was designed to obtain the mean differences between the mean responses of the parents of achievers and under-achievers. The results showed a domineering mother in the background of the child with reading disability. The father of the underachiever put up a poor show as a model for masculine identification.

Kagan (1956) studied the interview protocols of 217 children. He found that the majority of boys and girls perceived mothers as friendlier, less punitive, less dominant and less threatening than the fathers. He further found that as the child grew older, the perception of the same-sex parent became more threatening. He concluded that this may have a realistic basis stemming from differential handling of boys and girls at the start of school age.

Rosen and D'Andre (1959) administered specific tasks to boys ranging in ages from 9 through 11 years interacting with their parents at home. They noticed that mothers of boys who had a high need to achieve were warmer towards their sons than the parent of boys with low need to achieve. Fathers of highly motivated boys had given more autonomy to their sons. The authors maintain that parents of boys who have a high need to achieve show significant traits of competition; they are also more involved with their sons. The authors conclude parental care in an affective context is conducive to the growth of achievement motivation.

Weigard (1957) in a study of the influence of child rearing practices on academic achievement found that flexibility in adapting to a task and its subsequent nurturance by parental attitudes was most helpful in academic achievement.

Weisskoff (1951) looked at the relationship between child-rearing and academic achievement from a dynamic point of view. He argued that parents were not only the most potent satisfiers of the child's needs, but they were also his most potent frustrators. In this context the children frequently retaliated and wished to punish their parents. A "normal" parent-child relationship did not preclude this hostility, as it functioned at an unconscious level. For this reason children adopted indirect and camouflaged ways of punishing their parents. He noted (Weisskoff, 1951, p. 412) "one of the ways it can take is a refusal to develop intellectually--for example to progress at school."

Acceptance of such a thesis came from one of the studies of Rubenstein (1959) who maintained that non-learning or "learning impotence" may be symptomatic of an unconscious mechanism to cling to one's identity. Learning may amount to surrendering to the demands of others especially the mother.

Although there was abundant literature to support the hypothesis of a direct relationship between parental warmth, affection and acceptance and academic achievement, there was also a sizeable amount of research literature which opposed this thesis. One such study was the one done by Drews and Teahan (1957). The authors were trying to determine the attitudes of mothers of high achievers and low achievers of both gifted and average intelligence on the basis of

permissiveness, protectiveness and domination. The instrument selected was an adaptation of Shoven's 30 item scale adapted from the 85 item PARI scale. The subjects were 34 achievers and 34 non-achievers from a junior high school population. Both the groups came from the same socio-economic level. The authors found that the mothers of high achievers were more authoritarian and restrictive than the mothers of achievers. Parents of high achievers of high intelligences tended to be more punitive in their treatment of children.

Corroboration of such a thesis also came from a study by Hoffman et al. (1958). They studied parental coerciveness, child autonomy, and the child's role at school. They found that high achievers tend to perceive their parents as coercive, whereas the underachiever perceives his parents as lenient.

A similar finding cropped up in a study by Crandall, Dewey, Katkosky and Preston (1964). They compared parental attitudes and academic achievement of the early grade school children. The results proved that girls with academic competence had mothers who were less affectionate and nurturant than mothers of girls with scholastic problems. They also found academic performance of girls was more predictive than that of the boys, especially from the attitudes of their mothers.

Yet another study which revealed no significant relationship between school achievement and parental attitude is the one by Burchinal (1959) who analyzed data on personal adjustment, intelligence, achievement, education of parents and the parental occupation of 176 girls in grades 4 through 10. The correlation between occupation of father, education of father, home index score and the girl's intelligence

score was a low positive one. The relationship between each of the family social indices and the three personality adjustment scores was negligible.

The purpose of the study by Van Slyke and Leton (1965) was to compare the child's perception of family relations to his school adjustment which was defined as educational and social adjustment. The subjects were 18 fourth grade children. They ranged from normal to high intelligence and came from families of upper middle to lower upper social classes. A trend of systematic relationship was found between school adjustment and the child's perception of family relationship. However, when a comparison was run between the pupils who ranked highest in school adjustment with those who ranked lowest on the same scale, there was no evidence of significant mean differences, nor were the scores for perception of family relationship's in the predicted direction.

The seemingly contradictory results of the studies covered in this chapter did not necessarily argue against a relationship between parental attitudes and academic achievement. They did, however, cast some doubt on a significant one-to-one relationship, between the two variables. It may be as Escalona (1953) brought out something to do with the unique personality characteristics which may be detectable as early as the first few months of the infant's life. In his research, he pointed out that patterns of parent child interaction which may be appropriate for one child may be grossly inappropriate for another in the same family setting. The author attributed these differences to congenital factors. In the light of this discussion,

one may assume that whereas one child will respond positively to love (or authority, direct object love, etc.), another will reject it.

Problem Awareness

The problems which beset our children is a matter of grave seriousness. The adult United States population is afflicted by mental illness at an alarming rate according to some observers. Rogers (1942) estimated that 12 percent of the school children in the United States were seriously maladjusted, with perhaps 30 percent poorly adjusted.

A review of literature in this area revealed an abundance of studies dealing with problem awareness of the adolescents. Evidently these problems were traceable to a complex interaction of congenital predispositions, developmental growths, self-concepts, parental attitudes, academic achievement and a host of other factors. There was, however, a dearth of research tracing problem awareness to any of these factors.

Rue (1960) found evidence of friction between adolescents and parents from 150 anonymously written responses of teen agers. Their comments revealed that parents treated them as children, were too strict, gave too many chores, made them stay at home and did not like their friends.

A common source of conflict between parents and the adolescent was parental dominance. Davis (1940) analyzing the sociology of parent-youth conflict stated that conflict resulted from the interaction of certain universals of parent child relationship. They were: (1) the basic age or birth cycle differential between parent

and child; (2) the deceleration rate of socializing with advancing age; and (3) the resulting intrinsic differences between old and young on the physiological psychological and social planes.

Remmers (1962) in a cross-cultural study of 5000 teen age problems in the United States, Puerto Rico, West Germany, and India concluded that: (1) self-perceived teen age problems could be comparatively measured across widely diversified cultures; (2) there was a high similarity in the ranking of problems across widely varying cultures; (3) of least concern were health problems, whereas post-high school problems were of most concern; (4) although the ranking of problems was similar, the amount and intensity of the problem, however, differed greatly from culture to culture.

The inadequacy of the teacher in recognizing the problem of the pupils was brought out in a study by Amos and Washington (1960). By and large, the teacher's cognizance of the pupil's problem was restricted to those problems which disrupted classroom order and procedure and threatened the position of the teacher. The conclusion arrived in this study led one to believe that teachers did recognize pupils with problems, but their recognition was limited in scope when compared with the range of important problems which the pupils themselves perceived. The pupils identified more problems than the number of problems attributed to them by the teachers. The teachers were especially unaware of the extent of student problems in the areas of money, work, the future, and health and physical development. It was also found that the teacher's judgements were more similar to those of boys than girls.

Abel and Gingles (1965) sought to analyze the Mooney Problem Check List (MPCL) of 200 school girls grades 9 and 10 out of a sample of 2500 girls. They found that the distribution of problems, according to areas of greatest concern were: (1) adjustment to school work; (2) social psychological relations; and (3) social and recreational activities. Areas of least concern were: (1) home and family; (2) curriculum and teaching procedures; (3) morals and religion; (4) the future; and (5) vocation and education.

Some studies exist which have attempted to measure problems of adolescents with parental attitudes (Anderson, 1946; Read, 1945; Rouman, 1956), however, there was a relative dearth of research in relating the influence of parental attitudes and the problem awareness of the child. In spite of this vital gap, psychologists and educators take it for granted as Zunich (1962) pointed out, that: (1) parental attitudes of child rearing are responsible for the specific behavioral pattern that the child adopts (e.g. the techniques of control and punishment; (2) values imposed by the parents; and (3) a close relationship exists between the attitudes of parents towards their children and the state of the child's social and emotional adjustment.

Zunich (1962) designed a study to test the hypothesis that parental attitudes toward child rearing and family life are significantly related to problems of junior high school students. The subjects were 20 boys and 20 girls who were administered the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) and the MPCL, of the 210 problems on the MPCL girls evidenced a higher frequency of problems. Comparisons were made by the Pearsons Product Moment Correlation, computed between

frequencies in the MPCL areas and the PARI attitude subscale. Out of the 644 comparisons, 92 were found to be significantly related at the .05 level or beyond. For both parents, the most significant relationship was found between MPCL areas of health and physical development and the future and the PARI subscales. Out of the 92 relations observed, 67 were significant for parents and their daughters, whereas only 25 relations were significant between parents and sons.

A review of the literature dealing with the MPCL revealed only four existing studies where the check list has been used to discriminate over- and under-achievers.

In a study by Graff (1957) the check list was administered to 21 over-achieving and 21 under-achieving 12th grade boys. The check list showed a significant difference only in one of the areas; adjustment to school work ($\chi^2 = 9.52$). Another study was done by DeSena (1966) using college freshmen as subjects aiming to distinguish between consistent over, under, and normal-achieving college students as identified by the MPCL. The areas of finances, living conditions and employment, social psychological relations, and the future--vocational and educational, revealed significant differences beyond the .05 level of confidence.

Frankel (1960) administered the MPCL to 50 pairs of matched achieving and under-achieving high school pupils. The results showed no statistically significant differences in the total number of problems underscored although the achievers underscored 723 and under achievers 906 problems. School was the only area in which the under-achievers presented significantly more problems than achievers. There were no significant differences in the other six areas.

A less traditional approach to the same problem was applied by Esper (1964). He divided his subjects, 192 junior high school pupils into: (1) referred students; (2) self-referral; and (3) non-contact, on the basis of counseling contacts. The results of this study showed that: (1) self-referral counselors underscore a higher frequency of problems on the MPCL, concern about school and money and work and future problems is shown to the same degree by all three groups; (2) the non-contact group tend to get better grades, whereas the referral group tends to get the poorest grades; and (3) the non-contact pupils check fewer problems on the Mooney Problem Check List than do the self-referral.

A survey of the literature (Morrow and Wilson, 1961; Shaw and Dutton, 1962; Rosen and D'Andre, 1959; Weisskoff, 1951) tended to support the thesis that there was a positive relationship between educational achievement and parental acceptance. On the other hand, research in this area also contained some evidence (Drews and Teaham, 1959; Hoffman et al., 1958; Crandall, Dewey, Katkosky and Preston, 1964) to show that parents of achieving children tended to adopt power assertive techniques of child rearing.

PROCEDURES

Source of Data

The data were collected from ninth graders of Logan Junior High School in Logan, Utah. This school was selected because of its proximity and accessibility. Ninth graders were selected because, at this stage, home and school adjustment is especially crucial. This is the time when a sort of "Cold War" goes on between the parent and the child. As Gessel, Ilg, and Ames (1956, p. 233) pointed out at this stage, "There is often a considerable discrepancy between the report by fifteen and by his parents." Then again, as the same authors pointed out,

The rise in drop-outs from school following this year, especially among the boys, indicates the crucial aspect of this year and the failure of the school to meet the challenge. (Gessel, Ilg, and Ames, 1956, p. 241)

Subjects and Sampling Procedures

A total of 322 ninth grade students of both sexes were administered the California test of Mental Maturity (1963 S-Form/Level 3) and the Stanford Achievement Test (Form W).

The study called for 120 subject, but due to an influenza wave, absentees were suspected. Hence, from the original total of 322, 70 achievers and 70 underachievers were selected for further testing. Only those subjects living with both parents at the time of the testing were included.

The criterion for the selection of achievers and underachievers was as follows: The grade expectancy based upon the mental age computed from the California Test of Mental Maturity was compared with the grade scores on the Stanford Achievement Test.

Achievers

Those subjects whose Stanford Achievement Test grade scores coincided or exceeded by one grade level the scores on the grade expectancy norm.

Underachievers

Those subjects whose Stanford Achievement Test grade scores were short of the grade expectancy norm by two or more grade levels.

Out of the 140 students asked to take the two tests, 69 underachievers and 61 achievers presented themselves and took the test (Figure 2). Sixty from each group were selected for scoring and analysis. The rest were randomly eliminated.

	Boys	Girls
Underachievers	30	30
Achievers	33	27

Figure 2. Number of subjects on the basis of sex and achievement.

Instruments

I. The Mooney Problem Check List (1950) has a list of 210 items each signifying a problem and comes under any one of the following categories:

1. Health and Physical Development (HPD)
2. School (S)
3. Home and Family (HF)
4. Money, Work, the Future (MWF)
5. Boy and Girl Relations (BG)
6. Relations to people in general (PG)
7. Self Centered Concerns (SC)

Each one of the above categories covered 30 items. Every problem underlined was scored as one point. A scoring sheet reflecting the score of each subject for every one of the above categories was computed.

II. Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire by Roe and Siegelman (1963). The questionnaire had identical forms for mother and father. The questionnaire covered 10 categories, six of which may be conceived of as being related in a circular continuum as shown in Figure 1. The categories used for Reward and Punishment were based on the work of Sears and Associates (1957). A brief description of the categories as described by Re and Siegelman (1963, p. 387) follows:

Description of categories

Protective. This category includes parents who give the child's interests first priority. They are very indulgent, provide special privileges, are demonstratively affectionate, may be gushing. They

select friends carefully, but will rarely let him visit other homes without them. They protect him from other children, from experiences in which he may suffer disappointment or discomfort, or injury. They are highly intrusive, and expect to know all about what he is thinking and experiencing. They reward dependency.

Demanding. Parents in this group set up high standards of accomplishment in particular areas, manners, school, etc. They impose strict regulations and demand unquestioning obedience to them, and they do not make exceptions. They expect the child to be busy at all times, at some useful activity. They have high punitiveness. They restrict friendships in accord with these standards. They do not try to find out what a child is thinking or feeling, they tell him what to think or feel.

Rejecting. Parents in this group follow the extremer patterns of the preceding group, but this becomes rejecting when their attitude is a rejection of the childishness of the child. They may also reject him as an individual. They are cold, and hostile, derogate him and make fun of him and his inadequacies, and problems. They may frequently leave him alone, and often will not permit other children in the house. They have no regard for the child's point of view. The regulations they establish are not for the sake of training the child, but for protecting the parent from his intrusions.

Neglecting. These parents pay little attention to the child, giving him a minimum of physical care, and no affection. They forget promises made to him, forget things for him. They are cold, but are not derogatory nor hostile. They leave him alone, but do not go out of their way to avoid him.

Casual. These parents pay more attention to the child, and are mildly affectionate when they do. They will be responsive to him if they are not busy about something else. They do not think about him or plan for him very much, but take him as a part of the general situation. They do not worry much about him, and make little definite effort to train him. They are easy going, have few rules, and do not make much effort to enforce those they have.

Loving. These parents give the child warm and loving attention. They try to help him with projects that are important to him, but they are not intrusive. They are more likely to reason with the child than to punish him, but they will punish him. They give praise, but not indiscriminatingly. They try specifically to help him through problems in the way best for him. The child feels able to confide in them and to ask them for help. They invite his friends to the house and try to make things attractive for them. They encourage independence and are willing to let him take chances in order to grow towards it. Distinction between Loving and Casual categories can be difficult. A basic differentiating factor is the amount of thought given to the child's problems.

Symbolic-love reward. The parents using this kind of reward praised their children for approved behavior, gave them special attention and were affectionately demonstrative.

Direct-object reward. These included tangible rewards such as gifts of money or toys, special trips, or relief from chores.

Symbolic-love punishment. Such punishments included shaming the child before others, isolating him and withdrawing love.

Direct-object punishment. These included physical punishment, taking away playthings, reducing allowance, denying promised trips, and so on.

Scoring was done on a four point scale. One for very untrue, two for tended to be untrue, three for tended to be true, and four for very true. The raw data reflected the subscore of each subject for each parent.

Procedure for Administration of the Tests

The administration of CTMM and the Stanford Achievement Test is standard procedure at Logan Junior High School. The tests are administered by the respective class teachers under the supervision of the school counselor.

The MPCL and the Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire were administered at a special session of one and a half hours. It was done under the supervision of the principal of the school, the counselor and the author. The MPCL was administered first. Since it is self-explanatory, no directions were required, except that students were to disregard the last part of the test which called for written statements of some problems.

The Parent Child Relationship Questionnaire (PCRQ), which was also self-explanatory, was administered next. They were asked to check X for father and 0 for mother. In order to assure complete anonymity, no names were required, numbers were assigned in lieu of names.

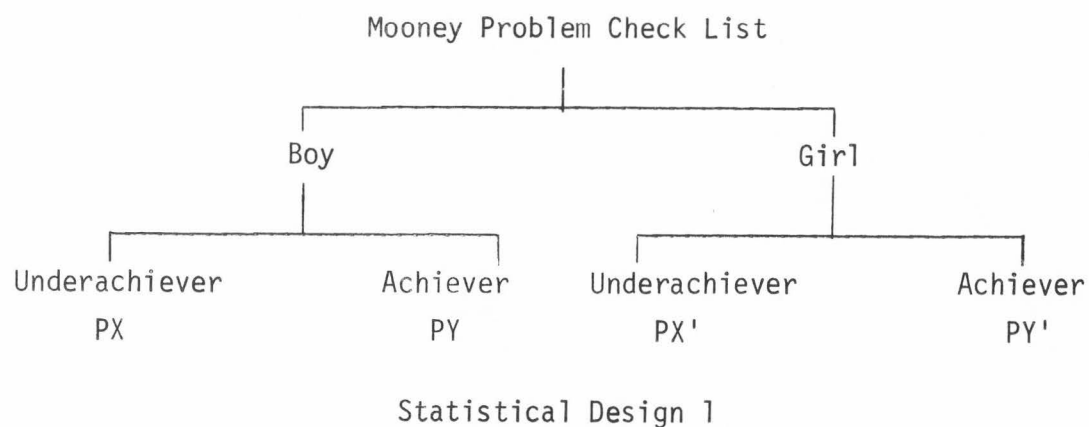
Analysis of Data

This particular statistical design was adopted because the present study is primarily interested in finding the following relationships:

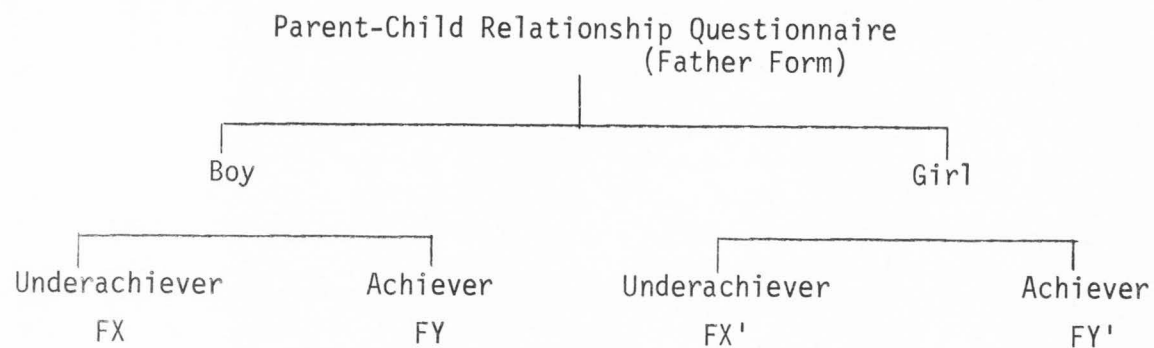
Comparison of underachieving boys with achieving boys and underachieving girls with achieving girls in the areas of problem awareness (design 1) and perception of paternal (design 2) and maternal (design 3) attitudes.

The relationship between problem awareness and perception of maternal and paternal attitudes of: underachieving boys, achieving boys, underachieving girls, achieving girls (design 4).

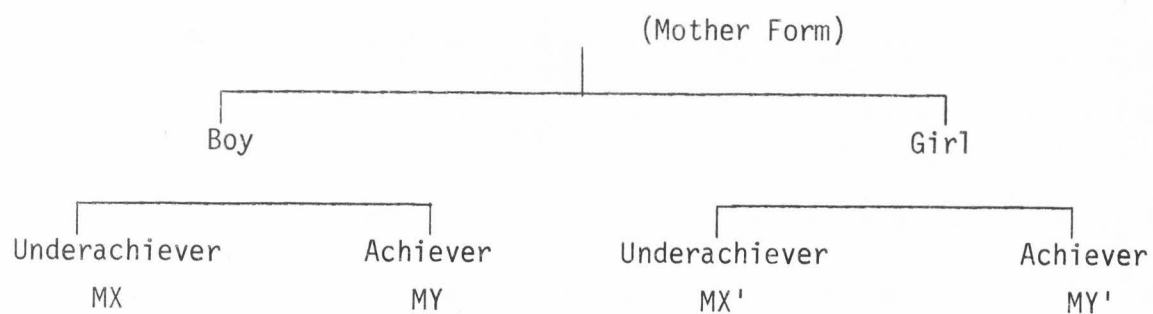
Raw scores for the following groups were compiled and computed by the electronic computer SR/365.



An analysis of variance on PX, PY, and PX', PY' was run and its F ratio noted.



Statistical Design 2



Statistical Design 3

Analysis of variance on FX, FY, and FX', FY'; MX, MY, and MX', MY' was run and its F Ratio noted.

The following Pearsons Product moment correlations were also computed:

PX, FX, MX

PY, FY, MY

PX', FX', MX'

PY', FY', MY'

Statistical Design 4

RESULTS

Table 1 reports the responses of achieving and underachieving boys on the scales of the Mooney Problem Checklist in which significant differences were found. In this instance the F ratio computed showed a difference at the .01 level of confidence or beyond on all the seven scales: (1) Health and Physical Development, (2) School, (3) Home and Family, (4) Money, Work, and Future, (5) Boy, Girl Relationship, (6) People in general and (7) Self-Concept. On all these scales the underachiever checked significantly more problems than the achiever.

Table 1. A comparison of the scores on the Mooney Problem Check List of achieving and underachieving boys.

	Group ^a	Mean	S.D.	f	Sig. level
1 HPD	U	5.23	3.11	11.90	.01
	A	2.88	2.46		
2 S	U	12.40	4.95	41.31	.01
	A	5.03	4.14		
3 HF	U	6.20	3.50	16.94	.01
	A	2.60	3.43		
4 MWF	U	8.89	4.85	15.71	.01
	A	4.85	3.15		
5 BG	U	8.63	5.67	21.41	.01
	A	3.40	3.04		
6 PG	U	6.60	5.37	11.53	.01
	A	2.85	3.22		
7 SC	U	10.29	5.80	36.86	.01
	A	3.40	2.86		

^aThe letters "A" and "U" are used to identify the achievers and underachievers respectively.

Table 2 presents a similar comparison of the responses on the scales of the Mooney Problem Checklist of achieving and underachieving girls. The only significant difference was found on the School scale. The underachievers checked significantly more problems than the achievers. The difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence. All the other scales showed extremely negligible differences.

Table 2. A comparison of the scores on the Mooney Problem Check List of achieving and underachieving girls.

	Group ^a	Mean	S.D.	f	Sig. level
1 HPD	U	5.47	4.17		
	A	4.73	2.87	.63	
2 S	U	10.43	5.47		
	A	7.41	3.25	6.26	.05
3 HF	U	6.17	4.45		
	A	4.48	4.60	1.97	
4 MWF	U	5.73	5.09		
	A	5.60	2.82	.02	
5 BG	U	6.70	4.58		
	A	6.44	4.03	.05	
6 PG	U	8.06	5.15		
	A	8.41	4.81	.07	
7 SG	U	8.60	4.93		
	A	7.37	3.63	.01	

^aA = achiever; U = underachiever.

Table 3 summarizes the differences on the scales of the parent-child Relationship Questionnaire (Father form) of underachieving and achieving boys. The Underachievers scored a higher mean than the achievers on the Rejection scale, the difference was significant at the .01 level of confidence. The scales on Reward Symbolic Love and Loving yielded a higher mean for the achievers, again the difference was significant at the .01 level of confidence. On punishment Direct Object and Neglect scales the underachievers scored higher at the .05 level of confidence. No significant differences were found on the scales representing Protection, Punishment, Symbolic-Love, Casual, Demanding and Reward Direct-Object.

Table 3. A comparison of the scores on each scale of the Parent-Child Questionnaire (Father Form) of underachieving and achieving boys.

	Group ^a	Mean	S.D.	f	Sig. level
1 Protective	U	33.97	5.28		
	A	34.51	5.15	.17	
2 Punishment	U	22.33	4.21		
	A	21.00	4.57	1.44	
3 Rejection	U	30.43	5.65		
	A	25.30	4.96	14.71	.01
4 Casual	U	33.43	6.87		
	A	34.15	6.04	.19	
5 Reward	U	24.47	5.24		
	A	29.09	4.79	13.37	.01
6 Demanding	U	37.90	5.65		
	A	35.56	6.05	2.47	
7 Punishment	U	22.13	5.21		
	A	19.03	4.07	6.99	.05
8 Loving	U	40.00	7.68		
	A	45.75	6.74	10.04	.01
9 Neglect	U	27.07	5.81		
	A	23.76	4.85	6.05	.05
10 Reward	U	22.37	6.53		
	A	22.12	5.08	.02	

^aA = achiever; U = underachiever.

Table 4 compares the scores on each scale of the Parent-Child Questionnaire (Mother Form) of underachieving and achieving boys. The scale on Neglect was significantly different at the .01 level of confidence in favor of underachievers. Reward Symbolic-Love and Loving were also significantly different at the .01 level of confidence again favoring the underachievers. Punishment Direct-Object was significantly different at the .05 level of confidence in favor of the underachievers. No significant differences were found on the following scales; Protection, Punishment Symbolic-Love, Casual, Demanding and Reward Direct-Object.

Table 4. A comparison of the scores on each scale of the Parent-Child Questionnaire (Mother form) of underachieving and achieving boys.

		Group ^a	Mean	S.D.	f	Sig. level
1	Protective	U	35.77	5.33	.33	
		A	36.60	6.08		
2	Punishment Symbolic-Love	U	23.60	4.75	1.54	
		A	22.12	4.68		
3	Rejective	U	30.70	6.09	12.79	.01
		A	25.33	5.81		
4	Casual	U	33.97	6.10	.35	
		A	33.03	6.33		
5	Reward Symbolic-Love	U	26.27	3.63	19.68	.01
		A	30.45	3.84		
6	Demanding	U	37.40	5.74	.64	
		A	36.21	5.94		
7	Punishment Direct-Object	U	22.47	5.31	6.31	.05
		A	19.61	3.80		
8	Loving	U	41.37	6.27	11.93	.01
		A	46.90	6.44		
9	Neglect	U	26.20	6.13	9.59	.01
		A	21.97	4.67		
10	Reward Direct-Object	U	22.97	5.06	.01	
		A	23.09	5.54		

^aA = achiever; U = underachiever.

Table 5 represents the differences in the response of the under-achieving and achieving girls on each scale of the Parent-Child relationship Questionnaire (Father form). The achievers had a significantly higher mean, 1 percent and 5 percent level of confidence respectfully, on the scales representing Loving and Reward Symbolic Love. No significance was found on the scales representing Protective, Punishment, Symbolic-Love, Rejective, Casual, Demanding, Neglect, and Reward Direct-Object.

Table 5. A comparison of the scores on each scale of the Parent-Child Questionnaire (Father form) of underachieving and achieving girls.

	Group ^a	Mean	S.D.	f	Sig. level
1 Protective	U	35.60	6.43	.01	
	A	35.54	5.33		
2 Punishment Symbolic-Love	U	20.93	4.61	.41	
	A	20.22	3.64		
3 Rejective	U	25.87	6.15	3.06	
	A	23.11	5.69		
4 Casual	U	32.33	5.05	.79	
	A	33.59	5.60		
5 Reward Symbolic-Love	U	26.17	6.03	4.50	.05
	A	29.22	4.67		
6 Demanding	U	35.13	6.26	.09	
	A	34.63	6.01		
7 Punishment Direct-Object	U	19.67	5.00	16.22	.01
	A	15.29	2.74		
8 Loving	U	42.43	10.00	11.13	.01
	A	50.07	6.79		
9 Neglect	U	24.57	7.22	1.25	
	A	22.70	4.97		
10 Reward Direct-Object	U	22.27	5.08	.03	
	A	21.89	10.98		

^aA = achiever; U = underachiever.

Table 6 compares the scores on each scale of the parent-child Relationship Questionnaire (Mother form) of underachieving and achieving girls. The achieving girls scored significantly higher than the underachieving girls on the scale representing Loving, at the .01 level of confidence. The underachieving girls on the three scales representing Punishment Symbolic-Love, Punishment Direct-Object and Neglect were significantly greater at the .05 level of confidence. No significant differences were found on Protective, Rejective, Casual, Reward Symbolic-Love, Demanding and Reward Direct-Object scales.

Table 6. A comparison of the scores on each scale of the Parent-Child Questionnaire (Mother form) of underachieving and achieving girls.

		Group ^a	Mean	S.D.	f	Sig. level
1	Protective	U	35.72	6.72	1.13	
		A	37.44	5.55		
2	Punishment Symbolic-Love	U	23.73	5.17	4.48	.05
		A	20.88	4.94		
3	Rejective	U	27.03	8.16	3.47	
		A	23.51	5.70		
4	Casual	U	33.33	4.95	.01	
		A	33.48	6.02		
5	Reward Symbolic-Love	U	26.70	5.99	3.07	
		A	29.25	4.89		
6	Demanding	U	34.93	6.62	.53	
		A	33.36	6.43		
7	Punishment Direct-Object	U	20.10	4.57	5.31	.05
		A	17.51	3.79		
8	Loving	U	42.90	10.84	7.88	.01
		A	49.63	6.44		
9	Neglect	U	25.33	8.26	6.19	.05
		A	21.03	3.67		
10	Reward Direct-Object	U	22.30	5.35	1.41	
		A	20.78	4.15		

^aA = achiever; U = underachiever.

In general the scales (zig-zag lines) in Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 showed a high correlation between two equivalent scales on the two different forms (e.g. Punishment Direct-Object on Father form and the same scale on the Mother form). The low interparental correlation on Demanding and Neglect, .45 and .49 respectively for the achieving boys, and the low correlation of .26 on Neglect for the achieving girl (Table 10) seemed to be exceptions.

Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 also revealed some other low correlations on certain scales which appeared to be bipolar (e.g. Protection and Neglect, Rejection and Love, Punishment and Reward, etc.).

Table 7 showed the intra- and intercorrelation of the responses of underachieving boys on the scales of the three tests. Significant intracorrelations (above .70) on the scales of the Mooney Problem Checklist were found between Boy-Girl Relationship and People in General and Self-Concept. The Health and Physical Development scale on the Mooney Problem Checklist (MPCL) showed an extremely low correlation (below .20) with the scales on both forms of the Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire (PCRQ). The only intercorrelation in the .70's on the scales of the PCRQ (Father form) was between Punishment Symbolic-Love and Punishment Direct-Object ($r = .70$).

Table 8 represents the intra- and intercorrelation of the responses of achieving boys on the scales of all of the three tests. No intercorrelations in the .70's appeared on the scales of the MPCL. Similarly, the Mother form of the PCRQ showed no significant correlations. An r of .70 appears between Rejection and Love on the Father scale.

Table 8. Correlational matrix of the responses of achieving boys on the Mooney Problem Check List and Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire (Father form and Mother form).

		MPCL							PCRQ FATHER							PCRQ MOTHER													
		HPD	S	HF	MWF	BG	PG	SC	PRO	PUN S.L.	REJ	CAS	REW S.L.	DEM	PUN D.O.	LOV	NEG	REW D.O.	PRO	PUN S.L.	REJ	CAS	REW S.L.	DEM	PUN D.O.	LOV	NEG	REW D.O.	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	
MPCL	HPD	1	100	70	29	30	39	56	26	-20	08	06	17	-06	-13	-02	-09	14	02	-01	17	07	-40	-01	25	-11	-08	-16	-09
	S	2		100	42	27	51	49	61	-27	42	19	-25	-09	-02	06	-05	23	-02	-24	30	26	-29	-14	15	08	-21	22	-09
	HF	3			100	26	30	24	58	-04	35	19	-06	06	21	31	13	41	-10	00	33	10	-28	10	22	40	18	13	-03
	MWF	4				100	60	52	38	-17	-01	-16	-21	00	-05	-22	05	-15	-03	-25	-05	-07	-16	-09	-12	-05	-04	-03	-24
	BG	5					100	65	57	-16	02	03	-31	15	-01	05	-15	00	06	-19	-04	07	-22	-17	-10	21	-19	09	-06
	PG	6						100	53	06	00	-10	-34	-06	09	-09	04	-16	24	-18	-16	14	-18	-10	-13	-20	-15	-12	11
	SC	7							100	-25	29	-09	-32	14	18	14	24	-11	-06	-28	04	-10	-15	-04	-11	16	09	01	-10
PCRQ FATHER	PRO	8							100	10	-25	19	37	26	00	28	-17	43	57	-19	-45	37	27	-11	-22	26	-25	53	
	PUN S.L.	9								100	50	-10	03	35	42	-01	41	-15	-04	80	44	-07	00	31	32	-06	39	-16	
	REJ	10									100	-03	-40	18	39	-70	76	12	00	52	75	-14	-14	47	35	-45	58	-03	
	CAS	11										100	20	-25	-20	17	15	08	06	-04	-09	70	16	-14	10	35	-07	10	
	REW S.L.	12											100	28	-11	60	41	52	04	-19	-41	25	69	-07	-17	28	-40	47	
	DEM	13												100	39	00	03	20	18	17	-01	10	37	45	00	-01	-03	33	
	PUN D.O.	14													100	-12	34	14	26	35	18	-25	16	21	62	-04	06	18	
PCRQ MOTHER	LOV	15														100	54	11	09	-19	-51	27	30	-44	-13	66	-36	10	
	NEG	16															100	15	-05	56	59	-23	-21	48	32	-29	49	-14	
	REW D.O.	17																100	02	-27	-26	18	46	10	07	-06	-30	83	
	PRO	18																	100	00	-24	13	33	-08	03	44	-13	34	
	PUN S.L.	19																		100	58	-25	-06	50	40	-16	38	-26	
	REJ	20																			100	-27	-30	47	46	-57	68	28	
	CAS	21																				100	15	-29	-31	38	-07	29	
REW S.L.	22																					100	18	00	33	-42	58		
DEM	23																						100	24	-28	19	12		
PUN D.O.	24																							100	-07	32	07		
LOV	25																								100	-38	11		
NEG	26																									100	23		
REW D.O.	27																										100	100	

Table 9 represents the intra- and intercorrelation of the responses of underachieving girls on the scales of all of the three tests. The following intracorrelations over .70 on the scales of the MPCL were found: School and Home-and-Family, School and Boy-Girl Relationship, and School and Self-Concept. Home-and-Family and Boy-Girl Relationship, and Home-and-Family and Self-Concept. People in General and Self-Concept. The intercorrelation of the Mooney Problem Checklist with these scales and the other scales were generally low. One exception was a relatively high correlation of .61 between Punishment Direct-Object on the Father form of the PCRQ and the Health and Physical Development scale of the MPCL. On both the forms of the PCRQ certain unipolar scales like Rejection and Neglect showed a high correlation.

Table 10 shows the intra- and intercorrelation of the responses of underachieving girls on the scales of all of the three tests. Neither the MPCL nor the PCRQ (mother form) showed any intracorrelations of .70 or above. The only intracorrelation in the .70's on the PCRQ (Father form) was between Rejection and Neglect. A relatively high correlation ($r = .68$) appeared between Loving (Father form) and Health and Physical Development on the MPCL.

DISCUSSION

Problem Awareness

As Table 1 showed, the underachieving boy had significantly more problems than the achieving boy on all the scales of the Mooney Problem Check List. But Table 2 revealed that this was not true of the underachieving and achieving girl. Except for school related problems, the underachieving girl did not have significantly more problems than the achieving girl.

The results of the study indicated that this appeared to be the relatively lesser emphasis placed on the academic achievement of the girl. Although underachievement in itself creates a problem for the girl, which is evident on the school scale, it does not permeate into the other areas, thereby generating less problems. It is perhaps true of all cultures that academic achievement is more important for the boy than it is for the girl. It is especially true of the culture in Utah (predominantly Mormon) where a higher premium is placed on marriage and girls are relatively free from vocational pressures.

It is by no means implied that the girl's academic education is neglected. It is only argued that failing desirable academic achievement, a girl's chances of a suitable marriage are less likely to be damaged than that of a boy.

The problem of underachievement seems to be much more of a concern with school-going boys than girls. Kessler (1965, p. 206) points out that underachievement is beset with many unanswered issues, but

"There is one undisputed fact about underachievement--it is predominantly a male problem."

In the Review of the Literature three similar studies were cited in which the MCPL was administered and differences were noted. The studies by Graff (1957) and Frankel (1960) revealed no significant differences except on school related problems. The study by DeSena (1966) showed differences only in the areas of finance, living conditions and employment, social psychological relations, and the future vocation and education.

The discrepancy between the results of the present study and the three above mentioned findings was probably traceable to the age of the subjects. Graff (1957) and Frankel (1960) used ninth grade students and DeSena (1966) had college freshmen as his subjects. Then again, different forms of the MPCL were used. Both Graff (1957) and Frankel (1960) used the high school form and DeSena (1966) used the college form of the MPCL.

The present study, which used twelfth graders as subjects, used the Junior high form of the MPCL. As Geasel, Ilg, and Ames (1956) pointed out, the problem of dropping out of school was particularly crucial at this stage, particularly for the boy.

Hence, it is conceivable that the problems faced by the ninth grader are of a different nature than that of the twelfth grader or the college freshman.

Parental Attitudes

The only scales which significantly differentiated the under-achiever from the achiever for both boys and girls on both the forms

(Father and Mother) were Punishment Direct-Object and Loving. Both for boys and girls the mean score on the Loving scale was significantly higher for the achievers than the underachievers, whereas the mean score on Punishment was significantly higher for the underachiever than the achiever. This clearly indicated the importance of the two scales in differentiating the underachiever from the achiever.

These data showed that parental attitudes of Punishment (Direct-Object) and Loving was related to the child's ability to learn in a school situation. Among other things, the scale representing punishment Direct-Object included physical punishment used by parents as a mode of discipline. It also included denying promised trips to the child and reducing his allowance. Apparently these measures were not conducive to the growth of academic achievement of either boys or girls.

On the other hand, Parental Love seemed to nurture the academic performance of the child. Loving parents were more likely to reason with the child than punish him. Parental praise was not wanting, but it was not given indiscriminately. Unlike the punished child, the loved child confided in his parents and sought their help in solving problems. Without being intrusive the loving parents tried to help the child with projects that were important to him.

It seemed that the anxieties and inner turmoil evoked in the child by power assertive and punishing parents may have employed energy which might have contributed to learning. If the child was constantly threatened by physical reprisals from his parents he became absorbed in home related problems to the detriment of his school work. Instead a warm, affectionate and nurturing home environment reassured the child thus facilitating his school work.

According to Bandura, et al. (1961) and McCord, et al. (1961), presence of love indicated a love-oriented approach. They also designated parental attitude as a power assertive technique when excessive physical punishment was present. The present finding is in agreement with their assertion that punitive measures breed hostility and rebellion towards authority figures.

Rose and D'Andre (1959) similarly concluded that parental care in an affective context is conducive to the growth of achievement motivation. Allensmith and Greening (1951), Avonfreed (1961), and Unger (1962) also maintained that love-oriented techniques encouraged internalized reactions and self-responsibility.

The present findings along with the studies cited indicate that parental love through fostering self-responsibility, encourages academic achievement. Although the scales on Loving and Rejection unanimously stood out as distinguishing features of academic achievement for boys and girls on both forms (Father and Mother) of the PCRQ, Protection, Casual, Demanding, and Reward Direct-Object became conspicuous by their universal absence to distinguish academic achievement for boys and girls on any of the forms.

Parker (1965) conducted a study on the reliability of the PCRQ. Of the 20 scales on both forms, he found that the three scales on Protection, Casual, and Demanding to have the lowest reliability of all the scales. Protection had the least reliability.

It may also be that the dimensions of Casual and Demanding were more important as determinants of the absence or presence of delinquency rather than academic achievement (Glueck and Glueck, 1950).

With respect to Reward Direct-Object, many child psychologists underplay the significance of Direct-Object Reward in preference to Symbolic-Love Reward for controlling the behavior of the child. Sears, Macoby, and Levin (1963) defined Direct-Object Reward as tangible gifts of money or toys. Symbolic-Love Reward was defined as verbal praise of children for approved behavior, giving special attention and being demonstratively affectionate.

In general, the scales on the PCRQ distinguished the underachieving and achieving boys more frequently than the underachieving and achieving girls. (The MPCL showed similar results.) Once again we are reminded of Kessler (1965, p. 206) when she says "underachievement is predominantly a male problem." Punishment Symbolic-Love on the Mother form of the PCRQ is the only scale which is significant for the girls and not for the boys. It is interesting to note that this significance was a low one at the .05 level of confidence. It may be that the higher sensitivity of the girl made her more susceptible than the boy to the Symbolic-Love Punishment of the mother, or it may be due to the error variance inherent in all inferences when the .05 level of confidence is employed.

The zig-zag line in Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 underline the correlations of each scale of the Father form of the PCRQ with its Mother form counterpart. It was evident that correlations were high for most scales.

In Table 8, we noted that the inter-parent correlation for the achieving boy on Demanding and Neglect was low, .45 and .49 respectively, whereas the inter-parental correlation for the same scales was very high, .86 and .87 respectively (Table 7), for the underachieving boy.

Both the scales, Demanding and Neglect, were illustrative of a power assertive parental attitude. One is led to assume that the achieving boy not only experiences less parental neglect than the underachieving boy (as shown by the mean differences in Tables 3 and 4), but that the low inter-parental correlation on the two scales indicates that not both parents are simultaneously neglectful and demanding. On the other hand, the high inter-parental correlation on the two scales for the underachieving boy was evidence of the absence of any such redeeming feature in the attitude of at least one of the parents. Here the high mean score plus the high inter-parental correlation of the underachieving boy on the two scales showed that both parents employed high neglect and demand.

The same pattern was evident for the girls. Whereas the inter-parental correlation on Neglect for the achieving girl was a low .26 (Table 10), the same inter-parental correlation was a significant high of .86 for the underachieving girl. The same argument used for explaining the inter-parental discrepancy for the boy in the preceding paragraph may be used here.

The the section on the Review of the Literature, five studies were pointed out which in going contrary to the findings of the present study, maintained that power-assertive rather than love-oriented parental attitudes fostered academic achievement.

Out of the five studies surveyed (Hoffman et. al., 1958; Burchinal et. al., 1957; Drews and Teaham, 1957; Crandall et. al., 1964; and Van Slyke, 1962), only one of the studies (Van Slyke, 1962) offered some bases for comparison. Whereas the present study measured parental attitude as perceived by the child, the other four studies did not.

Hoffman et. al. (1958) and Crandall et. al. (1964) interviewed the parents. Burchinal et. al. (1957) administered the Thurstone Personality Schedule in assessing parental attitudes. Drews and Teaham (1957) used the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI).

As indicated in the Introduction, many authors (Schaefer, 1965 and Yarrow, 1963) had pointed out the methodological weakness in relying excessively on parental reports. Hence the discrepancy in the findings between these four studies and the present one may be due to the fact that the latter gets its reports "straight from the horses mouth."

Van Slyke in his assessment of parental attitude did study the child, instead of the parent. The instruments he used were Draw Your Family test and a revision of the Childrens Form of Forer's Structured Sentence Completion Test. It should be pointed out that unlike the PCRQ, neither of these two tests was specifically designed to elicit the child's perception of parental attitudes. Then again he maintained that the failure to draw a one-to-one relationship between love-oriented parental attitudes and academic achievement may be due to the small number of subjects used and the particular type of social class adopted for the study. His study dealt with only 18 subjects from the upper class and the upper-middle class.

Problem Awareness and Parental Attitudes

The MPCL have very low correlations with the two forms of PCRQ (Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10). Contrary to what was expected, the low correlations in this study implied that the extent of the child's problem awareness was not significantly related to his perception of parental attitudes.

The only existing study known to the author relating parental attitudes to problem awareness of the child is by Zunich (1962). His subjects, 20 Junior High boys and 20 girls, were administered the Mooney Problem Check List and their parents were given the Parental Attitude Research Instrument.

Of the 644 relations examined between the scales of PARI and MPCL, 92 were statistically significant. The present study failed to bring out any such comparable results. This discordance may be due to the instruments used. As it was pointed out earlier, PARI is administered directly to the parents, yielding different results than the PCRQ which reflects the child's perception of parental attitudes.

Intuitively one is led to believe that there should be a relationship between parental attitudes and problem awareness. This may very well be so. The failure to find any such relationship may be attributed to the lack of sensitivity in the PCRQ. This instrument as its author (Roe, 1963) points out, is still at the blue print stage.

In measuring various scales like Punishment, Loving, Rejection, etc., it did not sharply differentiate between their various aspects. For example, Solomon (1964, p. 251) in evaluating the measurement of Punishment and its implications suggested that the following factors should be accounted for:

(a) Intensity of the punishment stimulus. (b) Whether the response being punished is an instrumental one or a consummatory one. (c) Whether the response is instinctive or reflective. (d) Whether it was established originally by reward or punishment. (e) Whether or not the punishment is closely associated in time with the punished response. (f) The temporal arrangements of reward and punishment. (g) The strength of the response to be punished. (h) Whether or not a reward alternative is offered during the behavior-suppression period induced by punishment. (i) Whether a distinctive,

incompatible avoidance response is strengthened by omission of punishment. (j) The age of the subject. . . .

It seems reasonable to assume that the lack of any significant relationship between parental attitude and problem awareness in the present study may be due to the instrument used (PCRQ) which takes only the age of subjects (j) into account.

Educational Implications

Next to the family, the school perhaps plays a major role in the development of the child. The family and the school both determine how the child will react in academic and other situations. Traditionally the two institutions (family and school) have strived--not always successfully--to cooperate in furthering the educational cause of the child.

The findings of this study suggest that the typical once a month meetings of the PTA may be far from sufficient. If the educational success of the child is the aim, educators must significantly increase their efforts in counseling the parent and the child in order to foster a warm mutual relationship.

After identifying underachievers, school administrators set up special coaching classes for them and perhaps inform their parents. School officials are reluctant in trying to find out the specific problems that the child faces in relationship to his parents. This reluctance stems from a fear of being stamped as nosy and meddling. If schools are to turn out well-rounded citizens, they must look beyond the academic needs of the child.

Children who feel unwanted or perceive themselves as rejected by their parents may be inclined to find other avenues of acceptance.

This may make them more vulnerable to unwholesome elements in their environment. Feelings of rejection at home promote feelings of worthlessness and give rise to a poor self-concept. Schools should pay special attention to the underachiever in finding more fruitful channels of acceptance and strive to instill feelings of self-worth and acceptance in the child.

Since the present study does indicate a relationship between parental acceptance and academic achievement it may be assumed that parental counseling may be another direction that educators should explore in combating academic underachievement. As Gelmore (1965, p. 50) points out, "If student counseling alone does not change behavior . . . we must not be dealing with causes." He advocates that in order to change the academic pattern of the child, his family relationship must be examined and changed if it is contributing to his dysfunctioning.

Educators should expend greater effort and energy in promoting the mental health of the child and foster healthier parent-child relationships if the academic and non-academic aims of the schools are to be realized.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Summary

This study was aimed at finding relationships between the triad of academic achievement, child's perception of parental attitude, and his problem awareness. The study was designed with reference to three postulates of phenomenological psychology. (a) The perceptual field of an individual at any moment determines his behavior of the moment. (b) The term phenomenal self is formed by the individual's interaction with others. (c) The basic need of the organism is the maintenance and actualization of the self.

A survey of the literature tended to support the thesis that there was a positive relationship between educational achievement and parental acceptance. On the other hand, research in this area also contained some evidence showing that parents of achieving children tended to adopt power assertive techniques of child rearing.

Sixty achievers and sixty underachievers of both sexes were administered the Father and Mother form of the Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire and the Mooney Problem Check List and their relationships were noticed.

The results showed that the scales on the Mooney Problem Check List distinguished the underachieving and achieving boy but not the underachieving and achieving girl, except the School scale. The only scales which significantly differentiated the underachiever from the achiever for both boys and girls on both the forms were Punishment

Direct-Object and Loving. The study did not reveal any significant relationship between the scales on the two forms of PCRQ and MPCL.

Conclusions

1. This study failed to show any consistent trend of significant relationship between the child's perception of parental attitudes and his problem awareness.

2. Both boys and girls who were educationally successful tend to perceive parental behavior as more accepting and less punitive than academically less successful children. This did not, however, imply a one-to-one relationship. It could be that each reinforced the other.

3. The only scales which significantly differentiated the underachiever from the achiever for both boys and girls for both parents were (a) Loving and (b) Punishment Direct-Object.

4. Problem awareness as measured by the Mooney Problem Check List differentiated the underachieving and achieving boy but not the underachieving and achieving girl (except the scale on School).

5. In determining academic achievement, perception of parental attitudes seemed to be more crucial for the boy than for the girl.

6. A preponderance of the studies aimed at measuring parental attitudes had used the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). Although parental attitudes as revealed by the parents themselves is important, the child's perception of parental attitudes--to say the least--is equally important. As seen in the section on discussion, the two very often yielded different results.

7. Because many studies in the past had neglected to take the father into account, it had been implied that he was not as important as the mother. The present findings of the nearly equal number of significance on both the Mother and Father form of the PCRQ indicated the equal importance of the father.

Suggestions for Further Studies

1. In relating Parental Attitudes and Academic Achievement, this study divided the subjects on the basis of their sex and analyzed the results separately for Father and Mother. It was felt that this was an improvement on some of the previous studies. It is further suggested that future studies also take the social class of the subjects into account, too. Numerous studies have shown that parent-child interaction differs widely from class to class.

2. As pointed out in the section on discussion, the present instrument for gauging the child's perception of parental attitudes is not accurate enough. Some instrument, taking Solomon's (1964) suggestions into account, should be developed. The author of this paper believes that such an instrument would yield more fruitful results in the search for relationships in the triad of Academic Achievement, Problem Awareness, and Perception of Parental Attitudes.

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