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**Longitudinal Predictors of Family Violence and Parenting Style:
A Study of High-Risk Individuals**

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**A Thesis
in
The Department
of
Psychology**

**Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Masters of Arts at
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Abstract

Longitudinal Predictors of Family Violence and Parenting Style: A Study of High-Risk Individuals

Caroline Elizabeth Temcheff

Numerous researchers have suggested that an aggressive behavioural style is more stable over time in boys than girls. This literature has recently been called into question by studies demonstrating that girls' styles of expressing aggression may be different from boys', and that aggression may occur in different contexts for males and females across the life course. The present study explored longitudinal predictors of self-reported family violence and parenting styles in men and women with childhood histories that placed them at high-risk for various psycho-social problems. Three main questions are addressed: (a) Within a high-risk sample, to what extent can we use participants' past histories of aggression and withdrawal to predict spousal and parental violence and parenting style? (b) Can we make the same predictions for both men and women? and (c) What are the developmental and current life variables that favor/ hinder the development and practice of violence in the home and positive parenting strategies? These questions were examined within a subsample of individuals from the Concordia High Risk Project, a prospective, longitudinal investigation designed to study the long-term outcomes of childhood aggression, and withdrawal in males and females coming from low SES urban sample. In terms of family violence, the results of this study demonstrate the stability of an aggressive behavioural style among men and women, in that those who exhibited

aggressive tendencies with peers in childhood were more likely to report using violence as a means of conflict resolution with family members as adults. However, in terms of the parenting variables, the psycho-social and current life variables such as education and poverty status were more powerful predictors of outcomes than the childhood variables, suggesting that factors other than a stable behavioural style might be at play in the development of adaptive parenting practices. These findings highlight the need for interventions aimed at targeting aggressive behaviour in young girls as well as young boys. The findings also strongly support the inclusion of domestic violence, in addition to more public violent offending, in studying and reporting the behavioural outcomes of childhood aggression.

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Longitudinal Predictors of Family Violence and Parenting Style: A Study of High-Risk Individuals

A report published by Statistics Canada (2001) stated that an estimated 135,600 child maltreatment investigations were conducted in Canada in 1998. This figure corresponds to roughly 22 investigations per 1,000 children between the ages of 0 and 15 living in the country during that year. Almost one-half (45%) of these reports were substantiated by the investigating child welfare worker. Violence and/or neglect in the home have important negative consequences on children. For example, over half (56%) of these maltreated children were reported as having considerable problems in at least one area of functioning. Behaviour problems, negative peer relations, depression, anxiety, violence towards others, and developmental delays were common among youth whose home lives were characterized by violence. Further, according to another study on Canadian children (Statistics Canada, 2001), children who were exposed to adults fighting in their homes were more likely to exhibit physical aggression, emotional disorders, hyperactivity, and were more likely to commit delinquent acts.

Depressingly, biological mothers were identified as the alleged perpetrator of the abuse in the majority of substantiated cases (60%), followed by biological fathers (41%), step-fathers (9%), and step-mothers (3%). However, this distribution may be somewhat biased by the fact that 40% of investigated families were female-parent only families.

Obviously, the problem of family violence is an important concern for researchers, clinicians, lawmakers and citizens alike. Why it happens, how to deal with it, and how to stop it constitute major areas of inquiry. However, as a research community grappling with this significant problem, we know surprisingly little about the behavioural

antecedents of such violent behaviour in husbands and wives, and mothers and fathers. Perhaps if we knew more about the risk factors for the development of such aggressive interaction styles within the family context, we might be in a better position to intervene and deal with the problems before any harm is done.

Individuals of many species learn how to interact with others in childhood with the help of their peer groups (Suomi & Harlow, 1978). Young children learn how to get along with others at school and on the playground and develop their own unique ways of interacting with others in the world. Children who develop an aggressive interactional style in childhood may be at high risk for continuing to use such maladaptive strategies when dealing with conflicts in their family lives as adults.

There is another possible route through which an aggressive behavioural style in childhood can contribute to the development of a violent behaviour in adulthood within the context of family relations. Research has shown that an aggressive behavioural style in childhood increases the likelihood that an individual drops out of school at an early age, becomes a teen parent, and suffers from poverty in adulthood. Thus, childhood aggression has been shown to place an individual at high risk for experiencing much psycho-social stress as an adult, which in turn, might hinder the development of appropriate and adaptive conflict resolution and parenting strategies (for example, talking things out), and favor more "quick fix" conflict resolution strategies such as shouting or hitting.

In fact, little is known about the development of parenting style in general, including the development of positive parenting practices. We have little information regarding the behavioural antecedents of various positive parenting behaviours such as

providing a structured and warm environment for children to grow up in. One way of examining the development of a parenting style would be to look at the development of a general interaction style with peers in childhood and its stability or continuity into adulthood within the context of parenting relations. Another relevant issue is to identify some of the protective factors that favor the development and maintenance of a healthy and adaptive parenting behavioural style?

The Stability of Aggression Across the Lifespan

Though a considerable amount of research has focused on the stability and consequences of aggressive behaviour, the majority of these studies concern aggression in males. It has been shown that aggression in males is quite stable, predictive of antisocial activity later in life, and can also be transmitted across generations (Cairns, Cairns, Neckerman, Gest, & Gapipey, 1988; Huesmann, Eron, Lefkoitz, & Walder, 1984; Moskowitz, Schwartzman, & Ledingham, 1985; Olweus, 1979). In contrast, fewer studies have documented the stability and consequences of aggression in females. Based on available data, researchers have hypothesized that aggressive behaviour in females is somewhat less stable than in males, as it leads to fewer negative consequences when considering outcomes such as juvenile delinquency, or antisocial personality disorders (Moskowitz, Schwartzman, & Ledingham, 1985; Huesmann et al. 1984; Olweus, 1981). However, some authors have suggested that reports of lower incidence of aggression in females may be because much of this research focuses on forms of aggression that are less typical of women than men. That is, though women commit few crimes, aggression may still be a stable trait, but manifested within different contexts. For example,

Moskowitz and Schwartzman (1989) demonstrated that aggressiveness in girls was predictive of unstable social and family relationships later in life, as well as low intelligence, poor school achievement, psychiatric problems and general health difficulties. The idea that different forms of aggression may characterize boys and girls suggests that a variety of outcomes other than delinquency and antisocial behaviour must be considered when examining the stability of aggressive behaviour. One of the negative life outcomes that merits further investigation is that of difficult romantic and familial relationships. On the whole, though little is known about the long-term consequences of aggression in girls, the new consensus appears to be that aggression is a relatively stable characteristic that is predictive of negative outcomes later in life for both males and females (Coie & Dodge, 1998).

The Concordia High Risk Project

Data used in the current study comes from the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project. The Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project is a prospective, longitudinal investigation designed to study the long-term outcomes of childhood aggression¹, and withdrawal² in males and females coming from low SES urban sample. When the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project began in 1977, over 4,000 children attending grades 1, 4, or 7 at French-language public schools in low income inner-city areas of Montreal were screened using the French translation of the Pupil Evaluation Inventory (PEI; Pekarik, Prinz, Liebert, Weintraub, & Neale, 1976), which is a peer nomination

¹ Aggression has been defined as the use of words or actions intended to cause harm (Coie & Dodge, 1998)

² Social withdrawal refers to a behavioural tendency to isolate oneself from others (Moskowitz & Schwartzman, 1989).

instrument. The PEI was used to classify 1, 770 children into three risk groups (aggressive, withdrawn, and aggressive and withdrawn) and the normative control group (Schwartzman, Ledingham & Serbin, 1985). A unique feature of the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project was the inclusion of approximately equal numbers of boys and girls in each of the groups and the use of gender-based norms. That is, aggressive girls were rated as extreme in comparison to other girls in their class, and not compared to the boys. To date, research findings have confirmed that the individuals classified as aggressive or aggressive and withdrawn are at greater risk for later health and psychosocial problems, including poor school achievement, difficulty in social relationships, psychiatric problems, substance abuse, gynecological problems, and teenage pregnancy (Ledingham & Schwartzman, 1984; Moskowitz & Schwartzman, 1989; Serbin, Moskowitz, Schwartzman, & Ledingham, 1991; Serbin, Peters, McAffer, & Schwartzman, 1991).

The original participants are now adults, and many are having children. This has afforded a unique opportunity to examine the adult sequelae of childhood aggression and withdrawal within the context of familial relations.

Childhood Aggression and Parenting Practices

There is mounting evidence that childhood risk status predicts problematic parenting practices among the mothers in the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project, which in turn can increase the likelihood of developmental difficulties in their offspring. Cooperman (1996) assessed the behaviour of mothers with their school-aged children during a series of interaction tasks that took place in a university laboratory. It was found

that both maternal childhood aggression and social withdrawal were predictive of maternal unresponsiveness during the interactions. Further, childhood social withdrawal in mothers was predictive of a less supportive interaction style, and maternal aggression and social withdrawal both were predictive of increased child aggressive behaviour (Cooperman, 1996; Serbin et al., 1998). In another study that examined the quality of mother-child interactions during a free-play session, it was found that mothers who were identified as both aggressive and socially withdrawn in childhood were more likely to display hostile behaviours when interacting with their children (Bentley, 1997).

Saltaris (1999) found that mothers with childhood histories of aggression were less likely to provide cognitive stimulation for their children during a structured puzzle task, and were less likely to provide a cognitively stimulating home environment. Childhood withdrawal was also negatively predictive of a stimulating home environment.

There has been some speculation surrounding the reasons why aggressive and withdrawn childhood behaviour leads to ineffective parenting. One possibility is that childhood behavioural tendencies remain stable, and continue into the family relationships in adulthood. According to this view, childhood aggression should lead to hostile behaviour within parent-child interactions, while a history of social withdrawal might predict less social engagement and less social responsiveness to the children's needs. A different possibility is that childhood behaviour patterns influence parenting abilities indirectly, through various psychosocial difficulties affecting the lives of the high-risk individuals (for example, low educational attainment, early pregnancy, lower economic status, and increased parenting stress). So far, many of the studies done within the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project have found evidence for this second pathway.

That is, mothers' childhood risk status appears to predispose them to experience a number of psychosocial difficulties (particularly low educational attainment), which in turn hinder their parenting abilities (Cooperman, 1996; Lehoux, 1995; Serbin et al., 1998). Conversely, only limited support for the continuity hypothesis has been found. Cooperman (1996) found that mothers with childhood histories of social withdrawal were more likely to be unresponsive to their children during mother-child interactions that took place in the context of a university laboratory.

The Present Study

Using a subsample of the original participants in the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project, the present study explores longitudinal predictors of self-reported family violence and parenting style in men and women with childhood histories that placed them at risk for psycho-social problems. Three main questions are addressed: (a) Within a high-risk sample, to what extent can we use participants' past histories of aggression and withdrawal to predict spousal and parental violence and parenting style? and (b) Can we make the same predictions for both men and women? Given that an aggressive behavioural style is thought to be stable in both women and men, it is our hypothesis that boys and girls characterized as aggressive in elementary school by peers will be more likely to report being violent with those close to them in adulthood. In terms of positive parenting practices, it is hypothesized that individuals demonstrating aggressive behavioural styles in childhood might have been placed on a life course marked by problems and psycho-social stressors thereby limiting their ability to parent effectively. Due to the fact that little is known about the long-term sequelae of a withdrawn

behavioural style, no specific predictions were made regarding the effects of childhood social withdrawal. Based on previous literature from this sample that has shown aggressive and withdrawn individuals to be at high risk for various psycho-social problems, we expect this group to report similar levels of violence towards their family as the aggressive group. Further, it is believed that the measures of family violence will be more salient to women than measures of criminality or delinquency, and will therefore allow us to investigate the stability of aggressive tendencies in girls and women. The final question that will be examined in this study is (c) What are the developmental and current life variables that favor/ hinder the development and practice of violence in the home and positive parenting strategies? Increased education is hypothesized to be a protective factor against family violence and is expected to favor the development of positive parenting practices, whereas, poverty, single parenting, psychopathology, and having numerous children are expected to increase the chances of violent behaviour in the home and to hinder the development of effective parenting strategies. These relationships are expected to be similar for men and women.

Studies that have investigated parent-child relationships within the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Sample have largely focused on mothers. The current study attempts to add to the current knowledge base by including fathers in the sample in order to investigate the effect that childhood aggression and withdrawal has on fathers' parenting styles and abilities.

Therefore, within this study, we expect to find that childhood aggression influences later family relationships both directly and indirectly. It is our hypothesis that an aggressive behavioural style evident in young children will remain stable and will

manifest itself in as a tendency to be aggressive and violent with spouse and children later in life. This situation is hypothesized to be the same for both men and women. Another hypothesis is that an aggressive behavioural style will put individuals at risk for numerous psycho-social stressors and adverse life circumstances (such as low educational attainment, increased number of children, low income, and psychopathology) that will in turn hinder the development of positive parenting practices.

Method

Participants

Participants for the present study were drawn from a larger pool of individuals who have participated in the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project since 1977. At that time, over 4,000 students in Grades 1, 4, and 7 were recruited from inner-city French-language schools serving low SES neighbourhoods of Montreal, Quebec. Children were screened using a French translation of the Pupil Evaluation Inventory, a peer nomination instrument developed by Pekarik, Prinz, Liebert, Weintraub, and Neale (PEI: 1976; see Appendix A). Studies have shown that peer nominations represent a reliable method of rating children's behaviour (Lyons, Serbin & Marchessault, 1988), and peer evaluations have been found to be good predictors of problems of adjustment in children (Rolf, 1972; Milich, Landau & Whitten, 1984). The PEI contains 35 items on the factor-analytically derived dimensions of aggression, withdrawal, and likeability. For the purposes of the Concordia Longitudinal Study, children were screened on the aggression and withdrawal dimensions only.

One of the unique aspects of the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project is that in each of the 152 classrooms visited, children rated boys and girls separately. Children were instructed to nominate up to four boys and four girls (chosen from class lists) who were best described by each item of the inventory. The number of nominations for each child was then summed separately for the aggressive and withdrawal dimensions. In order to control for the effects of differences in class size and sex in the baseline rates for aggression and withdrawal, scores were standardized.

Children were assigned to one of four behavioural classification groups based on their PEI score and the average rates of aggressive and withdrawn behaviours within their age and gender classmates. The Aggressive group (N = 198) consisted of children who were above the 95th percentile ($z = 1.95$) on the aggression dimension and below the 75th percentile ($z = 0.68$) on the withdrawal dimension. The Withdrawn group (N = 220) consisted of children who were above the 95th percentile on the withdrawal dimension and below the 75th percentile on aggression. The Aggressive-Withdrawn group (N = 238) consisted of children who were above the 75th percentile on both the aggression and withdrawal dimensions. Finally, there were over 1,100 children whose scores were between the 25th and 75th percentiles on both the aggression and withdrawal factors, and these make up the Comparison group.

This screening procedure yielded a total sample of 1,770 children (864 boys and 910 girls), which was balanced for sex and grade. The high-risk groups (children scoring high on one or both dimensions of aggression and withdrawal) included 656 children. The contrast sample included over 1,100 children. For a more complete description of the original sample and method of screening see Schwartzman et al. (1985).

Sample for the Current Study

The present study was part of a larger ongoing research project, the Adult Follow-up Project, which is focused on a sub-sample of the original sample of 1,770 subjects making up the Concordia High Risk Project. The total sample targeted for participation in the Adult Follow-up Project is 956. The sample targeted for participation includes all members of the aggressive, withdrawn, and aggressive and withdrawn groups (N = 656).

and a randomly selected 25% of the comparison sample (150 men and 150 women). So far, 750 people have been contacted for participation in this project. Out of those 750 individuals, 612 have agreed to participate and have returned the Demographic Information Questionnaire. Among those who have filled out and returned the demographic questionnaire, 490 have completed the clinical and questionnaire portions of the research. Participants in the present sample were drawn from this group of individuals.

The sample of individuals in romantic relationships was made up of 354 people. Of those, 133 were men, and 221 were women. The mean age of individuals in the couples sample was 33.5 years \pm 2.7 years. These individuals had a mean of 12.5 \pm 2.4 years of schooling, which was not significantly different from the mean number of years of schooling of the overall sample. The sub-sample of individuals with children was made up of 271 people, 91 men and 180 women. The mean age of individuals in the parent sample was 33.8 years \pm 2.7 years, and they had a mean of 12.3 \pm 2.5 years of schooling, which was also not significantly different from that of the other parents in the Adult Follow-up sample. Overall, there were 245 people who were included in both samples (i.e. individuals who had both partners and children).

Representativeness of the men and women who comprise these two sub-samples has been demonstrated through statistical analyses. Specifically, the sub-samples that are used in this study were compared to the Adult Follow-up sample on a number of variables including original aggression and withdrawal and likeability dimensions, childhood achievement scores in French and mathematics. No significant differences

were found between the men and women of these samples and the other participants in the larger study on these variables.

Measures

Demographic Information. A Demographic Information Questionnaire (DIQ: see Appendix B) was used to gather socio-demographic information on the individuals participating in the study. From this questionnaire, the parent's education level, income, as well as the number of children in the family were obtained. The DIQ was generally completed over the telephone at the point of inviting participants to complete this phase of the research project.

Presence and Severity of Violence in the Home. The measure of family violence used in this study was a modified version of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS: Strauss, 1979; see Appendix C). Two versions of this scale were used in this project. The first is a 57-item self-report measure that pertains to conflict behaviour between spouses. Areas captured included spouses' abilities to reason (e.g. "How many times have you sought out information in order to back up your point of view?"), verbal violence (e.g. "How many times have you said something to vex your spouse?"), and physical violence (e.g. "How many times have you kicked, bitten, or hit your spouse?"). The reasoning and verbal scales did not produce enough variability in responses therefore were subsequently dropped from further investigation.

The second version is a 38-item self-report questionnaire that pertains to parental behaviour when in conflict with the child. This version involves questions targeting the

same areas as the spousal version. Specifically, there are questions relating to the parent's ability to reason with the child (e.g. "How many times have you calmly discussed a problem with your child?"), parental verbal violence (e.g. "How many times have you said something to denigrate your child?"), and parental physical violence (e.g. "How many times have you hit or spanked your child?"). Again, the reasoning and verbal scales did not produce sufficient variability in responses and were therefore excluded from further examination.

These questionnaires have been repeatedly modified in order to improve reliability, validity and acceptability to research participants, and are now used extensively in research paradigms. Verifications of self-reports and of victim reports suggest that these are the best questionnaires for eliciting information on family violence (Touliatos, Perlmutter & Strauss, 1990). French versions of these measures were used in this project.

Parenting Style. The measure used to assess parenting style was the Parenting Dimensions Inventory (PDI: Power, 1993; see Appendix D), which is a 47-item self-report questionnaire. The first section of the PDI contains a series of descriptive statements that parents must rate on a six-point scales ranging from "not at all representative of me" to "very representative of me." Statements in this section target aspects of parenting such as nurturance (e.g. "I encourage my children to talk about their problems"), parental responsiveness to child input (e.g. "I encourage my children to express their opinions"), nonrestrictive parental attitude (e.g. "I allow my children to be angry at me"), and parental consistency (e.g. "Once I decide how to react to/discipline

misbehaviour, I make sure to follow through”). The questionnaire also contains a series of opposing statements for which parents must choose the statement that they agree with most for assessing the amount of control (e.g. “Today, parents put too much emphasis on child obedience” vs. “Today, parents are too likely to allow children to do whatever they want”), and six disciplinary situations (e.g. “Your child goes to play outside without having picked up his/her toys as you asked”) where parents indicate on Likert scales how likely it is that they would use different types of discipline (such as ignoring the situation, removing a privilege, spanking etc.). Finally, parents are asked to indicate the frequencies (e.g. never, sometimes, always etc.) of a series of statements that aim at assessing the amount of organization present in their homes (e.g. “During the week, we follow a regular supper schedule”).

These eight dimensions of parenting are then re-coded into three major variables: parental structure (consistency and organization), parental support (nurturance, responsiveness to child input, and nonrestrictive attitude), and parental control (amount and type of control). These three variables are used in subsequent analyses in this paper.

In a replication, the PDI was found to have acceptable reliability and internal consistency (Slater, 1987). Further, numerous researchers have found the PDI to have adequate validity. A French version of this scale was used in this project.

Parental Psychopathology. The measure used to assess for the presence of mental disorder was the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV (SCID: First, Spitzer, Gibbon & Williams, 1997). The SCID is a structured clinical interview that requests information from the participant in order to identify current or past axes I and II psychiatric diagnoses

according to the criteria of the DSM-IV for current and past mental disorders. The interviews were carried out by experienced clinicians, and the SCID has been shown to have good inter-rater reliability (Spitzer, Williams, Gibbon, & First, 1992; Williams, Gibbon, First, & Spitzer, 1992). Inter-rater reliability has also been demonstrated for the French translation which was used in the current study (Schwartzman, Moskowitz, Serbin, & Ledingham, 1990). For the current study, the participant's lifetime history of any Axis I mental disorder was used as a predictor in the regression equations. Diagnoses of depression, anxiety disorders, and substance abuse were most common among individuals in the current sample.

Procedure

Candidate participants were first contacted by telephone by a research assistant who described the proposed study, answered questions, and then asked for their participation. If they agreed to participate, the research assistant then asked them to complete a brief socio-demographic questionnaire over the telephone. An official informed consent form, which participants were asked to sign and mail back, was then mailed out. Once informed consent was granted, an interview was scheduled. The interviews generally took place in the research laboratory or in the participant's home, whichever was most convenient for the participant. At the beginning of the visit, the aims and procedure of the research were reviewed. A clinical psychologist, trained to administer the Structured Clinical Interview for the DSM-IV (SCID-IV; Non-patient version) conducted this diagnostic interview. Participants were then given a questionnaire package to be returned by mail containing among others the CTS and PDI. Participants were paid 50\$ on completion of the

interviews and upon receipt of the questionnaires for their time and willingness to participate. Participants were tested in order of age, the oldest to the youngest, with the goal of testing all participants only after they have reached the age of 30.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before conducting statistical analyses, all records were checked for accuracy and the presence of missing values. The small number of missing values was dealt with by substituting the group mean on that variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Mild positive skewness was found for the number of children variable, therefore a square root transformation was performed and effectively corrected the skewness in the variable. As expected, more severe positive skewness was found in the spousal and parental violence variables, with many people reporting little violence in the home, and relatively fewer reporting severe violence. This skewness was successfully corrected using a logarithmic transformation.

As a preliminary step, analyses were carried out to assess for the presence of multicollinearity or singularity problems (correlation values greater than .90 between 2 variables). Intercorrelations among the predictors were examined first. Since the size and the significance of the correlation depend partly on the size of the sample, the correlation matrices for the predictors are shown separately for the couples and parent samples. As can be seen from Tables 1 and 2, most correlations are in the small to moderate range ($r = .00$ to $.30$). Intercorrelations among the dependent variables were also examined. Table 3 presents these values. Again, as can be seen from Table 3, most correlations are in the small to moderate range.

Table 1

Intercorrelations between Predictor Variables in the Couples Sample

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Sex ^a	--	.12* (N = 354) ^c	-.04 (N = 354)	-.05 (N = 333)	.05 (N = 323)	.12* (N = 332)	.10 ^f (N = 328)
2. Aggression		--	-.01 (N = 354)	-.30** (N = 333)	.17** (N = 323)	.11* (N = 332)	-.03 (N = 328)
3. Withdrawal			--	-.06 (N = 333)	.03 (N = 323)	.00 (N = 332)	-.12* (N = 328)
4. Education				--	-.19** (N = 311)	-.14** (N = 332)	-.13* (N = 328)
5. Psycho- pathology					--	.05 (N = 310)	.01 (N = 306)
6. Poverty ^b						--	.31** (N = 327)
7. No. of Children							--

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor. ^c Due to missing values, N's are unequal across cells.

^f p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Table 2

Intercorrelations between Predictor Variables for Parent Sample

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Sex ^a	--	.07 (N=271) ^c	.07 (N=271)	.04 (N=251)	.07 (N=246)	.11 ^t (N=250)	.09 (N=250)	-.04 (N=250)
2. Aggression	--	--	-.12* (N=271)	-.25** (N=251)	.10 (N=246)	.17** (N=250)	.02 (N=250)	-.11 ^t (N=250)
3. Withdrawal	--	--	--	-.09 (N=251)	.03 (N=246)	.10 (N=250)	.14* (N=250)	-.05 (N=250)
4. Education	--	--	--	--	-.25** (N=233)	-.16** (N=250)	-.09 (N=250)	.01 (N=250)
5. Psycho- pathology	--	--	--	--	--	.05 (N=232)	-.08 (N=232)	-.04 (N=232)
6. Poverty ^b	--	--	--	--	--	--	.25** (N=249)	-.21** (N=249)
7. No. of Children	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.18 (N=250)
8. Marital Status	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor. 0 = not poor. ^c Due to missing values. N's are unequal across cells.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Table 3.

Intercorrelations between Dependent Variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Spousal Violence	--	.18** (N = 245) ^a	-.08 (N = 225)	-.09 (N = 225)	.16* (N = 225)
2. Parental Violence		--	-.18** (N = 225)	-.07 (N = 225)	.07 (N = 225)
3. Parental Structure			--	.25** (N = 225)	.06 (N = 225)
4. Parental Support				--	-.04 (N = 225)
5. Parental Control					--

Note. ^a Due to missing values, N's are unequal across cells.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Design

Statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS: Norussis, 1990). Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were chosen to analyze the data because they allow for the examination of the specific contribution of a given predictor, while partialling out the effects of other independent variables.

The strategy for analysis was to first carry out a regression analysis on the entire sample, and then, in order to examine the effects of the predictor variables on men and women, separate analyses were carried out for each sex. Because of our initial predictions, these separate regressions will only be addressed in the text where they differ for men and women.

As an attempt to explore the pathway through which these variables function to influence violence in the home and parenting style, the independent variables were entered in chronological order. This strategy allowed us to examine whether critical variables from the past such as parental childhood aggression and withdrawal directly predicted violence and parenting style, or whether they exerted their influence on present violent behaviour and parenting strategies through other independent variables, such as educational attainment or poverty. In a preliminary set of regressions on each outcome variable, the interaction between aggression and withdrawal was entered after childhood aggression and withdrawal. When significant in this preliminary analysis, the interaction was entered after the other variables in the final set of regressions. These results are only discussed in text where significant. Interactions with sex were also tested post-hoc in cases where variables were significant for one sex and not the other. In these cases, the

interactions were entered into the regression equations after all the other variables. These results are also discussed in text where significant.

In the analyses carried out on men and women together, the participant's sex was entered on the first step. The participant's childhood scores on the aggression and withdrawal dimensions were entered on the second step, followed by educational attainment in a third step. Finally, current stressors such as the participant's lifetime history of Axis I mental disorder, poverty status, and number of children were entered together on a last step. For the parental sample, marital status was also entered on this last step, however, this variable was left out of the analyses on the couples sample because a criterion for being included in that sample was being in a long-term and/or committed romantic relationship. In the analyses run on men and women separately, the predictors (except sex) were entered in the same order.

Results

(1) Predicting Spousal Physical Violence. The correlations between the predictors and the outcome variables were examined, and are presented in Table 4. The participant's sex (where 1 = male and 2 = female) was positively correlated with self-reported spousal violence (Beta = .12, $p < .05$), suggesting that women are more likely to report violence towards their spouse than men are. As expected, childhood aggression was positively and moderately correlated with self-reported physical violence in the context of spousal relations ($r = .20$, $p < .01$), suggesting that those who were characterized as aggressive in childhood by peers are more likely to report being violent with their spouses.

Table 4

Correlations between Predictor Variables and the Spousal Violence Measure

	Spousal Violence
1. Sex ^a	.12* (N = 354) ^c
2. Aggression	.20** (N = 354)
3. Withdrawal	-.04 (N = 354)
4. Education	-.17** (N = 333)
5. Psychopathology	.09 ^t (N = 323)
6. Poverty ^b	.07 (N = 332)
7. No. of Children	.07 (N = 328)

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor. ^c Due to missing values, N's are unequal across cells.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Self-reported spousal violence was negatively correlated with participant education ($r = -.17, p < .01$), suggesting that increased education reduces an individual's likelihood of reporting spousal violence.

Table 5 presents the results of the regression analyses that use the participant's score on the spousal violence CTS questionnaire as the dependent variable. The first regression included all men and women and yielded a multiple R that was significantly different from zero ($F = 3.71, p < .01$). All the predictors together accounted for 7 % of the total variance in spousal violence. An unanticipated main effect was found for sex (Beta = .12, $p < .05$, accounting for 1.4 % of the variance) with women reporting initiating more physical violence than men. A main effect was also found for childhood aggression (Beta = .18, $p < .01$) and it accounted for 3.2 % of the variance in spousal violence. This effect was found among men (Beta = .26, $p < .01$, accounting for 6.8 % of the variance) and women (Beta = .16, $p < .01$, accounting for 2.6 % of the variance), suggesting that the higher an individual's childhood peer-rated aggression score, the more likely that individual is to report being violent towards his/her romantic partner in adulthood. The participant's education (in years) was found to negatively predict self-reported spousal violence (Beta = -.14, $p < .01$) accounting for 1.7 % of the variance. Even though this effect was not significant when the men of the sample were analyzed separately, this was probably due to a reduced sample size, as the interaction between education and sex was non-significant. The negative direction of the relationship between education and reported spousal violence suggests that increased education reduces an individual's likelihood of reporting physical violence towards his/her spouse.

Table 5

Results of the Regression Equations Predicting Spousal Violence

Variables	<u>Men & Women</u> N = 354			<u>Men Only</u> N = 133			<u>Women Only</u> N = 221		
	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF
<u>Step 1</u> Sex ^a	.12*								
		.02	5.48*						
<u>Step 2</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal	.10* .18** -.03			.26** .03			.16** -.06		
		.03	6.39**		.07	4.61**		.03	3.12*
<u>Step 3</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal Education	.11* .14** -.04 -.14**			.23** .03 -.09			.11 ^t -.07 -.16*		
		.02	6.34**		.01	.90		.02	5.47*
<u>Step 4</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal Education Psychopathology Poverty ^b No. of Children	.10* .14** -.04 -.12* .04 .01 .04			.22* .03 -.07 .11 .04 .01			.11 ^t -.07 -.15* .01 .00 .06		
		.00	.41		.01	.60		.00	.25
		R = .27			R = .36			R = .24	
		R ² = .07			R ² = .13			R ² = .06	
		F = 3.71**			F = 2.61 [*]			F = 1.84 ^t	

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor.

^t p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01

In addition to the effect of childhood aggression, a trend was also found for the interaction between aggression and withdrawal ($Beta = .97, p < .10$). Individuals who were high on childhood aggression and also high on withdrawal were more likely to report violent behaviour towards their spouses than were other individuals. Participants who were high on aggression but low on withdrawal reported similar levels of spousal violence as did those who were low on aggression and also low on withdrawal. Those who were low on aggression and high on withdrawal reported the lowest rates of spousal violence. These results are presented in Figure 1.

(2) Predicting Parental Physical Violence. Table 6 presents the correlations between the predictors and the measure of parental physical violence. Sex ($r = .20, p < .01$; where 1 = male and 2 = female) and number of children ($r = .16, p < .05$) were both positively correlated with self-reported parental physical violence.

The results of the regression analyses predicting parents' self-reported physical violence towards their children are presented in Table 7. In the first regression, which included all mothers and fathers, the multiple R was significantly different from zero ($F = 2.34, p < .05$) and all the predictors together accounted for 7 % of the total variance in reported parental violence towards their children. A main effect of sex was found ($Beta = .20, p < .01$), which accounted for 4.0 % of the variance in parental violence. Again, women reported initiating more violent acts towards their children than men. Though no main effect was found for childhood aggression when men and women were analyzed together, a marginally significant interaction was found between sex and childhood aggression ($Beta = .11, p < .10$). This interaction suggests that childhood aggression has

Figure 1. Levels of Spousal Violence as a Function of Childhood Risk Status

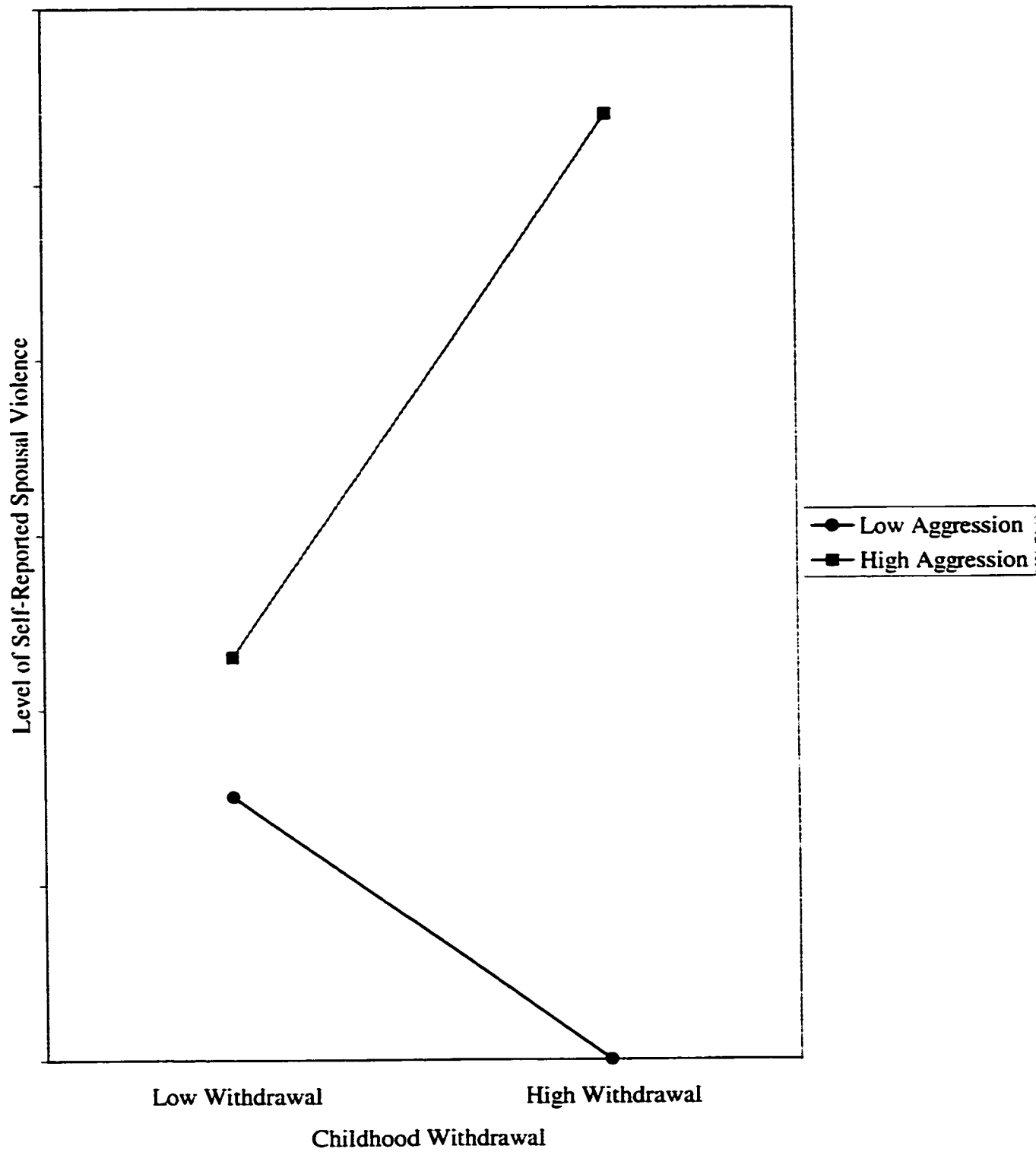


Table 6

Correlations between Predictor Variables and the Parental Violence and ParentingVariables

	Violence	Structure	Support	Control
1. Sex ^a	.20** (N = 271) ^c	-.03 (N = 248)	.19** (N = 251)	.30** (N = 251)
2. Aggression	.05 (N = 271)	-.13* (N = 248)	-.06 (N = 251)	.08 (N = 251)
3. Withdrawal	-.03 (N = 271)	.02 (N = 248)	-.08 (N = 251)	.02 (N = 251)
4. Education	.04 (N = 251)	.17** (N = 229)	.35** (N = 231)	.00 (N = 231)
5. Psychopathology	.03 (N = 246)	-.10 (N = 223)	-.09 (N = 226)	-.02 (N = 226)
6. Poverty ^b	.02 (N = 250)	.04 (N = 228)	-.12 ^t (N = 230)	.08 (N = 230)
7. No. of Children	.16* (N = 250)	-.03 (N = 228)	-.09 (N = 230)	.13 ^t (N = 230)
8. Marital Status	.01 (N = 250)	.01 (N = 228)	-.07 (N = 230)	.01 (N = 230)

Note. ^a 1 = male. 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor. 0 = not poor. ^c Due to missing values. N's are unequal across cells.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Table 7

Results of the Regression Equations Predicting Parental Violence

Variables	<u>Men & Women</u> N = 271			<u>Men Only</u> N = 91			<u>Women Only</u> N = 180		
	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF
<u>Step 1</u> Sex ^a	.20**	.04	10.74**						
<u>Step 2</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal	.20** .03 -.04	.00	.39	-.17 ^t -.04	.03	1.34	.13 ^t -.04	.02	1.80
<u>Step 3</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal Education	.19** .04 -.03 .03	.00	.29	-.15 -.04 .05	.00	.23	.13 ^t -.04 .02	.00	.05
<u>Step 4</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal Education Psychopathology Poverty ^b No. of Children Marital Status	.18** .04 -.05 .05 .04 -.04 .17** -.02	.02	1.72	-.15 -.08 .04 .12 -.02 .29** .00	.09	2.07 ^t	.14 ^t -.04 .01 -.01 -.09 .08 -.04	.01	.41
		R = .26 R ² = .07 F = 2.34*			R = .35 R ² = .12 F = 1.61			R = .17 R ² = .03 F = .75	

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

different effects on each sex that ultimately cancelled each other out when the sexes were examined together in the same regression. Specifically, in the regression that examined only fathers, the effect of childhood aggression, was marginally significant (Beta = $-.17$, $p < .10$) and accounted for 2.9 % of the variance in fathers' self-reports of violence. Interestingly, this relationship is in the negative direction, suggesting that the higher a father's childhood score on aggression, the less likely he is to report physical violence with his children. Possible reasons for this effect will be elaborated on in the next section of this paper. Conversely, when mothers were examined, a positive trend was found for childhood aggression (Beta = $.13$, $p < .10$, accounting for 1.8 % of the variance in mothers' self-reports of violence). This trend suggests that the higher a mother's childhood score on aggression, the more likely she is to be violent towards her children. Number of children also significantly predicted parental violence towards the child, (Beta = $.17$, $p < .01$) accounting for 2.5 % of the variance, although it seemed that this effect was only present among fathers (Beta = $.29$, $p < .05$, accounting for 7.7 % of the variance). This finding was confirmed by a significant interaction between sex and number of children (Beta = $-.13$, $p < .05$), and suggests that the more children a man has, the more likely he is to report using physical violence towards them. The effect of sex remained significant even after all the variables were entered into the equation.

In addition to the effects of childhood aggression, a marginally significant interaction was found between aggression and withdrawal in the prediction of self-reported parental physical violence towards children (Beta = $.12$, $p < .01$). This finding seems to suggest that individuals who are high on aggression and also high on withdrawal

are more likely to report violent behaviour towards their children compared to the other groups. These results are shown graphically in Figure 2.

(3) Predicting Parental Structure. Correlations between the predictor variables and the parents' self-reports of structure in the home are shown in Table 6. Parental childhood aggression was negatively correlated with a parental reports of a structured home environment ($r = -.13, p < .05$), while parental education was positively correlated with structure ($r = .17, p < .01$).

Table 8 presents the results of the regression analyses using parental structure as the dependent variable. The regression that included all of the parents in the sample did not yield a multiple R that was significantly different from zero ($F = 1.54, p > .05$). Nevertheless, a significant main effect was found for childhood aggression (Beta = $-.12, p < .05$) accounting for 1.5 % of the variance in parental structure. This finding suggests that the higher a participant's childhood aggression score, the less likely he/she is to provide a structured environment characterized by consistency and organization for his/her children. However, this effect was not observed in either sex when analyzed separately. This is likely due to reduced sample size. A significant main effect was also found for parental education (Beta = $.15, p < .05$) accounting for 2.0 % of the variance. This result suggests that the more educated an individual is, the more likely he/she is to report providing a consistent and organized environment for his/her children. Though this effect was not observed when fathers were analyzed separately, we might assume that this too is due to reduced sample size, as no interaction between sex and years of education was found. The positive effect of education remained significant even after all

Figure 2. Levels of Parental Violence as a Function of Childhood Risk Status

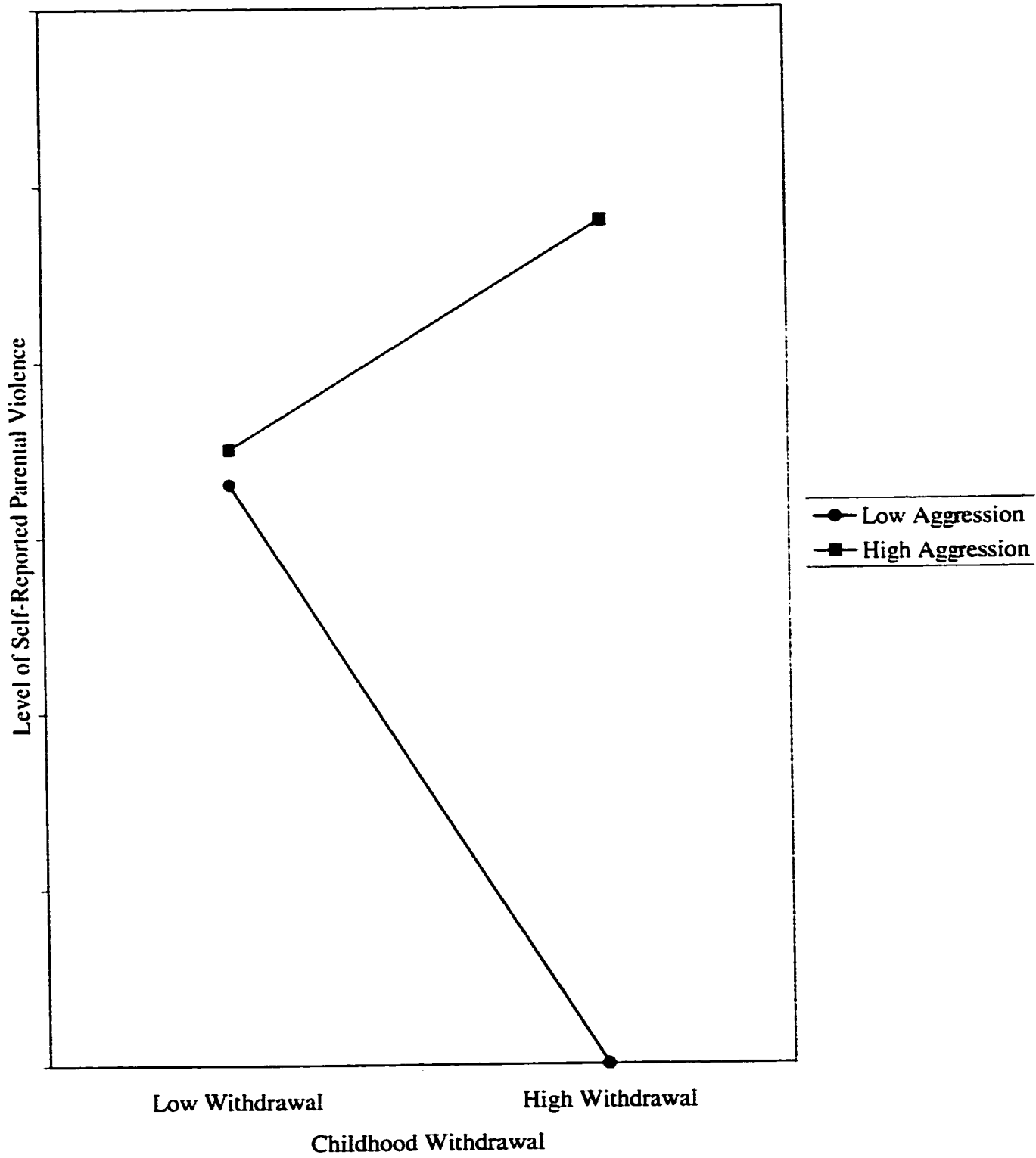


Table 8

Results of the Regression Equations Predicting Parental Structure

Variables	<u>Men & Women</u> N = 271			<u>Men Only</u> N = 91			<u>Women Only</u> N = 180		
	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF
<u>Step 1</u>									
Sex ^a	-.03	.00	.21						
<u>Step 2</u>									
Sex	-.02								
Aggression	-.12*			-.17			-.10		
Withdrawal	.00			-.02			.01		
		.02	2.06		.03	1.31		.01	.97
<u>Step 3</u>									
Sex	-.03								
Aggression	-.08			-.15			-.06		
Withdrawal	.02			-.01			.03		
Education	.15*			.07			.17*		
		.02	5.36*		.00	.39		.03	5.04*
<u>Step 4</u>									
Sex	-.03								
Aggression	-.09			-.13			-.08		
Withdrawal	.02			-.01			.03		
Education	.14*			.05			.20*		
Psychopathology	-.06			-.12			-.02		
Poverty ^b	.09			.00			.13		
No. of Children	-.04			-.04			-.02		
Marital Status	.02			.09			.00		
		.01	.66		.02	.48		.02	.73
		R = .21			R = .24			R = .23	
		R ² = .05			R ² = .06			R ² = .05	
		F = 1.54			F = .69			F = 1.41	

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor.

^c p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

the variables were entered into the equation, however the effect of childhood aggression was no longer statistically significant, suggesting that childhood aggression is at least partly working through parental education.

(4) Predicting Parental Emotional Support of Child. Table 6 shows the correlations between the predictor variables and the parental support variable. Sex was positively related to parental support of child ($r = .19, p < .01$), as was parental education ($r = .35, p < .01$). Poverty was marginally negatively correlated with parental emotional support ($r = .12, p < .10$). These correlations suggest that mothers and more educated and affluent parents are more likely to provide a supportive environment for their children.

The results of the regression analyses predicting parental emotional support of child are presented in Table 9. As can be seen in the Table, the regression which included all parents yielded a multiple R which was significantly different from zero ($F = 5.70, p < .01$). A main effect for sex was found ($Beta = .18, p < .01$), which accounted for 3.1 % of the variance in parental support of child. According to their self-reports, mothers seem to be more nurturing and responsive to children than are fathers. While no effect was found for childhood aggression, childhood withdrawal was marginally significant ($Beta = -.10, p < .10$) and accounted for 1.0 % of the variance in parental support. This suggests that the higher an individual's childhood withdrawal score, the less likely he/she is to report providing a nurturing and supportive environment for his/her children. Perhaps those who were identified in childhood as having a withdrawn interaction style grew up to have difficulty demonstrating warmth and affection to others, including their children. Parental years of education were found to significantly predict parental support

Table 9

Results of the Regression Equations Predicting Parental Support

Variables	<u>Men & Women</u> N = 271			<u>Men Only</u> N = 91			<u>Women Only</u> N = 180		
	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF
<u>Step 1</u> Sex ^a	.18**	.03	8.69**						
<u>Step 2</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal	.19** -.08 -.10 ^t	.01	2.04	-.15 -.05	.02	1.04	-.05 -.13 ^t	.02	1.56
<u>Step 3</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal Education	.17** .00 -.06 .31**	.09	27.53**	-.06 -.02 .28**	.07	6.53*	.03 -.08 .34**	.11	21.52**
<u>Step 4</u> Sex Aggression Withdrawal Education Psychopathology Poverty ^b No. of Children Marital Status	.18** .01 -.06 .29** -.02 -.03 -.03 -.07	.01	1.00	-.03 .04 .34** .01 -.33** .06 -.11	.11	2.71*	.03 -.08 .32** -.04 .03 -.09 -.01	.01	.52
		R = .39 R ² = .15 F = 5.70**			R = .44 R ² = .20 F = 2.90**			R = .37 R ² = .13 F = 3.83**	

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

(Beta = .31, $p < .01$) accounting for a full 9.4 % of the variance. This seems to indicate that the more educated a parent is, the more likely he/she is to report nurturing and supporting his/her children. In the analysis of all the participants, the effects of sex and education remained significant even after these variables were entered into the equation.

Participant's sex was found to interact with poverty (Beta = .14, $p < .05$) such that poverty also emerged as a significant predictor of fathers' emotional support of children (Beta = -.33, $p < .01$) accounting for 12.7 % of the variance. This effect suggests that the poorer a family is, the less likely the father is to report being nurturing and supportive towards his children. Poverty had no effect on mothers' self-reports of providing emotional support to their children.

(5) Predicting Parental Control. As we can see from Table 6, sex of the parent was positively correlated with reported parental control ($r = .30$, $p < .01$), suggesting that mothers tend to report exercising more control over children than fathers do. Number of children was also positively correlated with parental self-reports of control ($r = .13$, $p < .05$), suggesting that parents with more children report exercising more control than do those with fewer children.

Table 10 presents the results of the regression analysis parental control as the dependent variable. In the regression which included all parents, the multiple R was significantly different from zero ($F = 3.36$, $p < .01$). Only the parent's sex emerged as a significant predictor of parental control (Beta = .28, $p > .01$) which accounted for 8.0 % of the variance. According to this finding, women seem to be reporting exercising more

Table 10

Results of the Regression Equations Predicting Parental Control

Variables	<u>Men & Women</u> N = 271			<u>Men Only</u> N = 91			<u>Women Only</u> N = 180		
	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF	Beta	ΔR^2	ΔF
<u>Step 1</u>									
Sex ^a	.28**								
		.08	23.34**						
<u>Step 2</u>									
Sex	.28**								
Aggression	.06			-.12			.13 ^t		
Withdrawal	.00			.09			-.03		
		.00	.43		.02	1.11		.02	1.62
<u>Step 3</u>									
Sex	.28**								
Aggression	.05			-.12			.12 ^t		
Withdrawal	.00			.09			-.03		
Education	.00			-.01			.00		
		.00	.01		.00	.00		.00	.00
<u>Step 4</u>									
Sex	.27**								
Aggression	.05			-.11			.12 ^t		
Withdrawal	.00			.08			-.04		
Education	.00			-.03			.01		
Psychopathology	-.04			-.07			-.04		
Poverty ^b	.01			.04			-.01		
No. of Children	.08			-.01			.12		
Marital Status	.00			.10			-.04		
		.01	.74		.02	.33		.01	.65
		R = .31			R = .20			R = .18	
		R ² = .09			R ² = .04			R ² = .03	
		F = 3.36**			F = .49			F = .83	

Note. ^a 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b 1 = poor, 0 = not poor.

^t p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01

control over children than men. This effect remained even after all the other variables were entered into the equation.

A marginally significant interaction between sex and aggression was found among participants in this sample (Beta = .11, $p < .10$). When the mothers in the sample were analyzed separately, a trend was found for childhood aggression (Beta = .13, $p < .10$) accounting for 1.7 % of the variance in maternal control, whereas no effect of childhood aggression was found among fathers. According to this finding, it seems that the higher the mother's childhood score on the aggression dimension, the more likely she is to provide an environment characterized by parental control.

Summary of Findings

Childhood aggression was found to be an important predictor of self-reported spousal and parental violence in adulthood, even when controlling for factors such as education, lifetime presence of an Axis-I mental illness, and poverty. This suggests that children who are aggressive with peers are more likely to report physical violence in their family lives as adults. Women reported initiating violence towards their partners more frequently than men. However, it is not clear if this reflects a reporting bias or a true gender difference in initiation of violent acts. Increased education lowered participants' likelihoods of reporting initiating violent acts towards their spouses, and increased parents' chances of reporting providing an environment for their children characterized by consistency, organization, and emotional support. Number of children predicted fathers' self-reported violence towards their children, such that the more children a man had, the more likely he was to report being violent with them. Finally, poverty negatively

predicted the emotional support that fathers provided for their children, such that poor fathers were less likely to report providing a supportive home for their children than fathers who were not poor.

Discussion

Our first two research questions were: “Within a high-risk sample, to what extent can we use participants’ past histories of aggression and withdrawal to predict spousal and parental violence and parenting style?” and “Can we make the same predictions for both men and women?” In response to this first line of inquiry, as expected, the results of these analyses suggest that among men and women in a high-risk sample, childhood aggression as rated by peers is an important predictor of later self-reported physical violence directed towards spouse and children, suggesting that the higher an individual’s childhood aggression score, the more likely that person is to report physical violence with his/her family in adulthood. Anomalously, the relationship between childhood aggression and fathers’ self-reports of violence towards their children was in the negative direction suggesting that fathers who were rated by their peers as very aggressive in childhood are less likely to report physical violence with their children. One possible explanation for this finding is that, given that it has been previously shown that aggressive men are less likely to be married, they are also less likely to be living with their children. Thus, the negative relationship between childhood aggression and violence with children could be a result of aggressive fathers having fewer opportunities to be violent with their children due to living apart. Aggressive women have also been shown to have higher chances of being single parents; however, single mothers are more likely to live with their children than single fathers. Therefore, mothers with childhood histories of aggression would have frequent opportunities to be violent with their children, and as predicted, this study shows that mothers with childhood histories of aggression are indeed more likely to report

physical violence with their children. Taken together, these findings suggest that an aggressive behavioural style is rather stable over the life course in women as well as men, within the context of family interactions.

With respect to spousal violence, though the main effect for aggression remained, it was shown that individuals who were high on aggression and also high on withdrawal reported increased violent behaviour directed towards their spouse. A similar pattern was found with respect to violence towards children. Individuals who were high on aggression but low on withdrawal did not seem to report more violence towards their children than low aggression - low withdrawal parents. However, parents who were high on both the aggression and withdrawal dimensions reported significantly more violence towards their children, while those characterized as being low on aggression but highly withdrawn reported initiating almost no violent acts. These findings are consistent with other research done within the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project that has suggested that aggressive and withdrawn individuals may be at highest risk for adverse life outcomes.

In general, the women in our sample reported using physical violence towards their spouses and children as a means of conflict resolution more often than men. However, it is unclear from this data if this represents a reporting bias or a true difference in initiated violence. That is, perhaps women feel more comfortable admitting to violent behaviour towards their spouses and children than men do. With regard to parenting style, mothers also reported exerting more control over children than fathers and also endorsed more items related to nurturance and emotional support of children.

Our final research question was “What are the developmental and current life variables that favor/hinder the development and practice of violence in the home and positive parenting strategies?” Congruent with our hypotheses, education emerged as a powerful protective factor. For example, increased education lowered an individual’s likelihood of reporting initiating violent acts towards his/her spouse, and increased the likelihood of reporting providing an environment characterized by consistency, organization and emotional support for his/her children. However, it is unclear from these data whether this represents a true difference or a reporting bias. That is, it is possible that parents with increased education may know better than parents with less education what they “should” be doing in terms of providing structured and supportive environments for their children, and therefore simply answered those questions positively to create a positive impression.

Evidence for the negative effect of current stressors on fathers’ parenting was found. Number of children positively predicted fathers’ self-reported violence towards their children, such that the more children a man had, the more likely he was to report being violent with them. Further, poverty negatively predicted fathers’ reports of emotional support of children, such that poor fathers were less likely to report nurturing and being responsive to children’s needs than fathers who were not poor. This finding could be partly due to the fact that poorer fathers are more likely to have two jobs in order to support their families and therefore might not be very present in their homes. No negative effects of these current life stressors on mothers’ parenting practices were found.

In terms of family violence, the results of this study demonstrate the stability of an aggressive behavioural style, in that those who exhibited aggressive tendencies with

peers in childhood were more likely to report using violence as a means of conflict resolution with family members as adults. However, in terms of the parenting variables, the psycho-social and current life variables such as education and poverty status were more powerful predictors of outcomes than the childhood variables, suggesting that factors other than a stable interactional style might be at play in the development of adaptive parenting practices. With respect to parenting style, particularly parental structure, it is likely that childhood aggression might have an indirect effect through the parental education variable. That is, childhood aggression has been previously shown to negatively predict educational attainment, and years of education have been shown to positively predict parental reports of providing a structured environment for children. Therefore, childhood aggression might have an indirect effect on parental structure by influencing the amount of education parents obtain.

Limitations of the Present Study

The major limitation of this study is the method of data collection. All of the outcome variables were gathered through self-report questionnaires. Therefore, the predicted variables are subject to the respondents' personal biases, and may be more in line with what they think that they should be doing or reporting, and not what actually goes on in their homes. However, due to the sensitive nature of the information requested, the self-report questionnaire method might increase the degree of candidness of the research participants. That is, it is likely that some respondents might have felt more comfortable answering honestly in a semi-anonymous fashion, as in a questionnaire, than in an interview setting. Future research in this area should consider

using multiple informants and multiple methods of data collection (such as observations of interactions to assess parenting style) in order to address this issue.

Directions for Future Research

Though a considerable amount of research has focused on the stability and consequences of aggressive behaviour, for the most part, studies have focused on issues such as criminality among men. Relatively few studies have focused on females, but based on available data, it seems that aggression in girls leads to fewer negative consequences when considering outcomes such as juvenile delinquency, or antisocial personality disorders (Moskowitz, Schwartzman, & Ledingham, 1985; Huesmann et al, 1984). However, the present study demonstrates that while it may be true that aggressive women tend to commit fewer violent crimes, the stability of their aggressive behavioural style may be more apparent in the context of their close personal relationships. According to the results of this project, it seems that girls characterized by peers in childhood as aggressive relative to other girls grow up to be more likely to report a violent behavioural style with their spouses and children. Therefore, a variety of outcomes other than delinquency and antisocial behaviour must be considered when examining the stability of aggressive behaviour in women. Future research should consider including measures of domestic and relational violence when studying and reporting behavioural outcomes of childhood aggression.

Further research should also focus on developing much needed interventions aimed at aggressive girls. According to the results of this study, increased education had a positive effect, in terms of lowering a woman's chances of having a violent behavioural

style with her spouse and children, and increasing her chances of displaying positive parenting behaviour. Therefore, future research efforts should also aim at developing effective ways of encouraging young drop-out girls to return to school and perhaps delay childbearing.

Concluding Comments

Aggressive behaviour in childhood emerged as an important predictor of future self-reported violent behaviour towards one's spouse and children in both sexes even when controlling for factors such as education, lifetime presence of an Axis-I mental illness, poverty, and number of children. This suggests that an aggressive behavioural style is stable over the life course in women as well as men, within the specific context of family relations. Further, more educated individuals were less likely to report using violence as a means of dealing with conflict situations in their families, and were more likely to report providing structured, supportive homes their children.

These findings highlight the need for interventions aimed at targeting aggressive behaviour in young girls as well as young boys. The findings also strongly support the inclusion of domestic violence, in addition to more public violent offending, in studying and reporting the behavioral outcomes of childhood aggression.

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Appendix A
The Pupil Evaluation Inventory

Aggression items

3. Those who can't sit still.
4. Those who try to get other people into trouble
7. Those who act stuck-up and think they are better than everyone else.
8. Those who play the clown and get others to laugh.
9. Those who start a fight over nothing.
12. Those who tell other children what to do.
15. Those who always mess around and get into trouble.
16. Those who make fun of people.
18. Those who do strange things.
20. Those who bother people when they're trying to work.
21. Those who get mad when they don't get their way.
22. Those who don't pay attention to the teacher.
23. Those who are rude to the teacher.
26. Those who act like a baby.
27. Those who are mean and cruel to other children.
29. Those who give dirty looks.
30. Those who want to show off in front of the class.
31. Those who say they can beat everybody up.
33. Those who exaggerate and make up stories.
34. Those who complain nothing seems to make them happy.

Withdrawal items

- 5. Those who are too shy to make friends easily.
- 6. Those whose feelings are too easily hurt. (Not used)
- 10. Those who never seem to be having a good time.
- 11. Those who are upset when called on to answer questions in class. (Not used)
- 13. Those who are usually chosen last to join in group activities.
- 17. Those who have very few friends.
- 24. Those who are unhappy or sad.
- 28. Those who often don't want to play.
- 32. Those who aren't noticed much.

Likeability Items

- 2. Those who help others.
- 14. Those who are liked by everyone.
- 19. Those who are your best friends.
- 25. Those who are especially nice.
- 35. Those who always seem to understand things.

Appendix B
Consent Form

No d'identification: _____

**L'INDIVIDU DANS SON MILIEU
CENTRE DE RECHERCHE EN DÉVELOPPEMENT HUMAIN
DÉPARTEMENT DE PSYCHOLOGIE, UNIVERSITÉ CONCORDIA
CHERCHEURS PRINCIPAUX: Sheilagh Hodgins et Alex E. Schwartzman**

FORMULAIRE DE CONSENTEMENT

SCID-IV // 2000

Par la présente, j'accepte de participer à la recherche effectuée dans le cadre du projet «L'individu dans son milieu». Ma participation implique une rencontre, d'une durée totale d'environ deux heures et demie, où seront abordés différents aspects de ma vie. Je remplirai par la suite une série de questionnaires (environ deux heures et demie) que je retournerai dans une enveloppe pré-adressée et pré-affranchie. On me fera parvenir la somme de 50.00 \$ pour ma participation et ce, sur réception des questionnaires dûment remplis.

L'intervieweur(e) m'a expliqué les buts de la présente recherche et a répondu à toutes mes questions.

J'ai également été informé(e) que toute information me concernant sera gardée strictement confidentielle. Seul un numéro de code identifiera mon dossier, qui sera tenu sous clé dans une pièce où seuls les chercheurs et leurs assistant(e)s ont accès.

Enfin, je comprends que ma participation à cette étude est entièrement volontaire et que je peux y mettre fin à n'importe quel moment au cours de l'étude.

Comme le projet «L'individu dans son milieu» est un projet à long terme, je comprends que je pourrai être appelé(e) dans l'avenir pour participer à d'autres étapes de ce projet. Je me réserve le droit de décider, à ce moment-là, de donner suite ou non à la demande de participation.

Nom en LETTRES MOULÉES

Signature

Date

Signature de l'intervieweur(e)

Appendix C

Demographic Information Questionnaire (DIQ)

Date: _____

L'INDIVIDU DANS SON MILIEU

Renseignements sociodémographiques

Tous ces renseignements sont traités de façon totalement confidentielle

1. Sexe M F
2. Âge _____ ans Date de naissance _____ AN MO JR
3. **État civil**

Note: "Conjoints de fait": désigne deux personnes qui vivent ensemble comme si elles étaient mariées. Il s'agit de ton état actuel: même si tu es légalement divorcé(e) ou autre, mais que tu vis avec un(e) conjoint(e) présentement. inscris conjoint de fait.

<input type="checkbox"/> Célibataire	<input type="checkbox"/> Conjoint	Depuis quelle date?
<input type="checkbox"/> Marié(e)	<input type="checkbox"/> Séparé(e)	AN MO JR
<input type="checkbox"/> Divorcé(e)	<input type="checkbox"/> Veuf/veuve	_____

4. **Nombre d'enfants** _____
- Si enceinte (ou conjointe enceinte), bébé attendu pour: _____ AN MO
- Sinon, prévoyez-vous avoir un enfant dans les prochains 12 mois? OUI _____
NON _____
- dans les prochains 24 mois? OUI _____
NON _____

Pour chaque enfant:

- Inscrire le nom, le sexe, la date de naissance
- Encercler "TE" si c'est ton enfant (tu es le parent biologique)
"EC" si l'enfant du conjoint (le conjoint actuel est le parent biologique)
"EA" si c'est un enfant adopté / "FA" en foyer d'accueil et qui vit chez toi
Si "TE" et "EC" sont vrais, encercler les deux.
- Indiquer si l'enfant vit avec toi. OUI ou NON ou GP (garde partagée)
- Inscrire l'année scolaire (si applicable) ainsi que si l'enfant fréquente une classe ou une école spéciale.
(Si tu as plus de quatre enfants, inscrire leurs informations sur une feuille séparée.)

1 NOM SEXE AN MO JR
_____ M F _____

L'enfant est: TE EC EA / FA Vit avec toi: OUI NON GP

Année scolaire: _____ Classe spéciale: _____

2 NOM SEXE AN MO JR
_____ M F _____

L'enfant est: TE EC EA / FA Vit avec toi: OUI NON GP

Année scolaire: _____ Classe spéciale: _____

3 NOM SEXE AN MO JR
_____ M F _____

L'enfant est: TE EC EA / FA Vit avec toi: OUI NON GP

Année scolaire: _____ Classe spéciale: _____

4 NOM SEXE AN MO JR
_____ M F _____

L'enfant est: TE EC EA / FA Vit avec toi: OUI NON GP

Année scolaire: _____ Classe spéciale: _____

5. **Ta scolarité complétée** (dernière année terminée):

En quoi? (spécialisation/général): _____

Éudies-tu présentement? OUI : Temps plein partiel NON

Si oui, quel diplôme postules-tu _____ pour quand? ___/___/___/

6. **As-tu un emploi** (rappel: renseignements gardés confidentiels)?

OUI
Occupation: _____

Tes tâches: _____

NON
As-tu déjà eu un emploi?
Oui Non
↓
En quoi?

Combien d'heures/sem.? _____

Pendant combien de temps?

____ an(s) ____ mois

Salaire de l'heure _____ \$

Quand as-tu arrêté de travailler:

date: ____/____/
AN MO

Au cours des 12 derniers mois, as-tu bénéficié de:

Oui Non l'Assurance chômage?

Oui Non Prestations d'aide sociale?

Oui Non la CSST? (préciser: _____)

7. Informations sur le conjoint (renseignements gardés confidentiels):

a) Son nom: _____

Date de naissance AN MO JR

Son occupation: _____

Ses tâches: _____

Son salaire: _____ \$/ heure

Nombre d'heures _____ / semaine

AN MO

Il/Elle travaille là depuis: date _____

b) Au cours des 12 derniers mois, a-t-il/elle bénéficié de:

Oui Non l'Assurance chômage?

Oui Non Prestations d'aide sociale?

Oui Non la CSST? (préciser: _____)

c) Sa scolarité complétée (dernière année terminée):

En quoi? (spécialisation/général): _____

Étudie-t-il (elle) présentement? OUI : Temps plein partiel NON

Si oui, diplôme postulé? _____ pour quand? (date) ____/____/

8. Informations sur le père\la mère de tes enfants (si n'habite pas avec toi)

a) Son nom: _____

Date de naissance AN MO JR

Son occupation: _____

Ses tâches: _____

Son salaire: _____ \$/ heure

Nombre d'heures _____ / semaine

AN MO

Il/Elle travaille là depuis: date _____

- b) Au cours des 12 derniers mois, a-t-il/elle bénéficié de:
- Oui Non l'Assurance chômage?
- Oui Non Prestations d'aide sociale?
- Oui Non la CSST? (préciser: _____)

- c) Sa scolarité complétée (dernière année terminée):

En quoi? (spécialisation/général): _____

Étudie-t-il (elle) présentement? OUI : Temps plein partiel NON

Si oui, diplôme postulé? _____ pour quand? (date) ____/____/

9. **Disponibilité pour l'entrevue: un bloc de 2-3 heures**

Le matin

L'après-midi

Le soir

La fin de semaine

10. **Je préfère aller à** _____ Guy et Maisonneuve (centre-ville)
 _____ 7141 Sherbrooke ouest (N.D.G.)

S.V.P. Vérifier l'adresse et les numéros de téléphone.

_____	_____	_____
No	Rue	app.
_____	_____	_____
Ville	_____	Code postal
Téléphones:	Personnel:	(____) _____ - _____
	Travail:	(____) _____ - _____
	Parents:	(____) _____ - _____
Autre _____:		(____) _____ - _____

Ton numéro de téléphone est à quel nom dans l'annuaire téléphonique: Nom complet et lien avec toi:

Adresse électronique: _____

Adresse des parents: _____

Appendix D

Conflict Tactics Scale - Spousal Version

Questionnaire sur les conflits conjugaux

Même lorsqu'il règne un bon degré d'entente dans un couple, il y a inévitablement des moments où les partenaires sont en désaccord, contrariés ou ont des «prises de bec», des querelles parce qu'ils sont de mauvaise humeur, fatigués ou pour toute autre raison. Les personnes réagissent généralement de différentes façons lorsqu'ils font face à des chicanes de couple. Les questions qui suivent décrivent certaines choses que vous et votre partenaire avez pu faire lorsque vous avez vécu de telles situations de mésententes. Pour chaque item, encerclez le nombre de fois que vous avez réagi de la façon décrite au cours des 12 derniers mois.

- Pour les questions no 1) et 2) portant sur les 12 derniers mois, utilisez les valeurs suivantes:

1 = une fois	2 = deux fois	3 = 3 à 5 fois	4 = 6 à 10 fois	5 = 11 à 20 fois	6 = plus de 20 fois	0 = jamais
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- Pour les questions no 3), portant sur toute la durée de votre relation conjugale, répondez par OUI ou par NON

A. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous discuté calmement d'un sujet de 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
mésentente avec votre conjoint(e) ?

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) discuté 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
calmement d'un sujet avec de mésentente avec vous ?

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il OUI NON
déjà arrivé auparavant ?

B. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous été chercher de l'information pour 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
appuyer votre façon de voir les choses ?

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) été chercher de 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
l'information pour appuyer sa façon de voir les choses ?

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il OUI NON
déjà arrivé auparavant ?

C. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous demandé ou tenté d'obtenir 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
l'assistance de quelqu'un pour vous aider à régler les choses ?

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) demandé ou 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
tenté d'obtenir l'assistance de quelqu'un pour régler les choses ?

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il OUI NON
déjà arrivé auparavant ?

1 = une fois	2 = deux fois	3 = 3 à 5 fois	4 = 6 à 10 fois	5 = 11 à 20 fois	6 = plus de 20 fois	0 = jamais
--------------	---------------	----------------	-----------------	------------------	---------------------	------------

D. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous insulté ou injurié votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

1 2 3 4 5 6 0

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) insulté ou injurié ? OUI NON

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ?

E. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous boudé ou refusé de parler d'un sujet avec votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) boudé ou refusé de parler d'un sujet avec vous ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON

F. 1) Combien de fois êtes-vous sorti(e) de la pièce, de la maison ou d'un lieu dans un accès de colère ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) est-il(elle) sorti(e) de la pièce, de la maison ou d'un lieu dans un accès de colère ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON

G. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous pleuré(e) suite à un différend ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) pleuré(e) suite à une différend ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

OUI NON

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ?

I. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous fait ou dit quelque chose pour vexer votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) fait ou dit quelque chose pour vous vexer ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0

3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON

1 = une fois	2 = deux fois	3 = 3 à 5 fois	4 = 6 à 10 fois	5 = 11 à 20 fois	6 = plus de 20 fois	0 = jamais
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- I. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous menacé votre conjoint(e) de le(la) frapper ou de lui lancer quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) a menacé de vous frapper ou de vous lancer quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- J. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous lancé, brisé, frappé ou donné un coup de pied à quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) lancé, brisé, frappé ou donné un coup de pied à quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- K. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous lancé quelque chose à votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) lancé quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- L. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous poussé, agrippé ou bousculé votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) poussé, agrippé ou bousculé ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- M. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous giflé votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) giflé ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON

1 = une fois	2 = deux fois	3 = 3 à 5 fois	4 = 6 à 10 fois	5 = 11 à 20 fois	6 = plus de 20 fois	0 = jamais
--------------	---------------	----------------	-----------------	------------------	---------------------	------------

- N. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous donné un coup de pied, mordu ou frappé du poing votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) donné un coup de pied, mordu ou frappé du poing ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- O. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous frappé ou tenté de frapper votre conjoint(e) avec quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) frappé ou tenté de vous frapper avec quelque chose ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- P. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous battu votre conjoint(e) ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) battu ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- Q. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous serré votre conjoint(e) à la gorge ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) serré à la gorge ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- R. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous menacé votre conjoint(e) avec un couteau ou une arme à feu ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) vous a-t-il(elle) menacé avec un couteau ou une arme à feu ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON
- S. 1) Combien de fois avez-vous utilisé un couteau ou fait feu avec une arme ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 2) Combien de fois votre conjoint(e) a-t-il(elle) utilisé un couteau ou fait feu avec une arme ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 0
- 3) Si vous avez répondu «jamais» à la question 1 et 2, cela est-il déjà arrivé auparavant ? OUI NON

Appendix E

Conflict Tactics Scale - Parental Version

No d'identification _____

CTS - Parent-enfant

Les parents réagissent de différentes façons lorsque confrontés à des problèmes ou des différends avec leurs enfants. Les questions qui suivent décrivent les réactions (aussi extrêmes soient-elles) que vous avez pu avoir lorsque vous avez eu un problème avec votre enfant _____ . Pour chaque question, veuillez nous indiquer approximativement le nombre de fois que vous avez réagi de cette façon avec votre enfant, lors de situations difficile au cours de la dernière année, en vous servant de l'échelle ci-dessous .
(NOTE : Lors du traitement des données, advenant le dévoilement de conflits sérieux avec un enfant impliquant des coups et blessures, de l'aide professionnelle sera offerte à la famille conformément à la loi sur la protection de la jeunesse.

1 = une fois	2 = deux fois	3 = 3 à 5 fois	4 = 6 à 10 fois	5 = 11 à 20 fois	6 = plus de 20 fois	0 = jamais
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Partie B. : Répondez par OUI ou par NON, si vous avez réagi de cette façon à vie avec votre enfant

- | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----|-----|
| 1 | A | Combien de fois avez-vous discuté calmement d'un problème avec votre enfant? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |
| 2 | A | Combien de fois vous êtes-vous procuré(e) de l'information pour appuyer votre point de vue? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |
| 3 | A | Combien de fois avez-vous fait appel à une autre personne pour aider à régler la question? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |
| 4 | A | Combien de fois avez-vous crié ou sacré après votre enfant? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |
| 5 | A | Combien de fois avez-vous boudé ou refusé de discuter de la question avec votre enfant? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |
| 6 | A | Combien de fois êtes-vous parti(e) du lieu de la dispute en claquant la porte? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |
| 7 | A | Combien de fois avez-vous pleuré suite à une dispute avec votre enfant ? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| | B | Si vous avez répondu "Jamais". est-ce déjà arrivé? | | | | | | | | OUI | NON |

1 = une fois	2 = deux fois	3 = 3 à 5 fois	4 = 6 à 10 fois	5 = 11 à 20 fois	6 = plus de 20 fois	0 = jamais
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- 8 A Combien de fois avez-vous dit ou fait quelque chose qui pouvait rabaisser votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 9 A Combien de fois avez-vous menacé de frapper votre enfant ou de lui lancer un objet? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 10 A Combien de fois avez-vous lancé, cassé, frappé ou donné un coup de pied à un objet lors d'une dispute avec votre enfant ? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 11 A Combien de fois avez-vous lancé un objet à votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 12 A Combien de fois avez-vous poussé, empoigné ou bousculé votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 13 A Combien de fois avez-vous frappé ou donné la fessée à votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 14 A Combien de fois avez-vous donné un coup de pied, un coup de poing ou mordu votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 15 A Combien de fois avez-vous frappé ou tenté de frapper votre enfant avec quelque chose? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 16 A Combien de fois avez-vous battu votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 17 A Combien de fois avez-vous brûlé ou échaudé votre enfant? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 18 A Combien de fois avez-vous menacé votre enfant avec un couteau ou une arme? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON
- 19 A Combien de fois avez-vous utilisé un couteau ou une arme contre lui? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
 B Si vous avez répondu "Jamais", est-ce déjà arrivé? OUI NON

Appendix F
Parenting Dimensions Inventory

Rempli par: Mère Père

No d'identification: _____

PDI (Slater & Power, 1987)

Les énoncés suivants portent sur des sujets d'intérêt et de préoccupation dans l'éducation des enfants pour certains parents. Tous les parents n'ont pas le même point de vue face à ces sujets. Encerclez le chiffre qui s'applique le mieux à votre façon de faire avec votre enfant.

Pas du tout représentatif de moi 1	Très peu représentatif de moi 2	Un peu représentatif de moi 3	Assez représentatif de moi 4	Très représentatif de moi 5	Tout à fait représentatif de moi 6
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1. J'encourage mon enfant à parler de ses problèmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Je maintiens toujours jusqu'au bout la discipline établie pour mon enfant, peu importe le temps que cela prend.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Parfois c'est tellement long entre le moment où mon enfant se conduit mal et le moment où j'ai l'opportunité d'y réagir, que je laisse cela passer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Je ne permets pas à mon enfant de se mettre en colère contre moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Il y a des fois où je n'ai tout simplement pas l'énergie pour faire en sorte que mon enfant se conduise comme il le devrait.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Mon enfant peut souvent me persuader de s'en tirer plus facilement que je n'en avais l'intention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Mon enfant me persuade de changer d'idée après que je lui aie refusé une demande.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Je crois que mon enfant devrait être encouragé(e) à faire les choses mieux que les autres enfants.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Mon enfant et moi vivons souvent des moments intimes et chaleureux ensemble.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. J'encourage mon enfant à être curieux(se), à explorer et à questionner les choses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Je trouve cela intéressant et éducatif d'être avec mon enfant pendant de longues périodes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Je ne crois pas que les enfants devraient recevoir de l'information sexuelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Pas du tout représentatif de moi 1	Très peu représentatif de moi 2	Un peu représentatif de moi 3	Assez représentatif de moi 4	Très représentatif de moi 5	Tout à fait représentatif de moi 6
---	--	--	---------------------------------------	--------------------------------------	---

13. Je crois que les enfants doivent écouter et se taire.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Je crois que ce n'est pas toujours une bonne idée d'encourager les enfants à parler de leurs inquiétudes parce que parfois cela les perturbe davantage.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. J'encourage mon enfant à exprimer ses opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Je m'assure que mon enfant sache à quel point j'apprécie ce qu'il essaie d'accomplir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Je laisse savoir à mon enfant à quel point je suis humilié(e) et désappointé(e) lorsqu'il se conduit mal.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Je crois qu'un enfant doit être entraîné à la propreté le plus tôt possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Je crois que la plupart des enfants changent d'idée tellement souvent qu'il est difficile de prendre leurs opinions au sérieux.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Je n'ai pas ou très peu de difficulté à m'en tenir aux règles de conduite que j'ai établies pour mon enfant, même lorsque des proches parents (incluant les grand-parents) sont présents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Lorsque je laisse mon enfant parler de ses problèmes, il finit par se plaindre davantage.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Je m'attends à ce que mon enfant soit reconnaissant envers ses parents et apprécie tous les avantages qu'il a.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Une fois que j'ai décidé comment réagir/intervenir à une mauvaise conduite de mon enfant, je tiens jusqu'au bout.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Je respecte les opinions de mon enfant et je l'encourage à les exprimer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Je ne menace jamais mon enfant de le punir à moins d'être certain(e) de pouvoir tenir parole.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Lorsqu'une règle familiale a été établie, je crois qu'elle doit être strictement respectée, sans exception.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Voici une liste d'énoncés concernant les attitudes parentales envers l'éducation des enfants. Comparez les deux énoncés et déterminez avec lequel vous êtes le plus en accord. Encerclez le chiffre qui correspond.

Si vous êtes également en accord avec les deux énoncés, encerclez *également en accord avec l'énoncé A et B +.

Fortement plus en accord avec A 1	Modérément plus en accord avec A 2	Légerement plus en accord avec A 3	Également en accord avec A et B 4	Légerement plus en accord avec B 5	Modérément plus en accord avec B 6	Fortement plus en accord avec B 7
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<p>A</p> <p>Les enfants ont besoin de plus de liberté qu'ils n'en ont actuellement pour arriver à se faire leur propre idée sur les choses.</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</p>	<p>B</p> <p>Les enfants ont besoin de plus de direction qu'ils n'en ont actuellement de la part de leurs parents.</p>
<p>A</p> <p>Je me soucie plus que la plupart des parents que je connais de faire en sorte que mes enfants m'obéissent.</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</p>	<p>B</p> <p>Je me soucie moins que la plupart des parents que je connais de faire en sorte que mes enfants m'obéissent.</p>
<p>4. A</p> <p>J'essaie d'empêcher mes enfants de faire des erreurs en établissant des règles pour leurs propres bien.</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</p>	<p>B</p> <p>J'essaie de donner à mes enfants la liberté de faire des erreurs et d'apprendre de celles-ci.</p>
<p>A</p> <p>Si les enfants ont trop de règles à suivre, ils deviendront des adultes malheureux.</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</p>	<p>B</p> <p>Il est important d'établir et d'imposer des règles aux enfants pour qu'ils deviennent des adultes heureux.</p>

IV Pour chacun des énoncés suivants, encerclez le chiffre qui indique la fréquence à laquelle cet énoncé est vrai pour votre famille.

Jamais	Une fois de temps en temps	Quelquefois	Fréquemment	La plupart du temps	Toujours
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Durant la semaine, nous suivons un horaire régulier pour les soupers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Notre maison est propre et en ordre.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Notre famille est organisée et unie.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Nous arrivons à faire toutes les choses qui ont besoin d'être faites dans la maison.	1	2	3	4	5	6

V. Encerclez le nombre de tâches régulières assignées à vos enfants dans les domaines suivants:

Aucune	Une	Deux	Trois ou +
0	1	2	3

1. Les repas (aller à l'épicerie, cuisiner, mettre la table, laver la vaisselle, etc.).	0	1	2	3
2. Entretien (nettoyer une pièce, faire le lit, sortir les déchets, etc.).	0	1	2	3
3. Lessive (mettre les vêtements sales au panier, les laver, les repasser, etc.).	0	1	2	3
4. Travail sur le terrain (tondre le gazon, ramasser les feuilles, balayer les allées, etc.).	0	1	2	3
5. Prendre soin d'un ou des animaux domestiques (chien, chat..... les nourrir, faire une promenade, nettoyer la litière, etc.).	0	1	2	3
6. Autre (garder les enfants, arroser les plantes, laver l'auto, ramasser le courrier).	0	1	2	3

VI. Voici différentes situations qui se produisent fréquemment à l'enfance. Vous pouvez avoir vécu ou non ces expériences avec vos propres enfants.

Imaginez que chacune de ces situations vienne de se produire et indiquez quelles sont les chances que vous réagissiez ainsi.

Très peu probable 0	Peu probable 1	Probable 2	Très probable 3
------------------------	-------------------	---------------	--------------------

1) Votre enfant est sorti à l'extérieur sans avoir ramassé ses jouets comme vous l'aviez demandé.

Ignorer la situation.	0	1	2	3
Retirer un privilège (p. ex. pas de dessert, de télé) ou ajouter une corvée (p. ex. ranger les jouets).	0	1	2	3
L'envoyer dans sa chambre ou le mettre en punition sur une chaise.	0	1	2	3
Lui donner une fessée ou le frapper.	0	1	2	3
Parler à l'enfant (discuter des possibilités, expliquer pourquoi vous voulez qu'il fasse ou ne fasse pas telle chose).	0	1	2	3
Le gronder.	0	1	2	3
Lui rappeler la règle de conduite ou lui répéter la directive.	0	1	2	3

2) Après s'être disputé pour des jouets, votre enfant frappe un camarade.

Ignorer la situation.	0	1	2	3
Retirer un privilège (p. ex. pas de dessert, de télé) ou ajouter une corvée (p. ex. ranger les jouets).	0	1	2	3
L'envoyer dans sa chambre ou le mettre en punition sur une chaise.	0	1	2	3
Lui donner une fessée ou le frapper.	0	1	2	3
Parler à l'enfant (discuter des possibilités, expliquer pourquoi vous voulez qu'il fasse ou ne fasse pas telle chose).	0	1	2	3
Le gronder.	0	1	2	3
Lui rappeler la règle de conduite ou lui répéter la directive.	0	1	2	3

3) Votre enfant devient effronté pendant que vous le disciplinez.

Ignorer la situation.	0	1	2	3
Retirer un privilège (p. ex. pas de dessert, de télé) ou ajouter une corvée (p. ex. ranger les jouets).	0	1	2	3
L'envoyer dans sa chambre ou le mettre en punition sur une chaise.	0	1	2	3
Lui donner une fessée ou le frapper.	0	1	2	3
Parler à l'enfant (discuter des possibilités, expliquer pourquoi vous voulez qu'il fasse ou ne fasse pas telle chose).	0	1	2	3
Le gronder.	0	1	2	3
Lui rappeler la règle de conduite ou lui répéter la directive.	0	1	2	3

4) Vous recevez une note de la part du professeur disant que votre enfant a été dérangeant à l'école.

Ignorer la situation.	0	1	2	3
Retirer un privilège (p. ex. pas de dessert, de télé) ou ajouter une corvée (p. ex. ranger les jouets).	0	1	2	3
L'envoyer dans sa chambre ou le mettre en punition sur une chaise.	0	1	2	3
Lui donner une fessée ou le frapper.	0	1	2	3
Parler à l'enfant (discuter des possibilités, expliquer pourquoi vous voulez qu'il fasse ou ne fasse pas telle chose).	0	1	2	3
Le gronder.	0	1	2	3
Lui rappeler la règle de conduite ou lui répéter la directive.	0	1	2	3

5) Vous surprenez votre enfant à mentir à propos de quelque chose qu'il a fait et que vous désapprouvez.

Ignorer la situation.	0	1	2	3
Retirer un privilège (p. ex. pas de dessert, de télé) ou ajouter une corvée (p. ex. ranger les jouets).	0	1	2	3
L'envoyer dans sa chambre ou le mettre en punition sur une chaise.	0	1	2	3
Lui donner une fessé ou le frapper.	0	1	2	3
Parler à l'enfant (discuter des possibilités, expliquer pourquoi vous voulez qu'il fasse ou ne fasse pas telle chose).	0	1	2	3
Le gronder.	0	1	2	3
Lui rappeler la règle de conduite ou lui répéter la directive.	0	1	2	3

6) Vous apercevez votre enfant en train de jouer dans une rue passante où vous lui avez défendu d'aller pour raisons de sécurité.

Ignorer la situation.	0	1	2	3
Retirer un privilège (p. ex. pas de dessert, de télé) ou ajouter une corvée (p. ex. ranger les jouets).	0	1	2	3
L'envoyer dans sa chambre ou le mettre en punition sur une chaise.	0	1	2	3
Lui donner une fessée ou le frapper.	0	1	2	3
Parler à l'enfant (discuter des possibilités, expliquer pourquoi vous voulez qu'il fasse ou ne fasse pas telle chose).	0	1	2	3
Le gronder.	0	1	2	3
Lui rappeler la règle de conduite ou lui répéter la directive.	0	1	2	3

Merci de votre collaboration.