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VALUE ORIENTATION PERCEPTION OF CHILD REARING, AND LOCUS
OF CONTROL AMONG DELINQUENT AND NONDELINQUENT MEXICAN
ADOLESCENT MALES

Michigan State University

PH.D.

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VALUE ORIENTATION PERCEPTION OF CHILD REARING, AND LOCUS OF CONTROL
AMONG DELINQUENT AND NONDELINQUENT MEXICAN ADOLESCENT MALES

By

Lucia Lois Webster

A DISSERTATION

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1980

ABSTRACT

VALUE ORIENTATION, PERCEPTION OF CHILD REARING, AND LOCUS OF CONTROL AMONG DELINQUENT AND NONDELINQUENT MEXICAN ADOLESCENT MALES.

By

Lucia Lois Webster

The present study was designed to explore proscriptive-prescriptive value orientation, perception of maternal child-rearing practices, and perceived locus of control among delinquent and nondelinquent Mexican adolescent males. Previous research in the area of value orientation was cited, with particular emphasis on McKinney's four-fold model of the development of values. According to McKinney's model, parents who emphasize a prescriptive value orientation, reward their children for doing right and punish them for not doing right. Parents who emphasize a proscriptive value orientation reward their children for not doing wrong and punish them for doing wrong. Integration of McKinney's model with the literature concerning parental punitiveness, use of physical punishment, and perceived locus of control, suggested the following hypotheses: (1) Delinquents would have higher proscriptive value orientations than nondelinquents, (2) delinquents would be more oriented toward an external locus of control than nondelinquents, (3) delinquents would perceive their mothers to have used more physical punishment than reward, and (4) delinquents would score higher on direct object punishment and symbolic love punishment than would nondelinquents.

The subjects were sixty-two adolescent males residing in Monterrey, Mexico. Thirty-one subjects were delinquents, referred to the study by the preventive police of Monterrey, and thirty-one subjects were nondelinquent volunteers

of approximately the same age and social-economic status. Subjects were administered the Roe-Sigelman Mother Form of the Parent-Child Questionnaire, Rotter's Social Reaction Inventory (internal-external locus of control), and McKinney's Sentence Completion Test (prescriptive-proscriptive value orientation).

Data analyses supported two of the hypotheses. Delinquents scored higher in proscriptive value orientation than did nondelinquents. Delinquents also perceived their mothers to use more punishment than did nondelinquents. No differences were found between delinquents and nondelinquents on perceived locus of control. The only difference between delinquents and nondelinquents in perception of parental punishment/reward was in the opposite direction to that predicted--delinquents reported that their mothers gave them higher levels of reward than did the nondelinquents. The results were discussed in light of cultural differences in child rearing patterns, rehabilitation of delinquents, and suggestions for future research.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate differences between delinquents and nondelinquents residing in Monterrey, Mexico, with respect to their value orientations, perception of punishment, and perceived locus of control. To some extent, delinquency is a culturally defined phenomenon. What may be delinquent behavior in the United States, may or may not be delinquent behavior in Mexico. Moreover, cultures may differ widely in the child rearing practices, social-economic conditions, and "cultural ethic" to which adolescents are exposed. In order that the reader may better understand the situation of Mexican delinquents, this chapter will provide a brief overview of the culture from which the study sample was drawn.

Cultural Background: Mexico

The Republic of Mexico is a relatively large country with a total land surface area of 1,972, 547 Km². In 1960, there were 34,923,126 citizens, but by 1970 the population increased to 48,225,238 (Direccion Federal de Estadistica, 1970). Table 1 summarizes population statistics for children under age 17, according to the 1970 census. The rapid increase in population combined with a slowly developing economy exacerbated a number of social problems, including under-nutrition and family instability. For example, in 1970, approximately 10 million individuals consumed insufficient quantities of protein. The diets of 11 million people did not include eggs, and 18 million people had little or no milk to drink. It is clear that the nutritional status for many Mexicans is substandard (Direccion Federal de Estadistica, 1970). Changes in family stability are reflected by dramatic increases in divorce

Table 1

Distribution of Mexico's population at various age levels
for males and females 17 years of age and less.

Data are based on the 1970 census.*

<u>Age Range</u>	<u>1960 Census</u>	<u>1970 Census</u>
0-4 years	16.5%	16.9%
5-9 years	15.2%	16.0%
10-14 years	12.5%	13.3%
15-17 years	6.2%	6.6%

<u>Age Range</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>
0-6 years	5,836,609	5,627,822	11,464,431
7-17 years	7,085,792	6,888,634	13,974,426

*Direccion Federal de Estadística (1970).

rates. Divorces in 1960 numbered 14,964. By 1970, the divorce rate more than doubled to 31,181 (Dirección Federal de Estadística, 1970).

State of Nuevo Leon

The state of Nuevo Leon is situated between the parallels $27^{\circ} 48'$ and $23^{\circ} 09'$ North latitude and the meridians $98^{\circ} 26'$ and $101^{\circ} 13'$ Greenwich West longitude. It has a superficial area of $64,555 \text{ km}^2$, and is integrated by 15 Municipalities (Cifras de Nuevo Leon, 1970).

The state has 1,649 elementary schools with 465,918 students and 13,258 teachers. Of these schools, 920 are federal, 622 are state, and 107 are private. There are 262 secondary schools with 124,548 students and 5,721 teachers. Of these, 21 are federal, 170 are state, and 71 are private. There are 51 Bachilleratos (i.e., upper high schools) which have enrollment figures numbering 31,760 students with a teaching faculty numbering 1,295. Of these schools, 21 are private and 30 are public institutions. Both truancy and drop-out are problems. One out of five children quit school between the first and sixth grades. It should not be surprising, therefore, that a large number of adults are illiterate (Garza, Mendiola & Rabago, 1977).

Nuevo Leon has the following institutes of higher education: Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo Leon, Instituto Tecnológico, Universidad de Monterrey, Universidad Regiomontana, Centro de Estudios Universitarios, Universidad Autónoma del Norte, Universidad Mexicana del Noreste, and Universidad de Morelos. All of these universities except the last are located in the metropolitan area of Monterrey (Cifras de Nuevo Leon, 1970).

Monterrey

The metropolitan area of Monterrey is in the northeastern part of Mexico. It is the capital of the state of Nuevo Leon and one of the leading industrial cities of Mexico. It consists of seven municipalities which include Monterrey, San Nicolás, Garza García, Apodaca, Guadalupe, Gral. Escobedo, and Santa Catarina.

According to the 1970 census, the total population of the area is 1,899,837, and the minimum wage, in pesos, is \$113.00 per week.

The metropolitan area of Monterrey has a population of 100,000 people who are immigrants from rural areas of other states. These people are referred to as "Paracaidistas", "Marginados", or land invaders. The condition of these people continues to be in constant flux, while the flight to the city continues to increase the area's population.

Court for Minors

The first Court for Minors was founded in 1928, in Mexico City by Francisco Villamichel and Francisco Bolanos. In the city of Monterrey, the delinquent court was initiated in July of 1934 under Governor Pablo Quiroga (Secretaria de Gobierno, 1934).

The state of Nuevo Leon has a Court for Minors dealing exclusively with cases of delinquency of minors 18 years of age and under. According to law, the court must be composed of a lawyer, a medical doctor, and a teacher. It has been established that all hearings are to be held completely separate from the ordinary penal court. The procedures followed are to be informal, and the sanctions applied are to be characterized by an absence of penal nature (Cisneros, 1970).

According to Chapter 13 of the General Dispositions, Article 1:

It is the duty of the Court for Minors to hear each case that the penal code indicates with respect to minors. When a senior and a minor together violate the law, the ordinary court can not in any case or with any motive, extend its jurisdiction over the minor (Codigos Penales, 1960).

On April 22, 1941, Don Manuel Avila Camacho, then President of Mexico, decreed that all courts for minors are to be ruled by a common law, although

direct responsibility for the Courts for Minors was to reside with the individual states.

On July 28, 1934, in the Official Gazette, the first ruling for the Court for Minors in the State of Nuevo Leon was decreed. This has been modified in some of its articles, but remains extant.

Any children 18 years old or younger who violate the penal code will be interned for their educative correction for as long as is necessary (Guerrero, 1978).

The internship can be as follows:

- I. Home Reclusion
- II. School Reclusion
- III. Reclusion in an honest home,
patronate, or similar institution
- IV. Reclusion in a medical establishment
- V. Reclusion in a special establishment
of technical education, and
- VI. Reclusion in an establishment of correctional education (Codigos Penales, 1960).

The re-educative corrections are as follows:

- I. Warnings
- II. Tutelary measures
- III. Foster placement
- IV. Hospitals
- V. House of Mental Health
- VI. Centro de Integracion Juvenil
- VII. Escuela Prevocacional
- VIII. Casa de Refugio, and
- IX. Casa de Jesus (Guerrero, 1978).

Warnings are given in accordance to article 552 of the organic law.

If a child under 12 is not morally abandoned, perverted, in physical danger, or requiring a special treatment, the Court will warn or apply school arrest. In this case it will warn and advise the parents in the most convenient way.

The tutelary measures imply that the Court must attempt to locate the parents. In their absence, the nearest relative must be contacted so he can take charge of the minor under the supervision of the Court with the understanding that all Court orders must be fulfilled.

Foster home placement is applied when the minor is morally abandoned, perverted or in physical danger. The Court gives the child to a worthy family where he can be educated and watched by a person designated by the Department of Social Prevention.

A minor can be hospitalized due to a sudden sickness that happened during the hearings and that requires special care.

If the minor is considered to be mentally ill he or she will be put in the House of Mental Health.

If the minor is a drug addict, the Court will send him to the Centro de Integracion Juvenil.

If the minor does not fall in the above categories, if he is a boy he will be sent to the Escuela Prevocacional. If the minor is a girl, she will be sent either to Casa del Refugio or to Casa de Jesus (Guerrero, 1978).

The organization and functioning of the Court for Minors is very vague, and subject to many mistakes (Gomez, 1971).

Most of the minors who are interned by the Court come from low socio-economic levels. This in great part is due to the fact that those who come from the middle or upper classes generally are not interned unless a serious violation has been committed. Parents pick their children up at the police

stations and will not allow them to be turned in to the Court, or, once in the Court, they are released to their parents if they can demonstrate that they are honorable, have a stable and normal home, and have an honest means of living (Rodriguez, 1975).

Delinquency Statistics

De la Torre, Joaquin, et al., in Excelsior de Mexico, (March 17, 1974) states that 20 percent of the children in Mexico are physically abused by their parents. Fifty-two percent of the parents who physically abuse their children were physically abused themselves. Twenty-six percent of the physically abused individuals were abused by fathers, 58 percent by mothers, and 16 percent by others (Kitsu, 1971).

The archives of Proteccion Ciudadana-Seccion Juvenil (1977), indicate the following: of a sample of 157 violators, 80% were in gangs and 62% were school drop-outs. Of the same sample 95% come from marginated zones, that is, from families with an income below minimum wages for that state.

Social Economic Class

To properly discuss socioeconomic class in Mexico, the economic factor must be recognized not only as an index but also as a behavior pattern (Rodriguez, 1975).

In Mexico there are two extreme social-economic classes; one composed of troublemakers and outcasts living under subhuman conditions and the other composed of the very wealthy. In either extreme, if there is a crime or violation committed, it will not be "discovered" or "denounced" (Rodriguez, 1975).

In between these extremes there are three other social classes: the poor, middle-class, and the rich. The poor earn the minimum wage stipulated by law in accordance with the regulations for each state in the nation. The "prototypical" behavior is described by Ramos (1962). Middle-class individuals

Table 2

Demographic statistics for delinquents appearing
before the Court for Minors during 1977.
(Metropolitan Monterrey)

<u>Age of Subjects</u>	<u>Number of Subjects</u>	<u>Highest Educational Level Attained</u>	<u>Number of Subjects</u>
5-7 years	7	<u>Elementary</u>	
8-12 years	107	Without Elementary	27
13-17 years	729	First grade	60
18-19 years	10	Second grade	73
		Third grade	92
		Fourth grade	96
		Fifth grade	89
		Sixth grade	155
		<u>Secondary</u>	
		First year	53
		Second year	55
		Third year	53
		<u>Bachillerato</u>	
		First year	28
		Second year	15
		Professional	1
		Commercial	4
		Technical	7
		Teaching	2
		Nursing	1
<u>Sex</u>	<u>Number of Subjects</u>		
Males	785		
Females	67		
<u>Family Situation</u>	<u>Number of Subjects</u>		
Integrated homes	167		
Separated parents	42		
Divorced parents	1		
Deceased father	35		
Deceased mother	15		
Step-father	18		
Step-mother	3		
Foster parents	5		
Married minor	3		
<u>Type of Violation</u>	<u>Number of Subjects</u>		
Stealing	390		
Vagrancy	204		
Drugs	89		
Assault	65		
Property damage	29		
Impudent acts	20		
Homicide	9		

Table 3
Demographic statistics for delinquents in the custody of
Proteccion Ciudadana-Seccion Juvenil during 1975-1976.

Violation	Male	Female	Total
Escaping	116	121	237
Cement use	206	15	221
Theft	159	20	179
Fighting	90	22	112
Lost	66	33	99
Drunk	71	10	81
Immoral acts	50	24	74
Solvent inhalation	65	8	73
Vagrancy	42	16	58

Table 4
Demographic statistics for delinquents in the custody of
Proteccion Ciudadana-Seccion Juvenil during 1976-1977.

Violation	Male	Female	Total
Escaping	183	181	364
Theft	201	50	251
Vagrancy	187	50	237
Cement	138	16	154
Drunk	136	9	145
Fighting	99	6	105
Lost	63	41	104
Solvent inhalation	81	0	81

Table 5
Demographic statistics for delinquents in the custody of
Proteccion Ciudadana-Seccion Juvenil during 1977-1978.

Violation	Male	Female	Total
Vagrancy	459	114	573
Escaping	169	159	325
Theft	191	39	230
Lost	124	59	183
Solvent inhalation	137	10	147
Family trouble	126	6	132
Disturbing the peace	105	8	113
Drunk	68	11	79
Property damage	73	6	79
Cement use	29	29	58

Table 6

Distribution of referrals for 2,873 delinquent minors

(2,156 males, 717 females) during the time period of

March 1977 to February 1978.

Data are based on records maintained by the Preventive Police.

Referral	Number of Minors
Social Workers	1,233
Returned to their Families	712
Psychologists	323
Free	155
Tribunal for Minors	127
Federal Police	104
Escuela Prevocasional	91
Demarcacion Central	56
Agent of Public Ministry	48
Agent of Federal Public Ministry	24
Agent of Civil Public Ministry	6
Green Cross	1
Casa del Refugio	1
Unit of Psychiatry	1
House of Mental Health	1

Table 7

Distribution of violations for 2,873 delinquents

during the time period of March 1977 to February 1978.

Data are based on records maintained by the Preventive Police.

Violation	Male	Female	Total
Vagrancy	459	114	573
Running away	169	156	325
Theft	191	39	230
Protection	115	80	195
Lost	124	59	183
Incorrigible conduct	103	60	163
Solvent inhalation	137	10	147
Molesting families	126	6	132
Fighting	111	18	129
Disturbing the peace	105	8	113
Suspects	79	4	83
Drunk	68	11	79
Property damage	73	6	79
Cement use	29	29	58
Insults	42	7	49
Custody	11	26	37
Immoral conduct	15	22	37
Prostitution	4	28	32
Illegal entry	31	0	31

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

Violation	Male	Female	Total
Unpaid bills	24	5	29
Being in prohibited places	19	5	24
Previous records	21	0	21
Insanity	13	7	20
Assault	19	1	20
Hitting	12	5	17
Threats	10	2	12
Rock throwing	7	0	7
Damage to public property	6	0	6
Marijuana use	5	0	5
Drug possession	4	0	4
Violence	4	0	4
Soliciting	0	3	3
Trust abuse	2	1	3
Rape	2	1	3
Abduction	3	0	3
Truancy	2	0	2
Assault	2	0	2
Impudent acts	2	0	2
Weapon possession	2	0	2
Exhibitionism	1	0	1
Obstructing the police	1	0	1

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

Violation	Male	Female	Total
Mistreatment	0	1	1
Adultery	1	0	1
Suicide intent	0	1	1
Impersonation	1	0	1
Infant abandonment	1	0	1
Corruption of minor	0	1	1

earn far above minimum wages and Rodriguez (1975) subdivides it into the middle and the little bourgeois. The rich classification is composed of the new rich, who in a short time or through luck, became wealthy. They do not belong socio-culturally to their economic class, but the "aristocrats," who have always had economic possibilities, do belong behaviorally to their class. The behavior of the various classes is amply studied and discussed by Ramos (1962), Guerrero (1976), and Gonzales (1966).

Family

The family is a unit of interacting and intercommunicating persons enacting the social roles of husband and wife, mother and father, son and daughter, brother and sister (Burguess, 1953).

The monogamous nuclear family is considered as a unit "consisting of a male, female, and their offspring" (Rodriguez, 1975).

In Mexico there are usually two marriage rites: a civil ceremony which is the legal bond and the religious ceremony which has no legal value. The marriage ceremony is the celebration of a civil contract between a man and a woman for the perpetuation of the species and for mutual help. It specifies that each individual must contribute his or her share to the marriage. There are two ways of signing the contract which affects the financial status and independence of the parties involved. One form is through separation of means, and the other through integration of means. The husband is the legal authority, and therefore must provide the food and meet all household expenses. The woman can hold a job if it does not interfere with the household activities.

To fulfill the legal requirements for the civil contract, there must be a medical examination, parental consent or attainment of legal age, and the presence of two witnesses, one for each party (Webster, 1970). The anticipated quality of a sanctioned marriage is that it is a stable relation in

which it is socially acceptable for a man and a woman to have children with loss of their reputation before the community (Johnson, 1967).

The Mexican family is based on two basic propositions:

- (1) the absolute and unquestionable supremacy of the father; and
- (2) the necessary and absolute sacrifice of the mother (De Chinas, 1976).

Due to the second proposition, the maternal role is highly prestigious. Mothers are important figures and highly respected. The father's authority is unchallengeable and unquestionable. Therefore, the family is patriarchal because it is based on the authority of the paternal figure. At the same time, it is matriarchical due to the status that the mother has (De Chinas, 1976).

In low socioeconomic classes and among the Indian communities, the family is basically an economic unit. Each member must work for the benefit of the family (McLean, 1960).

The structure of the family can be nuclear or extended, of which the latter is most commonly found (Webster, 1970). The extended family pattern tends to be more frequent in low socioeconomic levels. On the other hand, in families of high socioeconomic status, there are a variety of structures. Relatives do not necessarily live under the same roof, but may live independently next to or very nearby the core family. They are free to come and go as they wish as they are not considered guests at all by the core family. The obligations and duties of childrearing tend to be shared by other female relatives. Again, this pattern is more prevalent in low socioeconomic families, whereas in high level families, the childrearing tasks are shared with hired help, such as maids, nurses, and governesses (McLean, 1970).

Another characteristic of the Mexican family is that the offspring for the most part do not leave the family house unless they marry. Age and eco-

conomic independence do not seem to be factors in leaving the paternal house (Webster, 1970).

Summary

This then is the cultural context in which the behavior of delinquent and nondelinquent males was compared. Mexico is a culture where there are widely divergent social-economic classes ranging from the extremely wealthy to the extremely impoverished. It is a developing nation with significant social, physical, and economic problems. Foremost among these problems are undernutrition and family instability combined with large family size among the lower social-economic classes. Although the technology necessary to support a strong oil industry is developing, unemployment is widespread. The high level of illiteracy and low levels of educational attainment among the populace as a whole probably contribute more to unemployment than do other factors in the economy. The Mexican family is patriarchal, with women expected to derive their esteem from their caregiving and homemaking tasks rather than from their employment.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Psychoanalytic Theory

In order to understand the dynamics of delinquency, a brief review of personality theories is in order. Underlying Freud's (1968) theory with respect to the development of values is the substructure superego, which develops out of the ego. It has two basic functions. The first is to suppress, or neutralize instinctual energy which could violate society's rules or norms, in a word--conscience. The second function relates to the ego ideal, i.e., behaviors considered appropriate by the society. Identification is the mechanism through which the superego is acquired. In this process, the individual internalizes the attributes of others, largely those of the parents. This parental influence tends to greatly affect the individual behavioral patterns. The process of identification, then produces the conscience and the ego ideal.

Identification with an aggressor according to Freudian theory, is the underlying mechanism for conscience formation whereby the child identifies with the aggressor and takes the same punitive attitudes of the adult. If a forbidden impulse arises, the superego acts, attempting to keep this forbidden material from the conscience. If it is strong enough, the superego supercedes action, and produces guilt and remorse. Anaclitic identification is the underlying mechanism for development of the ego ideal, whereby the child incorporates what he thinks he would like to become. Attachments or anaclitic identifications produce the development of values.

Social Learning Theory

From the perspective of social learning theory, values are acquired through learning processes which are not in any way different in principle from other acquired behaviors. Adults, and in essence parents, mold the behaviors of the child by punishment, reward, and the examples set. That is to say, adults are the source of positive and negative reinforcement serving also as models. The child will learn that actions have a consequence. Behaviors are also learned by watching others. If the child observes someone being punished for doing something, it will have an inhibiting effect on the observer, whereas reward increases the probability that the behavior will be reproduced under the same situation. Therefore, punishment will tend to inhibit the punished behaviors and rewards to promote the rewarded behaviors which have been observed (Bandura, 1968; Berger, 1962).

Imitation refers to an instrumental response strengthened or weakened through reinforcement. Identification involves a disposition or learned drive to imitate behaviors, values, and feelings of others (Miller & Dollard, 1941).

Identification will function if the model has positive value, has high status, or is similar to the child. Models are also identified with, if the child is not punished for his behavior or is rewarded for reproducing the model's behavior (Bandura, 1965; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963).

Bandura and Walters (1959) found that parents of aggressive boys had encouraged aggression and presented aggressive models along with the frequent use of physical punishment and deprivation. McCord et al., (1961) found almost all the same effects as Bandura and Walters.

Psychoanalytic and social learning theories agree that the acquisition by the child of behavioral norms stems from the people who surround him, and especially from the parents. The superego is formed through the identifica-

tion with values and traits of the same sex parent at the termination of the Oedipus complex. The reinforcement and punishment of behaviors, the degree of parental permissiveness, warmth, and nurturance, and the models presented by others influence the degree to which the child internalizes socially prescribed controls over his behavior. If successful, guilt will tend to be a major controlling factor of behavior.

Learning theories indicate that a reward will tend to increase a given behavior whereas punishment will decrease a given behavior. In other words, what will be learned along a prescriptive dimension will be the reward consequent for behaving well and the punishment for failing to behave well. Along the proscriptive dimension, what will be learned is reward, consequent for avoiding wrong, and punishment, consequent for behaving in an undesirable manner (McKinney, 1971).

Psychoanalytic and social learning theories are concerned with the effects of parental and societal influences on the development of values and have approached the issue with a dichotomous point of view of right and wrong. They also view the child as a passive recipient of environmental stimulation.

Cognitive Theory

From a Piagetian cognitive approach, behaviors can be seen concurrently as the action of the child upon the environment and the action of the environment upon the child. The individual's action is the functioning of a scheme, which also is shaped by the environment creating a situation where doing and knowing become inseparable.

Piaget (1932) presents stages that more or less correspond to the cognitive development of the individual. These stages depend upon the individual's concepts of justice and the rules of social order. These stages are important to explain value acquisition which occurs at approximately two years of age

when the child is capable of internalizing action as thought. From this point until age seven (Piaget's pre-operational period), the major characteristic is egocentrism, which means that the child is seeing the world from his point of view. While incapable of seeing that there are other perspectives, the child is dominated by perceptions of his or her environment. Around seven years of age (Piaget's period of concrete operations) egocentrism declines and the child is less bound to perceptual dominance. The child now can recognize others' point of view, the major characteristic of this stage being that thought is concrete and actual. During adolescence (Piaget's period of formal operations) the child becomes capable of hypothetical and abstract thinking. Behavior no longer means obedience to authority or conforming to group pressure. Instead, there is a need to consider personal points of view along with those of others, forming the capability to work out his or her own value guidelines.

McKinney (1971; 1973; 1975) postulates that the individual is an active agent, who chooses with freedom and is capable of seeing that stimulus changes are dependent on the individual's own behavior. Therefore, the feedback of the self initiated behavior and stimulus changes that are contingent upon an individual's behavior, are the foundation for the development of values. McKinney (1971) offers a fourfold model of value orientation and behavior. Prescriptive value orientation emphasizes action. The result associated with a prescriptive orientation can be either reward for doing the right thing or punishment for neglecting to do the good thing. Proscriptive value orientation focuses on the absence of action, and the behavior consequence can be reward for avoiding wrong doing, or punishment for neglecting to do right.

A prescriptive value orientation emphasizes doing good, and the behavioral consequent can be reward for doing good, or punishment for neglecting to do

the good thing. Proscriptive value orientation emphasizes doing wrong, and the behavioral consequent can be reward for avoiding the wrong doing or punishment for doing the wrong. The idea behind this is that an individual's responses, whether on the prescriptive or proscriptive dimension, are the result of these two antecedent conditions or reward-punishment dimensions.

McKinney (1971) found that a group of college students, who had a moral value orientation along the prescriptive dimension, perceived their parents as more rewarding than punitive, and that, of those students who perceived their parents as being more punitive, most students held a more proscriptive value orientation.

Several researchers have found that parental discipline that includes physical punishment and material deprivation tends to propitiate fear of punishment and anxiety, whereas parental discipline that has concurrently an affectionate close relationship, tends to propitiate independence of external controls (McKinney, Fitzgerald & Strommen, 1977; Andry, 1960; Hewitt & Jenkins, 1964; Schachter & Latane, 1964; Andry, 1957). Hoffman and Saltzstein (1967) found that older boys who had internalized standards of morality saw their parents as being affectionate and did not employ force or threats as a form of parental discipline. Olejnik and McKinney (1972) reported that children are more generous when parents have a prescriptive value orientation.

Different studies that have investigated parent-child relationships and the influence they may have on delinquent behavior come to the same conclusion: parents of delinquent subjects tend to be less affectionate, more indifferent, too disciplinarian or too permissive. They also tend to use more physical punishment than the parents of nondelinquents (Glueck & Glueck, 1968; Becker, 1964; McCord & McCord, 1957). Permissive, hostile parents tend to foster the manifestation of aggression with little control (Bandura & Walters, 1963).

Diverse studies indicate that delinquents and lower socioeconomical class adolescents have a greater external locus of control (Lefcourt, 1966; Rotter, 1966; Battle and Rotter, 1963). Currie, et al. (1977), found that subjects with an internal orientation tend to have less marijuana consumption than those subjects with an external orientation.

Summary

The results of previous studies support the notion that children's perceptions of parental discipline as being punitive, using physical punishment, and being authoritarian tend to foster the development of proscriptive value orientation with an external locus of control.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES

Statement of the Problem

This study was intended to explore the possibility of the differences between delinquents and nondelinquents in terms of their perceptions of parent-child relationships, proscriptive/prescriptive value orientation and locus of control.

Hypotheses

It was hypothesized that delinquents would have higher proscriptive value orientation, than nondelinquents, who would have higher prescriptive value orientations. This hypothesis stems from the expectation that in families of delinquents, punishment is stressed as a consequence for the enacting of such behaviors as drug use, cheating, stealing, lying, and rule violation.

A second hypothesis was that delinquents would be more oriented toward an external locus of control than an internal one. That is, administration of punishment and rewards and the sense of being able to control one's environment, will be perceived to be controlled by others rather than by oneself.

Finally, along the dimensions of direct object punishment/reward and symbolic love punishment/reward, it is hypothesized that delinquents will perceive their mothers as using more physical and psychological punishment and less physical and psychological reward than will nondelinquents.

Delinquents are more likely to be performing behaviors which violate social rules than nondelinquents. This situation leads authority to administer punishment and rewards in the direction of stressing "Thou shalt not's." In other words, delinquents will expect to be punished for rule violations

and to be rewarded if they do not violate rules. This reward-punishment model fosters a feeling of lack of control over consequences, and is accompanied by the perception that parents are more punitive than rewarding in their administration of discipline.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

Subjects

Sixty-two male volunteers from the low socioeconomic class--31 nondelinquents with a mean age of 14.96 years and 31 delinquents with a mean age of 16.68--were used as subjects. The group of nondelinquents came from a Secundaria of low socioeconomic level and the group of delinquents, also members of a low socioeconomic class, came from the Preventive Police. Low socioeconomic class was maintained as a constant, to keep both groups homogenous on this variable. Authorities of both institutions granted permits to conduct research in their institutions and solicited subjects to participate in the study. The delinquent group was composed of individuals incarcerated for minor violations (i.e., vagrancy, being at illegal places, drunkenness), and the nondelinquent group was composed of individuals who had no previous arrests and/or conviction records.

Materials

To measure value orientation, all subjects were given McKinney's (1971) Sentence Completion Test. This test consists of 28 stems. Fourteen of the stems provide information about prescriptive and proscriptive value orientation; seven stems dealing with positive value reinforcement and seven stems dealing with negative value reinforcement. The remaining 14 stems are filler items which are interspersed among the 14 prescriptive/proscriptive items. All 28 stems were presented in the same random order used by McKinney (1971).

To measure the subjects' perception of parental discipline the Roe-Sigelman (1963) Mother Form of the Parent-Child Questionnaire was administered. This

questionnaire has ten scales, but only four punishment/reward scales were used. These four scales were (1) Symbolic love reward (parents using this kind of reward, praise their children for approved behavior, give them special attention, and are affectionately demonstrative); (2) Direct object reward (this included tangible rewards such as money, toys, special trips, or relief from chores); (3) Symbolic love punishment (includes shaming the child before others, isolating him, and withdrawing love); (4) Direct object punishment (including physical punishment, taking away play things, reducing allowances, denying promised rewards, etc.).

To measure locus of control, Rotter's (1966) Social Reaction Inventory, which consists of 29 incentives, was used. Six items which function as fillers, are randomly interspersed among 23 items which measure external locus of control.

A demographic questionnaire developed by the author was used to obtain the following information: age of subject, age at time of first offense, length of separation from family, type of violation, number of previous violations, number of brothers and sisters, academic level, whether or not the parents live in same household, if there is a stepfather or stepmother, if members of the extended family live in the same household, and who was the main caregiver.

Procedure

McKinney's Sentence Completion Test, Roe-Siegelman and Rotter's inventories were translated by two independent translators. All of the Spanish translations were retranslated into English by two different translators. All stems, questions and incentives that had the greatest resemblance to the English version were taken as semi-final. These were once again translated into Spanish by two other translators. Those with the greatest resemblance

to both the Spanish and English versions were taken as final. All the final incentives were adapted to local idiosyncratic language by an expert in regional Spanish.

All the material was administered individually to delinquents, and collectively to the nondelinquent group.

All the instructions were the same as the English version and were read to the subjects prior to the administration of each one of the tests. Simple differences between groups were compared using Student's t for differences between independent groups.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Demographic Variables

The demographic variables giving the background information on both delinquents and nondelinquents are as presented in Tables 8 to 17.

Table 8 presents the ages of both groups. As can be seen from inspection of the table, the delinquents had a mean age of 16.7 years and the nondelinquents of 14.9 years. This difference of 1 year and 7 months was statistically significant $t = 5.99$, $d.f. = 60$, and $p < .001$. (More is said about this age difference in the discussion section.)

The number of siblings of the two groups is presented in Table 8. The delinquent and nondelinquent subjects both had an average of 6 to 7 brothers and/or sisters.

There was a marginally significant difference between the delinquents and nondelinquents in level of education ($t = 1.53$, $d.f. = 60$, $p < .06$). The nondelinquents had a high level of education. There were 2 at the elementary level and 39 at the secondary level. The delinquents on the other hand had 15 at the elementary level, 10 at the secondary level, and 6 at the bachilleres level. In the Mexican educational system, there are six years of elementary school, three years of secondary school (junior high), and three years of bachilleres school (high school).

The familial pattern for these adolescents was also examined by asking the boys if both of their parents lived at home, whether or not there were step-parents at home, and who in the family was responsible for the majority of caregiving activities in the home.

Table 8

Age of Subjects, Number of Siblings and Academic Level

<u>Age of Subjects</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	16.6774	1.045	5.99	60	.001
Nondelinquents	14.9677	1.197			
<u>Number of Siblings</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	7.1935	3.280	.61	60	.273
Nondelinquents	6.7097	3.002			
<u>Academic Level</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	1.7097	.783	1.53	60	.065
Nondelinquents	1.9355	.250			

The results on whether or not both parents lived in the family indicated that more nondelinquents had both parents at home ($t = 1.98$, d.f. = 60, $p < .02$). Even though this is significant most of the delinquents as well as the nondelinquents came from intact homes. Two of the nondelinquents and 5 of the delinquents came from separated homes.

The number of step-fathers and step-mothers for the delinquents and nondelinquents was examined. Five of the delinquents had step-fathers while eight of the nondelinquents had step-fathers (see Table 9). Three of the delinquents had step-mothers, none of the nondelinquents had step-mothers. This latter difference was significant with $t = 1.79$, d.f. = 60, $p < .03$ (see Table 9). Thus, the majority of the adolescents come from intact homes with a small percentage of step-parents.

Table 10 presents the results on other adult relatives living in the home and on the main caregiver in the family. Neither the delinquents nor nondelinquents had many adult relatives living at home. This came as quite been of the extended type. This has been found in the past research of the author. However, presently the city of Monterrey is undergoing a change in this regard. With increased industrialization the family pattern is shifting toward the more nuclear type found in the United States.

Table 10 shows the frequencies assigned to members of the family as the major caregiver. As can be seen from the table, both the delinquents and nondelinquents report mothers, fathers, grandmothers and brothers as major caregivers. Analyses of the data revealed no differences between the delinquent and nondelinquent groups. The majority of boys report that their mothers were the primary caregivers.

Table 9

Parents living in the same household

<u>Parents living in the same household</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	.8307	.374	1.98	60	.026
Nondelinquents	1.000	.258			

<u>Have a Stepfather</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	.1290	.341	1.28	60	.102
Nondelinquents	.2581	.445			

<u>Have a Stepmother</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquent	.0968	.301	1.79	60	.039
Nondelinquent	0	0			

Table 10

Main Caregiver and Relatives Living in Same Household

<u>Main Caregiver</u>	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Grandmother</u>	<u>Both Parents</u>	<u>Father</u>	<u>Brother</u>
Delinquents	19	2	8	1	1
Nondelinquents	18	2	9	0	2

<u>Relative Living in Same Household</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	.1290	.341	.40	60	.347
Nondelinquents	.0968	.301			

<u>Separation Length</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	.3548	.136	2.62	60	< .005
Nondelinquents	0	0			

Demographic Variables Concerning Offenders

The demographic variables giving the background information on delinquents, i.e., age of first offense, separation from family, number of previous arrests and types of violations is presented in Tables 11-12.

As can well be imagined, the delinquents spent a greater amount of time separated from their families than the nondelinquents ($t = 2.62$, d.f. = 60, $p < .005$). This is due to the separation which comes with the confinement of the delinquents because of their offense. However, in this group of delinquents the time spent away from their families was rather low. Most of these boys were confined for short periods since their offenses were not major. So after a short confinement they were returned to their families.

The mean age of the first offense in this group was 15.3 years (S.D., 2.667). Since the mean age of this group was 16.7 years, most of these delinquents were first offenders who committed their first offense during the previous year. This also can be seen in Table 12 which presents the number of previous offenses. As can be seen, 21 or 68 percent were in confinement for the first time.

Table 11 presents the frequencies of the types of offenses for these delinquent offenders. Vagrancy, being at an illegal place, and drunkenness are the most frequent types of offenses. Even though these offenses are punishable by confinement, on the whole they are relatively minor offenses.

Prescriptive and proscriptive orientation

According to the original hypothesis delinquents should hold a higher level of proscriptive orientation than nondelinquents. The t-test for the differences between independent groups was performed on the data obtained from the administration of the prescriptive-proscriptive test to both groups. The results supported the hypothesis. As presented in Table 13, the delin-

Table 11
Frequency of the Types of Violations

<u>Violation</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>
Vagrancy	8
Drunkenness	5
Drug Use	3
Homosexual Practice	2
Run Away from Home	1
Being at Illegal Place	6
Immoral	2
Fighting	3
Indecent	1

Table 12
Number of Previous Arrests

<u>Number of Subjects</u>	<u>Previous Arrests</u>
21	1
4	2
5	3
1	4

Table 13
 Summary of Prescription and Proscription Sentence
 Completion Data Analysis for Delinquents and Nondelinquents

<u>Prescription</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquent	4.7748	1.820	1.80	60	.039
Nondelinquent	5.5806	1.708			
<u>Proscription</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquent	3.8387	1.463	2.75	60	.004
Nondelinquent	2.8065	1.493			

quents showed a higher mean level of proscriptive orientation than nondelinquents ($t = 2.75$, $d.f. = 60$, $p < .004$).

The reliability for the prescriptive-proscriptive test was computed using Cronbach's Alpha. The prescriptive-proscriptive test was composed of fourteen items. Seven of the items are composed of positive stems and seven of the items are composed of negative stems. Each item could be answered prescriptive, proscriptive, or irrelevant. Separate reliabilities were computed for prescriptive and proscriptive answers to these items. In this manner, a check for the consistency to answer with a specific orientation could be examined.

The reliability for the prescriptive answers was $r = .33$. When the proscriptive answers were submitted to the analysis no initial reliability could be computed. This was due to a lack of variance in the proscriptive answers for seven of the test items. The seven items which yield few proscriptive answers were the positive stemmed items of the test. These items were excluded in order to compute a reliability. With these items excluded the reliability was $r = .45$.

A t-test was also computed on the proscriptive answers after the positive stemmed items were deleted. As can be seen in Table 14, analysis of the proscriptive dimension did not produce significance differences in the predicted direction. Instead delinquents scored lower in proscriptive orientation than nondelinquents ($t = 1.83$, $d.f. = 60$, $p < .07$).

Locus of Control

The second hypothesis stated that the delinquents would have a higher level of external control, as measured by the locus of control scale, than would the nondelinquents. Again, the difference between the groups was tested using the t-test for independent groups. Table 15 presents the results of this test. There was no significant difference between the groups on locus

Table 14

Summary of Prescription and Proscription Sentence Completion Data Analysis for
Delinquents and Nondelinquents with Deletion of Positive Stem Items

<u>Prescriptive</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	4.7742	1.820	1.80	60	.038
Nondelinquents	5.5806	1.708			
<u>Proscriptive</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	1.0000	1.155	1.83	60	.072
Nondelinquents	1.6452	1.582			

Table 15

Summary of External Locus of Control

Data Analysis for Delinquents and Nondelinquents

<u>External Control</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	10.5161	1.947	.97	60	.194
Nondelinquents	10.0000	2.251			

of control ($t = .97$, $d.f. = 60$, $p < .19$). Therefore, the second hypothesis was not supported.

Perception of Punishment

The third hypothesis stated that delinquents would say that their mothers used a higher level of direct-object punishment and symbolic-love punishment than the nondelinquents. More specifically delinquents will perceive their mothers as using more punishment with such disciplinary techniques as shame, love withdrawal, physical punishment, and allowance reduction. The difference between the groups on the parent-child relationship scales was tested using the t-test for independent groups. The results of these tests showed that delinquents endorsed for their mothers, a high level of both direct-object punishment ($t = 1.91$, $d.f. = 60$, $p < .03$) and symbolic-love punishment ($t = 2.43$, $d.f. = 60$, $p < .009$). Therefore, the third hypothesis was supported.

Perception of Rewards

The fourth hypothesis stated that delinquents would say that their mothers used a lower level of direct-object rewards and symbolic-love rewards than the nondelinquents. More specifically, delinquents will perceive their mothers as using less demonstrations such as displays of affection, giving of physical rewards, or praise. The difference between the groups on the parent-child relationship scales was tested using the t-test for independent groups. The results of these tests are presented in Tables 16 and 17. The results did not support the hypothesis as stated. In fact, in one case the results were in the opposite direction of that predicted.

Table 16

Summary of Direct Object Punishment and Symbolic Love Punishment
Data Analysis for Nondelinquents and Delinquents

<u>Symbolic Love Punishment</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquent	27.6774	7.505	2.43	60	.009
Nondelinquent	23.1613	6.659			

<u>Direct Object Punishment</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquent	24.2581	9.070	1.91	60	.030
Nondelinquent	20.4516	6.387			

Table 17

Summary of Symbolic Love Reward and Direct Object Reward

Data Analysis for Delinquents and Nondelinquents

<u>Symbolic Love Reward</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	34.3226	9.083	1.31	60	.097
Nondelinquents	31.5806	7.293			

<u>Direct Object Reward</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Delinquents	29.4839	8.374	1.81	60	.037
Nondelinquents	25.5806	8.574			

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to investigate differences between delinquents and nondelinquents in self-perception, value orientation and perception of parent-child relationship. Self perception was examined using the Locus of Control Scale, value orientation was assessed using McKinney's (1971) prescriptive-proscriptive value orientation scale, and perception of the parent-child relationship was examined with scales concerning the parent's use of punishment and use of rewards.

It was hypothesized that delinquents would score higher on external locus of control and proscriptive value orientations; and indicate higher levels of parental punishment and lower levels of parental rewards. Data analysis supported two of the hypotheses. It was found that delinquents held a proscriptive value orientation. Delinquents also perceived their mothers to use more punishment than did nondelinquents. No differences were found between delinquents and nondelinquents on perceived locus of control. And finally, delinquents perceived their mothers to use more parental rewards.

Prescriptive-Proscriptive Value Orientation

The higher level of proscriptive value orientation in these delinquents has three consequences. First, these findings indicate that the concept of prescriptive-proscriptive value orientation is useful in the Mexican as well as the American culture.

Second, the results indicate that the concept of prescriptive-proscriptive values is useful in distinguishing between value orientations of delinquents and nondelinquents. For example, although not evaluated in the current

study, there may be a relationship between prescriptive-proscriptive value orientation and passage through or reaching of certain levels of moral development. For example, when a delinquent responds to an immediate situation because it serves his needs, the emphasis is not on the delay of reward or, in prescriptive terms, the focus of future correct behavior that will be rewarded. Rather, the delinquents' emphasis on proscriptive value orientation may reflect their need for immediate gratification and their inability to anticipate that future correct behavior in fact, will be rewarded. On the other hand, the nondelinquents prescriptive value orientation may be interpreted as the ability to conceptualize future rewards for correct behavior. Thus, within the context of moral development, delinquents may be seen as being at a lower stage of moral development than the nondelinquents. This is all the more significant when it is remembered that the delinquents were chronologically older than the nondelinquents.

Third, by extension of previous research (McKinney, 1975), the significant difference between the delinquents and nondelinquents most likely reflects a difference in parental value orientations as well. This interpretation receives support from data on delinquents and nondelinquents perceptions of punishment; i.e., the delinquents' perceived high use of punishment from their mothers. This suggests an hypothesis concerning the linkage between use of punishment and the development of a proscriptive value orientation. Assuming that value orientation like other behaviors can be instrumentally shaped by rewards and punishments, then parental rewards and punishments will have a key influence on the development of value orientations. That is, parents who emphasize proscriptive behavior will reward their children when they avoid doing wrong, and punish them when they do wrong. On the other hand, parents who emphasize prescriptive values will reward children for correct behavior

and punish them for failing to behave correctly. Thus, one can assume that the delinquents perceptions of their mothers' higher levels of punishment is an indication of the parents' instrumental behavior that has shaped the delinquents proscriptive value orientation.

A circular effect between values and punishment may be hypothesized between punishment and value orientation. Past research has indicated a strong relationship between parental values and the value orientations of their adolescent children (McKinney, 1971, 1973, 1975; Olejnik & McKinney, 1973). That is, when the adolescent endorses a proscriptive value orientation the parent also endorses a proscriptive value orientation. Since the proscriptive value orientation focuses upon rewards for not doing wrong and punishments for doing wrong, the emphasis is placed upon punishing the delinquent for his action, and conversely, rewarding his inaction. This then helps explain why the delinquent views his mother as focusing upon punishment, i.e., punishment for "delinquent" acts.

Putting together the two arguments we can see the circular process so often talked about in child abuse and delinquency. That is, a parent who emphasizes wrong doing, uses high levels of punishment for wrong-doing, and a child who then incorporates a value orientation emphasizing wrong-doing. Thus, when the delinquents become parents, they too will hold to the proscriptive value orientation, thereby extending and making the cycle complete.

Direct-Object and Symbolic-Love Punishment

Research has found that severity of parental punishment is strongly related to delinquent behavior (Glueck & Glueck, 1968; Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967). In the present study it was also found that delinquents perceive their mothers as more punitive than do nondelinquents. The present study suggests some of the possible mechanisms by which parental punishment is involved in

the development of delinquent behavior. As previously pointed out, there is a link between the parent's proscriptive value orientation and the emphasis on punishment of the delinquent's wrong behavior. Thus, the dimension of prescriptive-proscriptive value orientation helps explain the emphasis on punishment characteristic of the parents of delinquents. Additionally, value orientation also helps explain the relationship between the parent's punishment and the delinquent's moral development and emphasis on their own "wrong" behavior.

Direct-Object and Symbolic-Love Reward

It was also hypothesized that delinquents would say that their mothers used a lower level of direct-object rewards and symbolic-love rewards than the nondelinquents. This hypothesis was not supported. In fact, the results were in the opposite direction of that hypothesized. Delinquents reported that their mothers gave them higher levels of rewards than did the nondelinquents. This result would appear to be contrary to the literature reviewed. However, when viewed from a different perspective; namely, in light of Mexican culture, this discrepancy in hypothesized outcome makes more sense. For in the Mexican culture, rewards often are as freely given as punishments. That is to say, both reward and punishment are seen as necessary elements of family life and childrearing. Given that the mothers of the delinquents are seen as being higher in punishment, it can be hypothesized on the basis of culture to also expect them to be higher in giving out rewards (indulgences) to their sons.

This interpretation receives some support from the present study in the following manner. As will be remembered, the proscriptive answers did not show any variance to the positive stems on the prescriptive-proscriptive scale. On the other hand, there was variation on the items for prescriptive answers.

The proscriptive value orientation receives its emphasis from the "thou shall nots." This then leaves open the possibility for rewards for a range of behaviors. Thus, the delinquents may have been punished for breaking "thou shall not," but rewarded for a wide range of other behaviors. This would lead one to the conclusion that it is the proscriptive value orientation of punishment for wrong-doing which contributes to delinquent behavior.

Locus of Control

The hypothesis that delinquents would score higher on external locus of control than nondelinquents was not supported. The mean locus of control score for nondelinquents was 10.0, whereas that for delinquents was 10.5. Even though these groups did not differ, what is of interest here is that mean levels of external control for both groups were higher than those reported in studies of delinquents in the United States. Research indicates that delinquents in the United States have a mean level of 7.0 on the locus of control scale. Thus, there may well be a difference in level of locus of control between Mexico and the United States. Since research has found that lower socioeconomic levels and lack of opportunity are related to higher levels of external locus of control, we may very well expect that the external locus of control in Mexican subjects would be higher than for that of the United State subjects. As pointed out in the background information on Mexico, the general level of economic level and opportunity for advancement are less in Mexico than generally found within the United States. An alternative hypothesis is that social-economic status levels differ in subjects participating in locus of control studies in the United States and in the current study. It would be interesting to match subjects from the two cultures for social-economic level and then compare locus of control scores. Obviously, such cross-culture matching would be difficult.

Implications for Future Research

In spite of the low reliabilities for the prescriptive-proscriptive tests, the present study indicates that the concept of value orientation is also valid in the Mexican culture. So, future research with this scale should seek to refine the test items for the Mexican culture, improving the reliability of the test. Additionally, further study should be given to investigate the prescriptive dimension within the Mexican culture and the use of positive versus negative stemmed items in eliciting value orientation.

In future research the role of the father in the Mexican culture could also be examined more closely. The present study focused upon the delinquents' and nondelinquents' perceptions of their mothers. Additional research should seek to more explicitly stipulate the types of punishments and rewards used by parents of delinquents and nondelinquents. Such research could also seek to find out what differences if any, exist between mothers' and fathers' use of rewards and punishments.

As pointed out in the discussion, research with parents in the United States has found congruance between the parents' and the children's prescriptive-proscriptive value orientation. Since parents were not sampled in the present study, this same relationship should also be confirmed with an additional Mexican study. Of particular interest, would be a comparison of the strength of the relationship between parent and child from the two cultures. It may be hypothesized that the value orientation of the child would more closely resemble that of the parent in the Mexican culture. As pointed out in the present study, in the Mexican culture, family life is very close with the use of both high levels of rewards and punishments being part of the definition of being a good parent.

Problems Encountered in the Present Research

After much work had been accomplished in securing the proper sample of delinquents for the study, last minute complications made it impossible to use this group. Research like the present study, which both compiles background statistics on delinquents and examines delinquents' behavior, are rare in Monterrey, Mexico.

Conclusions

The present study found that delinquents hold a higher level of proscriptive value orientation than nondelinquents and that the delinquents also perceive their mothers as using more punishment in discipline than did the nondelinquents. As pointed out in the discussion this has implications for child-rearing practices and moral development.

Taken together, the results suggest an approach for assisting authorities in dealing with the rehabilitation of delinquents. A combined program aimed to educate parents and those who deal with delinquents, to shape delinquent behavior toward a more prescriptive value orientation and hopefully, less delinquent acts, would seem in order. Thus, a program aimed at parents would help them to emphasize to their children the rewards of doing the "right" behaviors and the "punishments" for not doing the right behavior. Such a program is not seen as a panacea for the delinquent problem in Mexico. However, such a program aimed at the value orientation of parents and their delinquent children may be indicated in this group, since this group were only marginal in their delinquency.

Lastly, punishment appears to play an important role in the family life of delinquent children. A program aimed at the rehabilitation process for delinquents should seek to work with parents to find effective ways of controlling their children with less use of punishment. Again the literature

on moral development and prescriptive-proscriptive values suggests that parents of delinquent children need help in the use of more verbal and more rewarding ways in controlling the behavior of their children.

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