

**PERSONALITY OF DELINQUENTS AND NON-DELINQUENTS AS
RELATED TO PARENTING STYLE.**

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**BY
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CHAPTER- 1

INTRODUCTION

It has been seen that juvenile delinquency is a big problem in India and world over. There can be no denial to the fact that today's delinquent child if not properly taken care of, will be tomorrow a criminal. Delinquency amongst children can be controlled before they become serious threat to the society. The statistics provided by various agencies from time to time show an upward trend in the incidents of crime by the juveniles. There is need to have a thorough study of various facts and causes leading to delinquencies, disorderly conduct, vagrancy and conflict of a child with law and also the solution to the problem including proper protection and rehabilitation of the delinquent child.

1. Juvenile delinquency:

The word juvenile has been derived from the Latin term *juvenis*, which means young and etymologically, and the word delinquency has been derived from the Latin word *delinquer* which means to omit. In the year 1484, William Caxton used the word *delinquent* to describe a person who was found guilty. Juvenile delinquency refers to the involvement by the teenagers in an unlawful behavior who is usually under the age of 18 and commits an act which would be considered as a crime. A child is known as a delinquent when he/she commits a mistake which is against the law and which is not accepted by the society.

Thus a "juvenile" or "child" means a person who has not completed eighteenth years of age and violates the law and commits an offence under the legal age of maturity.

A juvenile is a person who is under the age of 18. The age limit below which it should not be permitted to deprive a child of his or her liberty should be determined by law. Juvenile can be defined as a child who has not attained a certain age at which he, like an adult person under the law of the land, can be held liable for his criminal acts. The juvenile is a child who is alleged to have committed /violated some law which declares the act or omission on the part of the child as an offence. Juvenile and minor in legal terms are used in different context. Juvenile is used when reference is made to a young criminal offenders and minor relates to legal capacity or majority. 10 To make the meaning more clear resort can profitably be made to some other source. The concept of the juvenile varies from State of State for convenience.

What is Juvenile Delinquency?

Delinquency is a kind of abnormality. When an individual deviates from the course of normal social life his behaviour is called 'Delinquent'. When a juvenile, below an age specified under a statute exhibits behaviour which may prove to be dangerous to society and / or for him, he may be called a Juvenile delinquent. Juvenile delinquents are those offenders including boys and girls who are under 18 years of age. A Juvenile delinquent is a young person incorrigible or habitually disobedient.

Juvenile delinquency involves wrong doing by a child or a young person who is under an age specified by the law of the land. To study the juvenile delinquent might be difficult but not an impossible task, as rightly pointed out by Sir Cyril Burt in his book "the young delinquent ",

Definition of Juvenile Delinquency: According to psychology, any and every child, of either sex between ages of 15 and 18, who commits a crime, irrespective of fact that he is apprehended or not is a juvenile delinquent? In this manner, juvenile delinquent is one who forcibly possesses the property of another, or causes it damage, indulges in anti-social activity, creates danger for another's life or hinders the activities of others. Hence a child who throws stone at a car and runs away, one who sets fire without cause, creates dangers for the life of another just for the fun of it, are all juvenile delinquency, from the psychological viewpoint.

Generally, juvenile delinquency is misbehaviour by children, but there is much less agreement on the specifics of what constitutes misbehaviour or who falls into the category of children.

Delinquency as any behavior which a given community at given time considers in conflict with its best interests, whether or not the offender has been brought to court. (Robinson. (1961)

Juvenile delinquency through legal concept can be viewed through following definitions - Juvenile delinquency refers to a large variety of disapproved behaviours of children and adolescents which the society does not approve of and for which some kind of admonishment, punishment or corrective measure is justified in the public interest. (**Griffith, B. S.**)

According to Walter Reckless, the term juvenile delinquency applies to the violation of Criminal Code and pursuit of certain patterns of behaviour disapproved of for children and young adolescents. . (**Reckless, W. G.**)

Juvenile misbehaviour occurs in every city, town and rural area throughout the world. Broadly considered, juvenile delinquency could mean any type of behaviour by those socially defined as juveniles that violates the norms, standards of proper behaviour set by the controlling group.

Juvenile delinquency is the byproduct of change. Juvenile delinquency is any action by a person in the juvenile status that would make such a young person subject to action by the juvenile court. Most young people are involved in some unlawful behaviour during the adolescent years but escape detection, apprehension or court involvement. (**Kratcoski, P. O**)

The institutions dealing with delinquent or deviant youth define delinquency on the basis of deviation from norms which promote the interests of the institution, viz. school administrators view delinquency as deviation from norms which affects the functioning of the school. Religious leaders consider delinquency a special class of sin, however doctrines vary from one religion to another and frequently within one religion from one locality to another. (**Griffith, B. S.**)

According to the Albert K. Cohen Delinquency is defined by acts, the detection of which is through to result in punishment of the person committing then by agents of the larger society. Although this definition is consistent with standard definitions of ‘deviant behavior’ of ‘delinquent act’ it is not widely used in either delinquent theory or research. The mostly widely quoted definition of deviant behavior is probably Cohen’s, We define deviant behavior as behavior which violates institutionalized expectations that is, expectations which are shared and recognized as legitimate within a social system.

Defining juvenile delinquency, **Dr. Sethna** has written, Juvenile delinquent involves wrong doing by a child or a young person who is under an age specified by the law of the place concerned. **Newmeyer** puts the same idea in these words, “A delinquent is a person under age who is quilt of anti- social act and whose misconduct is an infraction of Law. Juvenile delinquency is defined as major or minor lawbreaking by youth under the age of 18 (**Berger, 2000**). Some examples of major lawbreaking are murder, rape, robbery, and theft. Minor lawbreaking refers to misdemeanors and status offenses. Status offenses are ace that are illegal because of age, such as truancy and underage drinking. Most adolescents arrested have committed minor offenses.

Tappan (1949), an eminent criminologist, has also given a definition of delinquency. According to him, “Delinquency is any act, course of conduct or situation which might be brought before court and adjudicated whether, in fact, it comes to be treated there or by some other resources or indeed remains untreated. The juvenile delinquency is a person who has been adjudicated as such by a court of proper jurisdiction though he may not be different, until the time of court contract and adjudication, at any rate, from masses of children who are not delinquent.”

Benjamin Fine has defined delinquency as “a pattern of behavior manifested by a youth below the age of eighteen that is contrary to the law of the land and the accepted mores and that is antisocial in character. This may be brought about due to environmental deprivation, conflict within the domestic situation or psychiatric difficulties in the youth or child”

Psychiatrists view delinquency as “an activity which deviates from the normal and is forbidden by the laws and sanctions of society.”

According to Black’s Law Dictionary (2003), Juvenile means a person who has not reached the age at which one should be treated as an adult by the criminal-justice system. And ‘juvenile delinquency’ means anti-social behaviour by a minor, especially the behaviour that would be criminally punishable if the actor was an adult, but instead is usually punishable if the actor was an adult but instead is adult, but instead is usually punishable if the actor was an adult but instead is usually punished by special laws parenting only to minors. Such juvenile delinquents who are minor and guilty of criminal behaviour are punished by special law not pertaining to adult. They are also termed as ‘Juvenile offenders’, youthful offenders’ or ‘delinquent minors’.

Delinquency involves personal suffering as well as a loss to society. While delinquency is a social problem of increasing concern to our society. Delinquency has something to do with misbehavior, but not all misbehavior is delinquent, even when it might be considered inappropriate behaviour for the age of the individual. Both the quality of the behaviour and the degree of social deviance are factors in judging an act delinquent or rather trivial, on the one hand, or delinquent or psychopathological, on the other hand.

Some misbehavior is illegal, some misbehavior is immoral. Not all illegal behaviour is immoral and much immoral behaviour has not become a matter of secular legislation. The differences are partly practical and partly a matter of cultural relativism. **Ellingston**(1948) said that crime is whatever the dominant elements of a particular society believe to be dangerous to the security and solidarity of the society at any particular time.

Delinquency rates are still highest in deteriorated neighborhoods near the center of large cities. In such areas characterized by economic privation, rapid population turnover, general disorganization, delinquency is often an approved tradition and there are many opportunities for leaning antisocial behaviour from delinquent peers.

Adolescents and young adulthood are periods of increased autonomy. Higher levels of autonomy could increase the opportunities for risk behaviour such as delinquency. During these periods of transition the role of parental control become less clear. Delinquency among teenagers remains a significant problem overall, 16% of serious crimes involved a person under age 18. What steers adolescents towards criminal activity? Some offenders, known as undersocialized delinquents, were raised with little discipline or by harsh uncaring parents. Although they are influenced by peers, their parents did not teach them appropriate social behaviour or how to regulate their own conduct. Undersocialized delinquents typically begin criminal activities well before the onset of a adolescence. Undersocialized delinquents share several characteristics. They tend to be aggressive and violent early in life leading to peer rejection and academic failure. They are more likely to have been diagnosed with attention deficit disorder as children, and they tend to be less intelligent than average. (**Silverthorn& Frick** 1999, **Rutter** 2003)

August Aichorn stresses the importance of the family in shaping the children. He feels that the family should provide the child love and security and at the same time be a haven of relief from outside pressures.

Sideny Berman believes that delinquent children have often had difficulty in their early relationships with their parents.

Harwood show that 70 percent of their correspondents listed an impulse to escape as a reason for using drugs.

Since the human civilization, crime has been one of the dominant problem which occurs when someone breaks the law by an explicit act, omission or neglect that can result in punishment. A child is born innocent, but due to the unhealthy environment, negligence of the basic necessities and wrong company, a child may turn into a delinquent. Usually somebody has to have intent to break the law in order to commit a crime, but that is not always the case. A person can be charged with a crime even if that person doesn't know the law even exists. The phrase "ignorance of the law is no exception" means that a person can be held responsible even when he or she break a law which they don't know. Therefore, juveniles, given the benefit of doubt regarding ignorance of law, are generally treated differently in the criminal justice system. A crime can be defined as a harmful act or omission against the public which the state wishes to

prevent and which, upon conviction, is punishable with a fine, imprisonment, and/or death. No conduct constitutes a crime unless it is declared as criminal in the laws of the country. Some crimes such as theft or criminal damage may be civil wrongs for which the victim may claim damages in compensation. Delinquent and criminal behavior may abound among young people, as they negotiate the transition from childhood to adulthood in an increasingly complex and confusing world.

A child is a part of the society in which he lives and the social relations that ensure a smooth process of socialization are collapsing. The traditional patterns of relationships guiding transitions between the family, school, and work are collapsing now-a-days for many young people. Lifestyle is becoming more varied and less predictable. Now-a-days many youths regardless of gender, social origin, are subject to individual risks. Many a times advantage is taken of the tempting opportunities and young people commit various offences becoming addicted to drugs, and using violence against their peers. To criminologists, juvenile delinquency encompasses all public wrongs committed by young people between the ages of 12 and 20. But the sociologists view this concept as more broadly by believing that it covers a multitude of different violations of legal and social norms, from minor offence to serious crimes, which are committed by juveniles. Sociologists associate the youth behavior with the home, family, neighborhood, peer, and many other variables that together or separately influence the formation of young people's social environment. Juvenile delinquency is a problem which despite of different and varied cultural backgrounds is found with common characteristics universally. Under the Indian law, children between 7-12 years of age having sufficient maturity and between 12-18 years who have committed an offence are responsible for their criminal list. But such children are not to be dealt in the same manner as the adults, they are not to be punished but on rehabilitating and reforming them for which it is necessary to know the positive youth development.

Studies of western countries have proved it beyond doubt that a large number of criminal careers have their roots in childhood and early youth. The study of juvenile delinquents is therefore, the most promising field for checking adult criminality. Many studies have shown that delinquency is a heavy burden upon the societies, even in advanced countries like U.S.A. and U.K., the reviews throw light on the modern western conception of an "adolescent" and delinquency and

the impact of modernization and industrialization. This seems to be an increase in delinquency in both communist and non-communist since the Second World War.

Delinquency is not simply a social and psychological problem. It may be a consequence of disorganized social family, limited opportunity in the face of high aspiration, criminality in parents of children. These are primary factors which contribute towards the delinquent character formation. There are many secondary factors like broken homes, death or desertion of parents, poverty and overcrowding, bad companionship, unemployment and lack of adjustment in school. A crime in the abstract is an illegal act for which the perpetrator if apprehended and convicted may be punished. There are minor and major offences. Minor offences are known as “misdemeanors” and major offences are called as “felonies”. The latter are more severely punished involve the loss of certain civil rights.

Juvenile is the term used for children under the age of 18 and Delinquency is a term that is defined by the law for criminal behavior which is often the result of extreme problematic behavior.

According to **Schwartz and Johnson** the term delinquency is used for the juvenile (usually under the age of 18) who has committed an act that would be considered illegal for an adult. When an individual commit an illegal act below the age of seven, they are called problem child not the delinquent, because it is felt that they are not mature enough to differentiate between the legal and illegal and right and wrong.

Importance of Study

A child is born innocent and if nurtured with tender care and attention, then he/she grows in positive way. Physical, mental, moral and spiritual development of the children makes them capable of realizing his/her fullest potential. On the contrary, harmful surroundings negligence of basic needs, wrong company and other abuses may turn a child to a delinquent. With changing societal trends, children now appear to possess strong likes and dislikes and also show expressions that indicate maturity at a very early age. These qualities also make children more vulnerable to the designs of the criminality such as abusers, peddlers, and traffickers. Moreover, the influence of the media on the psychosocial development of children is profound. With advent of communication technology in recent times, a child’s exposure to media including television, radio, music, video games and the Internet, has increased manifold.

Children constitute about 40% of India's population and India has a National Policy for Children declaring children to be a national asset. Even so majority of India's children continue to be in difficult circumstances. India has signed the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and obligated itself to work towards ensuring all the rights enshrined therein to all its children. India has witnessed an increase both in crimes committed by children and those committed against them. There has been 97.9% increase in crimes committed by children between 2003 and 2004, with more children being appeared for arson, theft and cheating.

Over 33,000 juveniles, mostly between the age group of 16 to 18, have been arrested for crimes like rape and murder across Indian states in 2011, the highest in last decade.

According to a Home Ministry data, of the total of 33,387 juveniles apprehended in 2011, 21,657 were in the 16-18 age group, 11,019 of 12-16 age group and 1,211 between 7-12 age group (PTI, 2013). Whereas, 32,145 such youngsters below 18 years of age were held in 2006, 34,527 in 2007, 34,507 in 2008, 33,642 in 2009 and 30,303 during 2010, the data said.

The data also shows increasing cases of rape by juveniles. As many as 1,419 such cases were recorded in 2011 as compared to 399 cases in 2001, it said.

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It is pertinent to mention that a juvenile and five others were arrested by Delhi police for brutally raping and assaulting a 23-year-old girl in the national capital on December 16, 2012.

The victim later succumbed to her injuries the cases of murder by juveniles have also shown a surge in last ten years. As many as 531 youngsters below the age of 18 were apprehended for murder in 2001 as against 888 arrests between January and December 2011. According to the data, 6,770 juveniles were arrested in Maharashtra, 5,794 in Madhya Pradesh, 2,692 in Chhattisgarh, 2,542 in Rajasthan and 2,510 in Gujarat among others in 2011. In the same year, a total of 2,474 adolescents were arrested in Andhra Pradesh, 2,083 in Tamil Nadu, 1,204 in Uttar Pradesh and 1,126 in Bihar, the data said.

2. Personality:

What is personality? Many people have asked that question, but few agree on an answer. The term personality has many definitions, but no single meaning is accepted universally. In popular usage, personality is often equated with social skill and effectiveness. In this usage, personality is the ability to elicit positive reactions from other people in one's typical dealings with them.

Despite the many definitions of the term investigators generally agree that "personality is the dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations."

Cattell defined personality as "that which tells what (a person) will do when placed in on a given situation". Consistent with his mathematical analysis of personality, Cattell then presented the definition as a formula: $R=f(s, p)$. In other words, the behavioral responses (R) of a person is a function (f) of the situation (s) confronted and the individual's personality (p) (Cattell, 1965)

Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behavior and thought." Allport referred personality or self as a dynamic organization because he believed that personality cannot usefully be regarded as a collection of fragmented components acting independently of one another. (Allport, 1961)

Eysenck defined personality as a more or less stable and enduring organization or a person's character, temperament, intellect, and physique, which determines his unique adjustment to the environment.

Skinner believed that the study of personality involves a systematic examination of the idiosyncratic learning history and unique genetic background of the individual.

Sullivan defined “personality” is the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a human life” (Sullivan 1953)

Although there has been much debate about the definition of personality two major themes have pervaded nearly all effort at grand personality theorizing: human nature and individual differences (Buss, 1984)

According to Murphy (1932), psychologists using the analytic or qualitative approach defined personality as the “sum of all individual’s traits”

This is no easy task, as others have noted (Allport and Vernon, 1930; Pervin 1990), It is in individual differences that we find the logical key to personality” (Guilford 1959) or even that “all individual differences in the behavioral realm may be regarded as the subject matter of personality research.” (Jensen 1958).

Over the past few decades, the field of personality has retreated somewhat from its grand goals. Most actual research on personality psychology deals with individual differences, not with human nature or with the links between human nature and individual differences (McCrae & John 1992). In this sense, personality may have ceded the study of human nature to other branches of psychology, such as cognitive and social psychology which typically concentrate on shared characteristics of human nature and neglect individual differences.

A personality trait is an interrelated cluster of mental and /or behavioral characteristics. According to Allport the coherent core of personality is attributable to traits which underlie personality. Trait enable individuals to respond to heterogeneous stimuli in a typical manner, and traits influences their thoughts and actions in diverse but characteristic ways. Thus for Allport, traits accounts for both the stable enduring features of personality as well as it may fluctuate and grow.

In order to evaluate the parental role in the development of self-regulation, Feldman & Weinberger (1994) investigated self-restraint as a mediator of parental influence on delinquent behavior in boys. In a longitudinal study of 81 boys and their families (from a non-clinical

population), initially in 6th and later in 10th grade, they found that parenting practices are associated with delinquency only indirectly through their association with self-restraint. The first measure of self-restraint, in sixth-grade, predicted delinquent behavior more reliably than parenting in 10th grade. Their work further suggests that by the end of childhood, a relatively stable internal construct of self-restraint can be measured, which has predictive value during later development.

The current research focused to investigate the relationship between personality traits and juvenile delinquency among delinquents and non-delinquent juveniles, since the constructs of both the JEPQ indicate that each personality factor predicts certain types of behaviors as individuals grow; it is of interest to assess the relationship between the personality factor scores and behavioral problems in youths. For instance, the construct of psychoticism comprises aggressive, impulsive, and antisocial traits and the construct of extroversion indicates active or sensation-seeking traits.

Since the JEPQ is a commonly used instrument for youths in many countries. Eysenck's temperament-based theory is sometimes referred to as a three-factor model of personality in which the three factors are Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism (P).

The Extraversion (E) trait is represented by a bipolar scale that is anchored at one end by sociability and stimulation seeking and at the other end by social reticence and stimulation avoidance.

The Neuroticism (N) trait is anchored at one end by emotional instability and spontaneity and by reflection and deliberateness at the other end. This trait's name is based on the susceptibility of individuals high on the N trait to anxiety-based problems. Neuroticism is hypothesized to be dependent upon an individual's emotional arousability due to differences in ease of visceral brain activation, which is mediated by the hypothalamus and limbic system (Eysenck, 1977, 1997a).

The Psychoticism (P) trait is anchored at one end by aggressiveness and divergent thinking and at the other end by empathy and caution. The label for this trait is based on the susceptibility of a significant sub-group of individuals high on the P trait to psychotic disorders (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1976). Psychoticism is hypothesized to be a polygenic trait (Eysenck, 1997a). Polygenic refers to a large number of genes each of whose individual effect is small. Each of these "small effect" genes is additive, so that the total number inherited determines the degree of the P trait in the personality.

Personality is an individual's habitual way of thinking, feeling, perceiving and reacting to the world. Although some believe that personality is stable and immutable, others view personality as a more fluid concept that is influenced by a number of external factors such as culture and family systems. Integrative and relational models of personality attempt to understand the multidimensional factors in constant interrelationships. Others look at biological, cognitive, or behavioral systems to explain personality.

Eysenck's Theory of personality and crime:

The late Hans J. Eysenck, British psychologist, is most well known for his theory on personality and crime. His theory proposed that "criminal behavior is the result of an interaction between certain environmental conditions and features of the nervous system". This is certainly not one of the contemporary theories of crime, rather, Eysenck's emphasis is placed on the genetic predisposition toward antisocial and criminal behavior.

Despite the many definitions of the term investigators generally agree that "personality is the dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations."

Definitions of personality highlight the distinct concerns of each perspective. Raymond Cattell used traits to predict behavior, defining personality as 'that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation' (Cattell 1950, p. 2), and later defining a personality trait as that 'which defines what ad Cattell used traits to predict behavior, defining personality as 'that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation' (Cattell 1950, p. 2), and later defining a personality trait as that 'which defines what a person will do when faced with a defined situation' (Cattell 1979, p. 14) Behaviour definitions are typically more sparse, focusing on behavior itself, and that behavioural habits formed by experience. In its early radical form, behaviourism avoid positing concepts that were not observable (Skinner 1950), but later cognitive behavioural approaches include expectations and other cognitions behavioural approaches include expectations and other cognitions as component parts of personality, theorized to determine an individual's behavior (Bandura 1986)

Some definitions emphasize integration of personality, specifying what must be integrated. From the personological trait approach, Gordon Allport (1937) defined personality as 'the dynamic

organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to the environment' (Allport 1937, p. 48) Mc Adams and Pals (2006), who define personality as 'an individual' unique variation on the general evolutionary design for human nature, expressed as a developing pattern of dispositional traits' characteristic adoptions, and integrative life stories complexly and differentially situated in culture' (McAdams and Pals 2006, p. 212)

Rutter (1987) described personality as the cognitive and social elaborations of temperament as they are expressed in the course of social development.

Personality can be defined in either of two strongly contrasting ways, either as a) a set of attributes that characterize an individual, or b) the underlying system that generates such attributes. **Funder** (1997, pp. 1-2) provided a definition that takes in both a) and b): personality is 'an individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behavior, together with the psychological mechanisms hidden or not- behind those patterns'. Funder's definition focuses on 'characteristic patterns' without specifying whether the patterns primarily lie within the individual's or exist at the interface between the individual and his/her interpersonal environment. Nor does it specify whether the 'mechanism' are within the person or between person.

Personality can influence to whom individuals are attracted and how often they interact in social situations. Personality even influences how successful people are at getting along with other people.

Personality refers to important and relatively stable aspects of behavior. Personality deals with a wide range of human behavior. To most theories personality includes virtually everything about a person, mental, emotional, social, and physical. Some aspects of personality are unobservable such as thought, memories & dreams, whereas others are observable, such as overt actions.

Personality also includes aspects that are concealed from yourself or unconscious as well as those that are conscious and well within your awareness.

Personality is important and relatively stable characteristics within a person that account for consistent patterns of behavior. Aspects of personality may be observable or unobservable and

conscious or unconscious. Personality is a comprehensive construct, and motivation is a fundamental aspect of behavior. Therefore theories of personality one is large part theories of motivation and must (directly or indirectly) make crucial assumptions about the basic nature of human beings.

Research in personality is one of the most popular areas of psychological research in India. Early brief reviews of psychological research in India had been presented by S.R. Mitra (1955), Krishnan (1961) S. Sinha (1963), and Kappor (1965), the factor analytic theories of personality, particularly the theories of Raymond, B. Cattell & Hans J. Eysenck have attracted quite a few Indian psychologists. The various tools developed by these psychologists have been extensively used in India either in the original form or in adapted or translated forms.

In their 1950 book, *Unraveling Delinquency*, Sheldon & Eleanor Glueck itemized the personality traits that distinguish delinquent youth from nondelinquent youth, as indicated by their extensive study of 500 delinquents and 500 nondelinquents. On a whole, delinquents are more extraverted, various, impulsive and less self-controlled than the nondelinquents. They are more hostile, resentful, defiant, suspicious and destructive. They are less fearful of failure or defeat than the non delinquents. They are less concerned about meeting conventional expectations and more ambivalent toward or far less submissive to authority. They are, as a group more socially assertive.

Although out of step with dominant sociological approaches of the time, the Gluecks gave extended attention to individual “temperamental traits” & applied these traits to a variety of behavior, while focusing on delinquency. In addition, by associating temperament with physique, they suggested that personality traits may have biological roots. Their approach then was biosocial and developmental. “The factors involved in delinquency are neither essentially, biological nor essentially sociologic, but biosocial. We are concerned, e.g. with the result of such a dynamic process as the introjections of certain childhood experiences and the effect of such activity on the development of personality and character.

Personality refers to reasonably stable patterns of perceiving, thinking, feeling, and responding to the environment. Traits are the basic building blocks of personality, providing a foundation to thought, emotion, character and behavior. Contemporary theory and research contend that

personality can be characterized along a number of key dimensions, sometimes called “super factors” that organize the array of personality trait into a limited number of categories according to the interrelatedness of personality are discussed here because they have been connected most extensively to delinquency because these theories group personality traits into a limited numbers of superfactros, they are referred to as ‘structured models of personality or trait based personality models.

Eysenck’s PEN Model:

Hans Eysnck, a British Psychologist associated three personality dimensions with crime and delinquency Extraversion (E) Neuroticism (N) and Psychoticism (P). Each of these superfactors represents a collection of temperament traits are often expressed together and that typify an individual’s responses to environmental stimuli. Eysenck also argued that there is an underlying biological basis to these superfactors. Eysenck’s pioneering work originally advanced a two factor model consisting of extraversion Neuroticism. This is basic conceptualization of personality has been used repeatedly. Extraversion is contrasted with introversion and neuroticism is contrasted with emotional stability, resulting in a personality model that can be visualized by two interesting dimensions lying at right angles. Eysenck contended that in general “Crimes antisocial conducts are positively and casually related to high psychoticism, high extraversion and high neuroticism. Those two engage in crime and antisocial behavior tend to be impulsive socially insensitive, excitement seeking and aggressive. Further Eysenck theorized that although psychoticism is related to antisocial behavior for all ages, extraversion applies more readily to the antisocial behavior of children and adolescents and neuroticism is more relevant for older offenders.

3. Parenting Style:

Parenting as the style of child upbringing refers to a privilege or responsibility of mother and father, together or independently to prepare the child for society and culture (Veenes, 1973) which provides ample opportunity to a child to find roots, continuity and a sense of belonging (Sirohi and Chauhan, 1991) and also serves as an effective agent of socialization. Through parenting, as a perception of the parents of their own attitude towards the child, happens to be of great significance in the dynamics of behavior for socio-psychological researches, but how child

perceives his-her parenting always remains a neglected phase of researches and should be deemed most important as he is the one whose process of socialization stands for furtherance (Bharadwaj, 1996). Individual experiences not only help in making the sense of self identity and self-ideal but may also lead him to perceive, think and act in a self-directed manner. So it appears that child's perception of parental attitude towards himself should be of great concern in the dynamics of behavior and may open new avenues of research for deeper probe in the domain of parent-child relationship.

The two distinctive roles of parents include both mothering and fathering. A child bestows on both mother and father together or independently, the responsibility of upbringing him/her. These perceptions may be referred to apparently direct and immediate knowledge associated to their conscious or unconscious experiences by which they initiate and control behavior enormously. It is important to note most of the children have a fairly definite clearcut concept of 'father' which differs markedly from their concept of 'mother' (Meltzer, 1943). Therefore it appears to be of utmost importance to study perception regarding their fathering and mothering separately as well as parenting as a whole on different dichotomous modes of parenting.

Fathering : The role of a father or the style of individual's upbringing stands as a bridge by which the child comes into the contact of outside world (Meerto, 1968) encourages curiosity and a will to face the challenges of the world and appears as a symbol of assertive, independent, emotional and psychological support in the realization of truth. To love children is predominantly a feature of fathering in non-deviant families (Jain, 1986) and relates to acceptance, satisfaction and differentiating experiences in the children (Khokhar, 1983) that can also be deemed as conditional one (Fromm, 1956) because it is acquired or earned by the child's performance of duty, obedience and fulfillment of father's expectations. Whereas, inadequate fathering is usually understood to be a prime source of maladjustment (Erickson, 1963), truancy, guilt, self-devaluation and dependency (Colman, 1970) and chemical dependence (Bharadwaj, 1996)

Mothering: The role of mother or –the style of upbringing is largely associated with congenial development of personality because the child first comes in contact with mother and always depends on her to satisfy his basic needs. The role of mother shows better control over the children and stands for friendship with less punishment and dominance (Kegan, 1965), symbol

of emotional support, interpersonal sensitivity and helps (Farren and Ramsey, 1977) and plays an important role in making a person more productive and imaginative. Whereas, patterns of inadequate maternal behavior seem to be responsible for the problem of children's behavior and chemical dependence (Bharadwaj, 1995) and tends to inhibit the exploration of child's personality in the environment.

A normal healthy development of any individual starts at home. It is the home, the Family this constitutes the backbone of any human being. During childhood, the family constitutes the basic ecology in which the child's behaviour is manifested by way of positive or negative reinforcement (Dishion & Patterson, 2006).

There is considerable evidence that the family plays an important role in the development of adolescent delinquent behaviour, by inappropriate reinforcement practices. Many research studies have emphasized the importance of the child's relationship with the parent in decreasing the likelihood of delinquency (Bachman, 1970)

What is Parenting Style?

Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to influence child outcomes. Although specific parenting behaviors, such as spanking or reading aloud, may influence child development, looking at any specific behavior in isolation may be misleading. Many writers have noted that specific parenting practices are less important in predicting child well-being than is the broad pattern of parenting. Most researchers who attempt to describe this broad parental milieu rely on Diana Baumrind's concept of parenting style. The construct of parenting style is used to capture normal variations in parents' attempts to control and socialize their children. (Baumrind, 1991) Although parents may differ in how they try to control or socialize their children and the extent to which they do so, it is assumed that the primary role all parents is to influence, teach, and control their children.

The term 'Parenting' has been defined, as the process that includes nourishing, protecting and guiding a child through the course of development. (Brooke 1991)

Parenting is perhaps the most critical and important social responsibility. In most countries parents, rather than the state, have the primary responsibility of their children. Socialization, it

must be noted, “is an adult, initiated process by which the young person through education, training and imitation acquires culture as well as the habits and values congruent with adaptations to the culture” (Baumrind 1979).

Baumrind (1968, 1971), Maccoby & Martin (1983) defined parenting styles according to a two dimensional framework of support and control. Accordingly, four parenting styles can be identified: authoritative (high support, high control), authoritarian (low support, high control), permissive (high support, low control) and neglecting (low support, low control). For e.g. an authoritative style is characterized by high levels of warmth and affection and high levels punishment, restriction and supervision as well. Relation between these four parenting styles and delinquency had been sought in the present study.

Parenting styles are constellation of parental attitudes, practices and nonverbal expressions that characterize that nature of parent-child interactions across diverse contexts (Darling & Steinberg 1993). The concept across initially as a way to capture constellation of parenting behavior and these constellation have come to be seen by many researches as more predictive and useful than specific parenting practices. (Darling & Steinberg 1993 & Pettit 1999) Symonds (1939) presented on of the earlier studies of parenting style. He investigated parent-child relationships and their influence on a child behavior, Symonds determined that there were two main dimensions of parenting. These dimensions were acceptance-rejections and dominance-submission. He reported that the ideal parent child relationship were those in which parents were neither overly accepting nor rejecting. Parents provided a protection environment without coddling or hampering emotional maturity and independence, and parents were not too lenient or too strict. The children who were rejected by their parents were more likely to be delinquent and aggressive. On the other hand, overprotected children tended to be aggressive and to have school problems, while children with submissive parents tended to be more dependent and resistant.

Three Parenting Styles:

1) Permissive Parenting:

Permissive are more responsive than they are demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation”.

Indulgent parents may be further divided into two types: democratic parents, who, though lenient, are more conscientious, engaged, and committed to the child, and nondirective parents.

2) Authoritarian Parenting:

Authoritarian Parents are highly demanding and directive but not responsive. “They are obedience and status-oriented, and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation” These parents provide well-ordered and structured environments with clearly stated rules. Authoritarian parents can be divided into two types: non authoritarian directive, who are directive, but not intrusive or autocratic in their use of power, and directive, but not intrusive or autocratic in their use of power, and authoritarian-directive, who are highly intrusive.

3) Authoritative parenting:

Authoritative parents are both demanding and responsive. “They monitor and impart clear standards for their children’s conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitives. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative”.

Contemporary research on parenting style from Baumrind’s (1967, 1971, 1978, 1991) well known studies of children and their families. Baumrind investigated four aspects of parent behavior 1) Parental Nurturance 2) Control 3) maturity demands and 4) Clarity of parent-child communication. Baumrind research resulted in influential expansion of our understanding of parenting style. Baumrind (1971) identified two types of parental control related to less optimal child development than other parents. Their parents were labeled authoritarian. Non-controlling, Non-demanding parents who were relatively nurturing had children who were the least independent and who were not socially responsible these were called permissive parents. Baumrind found that children who were the least independent and who were not socially responsible these were called permissive parents. Baumrind found that children who were most socially responsible and independent had parents, were both controlling and demanding. These parents were also nurturing, rational, and receptive to the child’s communication. These parents were labeled authoritative due to the combination of high control and positive encouragement of the child autonomous striving. (Baumrind 1971) The authoritative parenting style is, generally the most desirable parenting style to aspire to and is believed to have a strong connection to positive

parental attachment. This style is characterized by high demandingness but high responsiveness, as well; the authoritative parent places high expectation on their child but provides significant positive support and feedback. This parenting style is tremendously child-centered with parents communicating positive attitudes toward their children; encouraging the development of self enhancing attributes. (Meteyer& Jenkins, 2009)

Permissive parents make little attempt a control a child conduct. The child impulses and actions are typically met with acceptance without punitive responses. Permissive parents make few demands, resulting in a decreased sense of responsibility in the child. They typically allow to regular themselves and do not encourage the child to conform to extremely defined standards. (Bauri1991) Permissive parents may not be physically available to the child often resulting emotionally distant relationship. This parenting style is characterized by low demandingness and high responsiveness. (Maccoby& Martins 1983)

Authoritarian parenting styles could actually be more harmful to children with high behavior impulse control. (William's et .at. 2009)

Shumow, Vamdell, Posner (1998) reported authoritarian parents demonstrated poorer behavior adjustment, more behavior problem. That indicates children of the authoritarian parents have one of the worst outcome on virtually any measure of social or cognitive competence, academic performance psychological well-being or problem behavior. (Baumrind 1997, Slicker, Lam Born et. Al.1991)

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Parents shape children's personality development through their provision of psychological resources, because of controversy over whether parents actually contribute to children's development beyond their genetic legacy.

CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of Related Studies:

1. Juvenile delinquency:

A study by **Eckenrode** (1949-50) of the scholastic achievement of 345 boys committed to an institution for juvenile delinquency revealed a median retardation in reading of five years. The results of a study by **Caitchley** (1968) confirmed those of earlier studies showing that 60 per cent of 477 delinquent children and adolescents were two or more years retarded in reading. Also left-handedness, crossed laterality, and faulty pronunciation were found frequently with the retarded readers, suggesting that many are dyslexic.

Glueck and Glueck (1950), point out home adjustment as an important factor leading to delinquent and criminal behavior. **Mays** (1958) hold that emotionally maladjusted boys are more likely to become persistent offenders. **Mello and Guthrie** (1958) have also emphasized the importance of emotional instability and hypersensitivity leading to deviant behavior. **Peterson Quay and Cameron** (1959) found emotional, home and School maladjustment to be associated with delinquent behavior. A study of **Swickard and Spilka** (1961) is suggestive of the view that maladjustment in any spare of life generating frustration may lead to violent delinquency and criminal behavior. **Siegmán** (1962) and **Gynther** (1962) found relationship between criminal behavior and emotional disturbance. **Husain** (1965) found criminals to be highly maladjusted in all the areas of adjustment. **Chuhan** (1958) found truants lacking in emotional stability and adjustment. **Badami and Badami** (1972) point out that truants are more socially maladjusted than nontruants. **Singh** (1976) and **Nirmal** found positive correlation between deviant behavior (crime and delinquent) and home emotional and social maladjustments. **Krishan** (1981) found that truants in comparison to no-truants were significantly maladjusted in the areas of home social and emotional adjustments. In the same study the results with regard to health adjustment although insignificant, were in opposite direction. **Krishna** (1981) in another study, found that disciplined boys were better adjusted than undisciplined boys with regard to home adjustment. While undisciplined boys in comparison to disciplined boys were more adjusted in the areas of health, social and emotional adjustments, the differences between the two groups in all these

areas were insignificant. Nagla (1981), commenting on the etiology of delinquency held maladjustment as its causative factor.

Although the problem of juvenile delinquent has existed in many ages and many culture but only the pioneering work of Burt (1925) Healy (1929), Shaw and Mckay (1942) and Aichorn (1935) led many researchers with varied professional background to extensively investigate into the multifarious problems posed by juvenile delinquents. While Burt (1925) found homes helping the deviants, Glueck and Glueck (1934) reached the conclusion that 81 percent delinquents belonged to Criminal or deviant parents. Cohen (1955) made a study of delinquent gangs to find various characteristics of their sub-culture. Ney (1958), on the other hand, asserted that unhappy families also contributed to produce more juvenile delinquents. He took 3158 students of Washington State and compared them with group of institutionalized delinquent children. He found that and compared that a) social class was not related to delinquency b) rejection of the child by the parents was less significant than rejection of the parents by the child.

Kvaraceus (1964) has noted that there were wide differences with regard to offerances and penalties. C.R. Shaw and Lucas (1970) pointed out that psychiatry has come to exert increasing influence in matter of policy in operation of law enforcement.

The growing problem of discipline from mild behavior disruption or criminal activity has also been reviewed, “by many researchers in terms of both etiology and treatment. Birman and Natriello (1978), Doyle (1978), Feldhusen (1978), Lit (1978) ,Qwey (1978) has discussed the question of whether students today behave worse than they did in the past. He concluded that problems caused by disruptive behavior in the class room were less serious at the turn of century than they are now because disruptive students could be removed from school or did not attend at all. The same year Feldhusen (1978) outlined four broad reason for current school problems, a) psychological and sociological variables, b) Television, c) political and social influences ad, d) the school itself.

Harris and Ulrich (1972) Stachink and Mabray (1974) have reviewed numerous studies that demonstrate the successful use of behavior management strategies for adolescent in school. Social and material reinforcement in the school using such systems, token economies, contingency contracting and group contingencies have been described by Black man and

Silberman (1975), Buckley and Walker (1973), Harris (1972), Homme (1970). Wedge and Essen (1982), Schostak (1983) and Coleman (1986) have made good attempts to study behavioural and related problems among the children.

Research in India:

The earliest account of a study is that of Sen (1937) who provided a focus on juvenile delinquency.

In the year 1955, Udai Shankar presented various series, 'A study of child delinquency' of over 140 delinquents. In this study he found more mental defectives among delinquents than among ordinary children.

S.S. Srivastava (1963) made a social-ecological study of Juvenile Vagrants in the cities of Kanpur and Lucknow with 150 cases in each city. It was a good study of pre-delinquent stage with a complete social-psychological exploration of deviant habits and behavior patterns.

K. Bose (1966) studied emotional factors causing behavioural problems on a sample of 100 delinquents from Delhi's Children Home. Meera Mahale (1975) has studied the influence of family situation on adolescents. Reddy (1975-76) has examined the relationship between the social background and value orientation of students and their activism.

Channabasavanna, Mohan K. Isaac, and Bhaskar (1981) jointly made a socio-demographic study regarding juvenile delinquency. In this study they investigated and analyzed the socio-demographic correlates of juvenile delinquency in Indian city and also the types of anti-social behavior and anti-social acts which constitute juvenile delinquency.

K.S. Shukla (1982), of the Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science, New Delhi, has done a commendable job by making analytical study into the Research trends and priorities in the field of juvenile delinquency in India.

Bhaduri, Mahanta and Panda (1987) into some negative correlates of antisocial behavior. The study reveals that "psychoticism, neuroticism, psychopathy and jealousy measurements are predicting anti-social behavior.

Allen and Sandhu (1967-68) shed some light on the attitudes of these two groups. More of the delinquents were out of school and either unemployed or employed full time than nondelinquents. They are from lower income homes and have a stronger need for employment in order to have a car and other things which their more affluent peers have. The delinquent boys regard themselves as finished with education and displayed little interest in schooling.

Delinquent boys and girls assign relatively greater weight to behavior associated with the need strivings of dominance, aggression, and exhibition; nondelinquents give greater emphasis to nurturant, deferent, and affiliation behavior, as well as to the achievement-related behavior subsumed under endurance and order.

Certain symptoms can indicate likely delinquent behavior among adolescents. In a study by **Kulik** and others (1971), delinquent slang is specifically set forth as related to delinquent conduct. The adolescent whose language interferes with his social relationships within the wider community is at a disadvantage in the socialization process. An item pool of sixty-two slang words gleaned from various sources was administered to 996 boys of high school age of which 605 were enrolled in school and 391 were in institutions for delinquents.

According to **Mueller** (1966) maladjustment of either the aggressive or withdrawal type become apparent by the age of twelve or thirteen. The combination of maladjustment and reading failure is a dangerous one, indicating future trouble. In general, boys are likely to display aggressive maladjustment and girls are more likely to display withdrawal tendencies.

Juvenile delinquency as it exists today may be means for teen-agers to expend energy and assert themselves. **Yoblonksy** (1962) identified three types of teen-age gangs: the social gang organized for comradeship rather than delinquent behavior; the delinquent gang, primarily organized for aggressive violence.

Adulthood or the age of majority in a legal system is determined by the law. Delinquency can be defined as commission or omission of an act defined as a crime or an offence by the State. It covers anything from small crime to a very serious crime.

One cannot well ignore the influence of the home in any consideration of delinquent behavior. A study of cast of histories of delinquents reveals again and again a picture of rejection, neglect, parent-child conflict, poverty, abuse and ill-treatment, psychotic parents, and social stress.

Mizuship and others (1971) noted from their studies that family relationships were related to emotional disturbances and delinquent acculturations, and that the common factor in most delinquents was lack of rejection of interpersonal ties with socialized person.

The major difference between white American and black American gangs seen to lie in the psychological make-up of the individual members. A larger percentage of white gang members are emotionally disturbed, and this factor motivates them to become members of gangs. The acute disorganization of the Negro slums and the frustrations experienced because of social and economic discrimination are factors that have produced the high rate of juvenile delinquency among Negro adolescents. Much which delinquency involves vandalism-crime committed for kicks.

One of the most interesting in the context of data offered from other studies dealing with dropout is the result of a study by **Palmore and Hammond** (1964) that failure at school, along with sex and age, are the factors most closely associated with official delinquency among youngsters supported by Aid to Dependent Children funds. The delinquent boy is particular present psychological defect. His behavior may be attributed to a serious of inadequacies of failures.

In an early study by **Maller (1936)** of juvenile delinquency in New York City, it was observed that delinquency is largely concentrated in certain underprivileged areas. High delinquency areas are characterized by low rent, low educational level of the adults, and excessive retardation of pupils in school, poor recreational facilities, overcrowded, conditions, high adult crime rate and lack of organized activities for adolescents. These studies indicate that delinquent areas fall into the following general types: deteriorating residential areas in which business establishment are being organized, manufacturing areas, and districts characterized by an unstable population.

Delinquency is basically a legal concept defined in different ways in different terms and places. Thus, drinking, fighting, and some forms of behaviour might call delinquent at one time in a particular culture, but may be sanctioned at another time or in another culture. In Indian society,

the term juvenile delinquent is generally applied to young person under 18 years of age who exhibited behaviour which is punished by law.

The number of young persons who are detected, reported, or charged in connection with delinquent behaviour began to increase substantially after 1948 and has continued to rise ever since. Part of this rise is accounted for by rapid increase in the number of older children and adolescents in the population during this period. Unfortunately however the incidence of reported delinquency has been rising faster than the youthful population, and consequently, a reduction in the rate of delinquency during the coming decade appears highly unlikely (Quay,1965).

Delinquency involves personal suffering as well as a loss to society. While delinquency is a social problem of increasing concern to our society. Delinquency has something to do with misbehavior, but not all misbehavior is delinquent, even when it might be considered inappropriate behaviour for the age of the individual. Both the quality of the behaviour and the degree of social deviance are factors in judging an act delinquent or rather trivial, on the one hand, or delinquent or psychopathological, on the other hand.

Some misbehavior is illegal, some misbehavior is immoral. Not all illegal behaviour is immoral and much immoral behaviour has not become a matter of secular legislation. The differences are partly practical and partly a matter of cultural relativism. **Ellingston**(1948) said that crime is whatever the dominant elements of a particular society believe to be dangerous to the security and solidarity of the society at any particular time.

Delinquency rates are still highest in deteriorated neighborhoods near the center of large cities. In such areas characterized by economic privation, rapid population turnover, general disorganization, delinquency is often an approved tradition and there are many opportunities for leaning antisocial behaviour from delinquent peers.

Adolescents and young adulthood are periods of increased autonomy. Higher levels of autonomy could increase the opportunities for risk behaviour such as delinquency. During these periods of transition the role of parental control become less clear. Delinquency among teenagers remains a significant problem overall, 16% of serious crimes involved a person under age18. What steers adolescents towards criminal activity? Some offenders, known as undersocialized delinquents,

were raised with little discipline or by harsh uncaring parents. Although they are influenced by peers, their parents did not teach them appropriate social behaviour or how to regulate their own conduct. Undersocialized delinquents typically begin criminal activities well before the onset of a adolescence. Undersocialized delinquents share several characteristics. They tend to be aggressive and violent early in life leading to peer rejection and academic failure. They are more likely to have been diagnosed with attention deficit disorder as children, and they tend to be less intelligent than average. (**Silverthorn& Frick** 1999, **Rutter** 2003)

August Aichorn stresses the importance of the family in shaping the children. He feels that the family should provide the child love and security and at the same time be a haven of relief from outside pressures.

Sideny Berman believes that delinquent children have often had difficulty in their early relationships with their parents.

Harwood show that 70 percent of their correspondents listed an impulse to escape as a reason for using drugs.

Smart and Fejer (1972) studied the relationship between parental drug among 8,865 students from the sixth to the thirteenth grade. A positive correlation was obtained between parental use of psychoactive drugs, alcohol, and tobacco and the use of these drugs by the students. The relationship was closet when both parents used psychoactive drugs. These findings suggest that adolescents model their drug

Undersocialized delinquents often suffer from psychological problems, and as adults fit a pattern called antisocial personality disorder. They are unlikely to be successful rehabilitated, and many undersocialized delinquents live on the margins of society their entire lives. (Layman, 1996, Frick el at., 2003)

In contrast, socialized delinquents know and usually follow the norms of society, and they are highly influenced by their peers. Socialized delinquents are typically highly peer-influenced, their delinquency often occurring in groups. Some research also suggests that their parents supervise their behavior less than other parents. But these minor delinquencies are often a result

of giving in to group pressure or seeking to establish one's identity as an adult. (Fletcher et al., 1995; Thornberry & Krohn, 1997)

The normal growth of the child's mind is from a state of attachment to mother, next to the father, and thence by gradual stages to the state of psychological maturity when the individual is self-reliant, yet ready to adapt himself to the rules of adult society. If this process is arrested or diverted, mental abnormality is produced. Fixations on one or other parents may be formed, or abnormal reactions of hostility to family authority may develop. When this happens there is grave risk of arrest in emotional development whereby the adult remains at the emotional level of the child.

Whether it is a question of psychological factors, faulty emotional development, instability due to the constitutional components of the personality emotional frustration, broken family; in all these are found the psychological conditions engendering insecurity. The character or personality structure which develops early in interpersonal relationships determines the person's approach of life.

When we deal with juvenile delinquency or juvenile misbehavior, we must view it in terms of both the conditions of the individual person affecting delinquency and the social environment in which he lives.

The most important single factor in the development picture of children is a good relationship with their parents. This means that the child needs to feel that there is at least one solid dependable fact in the changing confusion of his social relationship, that he need never doubt his parent's affection for him. Nearly every parent loves his children. But in many cases misunderstandings, hard feelings and open conflict occur between parent and the child. It would seem that love is not sufficient to produce a happy parent-child relationship. What else is needed? We could say that common sense, knowledge of what can be expected by the child, reasonableness, patience and intelligence are necessary.

To make affection dependent on good behavior is always a mistake. It may be that child will be good behavior in order to be loved but his idea of the meaning of love is distorted as a result. It is very important that the child feels secure in the affections of his parents, for any insecurity here may have serious result. Affections then, should never be used as level to move the child, for he

needs to feel that no matter what happens there is a solid emotional anchor, that his mother and father will love him always.

Among the forces that influence the growth and behavior of the child, the most important are the home, the school, the cinema and the recreation organizations for the young.

Anger is expressed by children in a variety of ways. With young children the expression is usually violent and intense, but of relatively short duration. As a child grows older he learns to direct his anger into language or more direct attacks. He also learns to reduce the violence of his outbursts. In healthy development the mobilized energy is directed into solving the problem presented by the frustration.

According to the **Robinson** delinquency as any behavior which a given community at a given time considers in conflict with its best interests, whether or not the offender has been brought to court.

The antisocial behavior of young people came to be recognized as a community problem at the point at which a large number of individual families were unable to cope with it by themselves. Although the community assumed responsibility for this problem, loosely defined as delinquency, it did not, however, assign the major responsibility for its control-as it had with education, health and moral-to one set of agencies.

2. Personality:

Research on personality is focused upon two major topics: individual differences in the distribution of various traits and dispositions across persons and the organization of these characteristics within the person (Draguns 1979). According to Kluckhohn and Murray (1950, p. 190), 'every man is in certain respects: a) like all other men, b) like some other men, and c) like no other man'. Personality theorists and researchers concede the study of laws and principles of behavior to general psychology.

This is no easy task, as others have noted (eg. Allport and Vernon, 1930; Pervin 1990), It is in individual differences that we find the logical key to personality" (Guilford 1959) or even that "all individual differences in the behavioral realm may be regarded as the subject matter of personality research." (**Jensen** 1958).

Wiggins (1979) States that personality, is that branch of psychology which is concerned with providing a systematic account of the ways in which individual differ from one another's.

Furnham& Thompson's (1991) research with 18 to 25 years old, in which psychoticism, but not neuroticism or extraversion significantly predicted delinquency.

Elmer & Colleagues found virtually no support for neuroticism, mixed support for extraversion, and the strongest correlation between delinquency and psychoticism.

Gluecks indicated that delinquent boys were more extraverted than non-delinquent boys. In contrast, Farrington (1992) found that while high scorers on neuroticism, but not extraversion tended to be official offenders, those with high scores on extraversion but not neuroticism were from the self-reported delinquency group. High scorers on psychoticism came from both groups.

Heaven (1993) research among Australian adolescents found that psychoticism and sociability (extraversion) were significant predications of delinquency for both males and females.

According to Hare (1991, 2003) these individuals are manipulative forceful and lack empathy or remorse. They are usually impulsive and are prove to violate social legal norms.

Personality theorists have proposed well developed theories associated personality traits to crime and other antisocial behaviors. (Eysenck, 1977, Zuckeman 1989)

Eysenck (1991) proposed that some of these personality traits results in consistent behaviors, some closely associated with antisocial behaviors.

Olweus (1979) &Loeber (1982) noted that antisocial behavior appears to be a developmental trait that begins early in life and which continues into adolescence and adulthood.

Cleckley (1941, 1988) initially distinguished psychopathy from the common criminal acts by focusing on the affecting dishabitation such as, lack of remorse egocentricity and poor interpersonal relations.

Glicken&Sechrist (2003) described juvenile delinquency as a set of minor violations against accepted societal norms, values and practices.

Steinberg (1999) estimated that 2/3 of Juvenile crimes are never reported to the police but are instead addressed through informal disciplinary responses.

Dacey & Kenny (1997) noted that 60% to 80% of juvenile reported some type of delinquent behavior in their past.

Steinberg (1999) & **Dacey & Kenny (1997)** noted that about 10% of adolescents who have experimental with delinquent behavior become responsible foremost of the criminal behavior within this age group.

McCord (1964) proposed that parental rejection and poor discipline reinforced the development of psychopathy.

Brown & Wright (2001) noted that early negligence of parents to meet the child's needs result in an insecure attachment and an inability to exhibit empathy. This lack of empathy, callousness, is linked to the capacity for later criminal behavior, particularly violent behavior (2001)

Huizinga & Jacob-Chien (1998) noted that adolescent offenders appeared to be dealing with multiple issues such as, emotional medical, psychological, substance abuse & interpersonal problems. These problems may present a treat to the emotional stability of the adolescent. The emotional volatility and lack of coping skills of an adolescent may predispose these juvenile offenders to reoffend sooner after release than for adults. (Glick & Sechrest 2003)

Although juvenile delinquency usually terminates by age 18, criminal behavior of juvenile offenders who continue to reoffend may be directly associated with a general antisocial tendency with biological predispositions. These behaviors are maintained through immediate gratification and a social learning process (**Farrington**, 1996)

Barnett, Blumstein & Farrington (1996) found that the individual rates of constant for adolescents who continued to reoffend.

The important aspect of a psychological connection with delinquency is what is generally known as "personality". The concept of personality is generally thought of as a relatively permanent set of attitudes and values that people exhibit in most situations. Some suggest that a personality is a set of orientations, or dispositions, to act or think in certain ways (**Miller & Lyman**, 2001)

Personality refers to important and relatively stable aspects of behavior. Personality deals with a wide range of human behavior. To most theories personality includes there are several studies about the personality of convicted criminals.

Virtually everything about a person, mental, emotional, social, and physical, Some aspects of personality are unobservable such as thought, memories & dreams.

Personality also includes aspects that are concealed from yourself or unconscious as well as those that are conscious and well within your awareness.

Personality is important and relatively stable characteristics within a person that account for consistent patterns of behavior. Aspects of personality may be observable or unobservable and conscious or unconscious. Personality is a comprehensive construct, and motivation is a fundamental aspect of behavior. Therefore theories of personality one is large pant theories of motivation and must (directly or indirectly) make crucial assumptions about the basic nature or human beings.

Research in personality is one of the most popular areas of psychological research in India. Early brief reviews of psychological research in India had been presented by S.R. Mitra (1955), Krishnan (1961) S. Sinha (1963), and Kappor (1965), the factor analytic theories of personality, particularly the theories of Raymond, B. Cattell& Hans J. Eysenck have attracted quite a few Indian psychologists. The various tools developed by these psychologists have been extensively used in India either in the original form of in adapted or translated forms.

In popular understanding criminals are assumed to be distinct from the rest of law-abiding society. The question often follows fro, this premise of how a person may come to be part of that separate sub-group of humanity? The simple and often favored answer is that there is something distinct about the sort of people who commit crimes which sets them apart. In other words, it is assumed that criminals have a different personality and that, in effect, it is this personality that causes them to become criminal.

Lobato (2000) doses show the potential for this type of exploration. She found that the degree of Extraversion of offenders in Brazil did relate to the weapons they preferred to use. As might be

expected, the extraverts chose large obvious weapons like machine guns, the introvert's smaller discreet weapons like pistols. This mean offences are committed to personality are very unusual.

Eysenck and Gudjonsson's (1989) studies showed that in general, criminals tended to be more extravert and neurotic than the population at large. They explained that these higher personality scores were related to lower levels of autonomic arousal which in turn gave rise to a limited ability to learn. It was this lack of responsiveness to reinforcement that meant offenders did not internalize the rules of society and thus were more likely to perpetrate antisocial acts.

The behavior orientation to deviance usually assumes a fundamental continuity between normal and abnormal behavior (Bandura, 1986). Rather than attributing deviance to distinct pathology or basically different conditions, one sees it as governed by the same laws that might lead to adequate distinct pathology or basically different conditions,

The personality trait, such as neuroticism, psychoticism, frustration and maladjustment appear to be important causative factors of juvenile delinquency. **Hinderlang**(1971) found delinquent to be more neurotic than non-delinquents. **Sharma** (1979) found delinquents to be highly frustrated. They were reported to have higher scores on regression and aggression.

Basu (1984) on the basis of his study pointed out that emotional instability, in security, feelings of inadequacy and inferiority are common denominations or behavior disorders in juvenile delinquency.

Healy and Bronner (1936) found that delinquents were rejected, deprived or insecure.

Russell (1977)found that neuroticism, depression, depression, sensitivity, impulsivity, social extroversion and social non-conformity were dominant personality characteristics in juvenile delinquents. Delinquents have often been observed to be rigid in their behavior and do not easily change their pursuits.

Sivanandam (1990) in her study indicated that the girl delinquents and women criminals were high on introgression blame avoidance, evading frustration, need persistence, group conformity rating and low on obstacle dominance.

Dunedin study in New Zealand has tracked around one thousand infants into adulthood & demonstrated that children temperament is mostly but reliably predictive of adult personality & further criteria including criminal behavior and mental disorder (Carpi, Harrington Milne et. al. (2003)

There are several studies about the personality of convicted criminals. The PEN system has been one of the most frequently tested models. Eysenck (1977) predicted that criminals would show higher scores on PE & N some studies support the view, while others do not.

There are at least three sets of factors associated with criminal behavior: early influences, current circumstances immediately previous to the antisocial behavior our itself. Different factors will be prevalent for different individuals. If parents have few rules about how their child should behave if they leave their child unsupervised, and if they do not exercise any control then the probability of the child getting into antisocial behavior increases. (**Lykken**1995)

Personality may play predictor of juvenile delinquency (**Tittle & Meier**, 1991) What this means is that social class of origin in interaction with vulnerable personalities will empower our knowledge about of an antisocial behavior .

Eysenck present the particular traits that define the type concepts, or primary dimensions, of extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. Extraverts are oriented toward external reality; introverts are quite, introspective individuals who are oriented to toward external reality; introverts are quiet, introspective individuals who are oriented toward inner reality and who prefer a well-ordered life. Although these definitions are similar to those used by Jung Eysenck did not accept Jung's account of the origins of these attitudes nor the manner in which they operate in the subterranean psyche of the individual (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, p. 48).

Neurotics, in Eysenck's view, are emotionally unstable individuals. Some have unreasonable fear of certain objects, places, persons, animals, open spaces, or heights (Eysenck, 1965, p. 97); others may exhibit obsessional or impulsive symptoms. The hallmark of the disorder for most neurotics in an anxiety level disproportionate to the realities of the situation (Eysenck1965. pp. 97-98). Yet some neurotics are free from the burden of anxiety and fear. In this grouping we find the psychopaths-individuals who seem unable to assess the consequences of their actions and

who behave in an asocial or antisocial manner regardless of the punishment meted out by others (Eysenck. 1965p. 100)

In Eysenck's view, human beings are biosocial creatures; that is, people are born with certain innate predispositions to respond in particular ways to the environment, but these predispositions (or traits) can be altered to some extent by socialization demands. Thus the environment and our genes interact to produce behavior; biological factors typically play the stronger role.

Eysenck found the strong genetic basis of the primary personality types confirmed in three ways: 1) the same three personality orientations are found universally, despite the unique social and cultural factors that pressure individuals in different national groups to behave in ways consistent with their national affiliations; 2) these traits show stability within given individuals over long periods of time, during which a variety of experiences occur without appreciably modifying basic responses; 3) the evidence provided by twin studies is consistent with the genetic hypothesis.

Junior Eysenck Personality Questionnaire to measure extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism in children within different cultures-including Hungary, Spain, Japan, Singapore, and Greece have found results similar to those obtained with adults (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, pp. 102-107). Other studies have found the same three dimensions-introversion/extraversion, stability/neuroticism, and impulse control/ psychoticism in children as well as adults (Rachman, 1969, pp. 253-254).

Aichorn's study of Wayward Youth in 1935 (5) elegantly describes neurotic underpinnings of delinquent behavior for a group of youth. In 1946, Bowlby's Landmark study of 44 thieves postulates environmental antecedents to delinquent behavior from the perspective of object relations.

Jefferson & Johnson (2007) in a research have found a relationship between the hyperactivity and emotion-seeking in the delinquents.

Van Dam et al (2007) believe that there is a relationship between personality and delinquency and perpetration of crime.

Corff & Toupin (2009) have shown that those girls and boys who commit delinquent activities are different from the non-delinquent girls and boys in many aspects of the personality

characteristics and that these differences are more obvious in two characteristics of neuroticism and the lack of adaptation i.e. the delinquent girls and boys possess these two specifications more than non-delinquent girls and boys.

Johnson et al (2000) believe that there is a relation between personality disorders of the juveniles and their violence and criminal behaviors.

Väforset al (2008) has found a relationship between personality characteristics, parents' treatment, misuse of alcohol and the perpetration of crime.

Koposov et al (2004) showed that alcohol abuse in Russian delinquent adolescents is associated with personality and parenting factors independently of co-morbid psychopathology.

Van Domburgh et al (2009), they found that high and escalating re-offenders more often had other adverse outcomes, such as criminal victimization and Child Welfare Agency involvement.

Evans et al (2009) found that oppositional, delinquent behavior was the best predictor of caregiver strain and suggests that preventing and treating these child behavior problems should be a high priority when working with young adolescents with ADHD.

Meier et al (2008) have shown a relationship between personality specifications and agitation, emotional senselessness, and the delinquent behaviors of male and female juveniles who are in contact with each other.

Jung et al (2008) carried out a research on the delinquent prostitute girls with regard to investigation of the stress disorder symptoms after event (PTSD) and also of their mental health. Ultimately, they found out the relationship between these factors and the criminal activities of prostitute and delinquent girls.

Ramchand et al (2009) believe that the girls and boys who have to work for money are more exposed to the criminal activities and therefore commit them more.

Salfati et al (2008) in a research have found out that the delinquent girls are murdered in the street 60 to 100 times more than the non-delinquent girls and that the investigation and detection of these murders are more difficult and in some cases even remain unsolved. The current study aims to lead an exploratory research so as to discover the key specifications of this group and that how this murdered group is differed from other subdivisions of the murder.

TerLaak et al (2003) have pointed to the relationship between the personality characteristics and lack of social qualification, and also delinquency in the delinquent girls.

Burton (2008) has carried out a research on the relationship of the sexual misbehavior and sexual perversion with the sexual abuse in childhood. In this study two groups of the imprisoned delinquent male juveniles have been studied including 74 boys with sexual misbehavior and 53 boys lacking sexual misbehavior. Compared to the boys lacking sexual misbehavior, those with sexual misbehavior and the sexual perversion have had a wide background regarding the sexual abuse in their childhood.

Few other social problems have received the attention that has been accorded the juvenile delinquent and the young offender during the past half century. Every cursory review of the literature in this field reveals that considerable funds and effort have been expended to discover causal factors and methods of crime control. But these studies have provided no positive programs of prevention, control or rehabilitation (Echorn, 1963) One of the major factors which has been studied is the question of personality dynamics in illegal behavior. The most popular and wide spread theory regarding criminality is that this behavior is the result of individual personality dynamics which impel certain persons toward deviant action (Gibbons, 1965) asserts that certain personality patterns are etiologically involved in certain forms of criminality. He also indicates that many personality dynamics associated with criminality are not generic to all offenders or wholly lacking in non-offenders.

Although the motivational factor has not received the investigation accorded personality traits, it has been considered as an important component to rehabilitation. Motivation concerns the extrinsic and intrinsic conditions responsible for variations in the intensity, quality and direction of on-going behavior therefore, it determines to some extent the offender's response to rehabilitation (Barry, 1965)' Since both personality and motivational factors played an important role in the development of the offender, and in his subsequent rehabilitation, an understanding of the personality and motivational characteristics could be helpful in both the prevention and treatment of offenders.

A review of the literature which is relevant to the present study will be presented in three sections. First, a number of studies in which delinquents were compared with non-delinquents to determine personality traits will be discussed and summarized. Next, several studies will be

presented discussing the motivation factors in the delinquent. Finally, the literature present in this review will be evaluated.

One of the early and influential reports on personality problems and delinquency is represented by the study of Wiealy and Bronner (Gibbons, 1965). These investigators concluded from a comparative investigation of delinquents and their non-delinquent siblings that no less than 91% of the delinquents gave clear evidence of being or having been unhappy and discontented in their life circumstances or extremely emotionally disturbed because of emotion proving situations or experiences. In great contradistinction they found similar evidence of inner stress, at most, in only 13% of the control group of non-delinquent siblings.

Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck are considered the leading researchers in the' field of personality traits in delinquents and youthful offenders. In one study of the emotional characteristics of offenders, the Gluecks (1950) used the Rorshach Test to determine personality differences between delinquents and non-delinquents. They observed that the delinquent was more socially assertive, defiant, and ambivalent to authority than the non-delinquent. The delinquent group also tended to be more resentful of others and far more hostile, suspicious, and destructive than the grown of non-delinquents. The goals of the delinquent's drives were to a much greater extent destructive and sadistic than were the drives of the non-delinquent.

The delinquent was more impulsive, vivacious, and decidedly more extroversive in their behavior trends than the non-delinquent tested. Fritz Redl (1955) in discussing troubles with defiant youth states that the defiant ego shows itself in uncontrolled impulsiveness. He sees the young offender as enjoying destruction and searching for fun as an immediate need. Redl defines fun as any behavior in which the person wants to indulge. Cohen (1955) in his research on the delinquent gang believes that malice is the underlying delinquent pattern which is seen in the pleasure that a delinquent attains through the discomfort of others. He reports that other elements within this pattern are contempt, ridicule and defiance. Cohen sees the delinquent as an impetuous and impatient individual. He states that the delinquent does not have long-term goals or ideas nor does the delinquent show interest in activities which require skill, knowledge or planning. Jenkins and Glickman (1959) found that some significant personality variables in young offenders are sensitivity, inferiority feelings, depression, mental conflict, reclusiveness, day-dreaming, and psychoneurotic trends. They divided delinquents into two types the unsocialized delinquent who is violent, destructive and boastful and the socialized delinquent

who is incorrigible. As isolated in previous research, Peterson and his group of colleagues (1961) in their analysis of personality factors relating to juvenile delinquency found psychopathy and neuroticism factors to be present within the delinquent population.

Psychopathy as used in this study implied a tendency toward impulsiveness, a lack of emotional involvement with others, and a tough, rebellious, distrustful attitude toward authority. Neuroticism also contained an element of impulsivity, but this was associated with tension, discouragement, guilt, and depression. Using KOG subjects and a battery of four questionnaires compiled by the researchers, both psychopathic and neurotic factors were found to be significantly higher in the delinquent subjects than in the nondelinquent group. In a study of the personality and environmental factors in the development of the delinquent, Wirt and Briggs (1959) found that the delinquent was considered by his peers to be extroverted in action, adventurous, to value entertainment highly, and to lead in social activities more often than the non-delinquent. In comparing the two samples, Wirt and Briggs were able to differentiate the delinquent from the non-delinquent in that the delinquent did value humor and entertainment more than the nondelinquent. Being more psychopathic than the non-delinquent, the delinquent's performance in school tended to be trouble ridden and poor as was their general level of achievement.

The data from the development and validation studies of the Jesness (1965) inventory indicates that delinquent and non-delinquent males do not differ markedly in scores on defensiveness, value-orientation, neuroticism, or family orientation. The two groups do vary on attitudes toward authority with the delinquent showing a greater hostility toward authority figures than the non-delinquent. They differ also on psychoticism, the offender is more suspicious and distrustful of other persons than the non-offender. Additionally, the delinquent can be differentiated from the nondelinquent on the two empirical scales, career orientation and emotional maturity. When compared to non-deviants, the institutionalized delinquent is more concerned about being normal, exhibits more marked feelings of isolation, is less mature, lacks insight and tends to deny that he has problems.

Some patterns of behavior may exist in many cultures or even everywhere. But they still insist that the vast bulk of human problem reflect unfortunate social histories and environments. They therefore focus their attention on the disadvantageous behaviors themselves. Rather than viewing maladaptive patterns as merely symptoms or signs of underlying diseases or dynamics, this view

rejects the symptom-disease distinction and concentrates on the individual's problematic behaviors. The behavior orientation to deviance usually assumes a fundamental continuity between normal and abnormal behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Kanfer & Philips, 1970; Ullmann & Krasner, 1999). Rather than attributing deviance to distinct pathology or basically different conditions, one sees it as governed by the same laws that might (under other specific circumstances) lead to adequate or even creative behavior. That is, normal and abnormal behavior are not viewed as distinctly separate entities', instead, all behavior-regardless of its social value-in analyzed in the same terms.

The emphasis on the specificity of behavior implies that an individual may engage in deviant or disadvantageous behaviors only under some conditions and not under others. A boy may be hyper aggressive at school but not at home, failing in schoolwork but excelling in sports, popular with boys but terrified of girls. A boy may be anxious about public speaking but quite calm when facing sports competitions and even when climbing hazardous mountain peaks. In the behavioral orientation, therefore, one does not characterize the person as normal or deviant and concentrates instead on identifying specific problematic behaviors and the situations in which they occur.

3. Parenting Style:

A number of studies have identified particular parenting styles as risk factor for antisocial behavior children and adolescences due to the lack of attachment developed between child and parents.

Family as a unit of social organization serves as an effective agent of socialization where parent-child relationship happens to be a central factor in children's social development (Bretherton, 1985) and also influences the segments of personality (Saxsens, 1987). Ordinarily the child's key models are his parents and their behavior can have beneficial or detrimental effect on the way the child learns to perceive, think, feel and act. Men's and women's degree of investment in parenting is more consequential for their socialization practices and view of their children than degree of investment in work (Green and Goldbery, 1989). How a child performs usually depend on the various parenting styles by which they are being treated. It was found that good relations with parents tend to show better social adjustment (Lewis, 1945), emotional adjustment (Lewis 1945) and self esteem development (Dembo, Small and Savin, 1947). Loving and accepting

parents provide healthy medium for the child to grow his energies into proper channels and exercise his potentials to the maximum (Kiran and Singh, 1982). Parents of high achievers are found to be more trusting rewarding, loving and showed more tolerance towards their children than parents of low achievers (Kang, Sibia and Gill, 1943). Whereas deprivation of opportunities to be loved and beloved retards the patterns of their speech development and it affects the patterns of personalities (Goldfarb, 1943). Faulty parent-child relationship ends in child's maladjustment (Erickson, 1963) and deprivation of parent promotes mental retardation and demotes the process of adjustment.

The two distinctive role of parents include both fathering and mothering. The proper blending of masculine supervision and feminine tenderness seems to be of utmost important in the upbringing of a child for the normal growth, but inadequate patterns if the parenting may lead to despair and self-devaluation of the personality of the individuals.

Barnow, et. al. (2005) observed that low parental warmth inconsistency and parental rejection can lead to antisocial behavior.

Beck and Shaw (2005) research has consistently found permissive parenting can also lead to antisocial behavior due to a lack of parental attention, boundaries, rules and enforcement.

Schaffer et. al. found that indifferent parenting styles inhibit the development of empathy within adolescents and therefore contribute to antisocial behavior.

Kandel (1996) found poor parental discipline, inadequate monitoring and parental inability to successfully problem solve have been found to correlate highly with adolescent antisocial and delinquent behavior.

Simons and Robertsons finding support the notion that parental attachment, as mediated by parenting style has important implications for the social and behavior development of adolescents due to the effects of inadequate parenting behavior which fails to contribute to the development of parent's child bonds.

Pries and Jenkins (2007) found that parenting styles and the quality of the parent child relationship have a mediating effect on adolescent drug use. In their study, the researcher

observed that drug users had significantly lower levels of satisfaction in the relationship with their parents than did adolescents who did not use drugs.

Will et. al. (1996) observed that children and adolescents who believed that had little support from their parents were especially vulnerable to use illicit drugs.

Pires and Jenkins (2007) found the adolescents who engaged in deviant behavior reported high level of hostility and low levels of support from their parents. Those findings further outline the important of positive adult-child attachment.

Vazsonyi and Klanjsek (2008) found that maternal and paternal closeness and support characteristics were key components in the successful process of positive socialization for children in their research. The researcher found that low level of closeness (emotional attachment) served as a better predictor for delinquency than did other variables including monitoring and control.

Gainey et. al. (2010) conducted research on children whose parents where heroin users. The researchers observed that older children with low levels of maternal attachment had significantly higher levels of illegal drug use than whose children who had high levels of maternal attachment. Higher levels of maternal attachment also served to mediate the affect of peer influence. Maternal attachment served as a buffer against involvement with deviant peers. Children who maintained a relationship with their mothers were much less likely to become involved in delinquent activities.

Walker-Barnes and Mason (2004) found that high levels of parental control correlated with lower levels of both minor and major delinquency and substance use. Further outlining the importance of supportive parenting, parental attachment was found to reduce the impact of gang influence on the adolescent.

Bates, (1980) research find that difficult children are not nurtured in as positive a manner as children who are not perceived as difficult.

Most research on specific types of juvenile delinquency related to drug sales and Violence, (Grunewald, Lockwood, Harris & Mennis (2010). There are several social factors that contribute to the etiology of juvenile delinquency. One of the major factors contributing to the risk of

delinquent behavior is the family (Mmari, Blum & Tuefel-Shone, (2010). Research indicates a significant link between parental or caregiver involvement and an individual's propensity to engage in violent or delinquent behaviors. A lack of parental interaction and involvement, a characteristic of the indifferent parenting style, increases the risk for violence, particularly among male juvenile (Hawkins et al., 2000). Criminological research suggests that a weak parent-child bond is a key determinant of juvenile offending or delinquency (Steinberg, 2001; Patterson et al., 1992) and contribute to adult offending (Cernkovich and Giordano, 2001; Moffitt, 1993). The authoritarian and indifferent parenting styles, based on their characteristics, are associated with drug use and behavioral problems (Baumrind, 1978).

Krohn and Massey, (1980), Kerpelman and Smith Adcock (2005) noted that some differences in mediating affects have been found, most research finds that parental attachment is an important predictor for delinquency in both gender.

Simons and Robertson (1989) found that parental rejection increases the probability of adolescent involvement with deviant peer groups. Parental rejection was also found to correlate with the use of drugs and alcohol. They observe that children suffering from parental rejection tend to be noncompliant and tend to associate with others who are also noncompliant.

Simon and Robertson (1989) research finds parental rejection influences social and psychological adolescent development, and not the other way around.

Barnes and Farrell (1992) find that delinquency is highly correlated with a lack of parental bonding for girls.

Agnew (1993), Sankey and Huon (1999) studied have also shown that adolescents who have developed strong bonds and attachment with their parents are less likely to develop associations with deviant peers and engaged in delinquency.

Fergusson et. al. (2007) observed that a negative family background and limited academic achievement association with delinquent peers whereas good academic achievement and positive family background served to minimize self-reported delinquency.

Bahr and Hoffman (2010) found that adolescents from parents who were authoritative were less likely to drink heavily than adolescents from parents who were authoritarian, indifferent or

permissive. Furthermore adolescents who had parents who were authoritative were also less likely to associate with peers who drank heavily.

Simmons et. al (2001) research found that authoritative parents tend to proactively manage their child's friends and peer networks.

Ladd, Profillt and Hart, (1992) has also found that authoritative parents also choose which school their child attends and push their child to pursue extracurricular conventional activities such as sports or academic clubs.

Pettit et. al. research have concluded that high levels of parental monitoring are associated with lower levels of delinquency. Pettit found that high levels of parental monitoring correspond to lower levels of juvenile delinquency. These finding highlights the importance of consistent parental monitoring may be applicable even to delinquent children. Ineffective parenting styles may increase the probability of engagement in deviant peer networks.

Bowman et. al. (2006) found that African- American female children tend to benefit more from maternal involvement then other minority groups, although maternal involvement was correlated as some level with lower levels of delinquency for all ethnic minority groups under study.

Heaven, Newbusy and Mark (2004) research shown that neglect, parent-child conflict overtly harsh punishment and abuse have all been shown to predict increased levels of delinquency in girls.

August Aichorn Stresses the importance of the family in shaping the children. He feels that the family should provide the child love and security and at the same time be a haven of relief from outside pressures.

Sidney Berman believes that delinquent children have often had difficulty in their early relationships with their parents.

The early life experiences of the child in the family lay the groundwork for the type of future behavior and the development of attitudes, values, and a life style. Parental hostility, rejection, and inconsistency can all contribute to delinquent behavior. When parents identify with and support positive community norms and values, they will be effective socializing agents for their

children. It, however, parents do not transmit positive community norms and values to their children and fail as positive identification models, the children will often come in conflict with community institutions. (Sidney Berman)

Ney shows a relationship between quarreling and delinquent behavior for girls, but not for boys. He explains this by pointing out that the family is more of a focal point for girls than for boys and that the boy can often retreat to the streets or to other groups more readily than can his female counterpart.

Ney points out that many studies have been made of parent's attitudes towards their children, but almost no research has been done to find out what children think of their parents.

According to Ney 'youngsters' perceptions of their parents can lend insight into the behavior of rejection or hostile parents and can contribute to a better understanding of this negative dynamic. Studies have found that mutual rejection of parent and child markedly affects positive relationships and can ultimately result in delinquent behavior. When there is mutual animosity and rejection, the chance of maladaptive behavior within the community can become commonplace'.

Jenkins found that parental rejection had a direct effect on the child's ultimate development and growth of a conscience.

He stated that the lack of an adequate conscience structure, combined with feelings of hostility for being rejected, led to general unsocialized aggression. On the other hand, socialized delinquent behavior would result when there was parental indifference rather than outright rejection, in other words, the form of aggression was less serious in those youngsters whose parents showed indifference than in those youngsters whose parents showed outright rejection.

According to Andry, delinquents were the recipients of less parental love both in quantity and in quality than were nondelinquents.

There was also less adequate communication between child and parent in homes of delinquents. If a strong positive emotional tie does not exist between parents and children, this can produce

problems. A positive atmosphere in the home is conducive to effective modeling by the parents and also increases the amount of influence that parents exert over their children.

The Gluecks found that in twice as many non-delinquency homes the father showed a great deal of warmth and affection than in delinquent homes. In non-delinquent homes mothers also were much more affectionate than in delinquent homes.

Bandura and Walters found a direct correlation between rejecting, hostile father and delinquent behavior.

Bandura and Walters (1956), found that the interpersonal relations between aggressive boy delinquents and their parents were, on a behavioural level, characterized by a lack of dependency on the part of the son.

Father of delinquent spent far less time with their sons than did the fathers of nondelinquents. Their rejection and hostility can take both direct and indirect forms.

Gibbons believes that “scientific candor compels us to conclude that the link between parental rejection and aggressive conduct is one of the more firmly established generalizations concerning delinquency.”

Barber (2007) found out that adolescents who reported relatively warm parenting by both mothers and fathers had a smaller association of stressful events with symptoms of depression as compared to other adolescents. Further those who reported relatively harsher discipline by both parents had a higher association of stress with depressive symptoms as compared with other adolescents.

Kochanska, (2002) found that mothers high in negative emotionality and disagreeableness showed more negative affect and their children were more defiant and angry; they also reported more power-assertive and less nurturing parenting, as well as less secure attachment, more behavioural problems and lower internalization of rules in their children. Regression analysis indicated that mother’s personality particularly negative emotionality and socialization influenced broadly conceptualized adaptive child outcomes, even after the influence of parenting was controlled.

Koudelkove (1983) showed in his research findings that extrovert child was independent of parental behavior while introvert child was slightly correlated with the impaired acceptance of his/her parents without their apparent hostile authoritative attitudes being fully activated. Problem across time, Rise in aggression scores was evident for children who had high level of both sibling conflict and rejecting parenting. Sibling conflict was also directly related longitudinally to the child behavior checklist delinquency factor.

According Judith Rich Harris's theory of group socialization, children and adolescents are shaped more by their peers than their parents. (Harris 1997).

Peers can encourage both prosocial behavior, which peaks at 11-12 years, and anti-social behavior, which peaks at 14-15 years (Bendt, 1979)

Adolescents are less likely to feel depressed or anxious if the peer group provides emotional support (Buhrmester, 1992)

Arguments between parents and children increase considerably during adolescence. (Feeney, 1999) Shek (1995) Showed significant differences between paternal parenting and maternal parenting characteristics with fathers perceived as relatively less responsive, less demanding, less concerned and harsher. Further, he found that girls tended to perceive their mother as more demanding but less harsh.

Krampen (1989) examined one aspect of parental enabling, overprotective, and found it to be associated with lower level of educational attainment in young adults and a longer stay at school.

Rao, Channabasavanna and Parthosarathy(1982) probed into the family situation of disturbed adolescents and found that for the adolescents who were more disturbed and stressful than that of normal, specially the freedom for interaction was curtailed. The parents were highly authoritarian and strict and the relationship between the parents was disharmonious. Here, children did not find their parents as source of solace and support.

Drew and Teapan (1963), examined the contemporaneous and predictive relations between parenting styles and adolescents' educational outcomes.

Parenting style captures two important elements of parenting: Parenting responsiveness and parental demandingness (Maccoby& Martin, 1983). Parenting responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) referred to “the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children’s special needs and demands” (Baumrind, 1991) Parenting demandingness (also referred to as behavioral control) refers to “ the claims parents make an children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys” (Baumrind, 1991)

Garcia, Shaw, Wilson and Yaggi (2000) found out that interaction between destructive sibling conflicts and rejecting parenting predicated aggressive behavior.

The risk of developing delinquent behaviors is often attributable to family or parenting factors (Tompsett& Toro, 2010). Bothe authoritarian and indifferent parenting styles have been demonstrated to have a link with negative outcomes in children, particularly, the indifferent parenting style. Baumrind (1991) found that children whose parents have an indifferent parenting style have the worst outcomes on a number of behavioral and psychological measures. These children demonstrate high rates of problem behaviors and drug use (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991; Slicker, 1998). The lack of parental presence in the indifferent parenting environments and its adverse effects on children’s development was consistent with other findings (Mamari, Blum, &Tuefel-Shone, 2010).

The findings by Asher (2006) point to the significant role of parenting styles in predicting behavioral outcomes in juveniles. The study involved parents and legal guardians of juveniles incarcerated for felony offenses, and the largest percentage (46%) of parents/guardians identified most closely with an authoritarian style of parenting (Asher, 2006).

Hoeve et al., (2009) found that less than 20% of the studies have shown a link between father’s parenting and the development of delinquency. In addition, studies have focused on single or both parents instead of differentiating between the sexes of the parent.

In 1986, Loeber and Stouthamer – Loeber (1986) point out little is known regarding the effects of father as parents, it is important to understand the behaviour of mother and father separate impact on the children.

Shumow, Vamdell, Posner (1998) reported authoritarian parents demonstrated poorer behaviour adjustment, more behaviour problem. That indicates children of the authoritarian parents have one of the worst outcome on virtually any measure of social or cognitive competence, academic performance psychological well-being or problem behaviour. (Baumrind 1997, Slicker, Lam born et. at. 1991) Inman, Howard, Beaumont and Welker 2007) opine that parents are often faced with the complex task of parenting their children within a culture is notably dissimilar from their culture of origin. For instance, Asian Indian parenting practices typically include authoritarian parenting styles. (Jambunathan and Counsel Man 2002; Inman et. al. 2007) The incidence of parental separation may result in adolescent's embarrassment, depression. (Boroffice 2004, Hyssong, 2000)

A healthy father-child relationship leads to the feeling of being loved and accepted with a high degree of self-confidence and non-dependency (Hoffman, 1960). Father accepts and encourage their children in non-deviant families (Jain, 19860) and absence of fathering may promote delinquency among boys who live with mothers but absence of mothering due to death was found to be a dormant factor in the promotion of delinquency, while they are living with their father (Gregory, 1958). A few researcher also study the role of mother and reports that warmth and affection of mothering is positively related to calm, happy, and co-operative behavior of children (Bagley and Schaefer, 1960). Mother love and attention makes a boy feel warm and cozy (Hoffman, 1960) and show better control over their children as compared to fathers. However, conventional and traditional behavior of mothers promote problem like drug addiction (Jessor and Jessor, 1974).

A few studies concentrate on to evaluate the two distinctive role of mothering and fathering. It was found that delinquents show greater maternal rejection as compared to non-delinquents (Kroupa, 1988 and Saxsena, 1993). Perceptions of chemical dependents were found to be associated with greater rejection as compared to non-dependents (Bharadwaj, 1995). Emotional competence was found to be greater in those early adolescents whose perceived mothering of child labour was also found to be associated with acceptance than that of rejection associated with school-going children (Bharadwaj, 1998). The role of father in non-deviant families relate to acceptance (Khokhar, 1983). Perceived fathering of labourer early adolescents and chemical dependents was found to be associated with acceptance as compared to non-labourers

(Bharadwaj, 1997) and greater rejection as compared to chemical non-dependents (Bharadwaj, 1996) respectively.

Many research studies have emphasized the importance of the child's relationship with the parent in decreasing the likelihood of delinquency (Bachman, 1970; Bandura & Walters, 1959; Glueck 1962). Although most of these studies have found a link between parenting behaviour and delinquency, but only few of them have focused on parenting styles and delinquency (Hoeveetal., 2009).

The most important difference between the situation of delinquent and non-delinquent children was in home discipline (Burt, 1955). Faulty discipline such as over permissiveness in terms of total freedom develop rebelliousness (Erickson 1950). Total freedom was found to be related positively to adequate expression and control of emotion in boys, ability to functions with emotions and ability to cope with problem emotions in weak ego male adolescent labour (Garg, 1996). High restriction in terms of severe discipline demotes n-achievement (Kalra, 1977). Chemical dependents also perceive by non-dependents (Bharadwaj, 1995). Perceived mothering of school going children was found to be associated with greater freedom as compared to child labourer (Bharadwaj, 1998).

Faulty parenting in terms of faulty role expectations leads to fear, anxiety, shyness and submission (Chacko, 1964) and affects achievement in sports (Woolger and Power, 1993). A child who fails to meet the unrealistic expectations of a parent desperate to be loved may become the target of abuse (Walsh, 1977). In another study, the role of both mother and father was found to be associated with realistic role expectations as against faulty role expectations of chemical dependents (Bharadwaj, 1995; 1997). Perceived mothering of child labourer as well as school going children was found to be associated with faulty role expectations (Bharadwaj, 1998). Emotional competence was found to be greater in those early adolescents who perceive their mothering and fathering as associated with realistic role expectations than that of faulty role expectations (Mithas, 1997).

Family tensions promote delinquent behavior. Long term family tensions may reduce the cohesiveness and affect the parent's ability an atmosphere conducive to satisfactory child rearing and solving the problems of the family (David, 1960). Tension in home of delinquent's manifests through intersibling quarrels (Andry, 1960) and marital stability may foster love, democracy and independence among children.

Indian study of parenting:

India, the world's largest democracy, is a secular nation. It includes both ancient and modern cultures, diverse languages, and religions. In the core of this diversity lies the universality of role played by the family. Family has always been the foundation of Indian society. Children and adolescents have always occupied a special place in Indian family system. Interdependency, support and nurturance across the generations are uniquely valued in the Indian family system. Parents always remain primary source of socialization of children adolescents and that is unique as compared to the rest of the world (Gupta, 1987; Shukla, 1994).

In India, parents usually live with their married children, typically with a son. There is really no concept of a grown-up son or daughter 'moving out of the house' unless it is a result of circumstances like job or higher study. It is almost and always a normal situation that a person being offered a job, first seek his/her parents' approval. However, due to nation's rapid industrialization, urbanization, migration of families from the villages to the cities, and more recently globalization of the Indian market, every unit of the society is getting affected and so is the Indian family. Earlier extended families were pillars of Indian society. The interpersonal relation in a joint family was a network for satisfactions of various interpersonal needs by way of which a human being feels contented.

When Biological parents could not spend time with their off springs other respective members of the family provided necessary emotional support to the child. However, now, in nuclear families the situation is not the same. Parents also do not understand the significance of spending "quality time" with their off springs. As such, the adolescent turns to other groups in society and fall easy prey to deviant peer for fetching satisfaction. Due to this, contemporary Indian families are now encountering complex and disturbing problems of varied nature both internal and external having far reaching consequences, similar to their peers in other countries, including various forms of juvenile delinquency, alcohol and drug abuse, illiteracy, school dropouts, low educational attainment, and family violence (Agarwal, 1989; Parikh & Krishna, 1992; Sarkar, 1988).

CHAPTER – 3

METHODOLOGY

Theoretical Perspective:

Juvenile Delinquency:

Juvenile delinquency is defined as antisocial or criminal acts performed by an individual under the age of 18. Multiple theories have been advanced to explain the cause of juvenile crime. While some are divided into general themes juvenile behavior is determined by internal and or external influences. The theories may also be divided into three categories: biological Psychological and sociological theories. Biological theories revolve around the idea that individuals are predisposed to commit crime because the juvenile has inherited certain biochemical and genetic factors and is predisposed to commit crime. Psychological theories focus on the individual's conditioning process. These are two major types of psychological theories; psychoanalytic theory and the social learning theory. The psychoanalytic theory is based on Freud's components: id, ego and superego. The id is the drive for immediate gratification and can explain delinquency acts such as shoplifting or burglary. The psychoanalytical approach explains that traumatic experiences during early childhood can prevent the ego and superego from developing properly. The social learning theory is based upon how an individual conforms and accepts the rules laws, and mores of society. Under this concept, when there are positive ways of achieving goals. On the other hand, if there is violence in the home, the juvenile learns that violence is the proper method of coping with frustrations.

Psychodynamic Theory:

According to Psychodynamic theory whose basis is the pioneering work of the Austrian Physician Sigmund Freud (1856-1939). According to Freud, the human personality contains three major components. The id is the unrestrained, primitive, Pleasure seeking component with which each child is born. The ego develops through the reality of living in the world and helps manage and restrain the id's need for immediate gratification. The superego develops through interaction with parents and others significant people and represents the development of conscience and the moral rules shared by most adults. Unconscious motivations for behavior come from the id's action in responses to two primal need sex and aggression. Human behavior is often marked by symbolic actions that reflect hidden feelings about these needs. The id

dictates needs and desires. The superego contracts the id by fostering feelings of morality and righteousness, and the ego evaluates the reality of a position between these two extremes. If these components are properly balanced, the individual exhibits abnormal personality traits. A number of psychologist and psychiatrist explain upon Freud's original model to explain the onset of antisocial behaviors. Speculated the many adolescents experience a life crisis in which they reel emotional, impulsive and uncertain of their role and purpose. He coined the phrase identity crisis to denote this period of inner turmoil and confusion. Erikson's approach might characterize the behavior of youthful drug abusers as an expression of confusion over their place in society, their inability to direct behavior toward useful outlets, and perhaps their dependency on other to offer them solutions to their problems. Psychoanalyst August Aichorn found that social stress alone could not produce such an emotional state. He identifies latent delinquent's youths who's troubled family life leads them to seek immediate gratification without consideration of right and wrong or the feelings of others. In its most extreme form delinquency may be viewed as form of psychosis that prevents delinquent's youths from appreciating the feelings of their victims or controlling their own impulsive needs for gratification. Psychodynamics of Delinquency: Applying these concepts, psychodynamic theory holds that youth crime is a result of unresolved mental anguish and internal conflict. Some children especially, those who have been abused or mistreated may experience cannot be reconciled; the children may regress to a state in which they become id-dominated. This regression may be considered responsible for a great number of mental diseases, and in many cases it may be related to criminal behavior. Delinquents are id-dominated people who suffer from the inability to control impulsive drives. Perhaps because they suffered unhappy experiences in childhood or had families who could not provide proper love and care, delinquents suffer from weak of damaged egos that make them unable to cope with conventional society. Adolescent antisocial behavior is a consequence of feeling unable to cope with feelings of oppression. Criminality actually allows youths to strive by providing the promise of positive gain, allowing them to blame others for their predicament and giving them a chance to rationalize their own sense of failure.

The Psychodynamic approach places heavy emphasis on the family's role. Antisocial youths frequently come from families in which parents are unable to provide the controls that allow children to develop the personal tools they need to cope with the world. If neglectful parents fail to develop a child's superego adequately the child id may become the predominant personality

force; the absence of a strong superego results in an inability to distinguish clearly between right and wrong. Destructive behavior may actually be a call for help. Some psychoanalysts view delinquent behaviors as motivated by an unconscious urge to be punished. These children who feel unloved assume the reason must be their own inadequacy hence they deserve punishment. Later the youth may demand immediate gratification lack compassion and sensitively and demonstrate other psychotic systems. Antisocial behavior then may be the result of conflict or trauma occurring early in child's development and delinquent activity may become an outlet for violent and antisocial feelings. According to the psychodynamic delinquent behavior is a function of unconscious mental instability and turmoil. People who have lost control and are dominated by their id are known as psychotics their behavior may be marked by hallucinations inappropriate responses.

According to social learning theorists, crime is the result of learning the values, norms and behavior attached with criminal activity. Differential association is a process of learning, in which law-abiding people and criminals learn their behavior from association with other. Delinquency is skilled behavior that is gained by the interaction of these people in engaged in criminal lifestyle. So offenders are differentiated from non-offenders on the basis of individual's choices **Sutherland** theorized that those who are strongly attached with delinquents have more chances to become a delinquent and delinquency and crime are produced when the people are bringing up in criminal environment with deviant values.

Parenting Style:

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development describes how children represent and reason about the world. This is developing stage theory that consists of a sensorimotor stage, preoperational stage Concrete operational stage and formal operational stage. Piaget was a pioneer in the field of development and continues to influence parent's educators and other theorists.

Erik Erikson, a developmental psychologist proposed eight life stages through which each much develop. In order to move on to next stage, the person must work out a 'crisis' in which a new dilemma must be solved. In each stage, they must understand and balanced two conflicting forces, and so parents might choose a series of parenting styles that helps each child as appropriate at each stage. The five of his eight stages occur in childhood. The virtue of hope requires balancing trust with mistrust, and typically occurs from birth to one year old will balances autonomy with shame and doubt around the ages of four to six years. Purpose balances

industry against inferiority around age's seven to twelve. Fidelity contrasts identity with role confusion, in ages thirteen to nineteen. The remaining adult virtues are love, care and wisdom.

Rudolf Dreikurs believed that pre-adolescent children's misbehavior was caused by their unfulfilled wish to be a member of a social group. He argued that they then act out a sequence of four mistaken goals first they seek attention. If they do not get it, they aim for power, then revenge and finally feel inadequate. This theory is used in education as well as parenting, forming a valuable theory upon which to manage misbehavior. Other parenting techniques should also be used to encourage learning and happiness. He emphasized the significance to establish the significance to establish a democratic family style that adopts methods of periodic family counsels and meanwhile avert the punishment. He advances "logical and natural consequences of proper rules of conduct and improper behavior.

The problem of Juvenile Delinquency is becoming more complicated and universal and crime prevention programmers are either unequipped to deal with the present realities or do not exist.

The meaning of personality: Personality refers to important and relatively stable aspects of behavior. Personality deals with a wide range of human behavior. To most theorist personality includes virtually everything about a person-mental, emotional, social, and physical. Some aspects of personality are unobservable, such as thought, memories and dreams, whereas other is observable such as overt actions. Personality also includes aspects that are concealed from yourself or unconscious as well as those that are conscious and well within your awareness. Personality is a comprehensive construct, and motivation is a fund mental aspect of behavior. Therefore, theories of personality are large part theories of motivation and must make crucial of human beings.

The construct that are used to explain the structure of personality also facilitate comparisons among the theories. Freudian theory is well-known for its concept of id, ego and superego; Jungian theory is denoted by such ideas as the collective unconscious and archetypes and so forth.

The Structure of Personality: Id, Ego, and Superego

Freud suggested that personality consists largely of three parts: the id, the ego, and superego. As we'll soon see, these correspond, roughly, to desire, reason, and conscience. The id consists of all our primitive, innate urges. These include various bodily needs, sexual desire, and aggressive

impulses. According to Freud, the id is totally unconscious and operates in accordance with what he termed the pleasure principle: It demands immediate, total gratification and is not capable of considering the potential costs of seeking this goal. Unfortunately, the world offers few opportunities for instant pleasure. Moreover, attempting to gratify many of our innate urges would soon get us into serious trouble. It is in response to these facts that the second structure of personality, the ego, develops. The ego's task is to hold the id in check until conditions allow for satisfaction of its impulses. Thus, the ego operates in accordance with the reality principle: It takes into account external conditions and the consequences of various actions and directs behavior so as to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. The ego is partly conscious but not entirely so; thus some of its actions. The final aspect of personality described by Freud is the superego. It too seeks to control satisfaction of id impulses; but, in contrast to the ego, it is concerned with morality-with whether various ways that could potentially satisfy id impulses are right or wrong. The superego permits us to gratify such impulses only when it is morally correct to do so-not simply when it is safe or feasible, as required by the ego. The superego is acquired from our parents and through experience and represents our internalization of the moral teachings and norms of our society. Unfortunately, such teachings are often quite inflexible and leave little room for gratification of our basic desires- they require us to be good all the time. Because of this fact, the ego faces another difficult task; it must strike a balance between our primitive urges and our learned moral constraints. Freud felt that this constant struggle among id, ego, and superego plays a key role in personality and in many psychological disorders. Moreover, he suggested that the struggle was often visible in everyday behavior in what have come to be known as Freudian slips-errors in speech that actually reflect unconscious impulses that have "gotten by" the ego or super-ego.

Most of student began by accepting Freud's views. Later, however, they often disagreed with some of his major assumptions. Let's see why these individuals often termed neo-Freudians, broke with Freud, and what they had to say about the nature of personality. Neo-Freudians: Personality theorist who accepted basic portions of Freud's theory but rejected or modified other portions. Carl Jung shared Freud's views concerning the importance of the unconscious, but contended that there is another part to this aspect of personality that Freud overlooked: the collective unconscious. According to Jung, the collective unconscious holds experiences shared by all human beings-expression in our minds in several ways, but among these, archetypes are

the most central of Jung's theory. According to Jung, inherited images in the collective unconscious that shape our perceptions of the external world. Two especially important archetypes in Jung's theory are known as animus and anima. According to Jung, the archetype represents the masculine side of females and Anima the archetype representing the feminine side of males. Another aspect of Jung's theory was that we are all born with innate tendencies to be concerned primarily either with our inner selves or with the outside world. Jung labeled persons in the first category introverts and described them as being hesitant and cautious; and do not make friends easily. He labeled persons in the second category extroverts. Such persons are open and confident, make friends readily. Two other important neo-Freudians are Karen Horney and Alfred Adler. She maintained that psychological disorders stem not from fixation of psychic energy, as Freud contended, but rather from disturbed interpersonal relationships during childhood and what she termed basic anxiety children's fear of being left alone, helpless, and insecure. She suggested that in reaction to excessive levels of such anxiety, which stem from poor relations with their parents; children adopt one of three styles: a passive style, aggressive style, withdrawn style. All three patterns can lead to serious psychological disorders. By emphasizing the importance of children's relationships with their parents, then Horney called attention to the importance of social factors in shaping personality-a view echoed by modern psychology. Alfred Adler emphasized the importance of feelings of inferiority, which he believed we experience as children because of our small size and physical weakness. He viewed personality development as stemming primarily from our efforts to overcome such feelings through what he termed striving for superiority. Adler also emphasized the importance of social factors in personality; for instance, he called attention to the importance of birth order. Only children, he suggested, are spoiled by too much parental attention, while firstborns are "dethroned" by a second child. Second-born, in contrast, are competitive because they have to struggle to catch up with an older sibling.

Humanistic Theories:

Humanistic theories emphasize personal responsibility. Each of us these theories contend is largely responsible for what happens to us. Our fate is mostly in our own hands; we are not merely chips driven here and there by dark forces within our personalities. While these theories don't deny the importance of past experience, they generally focus on the present. True, we may

be influenced by traumatic events early in life. Yet these do not have to shape our entire adult lives, and the capacity to overcome them and to go on is both real and powerful. Humanistic theories stress the importance of personal growth. People are not content with merely meeting their current needs. They wish to progress toward “bigger” goals such as not content with merely meeting their current needs. They wish such growth is the process interrupted. A key goal of therapy, therefore, should be the removal of obstacles that prevent natural growth processes from proceeding. Roger’s Self Theory was this left to their own devices; human beings show many positive characteristics and move, over the course of their lives, toward becoming fully functioning persons. According a gap develops between our self-concept and reality or our perceptions of it. All the information and beliefs individuals have about their own characteristics and themselves. In Roger’s theory, a therapeutic atmosphere that communicates that a person will be respected or loved regardless of what he or she says or does.

Another influential humanistic theory of personality was proposed by Abraham Maslow (1970). We have already encountered a portion of Maslow’s theory, his concept of a needs hierarchy. This concept suggests that human needs exist in a hierarchy, ranging from physiological needs, on the bottom, through safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and finally self-actualization needs at the top. According to Maslow, lower-order needs must be satisfied before we can turn to more complex, higher-order needs (Neher, 1991). Presumably, higher order needs can’t serve as motives until lower-level needs have been satisfied. Thus, a hungry person won’t be very interested in self-actualizing; and one whose safety is threatened won’t focus on gaining other’s approval-unless, of course, this helps to meet her or his more basic safety needs. In Maslow’s theory, the stage of personal development in which individuals reaches their maximum potential. According to Maslow, intense emotional experiences during which individuals feel at one with the universe. Maslow describes as peak experiences instances in which they have powerful feelings of unity with the universe and feel tremendous waves of power and wonder. Such experiences appear to be linked to personal growth, for after them individuals report feeling more spontaneous, more appreciative of life, and less concerned with the problems of everyday life.

Trait Theories:

When we describe other persons, we often do so in terms of specific personality traits- stable dimensions of personality along which people vary, from very low to very high. This strong tendency to think about others in terms of specific characteristics is reflected in trait theories of personality. Such theories focus on identifying key dimensions of personality-the most important ways in which people differ.

One of the first efforts to identify key human traits-the most important dimensions along which personalities vary was of Gordon Allport. According to Allport, traits that exert relatively specific and weak effects on behavior, more important are central traits five or ten traits that together account for the uniqueness of an individual's personality. Such traits are stronger and more resistant to situational forces. Finally, Allport noted that a few people are dominated by a single all important Cardinal trait. According to Allport a single trait that dominates an individual's entire personality. Perhaps an even more important aspect of Allport's theory of personality is his concept of functional autonomy the idea that patterns of behavior that are initially acquired under one set of circumstances, and which satisfy one set of motives, may later be performed for very different reasons.

Another, and in some ways more sophisticated, trait theory was proposed by Raymond Cattell. He and his colleagues focused on the task described earlier: identifying the basic dimensions of personality. Instead of beginning with hunches or insights, however, Cattell used a very different approach. He conducted extensive research in which literally thousands of persons responded to measures designed to reflect individual differences on hundreds of traits. These responses were then subjected to a statistical technique known as factor analysis. This technique reveals patterns in the extent to which various traits are correlated. In this manner, it can help to identify important clusters of traits-group of traits that seem to be closely linked to one another. When such clusters are identified, Cattell reasoned, the number of key traits in human personality can be reduced until we are left with those that are truly central. According to Cattell, key dimensions of personality that underline many other traits.

The “Big Five” Factors: Research findings point to the conclusion that there are only five basic dimensions of personality; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience.

Learning Theory:

Learning theories of personality suggest that uniqueness derives from the unique pattern of learning experiences each individual has experienced. These theories explain consistency by noting that patterns of behavior, once acquired, tend to persist.

Social Cognitive Theory: According to Bandura the self-system is the set of cognitive processes by which individuals perceive, evaluate, and regulate their own behavior. Self-efficacy refers to individual’s beliefs concerning his or her ability to perform various tasks; it can affect many aspects of behavior, such as efforts to obtain a new job. According to Rotter’s social learning theory is internals believed that they can control the outcomes they experience, which externals do not.

Eysenck's Personality Theory:

Eysenck’s theory, which is also a control theory, incorporates biological, social and individual factors. The basis of the theory is that through genetic endowment some individuals are born with cortical and autonomic nervous systems which affect their ability to learn from, or more properly to condition to environmental stimuli. An individual’s behavior, influenced by both biological and social factors, defines that person’s personality. H.J. Eysenck defined two dimensions of personality, extroversion (E) and neuroticism (N); later work described a third dimension, Psychoticism (P). Each of these dimensions is conceived as a continuum with most people falling in the middle range and, it follow, with comparatively few people at the extremes of each scale. Extraversion runs from high to low similarly neuroticism runs from high to low as also does psychoticism. The extravert is continually seeking stimulation to maintain cortical arousal at an optimal level thus the extravert is impulsive and seeks excitement.

The relationship between personality and crime has been described and defined by H.J. Eysenck, and recent summaries are available. The principal assumption is that children learn to control antisocial behavior through the development of a conscience this conscience, Eysenck maintains, is a set of conditioned emotional responses to environmental events associated with the antisocial

behavior. Eysenck's theory of crime has generated a great deal of empirical research and there are several reviews of the findings up to 1980. Three traits consistently emerge from his factor analytic research as the most important extraversion-introversion, neuroticism-stability and psychoticism. Eysenck sought to make trait theory more explanatory by relating traits to physiological and social causes.

Eysenck's theory, unlike most personality theories, is based on empirically verifiable propositions (Monte, 1995). Eysenck has been critical of non-scientific theories such as those of Freud and Jung (Eysenck, 1967; Monte, 1995) and believes that personality theory should be based on a hypothetic co-deductive approach in which hypotheses are generated and refined based on research findings. Central Nervous System (CNS) functioning plays a pivotal role in Eysenck's theory (Eysenck, 1977). The theory is sometimes referred to as a three factor model of personality in which the three factors are Extroversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism.

Operational Definition of the Variables:

Juvenile Delinquency:

According to psychology, any and every child, of either sex between ages of 15 and 18, who commits a crime, irrespective of fact that he is apprehended or not is a juvenile delinquent? In this manner, juvenile delinquent is one who forcibly possesses the property of another, or causes it damage, indulges in anti-social activity, creates danger for another's life or hinders the activities of others. Hence a child who throws stone at a car and runs away, one who sets fire without cause, creates dangers for the life of another just for the fun of it, are all juvenile delinquency, from the psychological viewpoint.

Personality:

Personality is the sum of cognition, character, effect and somatic components. Eysenck very strongly believed that the study of personality should be concerned with discovered the general laws of the group as opposed to studying the individual, as is the emphasis in psychoanalysis. He favored statistical techniques of factor analysis, which entails reducing many variables to their essential factors through multiple correlations, and discriminate function analysis, which develops equations to predict group membership.

Parenting Style Defined

Parenting, as a perception of the perception of the parents of their own attitude towards the child, happens to be of great significance in the dynamics of behavior for socio-psychological researches, but how child perceives his / her parenting always remains a neglected phase of researches and should be deemed most important as he is the one whose process of socialization stands for furtherance. Individual experiences not only help in making the sense of sense of self identity and self ideal but may also lead him to perceive, think and act in a self directed manner. So, it appears that child's perception of parental attitude towards himself should be of great concern in the dynamics of behavior and may open new avenues of research for deeper probe in the domain of parent child relationship. (Bharadwaj, 1996)

Objectives of the study:

To explore personality differences in delinquents and non-delinquents.

To find out whether there is different parenting style of delinquents and non-delinquents.

To study interactional effect of personality and parenting style on juvenile delinquency.

Methodology and tools of enquiry:

Delinquency has been found to be a consequence of multiple factors and researchers in India and abroad have attempted to know the dynamic of delinquency by using various methods of investigation. It would be better to know about the design of the present study.

Purpose of the Study:

Matza (1969) stated that problems of deviance are perceived as treats to the social norms, values and control. Deviant behavior among the normal working of society but is also tending to retard social development. Wolfgang (1967) asserted that almost universally, the highest incidence of assaultive crimes are committed by young offenders, most of whom are in their twenties and many of them are in their late teens or early thirties. Lately, it is observed that juvenile delinquents commit offenses of serious nature including riots, arson, robbery, dacoity, murder and even rape.

Variables and Sample:

The basic variables included in the study are age, sex, education and cast etc. The independent variables are **a) Personality b) Parenting Style.**

The dependent variable is the onset of the delinquency/non-delinquency.

Sample:

For the present study incidental sampling method was used. This method was allowed as the population of institutionalized were very limited. A total sample of 200 subjects (Age group 14-18) were studied, one hundred delinquents and one hundred non-delinquents. Delinquents were from the institutions like special observation home Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru Industrial School, Yerwada, Pune. This Institution was from the city of Pune. Non-delinquents were pupils studying in Marathi medium secondary schools and Junior College, were living with their parents. Both the groups were matched as far as possible on the variables like age, education, caste.

The sample studied is shown in Table:

Table 3.1 Number of Delinquents and Non-delinquents.

Delinquents (Boys) Living in institutions.	Non-delinquents (Boys) Living with parents	Total
100	100	200

Table 3.2 Delinquency and Caste.

Category	Delinquents	Non-delinquents
Open	50	57
SC	25	23
ST	1	4
VJNT	5	2
OBC	8	2
MUSLIM	6	2
Other	5	10

Table 3.3 Delinquency and Educational Qualification.

Class	Delinquents	Non-delinquents
4	2	
5	2	
6	2	
7	3	
8	13	
9	24	34
10	27	00
11	11	56
12	06	10
13	00	
Others	10	

Table 3.4 Age of Delinquent and Non-delinquent.

Age	Delinquents	Non-delinquents
10	01	00
14	03	11
15	07	16
16	23	20
17	55	40
18	10	11
19	01	01

Data Collection:

The delinquents were contacted in their respective institutions. The questionnaire and the psychological Tests were administered to them individually. The non-delinquents were contacted in their respective Schools. The school was from the city of Pune which is located in Sahakarnagar area of the city.

Descriptions of Psychological tests, Questionnaires used:

1. Junior Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (JEPQ) (1975)

It extends personality assessment to children 7-17 years of age, measuring three major dimensions of personality i.e. extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. It consists of 81 items. The JEPQ includes a Lie scale to detect a pattern of socially desirable responding. Eysenck used the technique of factor analysis to search for the main personality types. He dates his factors to ancient Greek's melancholic, choleric, sanguine, and phlegmatic temperaments.

This table gives one month test-retest data for older children. These range from an extremely low figure of .55 to .89. The reliabilities of the E, N and L Scale are all within the .7 to .9 range;

those for P are a little below the .7 value. For purposes of group testing and comparison these values are acceptable.

Boys

AGE	n	P	E	N	L
12	58	.69	.83	.71	.59
13	84	.69	.75	.74	.79
14	48	.69	.77	.81	.79
TOTAL	190	.69	.78	.75	.75

1. **Parenting Scale (P Scale) (Hindi/English)(1998) By Dr R L Bhardwaj, H.Sharma and A.Garg**

This is intended to measure perceptions of the individual (Perceived parenting) on one's own feeling as to how one is brought up by one's parents on eight dichotomous modes of parenting- rejection vs. acceptance, carelessness vs. protection, neglect vs. indulgence, utopian exceptions vs. realism, lenient standard vs. moralism, freedom vs. discipline, faulty role exceptions vs. realistic role exceptions, and marital conflict vs. marital adjustment. It measures the role of mothering, fathering and parenting as a whole. It is applicable for the age 10+. This scale has 40 items related to eight different modes of parenting and are spread in a meaningful manner except those related to the marital conflict vs. marital adjustment. These items were placed in a block at number 36 to 40. The items numbered 4,11,18,25 and 32 are stated negatively just to check the habitual disposition of responses. Each item of the scale is to be scored from upper to lower in terms of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The scoring of item number 4, 11, 18, 25 and 32 will be in reverse order (I, e., 5, 4, 3, 2, 1).

In the process of scale construction, 20 experts were asked to evaluate the different modes of parenting models by which parenting can be measured adequately. These evaluations show that eight modes of parenting emerge as most important and effective in the assessment of parent-child relationships and they may be enumerated as under:

- 1 A. Rejection Vs. Acceptance
- 2 B. Carelessness Vs. Protection.
- 3 C. Neglect Vs. Indulgence.
- 4 D. Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism.
- 5 E. Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism.
- 6 F. Freedom Vs. Discipline.
- 7 G. Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations.
- 8 H. Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment.

After ensuring the conceptual clarity, the items were constructed with the help of 25 experts in relation to each mode of parenting. These experts were asked to provide the well-suited items for different modes of parenting that can measure the different models of upbringing of an individual in terms of both the dimensions. The scale value was determined for each item in relation to different modes of parenting and fifteen items were selected at first for each mode of parenting subject to the higher median value.

Reliability: The reliability of this test on a sample of 100 elements has been determined by test and retest method with an interval of 21 days on a sample of 100 elements. The obtained reliability co-efficient may be enumerated as under.

Co-efficient of Reliability (Test-Retest).

MODES OF PARENTING	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	TOTAL
CO-EFFICIENT OF RELIABILITY	.79	.54	.64	.59	.67	.56	.74	.69	.72

Validity: The estimated Validity with the parallel form was found to be as follows:

Validity Coefficient (With form B)

MODES OF PARENTING	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	TOTAL
CO-EFFICIENT OF VALIDITY	.45	.39	.42	.62	.38	.52	.57	.36	.75

Introduction:

Juvenile delinquents are a heterogeneous group of offenders. (Jurkovic & Prentice, 1977) and the term is applied only to a class of children who violate legal norms. Legally speaking, a child below the specific age by law, does not become a juvenile delinquent or a child in conflict with law until so adjudged by a court of law. In terms of social norms, delinquent can be construed as a function of deficient behavioural controls. Delinquency is the result of multiple factors and researchers have attempted to know these factors by using various methods of investigation.

Matza (1969) stated that problems of deviance are perceived as threats to the social norms, values and control. Deviant behavior among the normal working of society but is also tending to retard social development. Wolfgang (1967) asserted that almost universally, the highest incidence of assaultive crimes are committed by young offenders, most of whom are in their twenties and many of them are in their late teens or early thirties. Lately, it is observed that juvenile delinquents commit offenses of serious nature including riots, arson, robbery, dacoity, murder and even rape.

Hypotheses:

1. There will be no significant difference between delinquents and non-delinquents on Psychoticism.
2. There will be no significant difference between delinquents and non-delinquents on Extraversion.
3. There will be no significant difference between delinquents and non-delinquents on Neuroticism.
4. There will be no significant difference between delinquents and non-delinquents on Parenting Styles.
5. There will be no relationship between Personality and Parenting Styles of delinquents and non-delinquents.

Samples and Variables:

For the present study incidental sampling method was used. This method was allowed as the population of institutionalized were very limited. A total sample of 200 subjects (Age group 14-18) were studied, one hundred delinquents and one hundred non-delinquents. Delinquents were from the institutions like special observation home Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru Industrial School,

Yerwada, Pune. This Institution was from the city of Pune. Non-delinquents were pupils studying in Marathi medium secondary schools and Junior College, were living with their parents. Both the groups were matched as far as possible on the variables like age, education, caste.

CHAPTER – 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Personality:

Personality can be defined as ‘the organization within an individual of systems of motives and habits that determine characteristic behavior and thing’. The Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire (Junior) measures three global personality traits- Psychoticism, Neuroticism, and Extraversion that is referred to as the PEN model of children’s personality.

Psychoticism:

Psychoticism is associated not only with the liability to have a psychotic episode (or break with reality), but also with aggression. Psychotic behavior is rooted in the characteristic of tough-mindedness, non-conformity, inconsideration, recklessness, hostility, anger and impulsiveness. The psychological basis suggested by Eysenck for Psychoticism is testosterone, with higher levels of Psychoticism associated with higher levels of testosterone.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the score on psychoticism between non-delinquents and delinquents is given in Table 1. Since the F value is greater than critical F, there is significant difference between non-delinquents and delinquents on Psychoticism.

Table 4.1 Analysis of Variance on Score of Psychoticism.

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Non Delinquents and Delinquents	1.167353	1	1.167353	6.523937	0.010689	3.844366
Within	42.60324	99	0.430336	2.404999	7.94E-13	1.249777

Extraversion:

Extraversion is characterized by being outgoing, talkative, high on positive affect (feeling good), and in need of external stimulation. According to Eysenck arousal theory of extraversion, there is an optimal level of cortical arousal, and performance deteriorates as one becomes more or less aroused than this optimal level. Arousal can be measured by skin conductance, brain waves or sweating. At very low and very high levels of arousal, performance is low, but at a more optimal mid-level or arousal, performance is maximized. Extraverts, according to Eysenck's theory, are chronically under-aroused and bored and are therefore in need of external stimulation to bring them up to an optimal level of performance. Introverts, on the other hand, are chronically over-aroused and jittery and are therefore in need of peace and quiet to bring them up to optimal level of performance.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the score on extraversion between non-delinquents and delinquents is given in Table 2. Since the F value is greater than critical F, there is significant difference between non-delinquents and delinquents on Extraversion.

Table 4.2 Analysis of Variance on Score of Extraversion.

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Non Delinquents and Delinquents	1.020833	1	1.020833	5.125523	0.023623	3.843481
Within	50.1425	99	0.50649	2.543046	9.88E-15	1.248236

Neuroticism:

Neuroticism or emotionality is characterized by high levels of negative affect such as depression and anxiety. Neuroticism, according to Eysenck's theory, is based on activation thresholds in the sympathetic nervous system or visceral brain. This is the part of the brain that is responsible for the fight-or-flight response in the face of danger. Activation can be measured by heart rate, blood pressure, cold hands, sweating and muscular tension (especially in the forehead). Neurotic people, who have low activation thresholds, and unable to inhibit or control their emotional reactions, experience negative affect (fight-or flight) in the face of very minor stressors they are easily nervous or upset. Emotionally stable people, who have high activation thresholds and good emotional control, experience negative affect only in the face of very major stressors- they are calm and collected under pressure.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the score on neuroticism between non-delinquents and delinquents is given in Table 3. Since the F value is greater than critical F, there is significant difference between non-delinquents and delinquents on neuroticism.

Table 4.3 Analysis of Variance on Score of Neuroticism

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Non Delinquents and Delinquents	9.604	1	9.604	34.37431	4.93E-09	3.843907
Within	56.051	99	0.566172	2.026422	1.39E-08	1.248978

Parenting Styles:

There are eight modes of parenting emerged as most important and effective in the assessment of parent child relationships and they may be enumerated as under:

- 1 A. Rejection Vs. Acceptance
- 2 B. Carelessness Vs. Protection.
- 3 C. Neglect Vs. Indulgence.
- 4 D. Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism.
- 5 E. Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism.
- 6 F. Freedom Vs. Discipline.
- 7 G. Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations.
- 8 H. Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment.

There is a dichotomy in each parenting model that can be studied as the role of mothering and fathering separately as well as parenting as a whole except the marital conflict Vs. marital adjustment which can only be associated with the study of adequate or inadequate parenting as a whole.

A. Rejection Vs. acceptance: A child develops shocks when he does not find proper care and response of his parents. The infantile honesty and truthfulness meets an adverse atmosphere and therefore the psychological growth of the child is affected. It is quite natural that a child meets proper nourishment of his genuine feelings. Denial of love and affection freezes the genial current of infantile simplicity. Various aberrations in the behavior of child are the product of this denial of natural love to them. Rejection of parents manifests itself in interpersonal relationships in direct ways, when the child has to face excessive criticism, invidious comparison, harsh and inconsistent punishment by both or either of the parents in his upbringing. Rejection of parents may also evince itself in physical neglect, denial of love and affection, lack of interest in his activities and failure to spend time with him. On the other hand parental acceptance implies an attitude of love for the child. The accepting parent puts the child in a position of importance in the home and develops a relationship of emotional warmth. Parental acceptance encourages the child and makes itself apparent in receptive or positive attitude towards the child's idea and

judgement, worthiness and capability, love and affection and admiration alongwith adequate attention towards him.

B. Carelessness Vs. protection: Parenting on carelessness dimension manifests itself, when both or either parents do not pay adequate heed towards child's activities thus giving an impression of unwantedness by careless and unthoughtful negligible behavior towards him even in presence of his proper and worthy behavior in day to day matters. On the otherhand the sense of protection in the child makes him better and more confident. It is true that over-protection is a disease and obstructs the independent growth of the child. But the sense of protection gives him strength and psychological support. So the sense of protection should not be confused with the term overprotection which consists in excessive contact of parents with the child, such as fondling him or sleeping with him, prolongation of infantile care as nursing, bathing and dressing when child can do it itself, prevention of the growth of self reliance by supervising the child's activities too much and defending him or solving his problems. It also shows overanxiousness towards the child's health and shields him from vigorous participation in competition activities. Thus, over protection signifies giving more care to their child than what is necessary and can only be deemed as the hyper state of protection.

C. Neglect Vs. indulgence: Neglecting the children by their parents even after conscious of their need is again injurious to their psychological health. It manifests itself in lack of attention and cooperation with them, willful ignoring them and their activities and avoidance of their genuine needs. Giving more importance to self designs of work but least attention to their feelings and needs, come within purview of neglect. On the otherhand over indulgence of parents with the child develops certain whims and psychological inconsistencies in the latter. It may be seen in the parents yielding to every demand of the child and failure to exercise the needed constraint even when necessary. Such a child becomes unfit for a reasonable adjustment in the social circumstances. However, it should be kept open to ourselves that indulgence with the child to a reasonable degree shall be deemed as a health giving sign. It helps in developing the child's emotional response to situation.

D. Utopain expectation Vs. realism: The utopian expectation exhibits itself in expecting a very high quality of performance form the child even against his capabilities. Some parents use their children as a means of achieving their own thwarted ambitions without taking into taking into

consideration their abilities and limitations. Such parents are over ambitious regarding their children. The more children achieve, the more parents expect of them. Thus, very high unrealistic and imaginary demand of parents regarding to the performance of their children come within the purview of utopian expectations which are not fulfilled by the children.

E. Lenient standards Vs. moralism: This more of parenting takes into account lenient standard as an negative dimension and moralism as an positive dimension. Lenient standard of parents make themselves apparent in permitting lesser restrictions from deviations from ethical and moral behavior and an attitude showing indifference against such inhibitions to restrict child's freedom and individuality. Moralism as a social-cultural product refers to the doctrine of duties of life, principles and conduct adhering to what is right and virtuous and plays an important role in the dynamics of social relations. It would be an admirable exercise, if a child is prone to inculcate a reasonable degree of moralim in his personality orientations. If parental behavior evinces moralism to an excessive degree, it harms the child's natural and dynamic integration. Certain parents develop an attitude of condemnation of the child's mild departure from the ideals of morality and force them to live a strong puritan life. This attitude is again harmful.

F. Freedom Vs. discipline: Freedom manifests itself in absence of restraints over all matters to what they may pertain to. In fact the child is a sole decision maker of his activities. There is hardly any questioning or impediments on the part of parents. He may disregard or disobey his parents without any fear of punishment from them. On the otherhand, parents with a penchant for strict discipline simply pass on orders to their children who have to merely obey them. The child is not allowed to take any decision regarding his dress, appearance, manners, friends or other activities of his life. Disobedience is met with punishment whereas obedience is appreciated. Although, the discipline is strong need of social orientation yet the severe discipline on the part of parents hamper the delight and liberty of the child which he wishes to obtain at every stage of life.

G. Faulty role expectation Vs. realistic role expectation: On the dimension of faulty role expectation parenting, the child is always confused and embarrassed of the unpredictable expectations of his parents. Parents usually expect divergent and contradictory roles from their children. The other dimension of realistic role expectation is just reverse. Parents present themselves as an example to be followed by the children and their behavior is thoughtful,

consistent and predictable in day to day strifes. The children know for certain what their parents are alike and what is expected do them.

H. Marital conflict Vs. marital adjustment: On the negative dimension marital conflict affects the child as and when he/she witnesses open conflicts between their parents. The child is not able to reconcile with and it leaves a nonpalatable feeling on his mind. Marital adjustment exhibits itself in a calm and composed adjustment between the parents thereby creating a solidarity and congenial atmosphere of peace and harmony in the family.

The Parenting Scale (Bharadwaj, Sharma, and Garg, 1998) has 40 items related to above eight different modes of parenting and are spread in a meaningful manner except those related to the marital conflict vs. marital adjustment.

Parenting Scale (P Scale) has been administered individually as well as to a group at a time in school for hundred non delinquents boys and for hundred delinquents boys from the age group of 12 to 18 at observation home on different days. After establishing a good rapport and ensuring a clear understanding of instructions, the subjects were asked to respond to the first thirty five items given in the P Scale by keeping in view the different modes of parenting that they received from their mother at one time and father at second time separately. The items from number 36 to 40 were responded separately that subject to the relationship between both the parents only at once. A rest of five minute has been provided to the subject between the recording of responses for mother and father separately.

The scoring of this parenting scale is of quantitative type and is based on five point scale as suggested by Likert. The scoring and determination of mothering and fathering as well as parenting is a complex one and the following things were kept in mind at the time of scoring the scale.

Each item of the scale was to be scored from upper to lower in terms of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. The scoring of item number 4, 11, 18, 25 and 32 would have been in reverse order (i. e. 5, 4. 3. 2. 1.)

The obtained scores of each individual was transferred on the last page at the space provided for both the parents and were added vertically to determine the raw score for mothering and fathering separately for different modes of parenting.

Table 4 shows the total raw scores of parenting of non delinquents and delinquents.

Table 4.4 Total Raw Scores of Parenting.

PARENTING	NON-DELINQENT	DELINQUENT
TOTAL	75521	79648

Table 5 shows the total raw scores of mothering of non delinquents and delinquents.

Table 4.5 Total Raw Scores of Mothering.

MODES	PARENTING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	1955	2063
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	1991	2063
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	1914	2040
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	1911	1897
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	1923	2027
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline	1923	2020
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	1874	1916
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	1963	2058

Table 6 shows the total raw scores of fathering of non delinquents and delinquents.

Table 4.6 Total Raw Scores of Fathering.

MODES	PARENTING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	1951	2081
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	1973	2099
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	1907	2036
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	1873	1847
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	1928	2041
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline	1870	2023
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	1877	1966
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	1962	2059

The obtained row scores for different modes of parenting were transformed into ‘Z’ score from the table given below by the P Scale Manual:-

TABLE 4.7 Raw-Scores and their Corresponded 'Z' Scores (M=50, SD=10).

MODES OF PARENTING								
Raw Scores	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5	23	3	3	26	1	6	3	9
6	25	6	6	29	2	9	6	12
7	27	9	9	32	5	12	10	15
8	29	12	12	34	8	15	13	18
9	31	15	16	37	12	18	16	20
10	33	18	19	40	15	21	19	23
11	35	21	22	42	18	24	23	26
12	37	25	25	45	22	27	26	29
13	39	28	28	48	25	30	29	32
14	41	31	32	51	28	33	32	34
15	43	34	35	53	32	35	35	37
16	45	37	38	56	35	38	39	40
17	47	40	41	59	38	41	42	43
18	49	44	44	61	41	44	45	46
19	51	47	47	64	45	47	48	48

20	53	50	51	67	48	50	52	51
21	55	53	54	70	51	53	55	54
22	57	56	57	72	55	56	58	57
23	59	59	60	75	58	59	61	60
24	61	63	64	78	61	62	65	62
25	63	66	66	80	65	64	68	65

The total of 'Z' scores for each mode of parenting in relation to both the parents shall be treated as parenting score of that specific mode of parenting and the grand total of each parenting mode is to be treated as parenting score.

'Z' scores obtained for the marital conflict Vs. marital adjustment mode of parenting is to be added only once with other 'Z' scores obtained for seven modes of parenting to determine the parenting score as a whole.

'Z' scores obtained for the marital conflict Vs. marital adjustment are to be added on both the occasions alongwith other 'Z' scores obtained for different modes of parenting to determine the scores for mothering and fathering separately.

Table 8 shows the total 'Z' scores of parenting of non delinquents and delinquents.

Table 4.8 Total Z Score of Parenting.

PARENTING	NON-DELINQENT	DELINQUENT
TOTAL	80536	84925

Table 9 shows the total 'Z' scores of mothering of non delinquents and delinquents.

Table 4.9 Total Z Score of Mothering.

MODES	PARENTING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	5210	5426
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	4968	5261
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	4786	5187
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	6449	6409
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	4552	4891
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline	4621	5050
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	4758	4883
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	5012	5280

Table 10 shows the total 'Z' scores of fathering of non delinquents and delinquents.

Table 4.10 Total Z Score of Fathering.

MODES	PARENTING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	5202	5462
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	4908	5301
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	4763	5173
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	6341	6272
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	4565	4939
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline	4619	5065
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	4767	5049
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	5015	5277

The interpretation of scores for both of the roles of parenting either in relation to each mode of parenting or as a whole can be made with the help of norms known as ‘Sten Scores’ that refer to a standard score derived from standard ten scale as followed in all IPAT tests which takes ten unites for their point scale range and each unit is being called a ‘sten’ standard ten (Cattell, Eber and Tatsuoka, 1970)

The scale was administered widely on large samples and sten scores have been determined for three separate parenting styles as general norms namely parenting as a whole, role of fathering and mothering.

The interpretation of different dimensions of parenting can be made easily with the help of sten scores enumerated below-

1	2	3	4	5	5.5	6	7	8	9	10

Rejection					A	Acceptance				
Carelessness					B	Protection				
Neglect					C	Indulgence				
Utopian expectation					D	Realism				
Lenient standards					E	Moralism				
Freedom					F	Discipline				
Faulty role expectation					G	Realistic role expectation				
Marital conflict					H	Marital adjustment				

Table 11 shows the average of sten scores of parenting of non delinquents and delinquents. The average score of parenting of delinquents is higher than the average score of parenting of non delinquents.

Table 4.11 Average Sten Scores of Parenting.

MODES	MOTHERING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
	Parenting as a whole	6.39	7.08
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	6.43	6.89
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	4.85	5.54
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	5.61	6.26
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	5.58	5.51
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	5.43	5.88
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline	6.33	6.33
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	6.03	6.40
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	6.24	6.59

A. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of rejection vs. acceptance of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of rejection vs. acceptance of non delinquents.

B. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of carelessness vs. protection of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of carelessness vs. protection of non delinquents.

C. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of neglect vs. indulgence of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of neglect vs. indulgence of non delinquents.

D. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of utopian expectations vs. realism of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of neglect vs. indulgence of non delinquents.

E. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of lenient standard vs. moralism of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of lenient standard vs. moralism of non delinquents.

F. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of freedom vs. discipline of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of freedom vs. discipline of non delinquents.

G. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of faulty role expectations vs. realistic role expectations of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of freedom vs. discipline of non delinquents.

H. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of marital conflict vs. marital adjustment of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of marital conflict vs. marital adjustment of non delinquents.

Table 12 shows the average of sten scores of mothering of non delinquents and delinquents. The average score of mothering of delinquents is higher than the average score of mothering of non delinquents except in case of utopian expectations vs realism.

Table 4.12 Average Sten Scores of Mothering.

MODES	MOTHERING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
	Parenting as a whole	6.14	6.73
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	5.12	5.66
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	5.68	6.15
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	5.34	5.94
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	7.48	7.42
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	5.00	5.47
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline U	5.53	6.34
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	6.17	6.29
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	6.24	6.59

Table 13 shows the average of sten scores of fathering of non delinquents and delinquents. The average scores of fathering of delinquents is higher than the average scores of fathering of non delinquents.

Table 4.13 Average Sten Scores of Fathering.

MODES	FATHERING	NON- DELINQUENT	DELINQUENT
	Parenting as a Whole	6.45	7.34
A	Rejection Vs. Acceptance	5.58	6.11
B	Carelessness Vs. Protection	5.85	6.37
C	Neglect Vs. Indulgence	5.60	6.10
D	Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism	6.91	7.08
E	Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism	5.46	5.99
F	Freedom Vs. Discipline	5.67	6.35
G	Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations	6.15	6.55
H	Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment	6.24	6.58

CHAPTER - 5

DISSCUSION

The Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (Junior) measured three global personality traits- Psychoticism, Neuroticism, and Extraversion that is referred to as the PEN model of non-delinquents' personality and delinquents' personality. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the score on Psychoticism between non-delinquents and delinquents is given in Table 1. Since the F value is greater than critical F, there is significant difference between non-delinquents and delinquents on Psychoticism. Therefore, the first hypothesis is rejected. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the score on extraversion between non-delinquents and delinquents is given in Table 2. Since the F value is greater than critical F, there is significant difference between non-delinquents and delinquents on Extraversion. Therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the score on neuroticism between non-delinquents and delinquents is given in Table 3. Since the F value is greater than critical F, there is significant difference between non-delinquents and delinquents on neuroticism. Therefore, the third hypothesis is rejected.

There are eight modes of parenting emerged as most important and effective in the assessment of non delinquents and delinquents parent child relationships and they may be enumerated as under:

- 1 A. Rejection Vs. Acceptance
- 2 B. Carelessness Vs. Protection.
- 3 C. Neglect Vs. Indulgence.
- 4 D. Utopian Expectations Vs. Realism.
- 5 E. Lenient Standard Vs. Moralism.
- 6 F. Freedom Vs. Discipline.
- 7 G. Faulty Role Expectations Vs. Realistic Role Expectations.
- 8 H. Marital Conflict Vs. Marital Adjustment

The Parenting Scale (Bharadwaj, Sharma, and Garg, 1998) is related to above eight different modes of parenting. The obtained raw scores of non delinquents and delinquents were transformed into 'Z' scores and then into 'sten' scores. Table 11 shows the average of sten scores of parenting of non delinquents and delinquents. The average score of parenting of

delinquents is higher than the average score of parenting of non-delinquents. Table 11 also shows the average score of mode of parenting of delinquents is higher than the average score of parenting of non-delinquents.

The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of rejection vs. acceptance of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of rejection vs. acceptance of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of carelessness vs. protection of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of carelessness vs. protection of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of neglect vs. indulgence of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of neglect vs. indulgence of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of utopian expectations vs. realism of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of neglect vs. indulgence of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of lenient standard vs. moralism of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of lenient standard vs. moralism of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of freedom vs. discipline of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of freedom vs. discipline of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of faulty role expectations vs. realistic role expectations of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of freedom vs. discipline of non delinquents. The average of sten scores of mode of parenting of marital conflict vs. marital adjustment of delinquents is higher than the average score of mode of parenting of marital conflict vs. marital adjustment of non delinquents.

Table 12 shows the average of sten scores of mothering of non delinquents and delinquents. The average score of mothering of delinquents is higher than the average score of mothering of non delinquents except in case of utopian expectations vs realism. Table 13 shows the average of sten scores of fathering of non delinquents and delinquents. The average scores of fathering of delinquents is higher than the average scores of fathering of non delinquents.

The above scores show that there is no difference on mode of parenting between non-delinquents and delinquents. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis is accepted.

From the above discussion, it may be concluded that there is no relationship between personality and parenting styles of non delinquents and delinquents. Therefore the last hypothesis is accepted.

CHAPTER – 6

SUMMARY

Conclusions and Suggestions:

The present research is an honest attempt to find out the causes of juvenile delinquency. For the study, the researcher selected two areas of inquiry i.e. personality and parenting styles. The standard tests have been applied to equal number of non delinquents and delinquents. The non delinquents have scored low, compared to delinquents on psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism. The study concluded that there is significant difference between non delinquents and delinquents as related to personality.

In relation to parenting styles of non delinquents and delinquents, standard test has been applied to both the groups of equal numbers. The research shows that there is not significant difference between the parenting styles of non delinquents and delinquents.

Hence, the research concludes that there is no relationship between personality and parenting styles of delinquents.

Limitations of study:

The study has been conducted only in relation to boys in Pune city, i.e. in case of non delinquents from two schools in Sahakarnagar, Pune and delinquents from Observation home at Yerwada, Pune. The Study has conducted only of 200 samples, i.e. equal number of non delinquents and delinquents, since the only children in conflict with law i.e. delinquents are detained in Observation homes in exceptional cases. Delinquents for the purpose of study are the children who were in conflict with law and at some time detained in observation home or released on bail/bond.

Most of them were literate and had no problem in replying questionnaire, although the questionnaires were in different languages in Hindi and English. For delinquents, the questionnaire were served, proper instructions given and translated the questions orally into Marathi, to make them understood the questions in proper manner.

Scope for further study:

The further research may be undertaken to have in depth study of juvenile delinquency with the present data in relation to rural-urban, income, number of family members, caste/religion, education, age, sex and etc.

Suggestions:

Young offenders may be future criminals. So, they must be prevented from adopting criminality. More research is required to be done in the area of juvenile delinquency, having interdisciplinary approach by the researchers in association with government agencies. The suggestions of the research must be immediately incorporated by the government. The delinquents and society should be benefited from the research. A separate study could be undertaken to study the factors responsible for girls delinquency.

Crime free society though a dream may be achieved to some extent with the help of only research and implementation of suggestions of research in the area of delinquency and crime. Crime less society only can have peace and progress.

The result of present research shows that there is no relationship between personality and parenting style of delinquents and non delinquents. In other words, home is not a cause of juvenile delinquency. It is somewhere outside the home. The research also shows that there is a significant difference between the personality of delinquents and non delinquents. It means there is/are factor/factors outside the home, which contribute/s to the delinquency. Hence, the causes are within the society and outside the home, which influence/s the children's personality, which is the cause of delinquency as per the present study.

Social psychology must contribute to build crime free/less society, which is the basis of the peaceful and progressive society.

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EPQ

(Junior)

PRINT YOUR NAME: First _____ Last _____

YOUR AGE _____ DATE _____ BOY OR GIRL _____

SCHOOL _____ GRADE _____

INSTRUCTIONS

Please answer each question by marking an ☒ beside the "YES" or the "NO" following the question. There are no right or wrong answers, and no trick questions. Work quickly and do not think too long about the exact meaning of the question.

PLEASE REMEMBER TO ANSWER EACH QUESTION



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IN EVERY QUESTION, MARK JUST ONE BOX.

1. Do you like plenty of excitement going on around you? YES ☐ NO ☐
2. Are you moody? YES ☐ NO ☐
3. Do you enjoy hurting people you like? YES ☐ NO ☐
4. Were you ever greedy by helping yourself to more than your share of anything? YES ☐ NO ☐
5. Do you nearly always have a quick answer when people talk to you? YES ☐ NO ☐
6. Do you very easily feel bored? YES ☐ NO ☐
7. Would you enjoy practical jokes that could sometimes really hurt people? YES ☐ NO ☐
8. Do you always do as you are told at once? YES ☐ NO ☐
9. Would you rather be alone instead of meeting other children? YES ☐ NO ☐
10. Do ideas run through your head so that you cannot sleep? YES ☐ NO ☐
11. Have you ever broken any rules at school? YES ☐ NO ☐
12. Would you like other children to be afraid of you? YES ☐ NO ☐
13. Are you rather lively? YES ☐ NO ☐
14. Do lots of things annoy you? YES ☐ NO ☐
15. Would you enjoy cutting up animals in Science class? YES ☐ NO ☐
16. Did you ever take anything (even a pin or button) that belonged to someone else? YES ☐ NO ☐
17. Do you have lots of friends? YES ☐ NO ☐
18. Do you feel "just miserable" for no good reason? YES ☐ NO ☐
19. Do you sometimes like teasing animals? YES ☐ NO ☐
20. Did you ever pretend you did not hear when someone was calling you? YES ☐ NO ☐
21. Would you like to explore an old haunted castle? YES ☐ NO ☐
22. Do you often feel life is very dull? YES ☐ NO ☐
23. Do you seem to get into more quarrels and scraps than most children? YES ☐ NO ☐
24. Do you always finish your homework before you play? YES ☐ NO ☐
25. Do you like doing things where you have to act quickly? YES ☐ NO ☐
26. Do you worry about awful things that might happen? YES ☐ NO ☐
27. When you hear children using bad language do you try to stop them? YES ☐ NO ☐
28. Can you get a party going? YES ☐ NO ☐
29. Are you easily hurt when people find things wrong with you or the work you do? YES ☐ NO ☐
30. Would it upset you a lot to see a dog that has just been run over? YES ☐ NO ☐
31. Do you always say you are sorry when you have been rude? YES ☐ NO ☐
32. Is there someone who is trying to get back at you for what they think you did to them? YES ☐ NO ☐
33. Do you think water skiing would be fun? YES ☐ NO ☐
34. Do you often feel tired for no reason? YES ☐ NO ☐
35. Do you rather enjoy teasing other children? YES ☐ NO ☐
36. Are you always quiet when older people are talking? YES ☐ NO ☐
37. When you make new friends do you usually make the first move? YES ☐ NO ☐
38. Are you touchy about some things? YES ☐ NO ☐
39. Do you seem to get into a lot of fights? YES ☐ NO ☐
40. Have you ever said anything bad or nasty about anyone? YES ☐ NO ☐

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.

41. Do you like telling jokes or funny stories to your friends? YES ☐ NO ☐
42. Are you in more trouble at school than most children? YES ☐ NO ☐
43. Do you generally pick up papers and rubbish others throw on the classroom floor? YES ☐ NO ☐
44. Have you many different hobbies and interests? YES ☐ NO ☐
45. Are your feelings rather easily hurt? YES ☐ NO ☐
46. Do you like playing pranks on others? YES ☐ NO ☐
47. Do you always wash before a meal? YES ☐ NO ☐
48. Would you rather sit and watch than play at parties? YES ☐ NO ☐
49. Do you often feel fed-up? YES ☐ NO ☐
50. Is it sometimes rather fun to watch a gang tease or bully a small child? YES ☐ NO ☐
51. Are you always quiet in class, even when the teacher is out of the room? YES ☐ NO ☐
52. Do you like doing things that are a bit frightening? YES ☐ NO ☐
53. Do you sometimes get so restless that you cannot sit still in a chair for long? YES ☐ NO ☐
54. Would you like to go to the moon on your own? YES ☐ NO ☐
55. At prayers or assembly, do you always sing when the others are singing? YES ☐ NO ☐
56. Do you like mixing with other children? YES ☐ NO ☐
57. Are your parents far too strict with you? YES ☐ NO ☐
58. Would you like parachute jumping? YES ☐ NO ☐
59. Do you worry for a long while if you feel you have made a fool of yourself? YES ☐ NO ☐
60. Do you always eat everything you are given at meals? YES ☐ NO ☐
61. Can you let yourself go and enjoy yourself a lot at a lively party? YES ☐ NO ☐
62. Do you sometimes feel life is just not worth living? YES ☐ NO ☐
63. Would you feel very sorry for an animal caught in a trap? YES ☐ NO ☐
64. Have you ever talked back to your parents? YES ☐ NO ☐
65. Do you often make up your mind to do things suddenly? YES ☐ NO ☐
66. Does your mind often wander off when you are doing some work? YES ☐ NO ☐
67. Do you enjoy diving or jumping into the sea or a pool? YES ☐ NO ☐
68. Do you find it hard to get to sleep at night because you are worrying about things? YES ☐ NO ☐
69. Did you ever write or scribble in a school or library book? YES ☐ NO ☐
70. Do other people think of you as being very lively? YES ☐ NO ☐
71. Do you often feel lonely? YES ☐ NO ☐
72. Are you always specially careful with other people's things? YES ☐ NO ☐
73. Do you always share all the candy you have? YES ☐ NO ☐
74. Do you like going out a lot? YES ☐ NO ☐
75. Have you ever cheated at a game? YES ☐ NO ☐
76. Do you find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party? YES ☐ NO ☐
77. Do you sometimes feel specially cheerful and at other times sad without any good reason YES ☐ NO ☐
78. Do you throw waste paper on the floor when there is no waste paper basket handy? YES ☐ NO ☐
79. Would you call yourself happy-go-lucky? YES ☐ NO ☐
80. Do you often need kind friends to cheer you up? YES ☐ NO ☐
81. Would you like to drive or ride on a fast motor bike? YES ☐ NO ☐

PLEASE CHECK TO SEE THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS

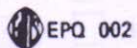
SCORING CATEGORY:

1	<input type="text"/>	2	<input type="text"/>	3	<input type="text"/>	4	<input type="text"/>
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डा० राजीव लोचन भारद्वाज

धर्म समाज कालेज, अलीगढ़

डा० हरीश शर्मा

आगरा

श्रीमती अमिता गर्ग

ई०वी०जी० काउन्सलर

शिक्षा निदेशालय, दिल्ली

कृपया अपने सम्बन्ध में सूचना दें :-

लिंग आयु जाति धर्म शिक्षा
ग्रामीण/शहरी परिवार की मासिक आय परिवार में सदस्यों की संख्या
स्थान

निर्देश :-

1. इस पुस्तिका में कुछ कथन हैं। सभी कथनों का उत्तर आपको अपने माता एवं पिता के व्यवहारों को ध्यान में रखकर देना है।
2. प्रत्येक कथन में पाँच विकल्प हैं। इन पाँच विकल्पों में से आपको केवल एक विकल्प चुनना है जो आपके सम्बन्ध में सही हो।
3. पहले 35 कथनों का उत्तर माता और पिता के लिए अलग-अलग देना है। लेकिन अन्तिम पाँच कथनों के लिए केवल एक उत्तर देना है।
4. प्रत्येक कथन के विकल्पों के सामने दो कोष्ठक दिये गये हैं उनमें माता के लिए पहला कोष्ठक तथा पिता के लिए दूसरा कोष्ठक निश्चित है। अपना उत्तर माता अथवा पिता के लिए निश्चित कोष्ठक में (✓) का चिन्ह लगाकर दें।
5. इन सभी कथनों का उत्तर (अन्तिम पाँच को छोड़कर) आप पहली बार में माता के लिए तथा दूसरी बार में पिता के लिए दें।
6. प्रत्येक कथन शोध कार्यों के लिए बहुत अधिक महत्वपूर्ण हैं, आपके द्वारा दिये गये उत्तर पूर्णतः गोपनीय रहेंगे। अतः आप पूर्ण ईमानदारी से अपना उत्तर दें।

- | | | | |
|--|---|-----|-----|
| 1. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपके विचारों को | बिल्कुल पसन्द नहीं करते हैं | () | () |
| | पसन्द नहीं करते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | पसन्द करते हैं | () | () |
| | बहुत पसन्द करते हैं। | () | () |
| 2. क्या आपके माता/पिता कहीं आपको चोट | बिल्कुल चिन्तित नहीं रहते हैं | () | () |
| न लग जाए इस डर से | चिन्तित नहीं रहते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | खेलने नहीं देते हैं | () | () |
| | बिल्कुल खेलने नहीं देते हैं। | () | () |
| 3. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी छोटी | बिल्कुल ठुकरा देते हैं | () | () |
| से छोटी बात को | ठुकरा देते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | पूरा कर देते हैं | () | () |
| | हमेशा पूरा करते हैं। | () | () |
| 4. क्या आपके माता/पिता किसी भी कार्य में | बहुत सन्तुष्ट रहते हैं | () | () |
| आपके द्वारा की गई मेहनत से | सन्तुष्ट रहते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | सन्तुष्ट नहीं रहते हैं | () | () |
| | बिल्कुल सन्तुष्ट नहीं रहते हैं। | () | () |
| 5. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपको | बहुत अधिक सनसनीखेज किस्से सुनाते हैं | () | () |
| | सनसनीखेज किस्से सुनाते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | शिक्षा प्रधान लघु कथाएँ सुनाते हैं | () | () |
| | हमेशा शिक्षा प्रधान लघु कथाएँ सुनाते हैं। | () | () |
| 6. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी मित्रता | बिल्कुल मतलब नहीं रखते हैं | () | () |
| कैसे बच्चों से हो, इस बारे में | मतलब नहीं रखते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | मित्रता अच्छे बच्चों से चाहते हैं | () | () |
| | हमेशा अच्छे बच्चों से चाहते हैं। | () | () |
| 7. क्या आपके माता/पिता कैसी भी छोटी-बड़ी परेशानी में | बहुत परेशान हो जाते हैं | () | () |
| | परेशान हो जाते हैं | () | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () | () |
| | विचलित नहीं होते हैं | () | () |
| | बिल्कुल विचलित नहीं होते हैं। | () | () |

		माता	पिता
8. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी	हमेशा आलोचना करते हैं	()	()
	आलोचना करते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	प्रशंसा करते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा प्रशंसा करते हैं।	()	()
9. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपके बीमार	बिल्कुल ध्यान नहीं देते हैं	()	()
हो जाने पर	ध्यान नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	चिन्तित हो जाते हैं	()	()
	बहुत चिन्तित हो जाते हैं।	()	()
10. क्या आपके माता/पिता परेशानी के	बिल्कुल नहीं सुनते हैं	()	()
समय आपकी कोई बात	नहीं सुनते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	पूरी कर देते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा पूरी कर देते हैं।	()	()
11. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपके द्वारा	बिल्कुल दबाव नहीं डालते हैं	()	()
भली प्रकार किए जा रहे कार्यों को	दबाव नहीं डालते हैं	()	()
और अधिक अच्छा करने के लिए	अनिश्चित	()	()
	दबाव डालते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा दबाव डालते हैं।	()	()
12. क्या आपके माता/पिता दूसरे की वस्तु	बिल्कुल कुछ नहीं कहते हैं	()	()
आपके पास देख लेने पर	कुछ नहीं कहते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	वापिस करा देते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा वापिस करा देते हैं।	()	()
13. क्या आपको माता/पिता से किसी भी	बिल्कुल अनुमति नहीं लेनी पड़ती है	()	()
कार्य को करने से पहले	अनुमति नहीं लेनी पड़ती है	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	अनुमति लेनी पड़ती है	()	()
	हमेशा अनुमति लेनी पड़ती है।	()	()
14. क्या आपके माता/पिता छोटी से छोटी	बिल्कुल नियन्त्रित नहीं रखते हैं	()	()
बात पर अपना व्यवहार	नियन्त्रित नहीं रखते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	नियन्त्रित रखते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा नियन्त्रित रखते हैं।	()	()

		माता	पिता
15. क्या आपके माता/पिता अपने परिवार के लिए आपको	बहुत बोझ समझते हैं	()	()
	बोझ समझते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	भाग्यशाली समझते हैं	()	()
	बहुत भाग्यशाली समझते हैं।	()	()
16. क्या आपके माता/पिता आप पर	बिल्कुल निगरानी नहीं रखते हैं	()	()
	निगरानी नहीं रखते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	निगरानी रखते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा निगरानी रखते हैं।	()	()
17. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी कठिनाईयों को सुलझाने में	बिल्कुल ध्यान नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	ध्यान नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	मदद करते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा मदद करते हैं।	()	()
18. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी सफलताओं के लिए आपके प्रयासों को	बहुत महत्वपूर्ण मानते हैं	()	()
	महत्वपूर्ण मानते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	महत्व नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	बिल्कुल महत्व नहीं देते हैं।	()	()
19. क्या आपके माता/पिता आदर्श व्यवहार करने के लिए आपको	बिल्कुल प्रेरित नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	प्रेरित नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	प्रेरित करते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा प्रेरित करते हैं।	()	()
20. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपको	बिल्कुल भी नहीं रोकते-टोकते हैं	()	()
	नहीं रोकते-टोकते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	अनुशासन में रखते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा कड़े अनुशासन में रखते हैं।	()	()
21. क्या आपके माता/पिता	हमेशा हिम्मत हार जाते हैं	()	()
	हिम्मत हार जाते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	हिम्मत नहीं हारते हैं	()	()
	बिल्कुल हिम्मत नहीं हारते हैं।	()	()

		माता	पिता
22. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपसे हमेशा	बहुत क्रोधित रहते हैं	()	()
	क्रोधित रहते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	प्रसन्न रहते हैं	()	()
	बहुत प्रसन्न रहते हैं।	()	()
23. जब आप जोखिम पूर्ण कार्य कर रहे	बिल्कुल ध्यान नहीं देते हैं	()	()
हैं तो आपके माता/पिता	ध्यान नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	करने नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	बिल्कुल भी नहीं करने देते हैं।	()	()
24. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी मानने	बिल्कुल नहीं मानते हैं	()	()
अथवा न मानने वाली जिदों को	नहीं मानते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	पूरी कर देते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा पूरी कर देते हैं।	()	()
25. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपके द्वारा	बहुत प्रशंसा करते हैं	()	()
किये जा रहे प्रयासों की	प्रशंसा करते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	कमियाँ निकालते हैं	()	()
	बहुत कमियाँ निकालते हैं।	()	()
26. क्या आपके माता/पिता अच्छी पुस्तक	बिल्कुल सुझाव नहीं देते हैं	()	()
पढ़ने के लिए आपको	सुझाव नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	प्रेरित करते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा प्रेरित करते हैं।	()	()
27. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपसे जेब	बिल्कुल हिसाब नहीं माँगते हैं	()	()
खर्च के बारे में	हिसाब नहीं माँगते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	हिसाब माँगते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा हिसाब माँगते हैं।	()	()
28. क्या आपके माता/पिता गाली और	हमेशा प्रयोग करते हैं	()	()
भद्दी भाषा का	प्रयोग करते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	प्रयोग नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	बिल्कुल प्रयोग नहीं करते हैं।	()	()

		माता	पिता
29. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपसे	बिल्कुल प्यार नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	प्यार नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	प्यार करते हैं	()	()
	बहुत प्यार करते हैं।	()	()
30. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपकी	बिल्कुल परवाह नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	परवाह नहीं करते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	परवाह करते हैं	()	()
	बहुत परवाह करते हैं।	()	()
31. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपको खुश	बिल्कुल ख्याल नहीं रखते हैं	()	()
रखने का	ख्याल नहीं रखते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	ख्याल रखते हैं	()	()
	बहुत ख्याल रखते हैं।	()	()
32. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपके असफल	बिल्कुल दोष नहीं देते हैं	()	()
होने पर आपको	दोष नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	दोष देते हैं	()	()
	बहुत दोष देते हैं।	()	()
33. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपको अच्छी	बिल्कुल राय नहीं देते हैं	()	()
फिल्म देखने के बारे में	राय नहीं देते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	राय देते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा राय देते हैं।	()	()
34. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपसे घूमने	बिल्कुल कुछ नहीं कहते हैं	()	()
फिरने के बारे में	कुछ नहीं कहते हैं	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	पूछताछ करते हैं	()	()
	हमेशा पूछताछ करते हैं।	()	()
35. क्या आपके माता/पिता का व्यवहार	बहुत परेशान करता है	()	()
आपको	परेशान करता है	()	()
	अनिश्चित	()	()
	खुशी देता है	()	()
	बहुत खुशी देता है।	()	()

नोट :- निम्न कथनों का उत्तर माता एवं पिता के मध्य सम्बन्ध को ध्यान में रखकर केवल एक बार देना है।

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|--|-----------------------------|-----|
| 36. क्या आपके माता/पिता घर में एक दूसरे से | बहुत झल्लाते हैं | () |
| | झल्लाते हैं | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () |
| | खुश रहते हैं | () |
| | बहुत खुश रहते हैं | () |
| 37. क्या आपके माता/पिता विभिन्न समस्याओं पर | बिल्कुल एक मत नहीं होते हैं | () |
| | एक मत नहीं होते हैं | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () |
| | एक मत हो जाते हैं | () |
| | हमेशा एक मत हो जाते हैं | () |
| 38. क्या आपके माता/पिता के बीच मन-मुटाव | बहुत अधिक रहता है | () |
| | अधिक रहता है | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () |
| | नहीं होता है | () |
| | बिल्कुल नहीं होता है | () |
| 39. क्या आपके माता/पिता एक दूसरे की कमियाँ | हमेशा निकालते हैं | () |
| | निकालते हैं | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () |
| | नहीं निकालते हैं | () |
| | बिल्कुल नहीं निकालते हैं | () |
| 40. क्या आपके माता/पिता आपसी झगड़े के लिए आपको | हमेशा दोष देते हैं | () |
| | दोष देते हैं | () |
| | अनिश्चित | () |
| | कुछ नहीं कहते हैं | () |
| | बिल्कुल कुछ नहीं कहते हैं | () |

धन्यवाद

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केवल परीक्षण के उपयोग के लिए

SCORING SHEET

[illegible]