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Relationship Between Juvenile Offenders' Psychosocial Maturity and Experienced Parenting Style

Denesha Alexander
Walden University

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Denesha S. Alexander

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Review Committee

Dr. Stephen Hampe, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Michael Durnam, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Stephen Rice, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer

Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University

2019

Abstract

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Parenting Style

by

Denesha S. Alexander

MA, Liberty University, 2007

BS, Norfolk State University 2001

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Clinical Psychology

Walden University

May 2019

Abstract

Juvenile delinquency continues to be a social ill with parents often being liable for their child's reprehensible behavior. In this nonexperimental, correlational study, the relationship between experienced parenting style and psychosocial maturity was examined in a sample of juvenile offenders receiving intensive in-home services. The General Theory of crime by Gottfredson and Hirshi provided the framework for the study along with parenting style typologies by Baumrind. Data were collected from a convenience sample of 60 11th grade juvenile offenders and their parent/caretakers using questionnaires. Multiple regression analysis was used to examine the data. The Psychosocial Maturity Index was used to measure psychosocial maturity, and the Parenting Skills Dimensions Questionnaire Short Version was used to measure experienced parenting style. Results indicated parenting style did not account for the variance in measures of psychosocial maturity. Stakeholders may benefit from an improved understanding of how measures of psychosocial maturity are impacted by parenting practices.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate my dissertation to my mother, Evelyn Alexander, who has exemplified unconditional love, strength, and the need to always trust God's plan. She has been a pillar of strength and reassurance that I could and would finish this project. I would also like to dedicate this work to my family members and close friends who often withstood my absence at many events to pursue and complete this project. Last but not least, I would like to include Dr. McCreary who inadvertently motivated me more than he might imagine as an outstanding clinical psychologist and pastor.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

According to the United States Department of Justice Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP, 2008), U.S. law enforcement agencies arrested an estimated 2.11 million persons younger than 18 in 2008. The Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice reported that 85,578 juveniles were committed that year (Virginia Department of Justice [FY2009 Statistics], 2009). In 2013 courts with juvenile jurisdiction disposed more than 1 million delinquency cases (OJJDP, 2008). The Report on Offender Population Forecasts (FY2016-2020) for the state of Virginia revealed for the first time since FY2000 that the number of admissions to the juvenile justice population increased by 4% (Virginia Department of Justice [FY2009 Statistics], 2009). In FY 2015 there were on average 509 juveniles in the Virginia direct care population and 709 in the juvenile detention home population (Virginia Department of Justice [FY2009 Statistics], 2009). Cruise et al. (2008) demonstrated the predicative utility of psychosocial maturity in understanding adolescents' decision-making regarding antisocial behaviors and other legal acts. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) developed the general theory, which attributes delinquency to lack of self-control. Low levels of self-control result from parents failing to monitor the child's behavior, to recognize deviant behaviors when they occur, and to punish such behavior (Gottfredson & Hirshchi, 1990).

Baumrind (1971) identified three parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive. Baumrind's work was extended by MacCoby and Martin (1983) who identified two dimensions of parenting behaviors: whether they were strict (controlling)

or permissive (gave a great deal of autonomy), and whether they were accepting and responsive or rejecting and unresponsive. MacCoby and Martin labeled the additional parenting styles as permissive neglectful and permissive indulgent. I purposed to investigate the relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity) and the experienced parenting style (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive) in juvenile offenders involved with the justice system and intensive in-home services.

Background

Children may be affected by poor parental guidance or the lack of parental guidance, which could lead to their involvement in juvenile offenses (Epstein & Sanders, 2002; Kordi & Baharudin, 2010). Researchers found that parenting practices have an impact on criminal behavior of children (Brown & Lyengar, 2008). Although research showed parenting styles impact children's societal behavior (Baker-Becker, 2005; Brown & Lyengar, 2008; Flynn & Nolan, 2008; McLaughlin, 2006; Rytkonen, Aunola, & Nurmi, 2005), researchers have not looked at the relationship between experienced parenting style and psychosocial maturity levels. In the current study, I examined whether there is a difference in levels of psychosocial maturity based on experienced parenting style in juvenile offenders.

Psychosocial maturation is related to factors such as desistance from antisocial behavior, including increases in the ability to control impulses (Monahan, Steinberg, Cauffman, & Mulvey, 2013). Psychological maturity is also related to juvenile

delinquency. Juvenile delinquency of juvenile offenders may be related to the parenting style employed by parents. There appeared to be a lack in studies that specifically addressed the relationship between parenting styles and the psychosocial maturity of children who were engaged in juvenile offending. Moreover, parenting styles, such as permissive neglectful and permissive indulgent, were underresearched areas. This study added to the literature on juvenile delinquency by addressing whether certain parenting styles are more likely to encourage or discourage juvenile delinquency based on their relationship with psychosocial maturity.

Problem Statement

Any criminal behavior regardless of its classification as violent or nonviolent is frightening and financially draining on society (Maas, Herrenkohl, & Sousa, 2008). According to Sheldon (2009), government attempts to curb offending behaviors among youths appear to be failing. Adler (1927) theorized that children are not born bad, but through learned behavior, grow to behave badly. Bad behaviors can range from those that are merely annoying to criminal behavior against other people and animals.

Juvenile delinquency negatively affects families and local neighborhood morale. Further, taxpayers bear the financial burden of treating and incarcerating juveniles through adulthood when appropriate preventative and/or rehabilitative measures are not established. Cohen and Piquero (2009) estimated that the average cost of housing a habitual offender in the United States is between \$314,286 and \$552,663 through age 18, and between 2.9 and 4.5 million dollars by the time the offender is 26 years old.

Family has been shown to be an influential factor in risks for juvenile offenders. Social learning and social control theories identify family as an integral contextual factor in understanding the etiology of behavior (Ryan & Yang, 2005). Social control theory recognizes that an individual's bond with family is correlated with delinquency (Ryan & Yang, 2005; Hirschi, 1969). According to Ryan and Yang (2005), "attachment, commitment, involvement, and beliefs are the primary components of the social bond" (p. 32). Following control theory's logic, the greater the levels of parental attachment, the greater the levels of control, which leads to a decreased risk of delinquency (Ryan & Yang, 2005).

Many researchers including Dreikurs (1962), Strauss (2001), and Gershoff (2000) have shown a strong correlation between the methods used to correct children's behavior and their future standing in society as adolescents and adults. Strauss suggested that the U.S. government has not given the prospect of regulating parenting techniques enough consideration in the fight against offending behaviors. Strauss further stressed that offending behaviors negatively influence people in society, which often leads to incarceration. In this current study, I focused on the difference in measures of psychosocial maturity based on the experienced parenting style in juvenile offenders. Through examination of the relationship between parenting styles and measures of psychosocial maturity of juvenile offenders using a survey questionnaire, the insights gained from this study may inform decision-makers and parents regarding appropriate parenting styles to reduce the incidence of juvenile offenders, thereby leading to positive

social change. I examined the relationship between different parenting styles and the psychosocial maturity of children who were engaged in juvenile offending.

Purpose of the Study

I purposed to examine the relationship between parental style and psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders. The data were examined using statistical tests to provide evidence of a relationship between the measures of psychosocial maturity and parenting style. This research may assist mental health and judicial decision-makers in understanding the relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity and parenting behavior.

The results of this investigation may provide valuable insight into factors that impact the risk-taking behaviors of juveniles. Those factors may lead youths becoming part of the juvenile and/or criminal justice systems. The results of the study may help in understanding how to educate and support parents to reduce the incidence of juvenile commitment and recidivism. Additionally, this research may foster increased opportunities for mental health professionals and judicial decision-makers to learn how to promote protective factors and decrease the number of juvenile offenses and commitment.

The research design for the present study was quantitative correlational. The quantitative approach provides the ability to compare variables to determine whether there are significant statistical relationships among those variables (Cozby, 2001). A multiple regression analysis is used to determine whether variables are correlated with a

particular response or trait, and regression analysis provides an opportunity to describe with more precision how those variables relate to that response (Leary, 2012). The three dependent variables were three facets of psychosocial maturity of the juvenile delinquents, including self-reliance, work orientation, and identity. The three independent variables were the three parenting styles of the juvenile delinquents' parent/caretaker, including authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions (RQs) for this study addressed whether the relationship between parenting style and psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders.

RQ1: Does parenting style relate to self-reliance in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 1a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI Form D; Greenberger, Josselson, Knerr, & Knerr, 1974)?

H_0 1a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a 1a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance.

Subquestion 1b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritative/directive scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H_{01b} : There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

H_{a1b} : There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

Subquestion 1c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H_{01c} : There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance.

H_{a1c} : There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance.

RQ2: Does parenting style relate to work orientation in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 2a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the

authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

Subquestion 2b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

Subquestion 2c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation.

RQ3: Does parenting style relate to identity in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 3a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores of the identity scale on the PSMI)?

H₀3a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity.

H_a3a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity.

Subquestion 3b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritative/directive scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores of the identity scale on the PSMI)?

H₀3b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and identity.

H_a3b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and identity.

Subquestion 3c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores on the identity scale of the PSMI)?

H₀3c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and identity.

H_a3c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and identity.

Theoretical Framework

The psychosocial maturity model and general theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) provided the theoretical basis for this study. According to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), general theory attributes delinquency to lack of self-control. Low levels of self-control result from parents failing to monitor the child's behavior, to recognize deviant behaviors when they occur, and to punish such behavior (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

I also used Baumrind's (1978) definitions of parenting styles. Baumrind (1978) conceptualized three parenting styles that described parent-child interactions: (a) authoritarian/controlling, (b) authoritative/directive, and (c) permissive. Authoritarian or controlling parenting involves parents demanding their child obey their rules without explanation (Baumrind, 1991). Authoritarian or controlling parents usually provide their children with a structured environment and with clearly stated rules (Baumrind, 1991). According to Baumrind (1991), authoritative or directive parents demonstrate warmth and involvement and are supportive and firm in establishing guidelines, limits, and expectations. Baumrind asserts that authoritative or directive parents are more attentive to

their children's behavior, set clear standards for them to follow, and tend to be more assertive and less intrusive or restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are intended to support positive learning rather than merely punish mistakes so their children will develop the skills to become assertive and socially responsible adults (Baumrind, 1991). According to Baumrind (1991), permissive parents fail to establish realistic goals or set limits and expectations for their children. Baumrind (1978) also indicated that children of permissive parents usually are in control of their own activities and behavior at an early age.

These theories were used to conceptualize the behaviors of juvenile offenders. Cauffman and Steinberg (2000) proposed that the level of psychosocial maturity predicted antisocial behavior and decision-making at all ages. According to these theories, persons identified with low psychosocial maturity should demonstrate a lack of self-control and should have experienced a parenting style consistent with a child developing such behavior.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative research design was used to determine whether there was a relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity and experienced parenting style in juvenile offenders. A nonexperimental correlational design was used to investigate psychosocial maturity levels based on measures of experienced parenting style in juvenile offenders involved with intensive in-home services. A multiple linear regression analysis was also used. Juvenile offenders were administered the Psychosocial Maturity Index

(PSMI), and one of their parent/caretakers was administered a survey about experienced parenting styles. According to Cowell et al. (2005), the PSMI Form D is a 93-item self-report questionnaire assessing various dimensions of personal responsibility on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree; 4 = strongly disagree). Questions that correspond to the self-reliance, work orientation, and identity subscales were used in the current study.

A convenience sample was used to collect and analyze the data. A nonexperimental design was appropriate for this study because it allowed variables that already existed to be examined without manipulation. Parents completed the Parenting Style and Dimension Questionnaire Short Version (PSDQ-Short Version) (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001). This instrument was designed to operationally define the three different types of parenting styles: authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive (Baumrind, 1971). This resulted in three separate scales measuring each of the three parenting styles (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive). The highest mean score of the parenting categories on the PSDQ-Short Version indicated the parenting style endorsed by the parent/caretaker. These parenting styles served as the independent variables of the study. Juvenile offenders completed the PSMI Form D, which resulted in three separate measures of psychosocial maturity (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity). These measures served as the dependent variables of the study.

Definitions

Authoritarian/controlling parenting: One of three parenting styles in the current investigation involving high levels of parental control and low levels of warmth, physical coercion, and verbal hostility (Baumrind, 1991) as measured by the PSDQ-Short Version (Robinson et al., 2001).

Authoritative/directive parenting: One of three parenting styles in the current investigation characterized by parents setting limits and establishing guidelines for behavior, while at the same time explaining and including the child in decision-making processes (Baumrind, 1991) as measured by the PSDQ-Short Version (Robinson et al., 2001).

Identity: Self-esteem, clarity of the self, and consideration of life goals (PSMI; Greenberger et al., 1974).

Parental demands: Parental demands are demands made by parents to their child, such as being part of the family or to act with maturity (Baumrind, 1991).

Parental involvement: Parental involvement was defined as parenting behaviors in the home; amount of time spent with assisting children with their homework assignments; ensuring a safe, secure, and stable environment; visiting their child's school; collaborating with school staff; and supporting children's scheduled school activities (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Parenting styles: A combination of three basic parenting styles (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive parenting styles) based

on two indicators: parental responsiveness and the degree of parental demanding (Baumrind, 1991). Parenting styles can also be defined as the emotional climate or environment in which the child is being reared, including the values, aspirations, and goals that the parent would like to see the child achieve (Spera, 2005).

Permissive parenting: One of three parenting styles in the current investigation characterized by less control and high levels of warmth (Baumrind, 1991), an indulgent dimension as measured by the PSDQ-Short Version (Robinson et al., 2001).

Self-reliance: Feelings of internal control and the ability to make decisions without extreme reliance on others (Greenberger et al., 1974).

Work orientation: Pride in successful completion of tasks (Greenberger et al., 1974).

Assumptions

The assumptions in this study were as follows: (a) The sample gathered for data analysis represented the target population considered in this study, (b) respondents answered truthfully, and (c) the study can be replicated.

Scope and Delimitations

I investigated the relationship between psychosocial maturity of juvenile offenders using survey questionnaires. I examined the relationship between parenting style and psychosocial maturity in youths who were engaging in juvenile offending. This focus was chosen due to the lack of studies that addressed this relationship. Respondents

were 11th grade females or males involved with the juvenile justice system, and their parents or caretakers. This study did not include a causal framework.

A delimitation of this study was that I did not intend to examine other relational factors and/or variables that could also have an impact on the psychosocial maturity of juvenile offenders. For example, how siblings within the home impact parenting styles and psychosocial maturity was not examined. Additionally, I did not examine the impact of the juvenile justice system on parenting styles, which may impede or promote psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders.

Limitations

A sample of juvenile offenders who had been involved with the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice and were receiving intensive in-home services from a provider licensed by the Virginia Department of Behavioral Health and Developmental Services (DBHDS) was used. The demographic characteristics of participants considered in this study were limited to those who were involved with the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice and intensive in-home services. The premise of correlational research is that there is a linear relationship, in this case between experienced parenting styles and the psychosocial maturity of juvenile offenders. The linear relationship between the two variables does not imply that the behavior of one variable causes the behavior of another variable. This is the key limitation of correlation analysis. This study addressed only a correlation, not a causal relationship (see Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005).

The generalizability of the results of this study was also one of the limitations. The sample size was dependent on the number of respondents to the advertisement. Also, the responses of the participants may not be applicable to other juvenile offenders and their parents. Finally, the truthfulness and accurateness of the responses of the parents were limited to the information that they were willing and comfortable to share.

Significance

This study may promote social change by fostering improved understanding of parenting practices correlated with measures of psychosocial maturity. The insights gained in this study may contribute to educational parenting programs designed to increase social awareness regarding the community need for educating parents on how to implement effective parenting strategies to reduce the incidence of juvenile offenders. In addition, this study may promote positive social change by increasing levels of educational parenting classes and by increasing the amount of time parents spend with their children to decrease the number of juvenile offenders.

Summary

The behavior of children is often affected by the level of parental guidance that the children receive. Researchers have found that parenting practices have an impact on criminal behavior of children (Brown & Lyengar, 2008). This study added to the literature on juvenile delinquency by addressing whether certain parenting styles are more likely to encourage or discourage juvenile delinquency. A comprehensive review of the literature on parenting styles and juvenile behavior is provided in Chapter 2.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

More than 2 million juvenile offenders were arrested in the United States in 2008 (OJJDP, 2008). The high rate of juvenile offending led researchers to examine the different reasons and factors influencing the trend of juvenile delinquency (Contreas, Molina, & Cano, 2011; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008; Pacheco & Hutz, 2009; Patacchini & Zenou, 2008). According to the Virginia Department of Justice [FY2009 Statistics] (2009), in FY 2015 there were 509 juveniles in Virginia direct care populations and 709 in the juvenile detention home (Virginia Department of Justice [FY2009 Statistics], 2009). This study focused on explaining juvenile delinquency in terms of the exposure of adolescents to different parenting styles.

I purposed to determine whether a relationship exists between measures of psychosocial maturity (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity) and experienced parenting style (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative directive, and permissive) in juvenile offenders involved with intensive in-home services. Baumrind (1971) identified three styles of parenting: (a) authoritarian, (b) authoritative, and (c) permissive. Baumrind's work was extended by MacCoby and Martin (1983) who identified two dimensions of parenting behaviors: whether the behaviors were strict (controlling) or permissive (gave a great deal of autonomy), and whether the behaviors were accepting and responsive or rejecting and unresponsive. MacCoby and Martin labeled the additional parenting styles as permissive neglectful or permissive indulgent.

Literature Search Strategy

In the preplanning stage of the literature review, I conducted an informal search to examine what is currently available in the literature regarding the broad topic of juvenile delinquency. The initial review led to narrowing the topic to psychosocial maturity in relation to parenting style because the two variables have been shown to be related to juvenile delinquency. The purpose and problem of the study was articulated and revised based on that initial search for literature.

The literature review was based on the problem and purpose of the study with the goal of illuminating the issue by examining what previous researchers found in their studies. By creating a map of what is known and what has been empirically validated by researchers, I contextualized the present study. The research was quantitative in nature because I sought to examine what was known regarding the variables in the study was essential to the design of the research. Quantitative research studies are usually confirmatory in nature and involve hypothesis testing based on what is already available in the literature (Creswell, 2005).

In identifying literature that was pertinent to understanding the problem and purpose of the study, I prepared a list of relevant topics. The topics included constructs, issues, theories, concepts, and gaps that were pertinent to the study. The key words, that were used for the creation of the literature review included the following: *psychosocial maturity, differences between psychosocial and psychological maturity, psychosocial maturity of juvenile offenders, juvenile delinquency, juvenile offending, antisocial*

behaviors, parenting, interventions for juvenile delinquency, general theory of crime, parenting styles, Baumrind's parenting style, authoritative parenting style, authoritarian parenting style, permissive parenting style, permissive neglectful, permissive indulgent, and relationship between parenting style and psychosocial maturity.

Most of the professional articles and studies included in the review were published between 2008 and 2011. By industry standards these articles are considered dated with a preference for more recent literature. The articles included the available, relevant literature. Exceptions were made when a particular study was considered a classic and when no other relevant literature could be found on a particular topic. The older articles were essential in providing a comprehensive literature review that provided deeper insights into the problem under investigation.

To increase the output of the literature search, I used variations of the key words. The key words were used in various online databases and search engines, which included EBSCOhost database, ProQuest database, InfoTrac database, Digital Dissertations, and ERIC database. The results of the search were downloaded and compiled into one folder for organization and easy access. The information collected from the search served as the backbone and source of data for this literature review.

Theoretical Foundation

From the perspective of juvenile delinquency, psychosocial maturity is the developmental trajectory in which antisocial behaviors during adolescence desist in early adulthood (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000; Chassin et al., 2010; Steinberg et al., 2009). The

more psychosocially mature a person is, the less likely the individual will engage in antisocial and risky behaviors (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000). With the appropriate guidance of parents, the normal trajectory of antisocial behaviors in adolescence will desist in early adulthood (Blonigen, 2010; Piquero, 2007). The decline in antisocial and criminal behaviors in the start of adulthood can be explained by various factors, which may include changing social roles, fatigue, and increased psychosocial maturity (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000; Laub & Sampson, 2001).

The general theory provides additional theoretical support of juvenile delinquency from the perspective of the development of self-control in the early years of a child's life, specifically the first 10 years (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wright, Beaver, DeLisi, & Vaughn, 2008). Self-control, which can also be understood in terms of conformity, is an essential quality that is related to decreased antisocial tendencies and general quality of life (Evans, Cullen, Burton, Dunaway, & Benson, 1997; Wright et al., 2008). Individuals who have high self-control are able to delay gratification, which is correlated with decreased antisocial and deviant behaviors (Evans et al., 1997; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Lopez & Lopez, 2003).

Parent variables are generally regarded as a factor influencing children's outcomes, whether positive or negative (Baumrind, 1989; Hoeve et al., 2009; Samie, 2009). Parent variables can either be examined globally or in terms of specific practices (Samie, 2009). Because parenting style entails various aspects of the relationship and is

not based on a single variable, it is considered a global representation of the parent-child relationship (O'Connor, 2002).

Based on the typologies of Baumrind (1978), parenting style can be classified as: (a) authoritarian, (c) authoritative, and (c) permissive. In differentiating one style from another, responsiveness and demandingness were used to describe each parenting style (Baumrind, 1978). The authoritarian parenting style involves low levels of responsiveness and high levels of demandingness and high levels of responsiveness and demandingness. The permissive parenting style involves high levels of responsiveness and low levels of demandingness. MacCoby and Martin (1983) further subclassified permissive parenting styles as either permissive neglectful and permissive indulgent.

Literature Review

Juvenile Delinquency

A wealth of research has been conducted about juvenile delinquency because of its implication toward public policy and the high rate of offenses committed by adolescents (Patacchini & Zenou, 2008). In 2013, courts with juvenile jurisdiction disposed more than 1 million delinquency cases nationally according to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (2013). Several factors have been identified as influencing juvenile delinquency, including family environment, parent variables, childhood neglect, peer interactions, genetics, and psychosocial maturity (Baker, Jacobson, Raine, Lozano, & Bezdjian, 2007; Contreas et al., 2011; Cruise et al., 2008; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008; Kazemian, Widom, & Farrington, 2011; Pacheco &

Hutz, 2009; Patacchini & Zenou, 2008). Each of these factors provides an explanation as to why juvenile delinquency occurs. Even though the focus of the current study was on psychosocial maturity, these other factors are briefly explained to understand the potential dynamic and multidimensional nature of juvenile delinquency. S

Family environment variables have been widely established as factors related to juvenile delinquency (Contreas et al., 2011). Problems in a family can have a significant effect on the development of delinquent behaviors in children (Pacheco & Hutz, 2009). Family variables that may have an influence in juvenile delinquency include the size of the family, broken homes, cohesion of the family, and family conflict (Contreas et al., 2011; Pacheco & Hutz, 2009; Rodríguez & Torrente, 2003).

Parental variables have also been linked with antisocial behaviors in children, which explain why parent-child relationships are often examined to understand the nature of delinquency in a child (Contreas et al., 2011; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008). Some of these parental variables include parenting style, drug abuse history, alcohol use, and criminal history (Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008; Rodríguez & Torrente, 2003). With regard to drug and alcohol consumption, parents who engage in these activities will likely lead their children to also engage in these deviant behaviors.

Kazemian et al. (2011) examined the relationship between childhood neglect and juvenile delinquency using a sample of primarily Caucasian males in London. The results showed that childhood neglect was associated with negative outcomes in adult males. Adolescents who experienced childhood neglect were more likely to engage in juvenile

offenses, based on both self-report and official offenses, compared to adolescents who did not experience childhood neglect.

Patacchini and Zenou (2008) examined juvenile delinquency within the framework of peer relations and sought to determine if conformism was significant in juvenile offenses. In Monahan, Steinberg, Cauffman, and Mulvey's (2009) study, the researchers found that having peers who were engaged in antisocial and deviant behaviors was correlated with adopting similar antisocial behaviors. Monahan et al. (2009) also found that adolescents who had high levels of peer pressure were more likely to be influenced by peers who were engaging in antisocial activities compared to adolescents who had low levels of peer pressure.

Peer interactions and relationships are generally regarded as influential in many types of social situations (Glaeser & Scheinkman, 2001). For example, Bayer, Hjalmarsson, and Pozen (2009) found that juveniles who were incarcerated with other juveniles can result in the socialization of criminal behaviors. Patacchini and Zenou (2008), in their study, showed that conformity plays a role in all crimes, particularly in juvenile offenses wherein teenagers' decision to commit a crime is influenced by their peers. This finding is consistent with Levitt and Venkatesh's (2000) assertion that social factors such as the relationship with peers can influence antisocial and criminal behaviors in individuals.

Juvenile delinquency can also be conceptualized as a genetically-determined predisposition (Baker et al., 2007). Button, Corley, Rhee, Hewitt, Young, and Stallings

(2007) conducted a twin study examining adolescents' predisposition towards delinquency. Button et al. did not find any support that delinquency is inherently genetic. Button et al., however, found that there is a genetic predisposition in interacting with peers who engage in deviant practices. Baker et al. (2007) conducted a similar twin study and found results consistent with Button et al. (2007) about the predisposition of adolescents in interacting with peers who engage in deviant practices. Genetics do not necessarily determine juvenile delinquency because parental involvement moderates the genetic predisposition of adolescents to delinquency (Pears, Capaldi, & Owen, 2007).

Psychosocial maturity is a broader framework in which researchers have examined and explored juvenile delinquency (Cruise et al., 2008). Psychosocial maturity explains why antisocial behaviors tend to desist towards the end of adolescence because that is the stage wherein psychosocial maturity is fully developed (Monahan et al., 2009). The implication is that during adolescence, teenagers are predisposed to deviant behaviors and would likely act out these behaviors without the guidance of their parents (Dorius, Bahr, Hoffmann, & Harmon, 2004). Psychosocial maturity in relation to juvenile delinquency will be further explored and discussed in the succeeding sections.

Interventions

Several interventions have been used to deal with juvenile delinquency, including mentoring, group therapy, therapeutic interventions, and parenting (Cecile & Born, 2009; Dodge, Dishion, & Lansford, 2006; Dorius et al., 2004; Mathys, Hélin, & Born, 2008; Tolan, Henry, Schoeny, & Bass, 2008). There is empirical support for the effectiveness of

these intervention strategies (Cecile & Born, 2009; Dorius et al., 2004; Tolan et al., 2008). Intervention programs such as residential placement, shock incarceration, and surveillance are ineffective in rehabilitating juvenile delinquents (Henggeler & Schoenwald, 2011; Sedlak & McPherson, 2010). The total amount of time incarcerated in an unsecured residential treatment facility for adolescents had a negative effect on the development trajectory of psychosocial maturity (Dmitrieva, Monahan, Cauffman, Steinberg, 2012). This makes it an ineffective form of intervention. Furthermore, youth who perceived their incarceration setting as unsafe and unsecured had a decline in temperance (Dmitrieva et al, 2012). The results of youth-reported delinquency and parental reports of aggressive and delinquent behaviors of children showed significantly greater reductions from pre-treatment to post-treatment levels in the group subjected to MST (Butler, Baruch, Hickey, Fonagy, 2012). This statement promotes the importance of MST in addressing delinquency problems.

Mentoring programs are the most common interventions policymakers and leaders use to solve and prevent problems relating to juvenile delinquency (DuBois, Holloway, Valentine, & Cooper, 2002). Mentorship can be characterized as a relationship between two people over a period of time, where one person is considered superior to the other one in terms of knowledge and experience, professional in nature, and the mentee can benefit from his or her interaction with the mentor (Tolan et al., 2008). Tolan et al. (2008), in a meta-analytic review of 39 studies on mentorship programs conducted

between the years of 1970-2005, showed that mentorship programs were most effective when the group receiving the program already committed the offense.

Many intervention programs for juvenile delinquency are conducted within a group setting, wherein vulnerable offenders are grouped together to protect them from outside influences (Dodge et al., 2006). There is some evidence about the efficacy of therapeutic interventions conducted in a group format; however, there is still criticism about the type of intervention program (Mathys et al., 2008). Much of the criticism was directed towards the notion that grouping juveniles with other juveniles can lead to the exacerbation of antisocial tendencies (Mahoney, Stattin, & Lord, 2004). In a similar argument, Cecile and Born (2009) found that addressing juvenile delinquency is more appropriate in focusing on the “the youths’ pre-trial environments” (p. 1), which prevents juveniles from socializing with their juvenile peers.

Even though researchers have found therapeutic interventions help juvenile delinquents to be rehabilitated, family-centered therapies and multi-systemic therapies are also effective (Henggeler & Schoenwald, 2011; Henggeler, Schoenwald, Borduin, Rowland, & Cunningham, 2009). Family-centered therapy practice is a widespread approach guiding how early intervention services provide support for families with children with special needs or other issues (Thompson, 2012). An important feature of family-centered therapy support is its provision in natural settings such as the home environment (Thompson, 2012). Ellis, Weiss, Han and Gallop’s (2010) study that involved 82 parents who participated in a clinical trial of MST were able to complete

baseline measures assessing psychopathology, treatment expectations, and family functioning. Ellis et al., in their analyses, indicated that the parental perceptions of therapist adherence can be established within the first 4 weeks of treatment and that parental psychopathology, expectations, motivations and child-rearing practices were related to parental ratings of therapist adherence. Functional family-based therapies recognize that juvenile delinquency is rooted in problems in family dynamics; hence, family-based therapies target correcting dysfunctional family practices (Henggeler & Schoenwald, 2011). Multi-systemic and multi-dimensional therapies take into consideration the constellation of people involved in an adolescent's life, which include their parents, peers, teachers, and the community at large (Henggeler et al., 2009).

Parenting, because of the role of parents in affecting positive outcomes in their children, specifically in terms of controlling delinquent behaviors, was suggested as a significant form of intervention (Dorius et al., 2004). If parenting experiences of juvenile delinquents contribute to their deviant behaviors, parents can also help their children in rehabilitation. Rueter and Conger (1998) found evidence that parent training can alter the negative and deviant behaviors of children, underscoring the significance of parental involvement in rehabilitating juvenile offenders.

Henggeler and Schoenwald (2011) provided a list of interventions that have not shown empirical support in rehabilitating juvenile delinquents. Some of the ineffective programs include residential placement, shock incarceration interventions, and surveillance. The common feature of these ineffective approaches to interventions is the

tendency towards punishment and not in rehabilitation. Even though residential placements approach juvenile delinquency intervention as a form of rehabilitation, residential practitioners fail to rehabilitate the patients as reflected by recidivism and increased criminal behaviors after released from the residential places (Sedlak & McPherson, 2010). Song, Graham, Susman & Sohn (2012) examined the role of emotion regulation strategies and emotional disposition in resolving problem drinking of adolescent offenders. Song et al. (2012) found that the intervention to improve ER effectiveness, taking into account the emotional disposition of the youth, gender, and delinquency differences may help lessen problem drinking among adolescents. Many offenders continued to offend as juvenile delinquents despite receiving offense-related interventions and custodial care (Rothwell, Kenning, Law, Carter, Bailey, & Clark, 2012). Interventions currently aimed at reducing the rate of recidivism in more severe offenders appear to be ineffective in preventing it (Rothwell et al, 2012). Rothwell et al (2012) concluded that persistent offenders would be able to benefit from a multi-modal approach based on individual needs, rather than receiving generic interventions in custodial care.

Psychosocial Maturity

For all adolescents, the maturity of cognitive and neurological development is relatively stable and predictable (Cox, 2008). Towards the end of adolescence and the beginning of adulthood, brain development is already in its maturity (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000). Cognitive development reaches maturity during mid-adolescence. This

predictable pattern in both cognitive and neurological development of adolescents explains why assessment of maturity is usually cognitive-based in nature (Steinberg, Cauffman, Woolard, Graham, & Banich, 2009). Overreliance on using cognitive measures to assess maturity has gained critics because cognitive measures do not differentiate adolescents from adults, such as in their decision-making processes (Casey, 2011).

Psychosocial development is often overlooked in favor of cognitive development. In examining the maturity of adolescents, integrating cognitive development with psychosocial factors has been proposed (Casey, 2011). Psychosocial factors take into consideration factors such as the personality of individuals, their interpersonal relationships, and their emotional experiences (Steinberg et al., 2009). Maturity, in terms of decision-making skills, is better understood when cognitive development, which is more objective and well-defined in nature, is integrated with psychosocial development, which is more dynamic and context-based (Casey, 2010).

Even though psychosocial maturity is generally seen as having developmental stages and patterns that increase over time through age (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000; Steinberg et al., 2009), certain factors might disrupt this expected trajectory. Chassin et al. (2010) examined whether marijuana and alcohol use during adolescence can disrupt the psychosocial maturity of adolescents. Chassin et al. showed that habitual alcohol and marijuana use during adolescence can disrupt the trajectory of psychosocial maturity expected in certain stages of an individual's development. Chassin et al. added that the

disruptive effects of marijuana and alcohol use in adolescence are not permanent because regression analysis showed that decreasing the use of marijuana and alcohol during the adolescence phase can lead to increase in psychosocial maturity.

Disruption in the development of psychosocial maturity during adolescence was explained by Brown et al. (2008) in terms of coping and engagement deficiencies. Deviant behaviors during adolescence such as marijuana use can affect the ability of adolescents to use their coping and engagement abilities, resulting in stunted psychosocial maturity. An alternative explanation is that psychosocial maturity can be influenced by the physiological brain structures and processes may be disrupted in accordance with the structure and mechanisms (Clark, Thatcher, & Tapert, 2008).

Psychosocial maturity is the progressive development of an individual's "psychosocial understanding" (Bauer, Schwab, & McAdams, 2011, p. 4) that equips an individual with the tools towards responsible adulthood (Steinberg & Cauffman, 1996). Steinberg and Cauffman (1996) developed a model of psychosocial maturity, which contains three dimensions: (a) temperance, (b) perspective, and (c) responsibility. Monahan et al. (2009) stressed the importance of psychosocial maturity in terms of ability to control impulse and ability to control aggression; perspective in terms of consideration of others and future orientation; and responsibility in terms of the ability to accept personal responsibility and resist peer pressure. An individual who is considered psychosocially mature exhibits qualities that include temperance, perspective, and responsibility (Steinberg & Cauffman, 1996).

Temperance is the ability to control one's emotions, particularly pertaining to impulses that may impact decision-making (Steinberg & Cauffman, 1996). Perspective is the ability to gauge one's actions in terms of the short-term and long-term consequences, including the costs and benefits of their actions. Responsibility encompasses various processes involving one's ego development, autonomy, and identity, which may include the ability to assess one's abilities and weaknesses with reasonable accuracy and honesty, the ability to resist pressure from their peers, and the ability to make independent decisions. Temperance, perspective, and responsibility have been associated with antisocial behaviors such as marijuana and alcohol use, sexual encounters that are considered risky, and criminal behaviors (Little & Steinberg, 2006; Robbins & Bryan, 2004).

Steinberg et al. (2009) examined psychosocial maturity of adolescents and adults. In measuring psychosocial maturity, the construct was conceptualized using five dimensions that are central to psychosocial maturity. These dimensions include: (a) risk perception, (b) sensation seeking, (c) impulsivity, (d) resistance to peers, and (e) future orientation. The following dimensions were defined in Steinberg et al.'s (2009) study as:

1. risk perception – the perception of an individual regarding the level of riskiness of a situation that is considered risky.
2. sensation seeking – the extent to which an individual seeks activities that are considered thrilling and exciting.

3. impulsivity – the extent to which an individual can control his or her emotions and impulses.
4. resistance to peers – the extent to which an individual can resist pressures from his or her peers.
5. future orientation – the extent to which an individual thinks about his or her actions with the consideration of the future.

Caufman and Steinberg (2000) examined the relationship of mature judgment using psychosocial development factors and specific situations that require judgment using a sample of adolescents (i.e., grade 8-12) and young adults (i.e., college students). The results indicated that young adults are more likely to demonstrate decision-making skills that are socially responsible compared to adolescents. These skills are not determined by chronological age but by psychosocial maturity; however, Caufman and Steinberg found that once psychosocial maturity is completed, stability is already achieved.

Psychosocial Maturity of Juvenile Offenders

Psychosocial maturity is a predictor of antisocial behaviors. A more psychosocially mature a person is the less likely to engage in antisocial and risky decisions (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000). Adolescence is a critical period because antisocial behaviors peak during this stage; however, antisocial behaviors eventually decline as adulthood begins to approach (Piquero, 2007). The normal trajectory of

antisocial behaviors is that these behaviors cease as the adolescent begin to enter adulthood. These patterns have been empirically supported (Blonigen, 2010).

The decline in antisocial and criminal behaviors towards the start of adulthood can be explained by various factors such as social roles, fatigue, and psychosocial maturity (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000; Laub & Sampson, 2001). Another explanation for the trajectory of antisocial behaviors from adolescence until early adulthood is changes in disinhibition and negative emotionality, specifically the decreases in these qualities over time (Blonigen, 2010). Psychosocial maturity, understanding juvenile delinquency, and antisocial behaviors within the context of psychosocial maturity constitute the main focus of this study.

Psychosocial maturity provides an explanation as to why delinquent behaviors during adolescence are at their peak (Cruise et al., 2008). During adolescence, psychosocial maturity is not yet developed, making adolescents more susceptible to risky and antisocial behaviors (Cruise et al., 2008). The trajectory of criminal and antisocial behaviors from adolescence until early adulthood is not a fixed one; however, antisocial behaviors are primarily at its peak during adolescence (Moffitt, 2006). Even though the typical trajectory is desistance as adulthood begins to approach, there are exceptions wherein these antisocial behaviors remain until adulthood (Moffitt, 2006). Using psychosocial maturity to explain the exception, Moffitt hypothesized that the changing nature of the world might have postponed the expected desistance to antisocial behaviors past early adulthood.

There is an indication that psychosocial maturity completes its development towards the latter part of the adolescence (Caufman & Steinberg, 2000). This period is critical in terms of determining whether a person will develop the psychosocial maturity needed to make the appropriate life decisions. Monahan et al. (2009) examined the factors that differentiated adolescents who desisted from antisocial behaviors when they reach adulthood and adolescents who continued their antisocial behaviors into adulthood. The results show that adolescents who continued their antisocial activities to adulthood had lower psychosocial maturity, specifically in terms of factors such as “impulse control, suppression of aggression, and future orientation” (p. 1654).

General Theory

Social control is the central idea of the general theory framework on crime (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). In the framework of general theory, the first ten years of a child’s life is regarded as a critical phase in relation to the development of self-control. Self-control is not inherent in children as exhibited by their natural tendencies toward instant gratification (Dorius et al., 2004). Self-control is developed early in a child’s life based on how parents responsibly monitor the child’s behaviors, particularly inappropriate and deviant behaviors. By addressing deviant behaviors by giving the appropriate punishment and sanctions, deviant behaviors are corrected and self-control is instilled in children. The outcomes of parent-child relationship are relatively stable during the life course, which may include life chances, quality of life, and self-control,

underscoring the significance of the guidance of parents in the early years of a child's life (Evans et al., 1997; Wright et al., 2008).

According to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), a person who has low self-control has a set of behavioral and attitudinal patterns. These characteristics include: (a) predisposition for instant gratification, (b) preference toward tasks that does not involve complex and difficult activities, (c) engagement in activities that are considered risky and antisocial, (d) lack of investment in social institutions, (e) attraction towards activities that are relatively simple, and (f) lacks compassion and kindness towards other people. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) contended that the constellation of characteristics of self-control could explain the criminal behaviors of individuals.

Within the context of self-control, which can be understood in terms of conformity, immediate gratification is the specific component that is pertinent to understanding criminal behaviors (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Immediate gratification explains antisocial and risky behaviors that range from fraud and sexual promiscuity because individuals want to experience pleasure or acquire a goal without self-control for delayed gratification. Individuals who have deficiencies with self-control and conformity would likely be involved in these antisocial and risky behaviors. There is empirical evidence indicating that the inability of individuals to delay gratification as related to antisocial behaviors, suggesting that instant gratification is a feature of criminal behaviors (Lopez & Lopez, 2003).

Evans et al. (1997) tested Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) contentions about self-control as a predictor of criminal and antisocial behaviors. Self-control was conceptualized in terms of two dimensions: (a) attitudinal measures and (b) analogous/behavior scale. The results were consistent with Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime, showing that both measures of self-control predict criminal behaviors even when extraneous variables are controlled. Evans et al., in their study, also showed that self-control also predicts quality of life and other life outcomes.

Within the context of explaining crime, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) contended that personality is different from the construct self-control because personality characteristics that are similar across offenders have not been established. On the other hand, Gottfredson and Hirschi argued that "people who develop strong self-control are unlikely to commit criminal acts throughout their lives, regardless of their other personality characteristics" (p. 111). Low self-control was argued to predict criminal behaviors of individuals the way personality characteristics cannot.

Other researchers (e.g., Marcus, 2003; O'Connell, 2003; O'Gorman & Baxter, 2002; Rebellon, Straus, & Medeiros, 2008; Vaughn, DeLisi, Beaver, Wright, & Howard, 2007) have found evidence refuting claims of Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) about the difference between self-control characteristics and personality characteristics. For example, O'Gorman and Baxter (2002) found that the constellation of characteristics in self-control as described by Gottfredson and Hirschi overlaps with the Conscientiousness scale of the Five-Factor Model of Personality. Marcus (2003) also found that self-control

in the general theory is highly correlated with personality measures that have a self-control component. Vaughn et al. (2007) and Rebellon et al. (2008) also found that self-control is related to the conceptualization of psychopathology and criminology.

O'Connell (2003) found that aggression, which is a component of self-control, is related to both prosocial and antisocial behaviors. Cauffman, Steinberg, and Piquero (2005) found that temperance, which is the ability to control one's emotions, can significantly predict antisocial behaviors. These studies suggest that contrary to Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of crime, wherein self-control was contended to be the only reliable predictor of criminal behaviors, other factors and traits can also predict criminal behaviors, such as aggression and temperance.

Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of crime was examined in non-Western cultures, to test whether the theory can be applied in various cultures. This line of research was a result of Gottfredson and Hirschi's contention that general theory is a universal phenomenon in all cultures. In Rebellon, Straus, and Medeiros's (2008) cross-cultural study, the results were consistent with Gottfredson and Hirschi's assertion about the cross-cultural applicability of general theory of crime. Specifically, parental neglect and self-control were associated in western and non-Western cultures.

Parenting Styles

Parenting style has been linked with children's outcomes, whether positive or negative (Baumrind, 1989; Hoeve, Dubas, Eichelsheim, van der Laan, Smeenk, & Gerris, 2009; Samie, 2009). As a result of the establishment of the relationship between

parenting style and children's outcome, researchers focused on the relationship of two, particularly within the context of negative outcomes in children such as antisocial and criminal behaviors (Hoeve et al., 2009; Rodríguez & Torrente, 2003). This section provides insights into the literature on parenting styles in order to gain insights as to how parenting style could be related to psychosocial maturity and juvenile delinquency.

Parent variables are often examined in relation to children outcomes in terms of global (i.e., parenting style) or specific factors (i.e., parenting practices; Samie, 2009). Parenting style is different from parenting practices in that parenting style is an emotional climate that informs how parents would react in various situations involving their children (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Parenting style is global in nature because one parenting style entails a number of different characteristics, making parenting style acceptable to be examined in isolation (O'Connor, 2002).

Parenting practices, on the other hand, are specific behaviors subsumed within a parenting style, suggesting that parents who have similar parenting styles might have different parenting practices (Samie, 2009). Parenting practices may include variables such as parental monitoring and parental support (Hoeve et al., 2009). Parenting practices are usually examined as a constellation of different variables because examining one variable in isolation does not take into consideration the dynamics of families (O'Connor, 2002).

Parenting style can be conceptualized into two dimensions. The focus of these two dimensions is on the level of control of parents towards their children. The two

dimensions include: (a) responsiveness, which is the degree in which parents allow their children to be self-actualized in terms of their individuality and behaviors and (b) demandingness of the parent, which is the degree to which parents control their children through rules, supervision, and by providing a structured environment (Baumrind, 1989).

Responsiveness is “the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children’s needs and demands.” (Baumrind, 1996, p. 410). Responsiveness may manifest in terms of warmth, reciprocity, and communication, wherein parents who have high levels of warmth, reciprocity, and communication are considered high responsive parents (Simons, Simons, & Wallace, 2004). Using Baumrind’s parenting style typology, parents who are considered high in responsiveness are either permissive or authoritative, wherein parents who are considered low in responsiveness are authoritarian.

Warmth is a component of responsiveness because warmth provides insights as to how parents relate with their children at an affectionate and emotional level (Baumrind, 1996). Reciprocity is a component of responsiveness because reciprocity provides insights as to how parents react to the behaviors of their children. Finally, communication is a component of responsiveness because communication provides insights as to how parents communicate with their children, particularly whether they see communication as person-centered or hierarchical in nature.

Demandingness refers to “claims that parents make on children to become integrated into the family and community by their maturity expectations, supervision, disciplinary efforts, and willingness to confront a disruptive child” (Baumrind, 1996, p. 411). Demandingness manifests in terms of confrontation, monitoring, and discipline wherein parents who have high levels of confrontation, monitoring, and discipline are considered high in demandingness (Simons et al., 2004). Using Baumrind’s parenting style typology, parents with high demandingness are either authoritarian or authoritative, wherein parents who are considered low in demandingness are permissive.

Confrontation is a component of demandingness because confrontation provides insights as to how parents are involved with their children in terms of exerting firm control (Baumrind, 1996). Monitoring is a component of demandingness because monitoring provides insights into how parents supervise the behaviors of their children. Finally, discipline is a component of demandingness because discipline provides insights about the consistency of parents in discouraging negative behaviors.

In the next sub-sections, three parenting styles will be discussed: (a) authoritarian, (b) authoritative, and (c) permissive. Permissive parenting style is further sub-classified into permissive neglectful and permissive indulgent parenting styles. Each parenting style will be defined based on Baumrind’s (1989) typology of parenting style. The current literature will be reviewed in order to understand how each parenting style is similar and different in relation to juvenile delinquency and psychosocial maturity.

Authoritarian Parenting Style

Authoritarian parenting style involves low levels of responsiveness wherein parents allow limited control and individuality to their children, and high levels of demandingness wherein parents exert strong levels of control in their children (Baumrind, 1989). Authoritarian parenting style emphasizes a negative form of control because punishment is usually harsh without proper validation of love. Moreover, authoritarian parenting style can be described as coercive and restrictive, employing discipline techniques that are firm. In authoritarian parenting style, parent-child conflict is usually resolved through forceful and punitive punishments (Dixon, 2002). Authoritarian parenting style is generally regarded as associated with negative outcomes in children (Hoeve et al., 2009).

Authoritative Parenting Style

Authoritative parenting style involves balanced levels of responsiveness and demandingness, wherein there is a balance between giving the child enough freedom to develop his or her individuality within a supervised structure (Baumrind, 1989). Authoritative parenting style is more oriented towards the child, wherein discipline techniques are more flexible based on the personality of the child, allowing the child to grow independently and conscientiously (Dixon, 2002). Moreover, authoritative parenting style stimulates the development of responsibility in a child.

Authoritative parenting style is generally regarded as associated with positive outcomes in children (Dixon, 2002; Hoeve et al., 2009). Previous studies showed that

authoritative parenting style is associated with positive outcomes such as decreased internalized (e.g., self-esteem) and externalized (e.g., aggression) problems, psychological maturity, academic achievement, and self-reliance (Fletcher, Darling, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1995; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008). In understanding why authoritative parenting style generates positive outcomes in children, Abell and Gecas (1997) examined how authoritative style of parenting relates with children. Abell and Gecas reported that authoritative style of parenting instills guilt about negative behaviors, but not shame, resulting in children adhering to behaviors that are considered within the norms.

Authoritative parenting style has also been associated with reducing the risk of children engaging in various negative activities and outcomes (Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008). Children who were exposed to authoritative parenting style are less likely to develop problems relating to drug and alcohol abuse, school misconduct problems, and overall delinquency (Simons, Simons, Burt, Brody, & Cutrona, 2005; Wright & Cullen, 2001). When compared to authoritarian parenting style, children who were exposed to authoritative parenting style are less likely to be involved in deviant and antisocial activities, including peers who are involved in deviant activities (Wright & Cullen, 2001).

Because of the empirical support for authoritative parenting style, there is general regard that authoritative parenting style is beneficial with children (Dixon, 2002; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008; Hoeve et al., 2009). Authoritative parenting style has been suggested by researchers as the most ideal type of parenting style (Guarino-Ghezzi

& Tirrell, 2008). According to Guarino-Ghezzi and Tirrell (2008), even outside the realm of parent-child relationship such as in correctional facilities for juvenile offenders, authoritative style is the recommended style of supervision.

Permissive Parenting Style

Permissive parenting style involves high levels of responsiveness wherein parents allow high degrees of individuality and self-sufficiency to their children, and low levels of demandingness wherein parents exert low levels of control in their children (Baumrind, 1989). Specific factors involved in permissive parenting style may include lax discipline and ignoring of wrongdoing (Hoeve et al., 2009). Research on permissive style of parenting is often overlooked in favor of authoritarian and authoritative parenting style, leaving a gap in the literature (Hoeve et al., 2009).

The available literature on permissive parenting style generally points to negative outcomes (e.g., Dixon, 2002; Hoeve et al., 2009; Rodríguez & Torrente, 2003). Permissive parenting style has been found to be related to problematic behaviors in children (Rodríguez & Torrente, 2003). Permissiveness as a factor characteristic has been found to be related to juvenile delinquency (Hoeve et al., 2009). The negative outcomes of permissive parenting style can be attributed to the lack of responsibility expected from children, resulting in dependent children lacking in social responsibility (Dixon, 2002).

Even though most studies suggest that permissive parenting is not ideal, a few studies suggest otherwise. For example, a study by Spraitz (2011) suggested that permissive parenting is associated with children who are less likely to get involved in

deviant and criminal behaviors. This finding was based on comparative analysis with other parenting styles identified by Baumrind. Spraitz acknowledged the inconsistency of the findings with current literature, recommending validation in future research.

Permissive neglectful. Permissive neglectful parenting style involves low control and low warmth (Gullotta, Blau, & Ramos, 2007). Permissive neglectful parenting style is characterized by a cold relationship with their children, with little support, supervision, and control, resulting in children having unreasonable levels of autonomy. There is often no boundary or any type of emotional support in this kind of parenting style (Kerig & Wenar, 2006).

One study by Teti and Candelaria (2002) found that the minimal involvement that permissive neglectful parents have with their children is still more beneficial compared to no parental involvement at all. Compared to the other parenting styles, few studies examined permissive neglectful. Most studies were primarily focused on the more general permissive parenting style.

Permissive indulgent. Permissive indulgent parenting style is characterized by low control but high in warmth (Gullotta et al., 2007). Permissive indulgent parenting style is characterized by a loving and warm relationship with their children and low levels of parental control; however, parents provide emotional support and nurturance. Parents who are considered permissive indulgent tend to be emotionally present and available regarding the needs of their children (Kerig & Wenar, 2006). Similar to permissive neglectful, the research on permissive indulgent is lacking.

Relationship Between Parenting Styles and Psychosocial Maturity

The relationship between parenting styles and psychosocial maturity has not been extensively examined by researchers. There are no studies that specifically examined the relationship between the different parenting styles with psychosocial maturity. Available studies typically focus on the relationship between different family environment variables and juvenile offending (see Contreas et al., 2011; Pears et al., 2007). In studies that examined parental variables, the role of parents is generally regarded as significant in controlling adolescents from deviancy and antisocial behaviors (Pears et al., 2007).

Contreas et al. (2011) examined the different psychosocial factors that are related to recidivism among juvenile offenders, and one factor examined was family setting. Even though parenting style was not specifically examined the way this study was conceptualized, Contreas et al. established that family context variables such as the size of the family and broken homes could predict recidivism among juvenile offenders, suggesting that family variables have an influence in the behaviors of young individuals.

In terms of the specific parenting styles, some studies exist showing relationships with factors relevant to psychosocial maturity. For example, Fletcher et al. (1995) found that authoritative parenting style is associated with psychological maturity in children. Authoritative parenting style is associated with children that do not engage in deviant activities (Wright & Cullen, 2001). The rest of the research studies tackle parenting styles as it affects different aspect of youth which regards the behavior, emotion, family, and

school. Thus, there is a lack of studies that specifically examine parenting styles and psychosocial maturity of juvenile delinquents.

Gap in the Literature

Based on the comprehensive review of the literature on juvenile delinquency, there is a lack of studies that directly examine the relationship of psychosocial maturity and parenting styles. Also lacking, specific examination of the relationship of the different parenting styles with the psychosocial maturity of children who were engaged in juvenile offending. Moreover, parenting styles, such as permissive neglectful and permissive indulgent, are currently under-researched areas. This study added to the body of literature on juvenile delinquency testing whether certain parenting styles are more likely to encourage or discourage juvenile delinquency based on their relationship with psychosocial maturity.

This study may also assist mental health and judicial decision makers in the understanding of the relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity and parenting styles. The proposed research may yield important findings for further research, which may include understanding how to educate and support parents to prevent juvenile commitment to the Department of Justice Services, and reduced recidivism among juvenile offenders. Additionally, this research may foster increased opportunities for mental health professionals and judicial decision-makers to learn how to engage in protective factors and decrease the number of juvenile offenses and commitment.

Summary and Conclusions

There is a wealth of research on juvenile delinquency because of the increasing arrests of juvenile offenders in the United States (Baker et al., 2007; Contreas et al., 2011; OJJDP, 2008; Pacheco & Hutz, 2009; Patacchini & Zenou, 2008). Based on the findings of previous researchers, the different factors are related to juvenile delinquency include family environment, parent variables, childhood neglect, peer interactions, genetics, and psychosocial maturity (Baker et al., 2007; Contreas et al., 2011; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008; Kazemian et al., 2011; Monahan et al., 2009; Pacheco & Hutz, 2009; Patacchini & Zenou, 2008; Rodríguez & Torrente, 2003). Some of the interventions used to address juvenile delinquency include mentoring, group-based therapies, shock incarceration, therapeutic interventions, and parenting interventions (Cecile & Born, 2009; Dodge et al., 2006; Dorius et al., 2004; Mathys et al., 2008; Tolan et al., 2008).

The focus of this study was on psychosocial maturity of adolescents, which provides a broader and more dynamic view on juvenile delinquency (Cruise et al., 2008). Psychosocial maturity is the progressive development of an individual's "psychosocial understanding" (Bauer et al., 2011, p. 4) that equips an individual with the tools towards responsible adulthood (Steinberg & Cauffman, 1996). Psychosocial maturity is often conceptualized into three dimensions: (a) temperance, which is the ability to control one's emotions, particularly pertaining to impulses that may impact decision-making; (b) perspective, which is the ability to gauge one's actions in terms of the short-term and

long-term consequences, including the costs and benefits of their actions; and (c) responsibility, which may include the ability to assess one's abilities and weaknesses with reasonable accuracy and honesty, the ability to resist pressure from their peers, and the ability to make independent decisions (Steinberg & Cauffman, 1996).

The gap in the literature was the seeming lack of studies on the different levels of psychosocial maturity in relation to different parenting styles, specifically the typologies for permissive neglectful and permissive indulgent parenting styles. I aimed to examine if there was a significant difference in measures of psychosocial maturity among juvenile offenders based on different parenting styles. The results of the study might be beneficial in understanding of the relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity and parenting styles.

Chapter 3: Research Method

I aimed to examine the relationship between psychosocial maturity and the experienced parenting style of juvenile offenders.

Research Design and Rationale

The research design for the study was quantitative correlational. The quantitative approach provides the ability to compare variables to determine whether there are significant statistical relationships between these variables (Cozby, 2001). Multiple regression analysis was used to provide a more precise understanding of how the variables were related. In particular, this investigation addressed whether a relationship existed between the measures of psychosocial maturity based on three independent variables (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity) and the experienced parenting style based on three independent variables (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive) in juvenile offenders involved with intensive in-home services. Data on experienced parenting styles were collected using the PSDQ-Short Version (see Robinson et al., 2001), and measures of psychosocial maturity were collected from the responses of participants on the Psychosocial Maturity Index (PSMI). Measures of the three experienced parenting styles served as the three independent variables, and measures of three aspects of psychosocial maturity served as the three dependent variables in this study.

A correlational design was appropriate for this study because I investigated the relationship between parenting styles and psychosocial maturity levels. Multiple

regression analysis was appropriate because it provided additional information to the traditional correlational design. According to Leary (2012), regression analysis is often used to further the findings of correlational research. Specifically, this design addressed the impact of three different parenting styles. The three independent variables were authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, or permissive parenting. The three dependent variables were the three aspects of psychosocial maturity: self-reliance, work orientation, and identity in juvenile offenders. This design was appropriate because it allowed an assessment of a linear relationship between the measures of psychosocial maturity and the experienced parenting style (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive) in juvenile offenders (see Burns & Grove, 2005). The results of the study may provide a more detailed understanding of how parenting styles are related to the level of psychosocial maturity of juvenile offenders, specifically juvenile offenders who have been involved with the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice and have received intensive in-home services.

Population

To gain access to the population, I sought referrals through several private providers of counseling services (See Appendix A) in Virginia licensed by the Department of Behavioral Health and Developmental Services (DBHDS). According to the Virginia Department of Medical Assistance Services (DMAS, 2012) Provider Manual, intensive in-home services are services for children/adolescents under the age of 21. Services are intensive, time-limited interventions provided typically but not solely in

the residence of a child who is at risk of being moved into an out-of-home placement or who is being transitioned to home from out of home placement due to documented clinical needs of the child (DMAS Provider Manual, 2012).

The services provide the following interventions according to the DMAS Provider Manual (2012): crisis treatment and communication skills; case management activities and coordination with other required services; and 24-hour emergency response. Youths participating in this service must have the functional capability to understand and benefit from the required activities and counseling interventions of intensive in-home services (DMAS Provider Manual, 2012). Further eligibility requirements for this service mandate that individuals must demonstrate a clinical necessity arising from a severe condition due to a mental, behavioral, or emotional illness that results in significant functional impairments in major life events (DMAS Provider Manual, 2012). Two of the following criteria must be met on a continuing or intermittent basis:

1. have difficulty in establishing or maintaining normal interpersonal relationships to such a degree that they are at risk of hospitalization or out-of-home placement because of conflicts with family or in the community;
2. exhibit such inappropriate behavior that repeated interventions by the mental health, social services, or judicial system are necessary; and
3. exhibit difficulty in cognitive ability such that they are unable to recognize personal danger or recognize significant inappropriate social behavior.

Responses were sought from those clients who met eligibility requirements in the intensive in-home program, including the second eligibility requirement with a specific focus on those youths who are known to the judicial system and in the 11th grade appropriate for responding to the Psychosocial Maturity Index Form D. A flyer (Appendix B) about the study was provided to each of the identified intensive in-home providers regarding the study. The flyer communicated that I was doing a study on psychosocial behavior and parenting practices. The flyer also indicated that participation was optional and independent of the intensive in-home agency and DBHDS. Potential respondents were advised of the 5-dollar honorarium for participating in the study. I advised potential respondents that surveys must be completed at the designated library and at a scheduled time.

To address concerns of dealing with a vulnerable population, anonymity was ensured by informing participants that they did not have to include their name and/or any other identifying information on the survey. Each participant was assigned a participant number based on whether they were part of the juvenile offenders' group or the parent/caretaker group. That information was not matched to any other documentation. Subsequent to the collection and scoring of both survey instruments, I secured data in an envelope and locked safe cabinet. Electronic copies of the data were kept on a computer drive and included coded data that identified respondents based on their respective code given to the survey they completed. This information was password protected, with the password being known only to me. The only identifying information was gathered during

the informed consent stage, and this information was secured using a sealed envelope and locked in a safety cabinet.

I used a convenience sampling technique to select participants. Convenience sampling is a form of nonprobability sampling in which the participants are selected according to their availability, accessibility, and proximity to the researcher (Urdu, 2005). A convenience sampling plan is based on the potential respondents' willingness to participate in the study (Urdu, 2005). Willingness to participate in the study was characterized in the current study by a positive response to the survey invitation as well as the participant's willingness to sign the consent form. This study provided a nominal financial benefit of 5 dollars for each youth and parent/guardian. This research was funded by Focus on Youth Mentoring (see Appendix C). The dissemination of the results from this study may indirectly benefit the participating juvenile offenders by helping to identify parenting styles that enhance psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

When calculating the sample size for this study, I considered three factors. The first factor was the power of the test. The power of the test measures the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis (Keuhl, 2000). In the current study, a power of 80% was selected to adequately reject false null hypotheses (see Moore & McCabe, 2006). A power of 80% ensured the statistical analyses could provide valid conclusions with regards to the total population. This provided 80% strength in terms of assessing the validity of the statistical tests that were conducted. The second factor was the effect size,

which measures the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the study (Cohen, 1988). For the purpose of this study, moderate effect size was selected because this would once again provide evidence of a relationship between the independent and dependent variables without being too strict or lenient. For multiple linear regression, which was used in this study, medium effect size for a single independent variable is considered to be $f^2 = 0.15$ according to Cohen (Coolidge, 2013). Cohen set the standard for effect size with .02 indicating small; .15 medium and .35 large (Coolidge, 2013).

The final factor to be considered was the level of significance. The level of significance is the probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis and is usually defined as being equal to 5% (Moore & McCabe, 2006). The level of significance was selected prior to conducting the analysis so that I could determine whether there was a significant relationship between the variables. For this study, the level of significance was 5% because this provided 95% confidence that any statistically significance finding would be correct. Based on the above information, the minimum sample size was calculated through G*Power considering 80% power, the medium effect size for a single independent variable with three total independent variables, and a significance level of 5%. Using G*Power 3.1.9.2 for multiple linear regression, the minimum sample size for this study was 55 participants.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Parenting Styles Dimensions Questionnaire-Short Version (PSDQ-Short Version).

The PSDQ-Short Version, formerly called the Parenting Practices Questionnaire (PPQ), is a 32-item self-administered survey used to measure parenting practices (Baumrind, 1989). According to Baumrind, the primary parenting styles typologies are: authoritarian/controlling (physical coercion, verbal hostility, non-reasoning/punitive dimensions); authoritative/directive (warmth and support, reasoning/induction, and democratic participation dimensions); and permissive (indulgent dimension) (Robinson, Mandelco, Olsen, 1995). The questionnaire was developed by Clyde Robinson.

According to Robinson (2015), there was no publication date for the short form (C. Robinson, personal communication, July 14, 2015). The PSDQ was used to measure the experienced parenting style because this tool has been widely used among many researchers (Robinson et al., 1995). The PSDQ has been validated in the United States, China, and Russia (Robinson et al., 1995). For each of the three subscales, PSDQ has factor structure reliability [authoritarian/controlling $\alpha = .82$, authoritative/directive $\alpha = .70$, and permissive, $\alpha = .76$] (Domino, 2000). In terms of convergent validity, Robinson et al. (1995) demonstrated links between parenting styles and a variety of children's social behaviors and school success using the PSDQ in the United States, China, and Russia.

The PSDQ - Short Version (Appendix D) is a 32-item measure in which parents rate their parenting behaviors toward their child. For the purpose of this study, the

participants were asked to rate the items according to their experienced parenting styles. This assessment is designed to measure Baumrind's authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive parenting styles using a Likert-type scale (Robinson et al., 2001). Based on the results of Robinson et al., the survey questionnaire is reliable and valid in measuring the constructs of authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive parenting styles. A recent study conducted by Sandstrom (2007) found adequate internal validity (Cronbach's alpha of .83 for authoritarian/controlling, .87 for the authoritative/directive, and .79 for permissive). The PSDQ - Short Version was also found to have internal consistency reliabilities (Robinson et al., 2001).

Permission to use the PSDQ-Short Version was obtained (Appendix E).

Participants responded to questions on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = about half of the time, 4 = very often, and 5 = always). There are 12 questions measuring authoritarian/controlling parenting style, 15 questions measuring authoritative/directive parenting style, and 5 questions measuring permissive parenting style. For each item, scores were calculated using the Parenting Styles Dimensions Questionnaire Constructs Scoring Key, on how often participants experience certain parenting behaviors from their parents (Appendix F). Higher scores indicated that the parenting style is exhibited in higher levels by the parents. These three interval scale scores were used as independent variables in multiple linear regression.

The Psychosocial Maturity Index Form D (Appendix G) is a 93 item self-report inventory assessing various dimensions of personal responsibility on a four-point Likert-type scale (1 for strongly agree; 4 for strongly disagree) (Colwell, Cruise, Guy, McCoy, Fernandez, & Ross, 2005). It was developed by Ellen Greenberger and published in 2001. The PSMI Form D was chosen as a shorter version compared to its predecessors. According to Greenberger (2013), the PSMI Form D has shorter scales and their reliability and validity are just as good (Greenberger, personal communication, June 18, 2013). According to Colwell, et al. (2005), scores are summed to yield three individual subscale scores (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity), with higher scores reflecting more responsive behavior. The validity and psychometric properties of this measure have been well established. As determined by Colwell et al. (2005), the Cronbach's reliability value for the subscale scores is within the range of .88 to .93. Permission to use the PSMI Form D was received (Appendix H).

Data Collection

Referrals were sought through several private providers of counseling services in Virginia licensed by the DBHDS. A flyer advertising the study was given to potential respondents by the intensive in-home agency employee. Persons distributing the flyers reminded potential participants that participation was optional and did not impact their intensive in-home services.

The agency identified youth who participated in their services (intensive in-home services), who were in the 11th grade and whose case was referred to the agency due to

involvement with the juvenile justice system. One criterion for the study was receiving intensive in-home services. This criterion was automatically met if the participant was receiving the service. Another requirement was that participants were in the 11th grade. This was confirmed based on the documented agency assessment (the assessor inquired about current grade level and current enrolment in school) and demographic information completed at the time of intake for intensive in-home services. The intake documentation also confirmed whether the participant had been involved in the criminal justice system and whether they were referred by the criminal justice system. The respective agency's receptionist completed an initial review of the file confirming each criterion was met. The receptionist prepared a list of clients who met the inclusion criteria for the study.

I responded to those prospective participants identified by the agency by providing a brief overview of participation requirements to include the purpose of the study; anticipated time to complete surveys; and required authorizations. Appointments to survey prospective participants were scheduled by personally contacting them through email or a phone call. Scheduled times were mutually agreed upon for the prospective participants and I. Interviews were conducted face to face between 9 am. and 8 pm. Monday-Friday daily based on the prospective participant's availability and at the designated library.

Both youth and parent/guardian were present together at the scheduled time. Consent and assent forms were signed then with data collection only beginning after consent and assent had been confirmed. Meetings occurred at a conference room located

at one of Richmond Public Library locations (1400 Hull St. Richmond, VA 23224; 101 E. Franklin St. Richmond, VA 23219; 1200 N. 25th Street Richmond, Virginia 23223; 5420 Patterson Avenue Richmond, Virginia 23226). The specific library location was chosen based on convenience for the participants. The conference room door was closed to allow for privacy.

Participants were provided with research packets at their scheduled survey time. Research packets included a consent form (Appendix I), a parenting style dimension questionnaire, psychosocial maturity index questionnaire, and a demographic survey. The consent form for the participants was in the form of parental consent. Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire, the Parenting Styles Dimensions Questionnaire-Short Version (PSDQ-Short Version) or the Psychosocial Maturity Index (PSMI), and a demographic survey. The parent/guardian also completed an Extent of Participation Form (Appendix J) this form indicated what the youth would be doing to participate in the study. The demographic survey (Appendix K) consisted of questions on age, gender, ethnicity, educational attainment, and juvenile's offense(s). Completing the questionnaire and the survey was estimated to take approximately thirty minutes. Those tasks took that amount of time in most cases or a few more minutes infrequently requiring up to forty-five minutes.

During data collection, if a youth and/or parent/guardian stated that they wanted to hurt themselves or presented other emotional issues (s)/problem(s) requiring professional intervention, they were to be referred to the licensed professional counselor

within the agency where they were receiving intensive in-home services. There were no incidents.

Upon completion of the survey instruments, participants gave completed documents to the researcher. Also, I informed participants to contact me if they had any additional questions. After participants completed surveys and other forms, each participant was given five dollars (\$5) cash. Participants were given the honorarium despite partial or full participation. There were no incidents of partial participation.

Data Analysis

After data collection was completed, the data was entered into an Excel spreadsheet and prepared for analysis in IBM SPSS Statistics 23. Each juvenile delinquent was represented by one row in the spreadsheet, and each row included the delinquent's ID, recorded demographic variables, the answers to each of the 32 PSDQ items completed by the parents, and the answers to each of the 30 PSMI items completed by the juveniles. Data was double checked for discrepancies and data entry errors prior to analysis through tools available in the software. The scale scores for each of the three parenting styles and the three psychosocial maturity scales was then calculated in the software as recommended in Appendices F and G, respectively.

Prior to addressing the research question, the demographic variables (including age, gender, and ethnicity) were summarized in frequency tables, which included the number and percentage of respondents in each demographic category. Education was not

summarized as being in the 11th grade was considered a pre-requisite for inclusion in the study. An analysis was performed to answer the research questions.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research question for this study was determining whether there is a relationship between parenting style and psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders.

RQ1: Does parenting style relate to self-reliance in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 1a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H_0 1a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a 1a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance.

Subquestion 1b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritative/directive scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H_0 1b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a1b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

Subquestion 1c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H₀1c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a1c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance.

RQ2: Does parenting style relate to work orientation in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 2a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

Subquestion 2b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

Subquestion 2c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation.

RQ3: Does parenting style relate to identity in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 3a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores of the identity scale on the PSMI)?

H₀3a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity.

H_a3a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity.

Subquestion 3b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritative/directive scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores of the identity scale on the PSMI)?

H₀3b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and identity.

H_a3b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and identity.

Subquestion 3c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores on the identity scale of the PSMI)?

H₀3c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and identity.

H_a3c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and identity.

In order to address the three hypotheses associated with each research question, a multiple linear regression was used (three linear regressions total, one for each research question). This analysis determined the linear relationship between each of the three

independent variables of experienced parenting style (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive) and the dependent variable of self-reliance, work orientation, or identity. The relationship of each individual parenting style to the dependent variable was determined while simultaneously accounting for the other two parenting styles, which is an advantage of using multiple linear regression.

Each independent variable was tested for significance with the use of a *t*-test and an associated *-p*-value. *P*-values less than the significance level of 0.05 were considered statistically significant. The effect size of partial correlation was also reported for each parenting style in each linear regression to understand the practical impact of each one on the psychosocial maturity index subscale; partial correlation ranges from -1 to 1, and indicated the strength and direction of the relationship of each independent variable with the dependent variable. Additionally, an overall R^2 was reported for the model for each research question; this value can be between 0 and 1 and indicated the proportion of variability in the specific aspect of psychosocial maturity that was explained by the three parenting styles. A value close to 1 indicates that nearly all variability in the dependent variable can be explained by parenting styles; a value close to 0 indicates that there are many other factors that explain the specific dependent variable aside from parenting style.

The assumptions of multiple linear regression include (1) independence of observations (was accomplished through the sampling methodology, ensuring each family is surveyed independently of each other family); (2) linear relationships of the

parenting style variables with the psychosocial maturity index subscale (this can be evaluated through visualization with scatterplots); (3) normality of model residuals (residuals are the difference between the predicted psychosocial maturity measure and the actual measure, and this can be tested through visualization with a histogram as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality); (4) homogeneity of variance (this means that the variance in model residuals similar for all levels of the specific psychosocial maturity index subscale, and can be evaluated through visualization with scatterplots); and (5) lack of strong correlations among the independent variables (this was evaluated through calculation of variance inflation factors (VIFs) for each of the three independent variables in each model).

Validity and Ethical Considerations

Threats to validity for this study included multiple treatments for the participants, instrumentation, and selection of participants. In order to mitigate multiple treatments for the participants, administration instructions were followed for the PSMI and PSDQ. Each instrument outlined specific instructions for completion and scoring. In addition, the use of valid questionnaires minimizes the threats to internal validity. As mentioned, the two questionnaires have been tested to be valid and reliable in measuring the constructs of psychosocial maturity and parenting styles. Last, in order to address the threat in selecting participants, I ensured that participants were selected randomly to mitigate personal biases but at the same ensuring that they all met the eligibility criteria set forth for the participants of the study. The receptionist at the respective counseling agencies

randomly selected the candidates to be contacted for the study based on them meeting the criteria for inclusion in the study. Random and convenience sampling was also used. For convenience sampling, it should be noted that the primary premise of convenience sampling is that members of the target population are homogenous and do not differ in research results obtained from a random sample (Etikan, Abubaker, AlKassin, 2016). Caution should be exercised when convenience samples are used as the convenience sample should not be taken to be representative of the population (Etikan et al.).

For the ethical considerations of the study, informed consent was sought from all participants prior to actual data collection. Participants were provided with a research packet including the informed consent form. Prior to the start of the study, participants were required to sign a consent form and to complete the questionnaires considered in this study. Assurances were made that no identifying information (i.e., names, addresses, and phone numbers) was to be on the questionnaire or the demographic survey to assure that participant's identity is only known by the researcher. Instead, participants were assigned a participant number. Participants were informed that they were not required to stay in the study, could withdraw at any time, with no negative consequences.

Participants were allowed to skip a question if they were uncomfortable with responding to the question. Skipped questions were treated as missing values. The missing value was replaced with the mean score for that item or question. The replacement by the mean score was made in order to be able to give a value for that response instead of just subtracting the lack of response from the total number of participants for a specific

question. After the study is completed, participants were provided a summary of the research findings to offer some information on psychosocial maturity and experienced parenting styles that affect juvenile offenders.

Summary

The research methodology was a quantitative, correlational research design and included the use of multiple linear regression. A correlational design was used to determine the linear relationship between two continuous variables (Burns & Grove, 2005). A quantitative research design was more appropriate for the study than a qualitative design because a qualitative design would not allow the assessment of a direct relationship between two variables (Cozby, 2001). Rather, with a qualitative study, the how and why questions of the research topic are approached (Creswell, 2009). The multiple linear regression enhanced the statistical rigor of the study as it provided more precise information about the relationship between variables.

The data for this study was collected via research packets presented to participants. The participants included youth involved with the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice receiving intensive in-home services and their parent/caretaker.

Chapter 4: Results

For the purpose of the current study, I examined the relationship between psychosocial maturity as measured by the three subscales of PSMI (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity) and experienced parenting style as measured by the three parenting styles of PSDQ (authoritarian/controlling, authoritative/directive, and permissive) in juvenile offenders. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to provide a more precise understanding of how the variables were related. Three major research questions, with each having three subquestions, were used to guide the study. Each subquestion had a null and alternative hypothesis:

RQ1: Does parenting style relate to self-reliance in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 1a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H_0 1a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a 1a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance.

Subquestion 1b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the

authoritative/directive scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H₀1b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a1b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

Subquestion 1c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to self-reliance (as measured by the summed scores of the self-reliance scale on the PSMI)?

H₀1c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance.

H_a1c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance.

RQ2: Does parenting style relate to work orientation in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 2a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

Subquestion 2b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

Subquestion 2c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to work orientation (as measured by the summed scores of the work orientation scale on the PSMI)?

H₀2c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation.

H_a2c: There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation.

RQ3: Does parenting style relate to identity in the sample of juvenile offenders?

Subquestion 3a: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritarian/controlling parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritarian/controlling scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores of the identity scale on the PSMI)?

H₀3a: There is no relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity.

H_a3a: There is a significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity.

Subquestion 3b: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of authoritative/directive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the authoritative/directive scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores of the identity scale on the PSMI)?

H₀3b: There is no relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and identity.

H_a3b: There is a significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and identity.

Subquestion 3c: In the sample of juvenile offenders, does the level of permissive parenting style (as measured by the mean score of the permissive scale on the PSDQ) relate to identity (as measured by the summed scores on the identity scale of the PSMI)?

H₀3c: There is no relationship between permissive parenting style and identity.

H_{a3c} : There is a significant relationship between permissive parenting style and identity.

Data Collection

From July 2018 to September 2018, 60 11th grade juvenile offenders completed the PSMI and 60 parent/caretakers (41.7% were caretakers and 58.3% were parents) completed the PSDQ. All participants completed informed consent forms indicating their willingness to participate in the study. All juvenile participants were receiving intensive in-home services and had committed a juvenile offense, an additional requirement to participate in the study. Table 1 presents the demographics of juvenile offenders. Most of the respondents were males 17 years of age and African-American. Table 1 also presents juvenile offenses.

Convenience samples, according to Etikan et al. (2016), should not be taken as representative of the population. Etikan et al. further posited that the research does not know how well the convenience sample will represent the population. Consistent with these cautions, I did not assume that the convenience sample would represent the population. Table 1 lists criminal offenses as reported by the juveniles. Criminal offenses were grouped into six categories based on the similarity of offenses. Assault and assault on family member were grouped together. Breaking and entering and trespassing were grouped. Cocaine with intent to distribute, drugs/weed, marijuana, and possession and possession of marijuana were all grouped. Burglary and theft were grouped. Truancy, truancy/trespassing, and trespassing/curfew violation were grouped. Property destruction,

vandalism, and destruction of property were grouped. The most reported juvenile offense was assault (31.6%) followed by drug charges (30%).

Table 1

Demographics of Juveniles (N = 60)

		Frequency	%
Gender	Female	19	31.7
	Male	41	68.3
Age	15	15	25.0
	16	12	20.0
	17	33	55.0
Ethnicity	Black	42	70.0
	Mexican	2	3.3
	Puerto Rican	1	1.7
	White	15	25.0
Crime	Assault	19	31.6
	Drugs	18	30
	Truancy	10	16.7
	Breaking and Entering	5	8.3
	Destruction of Property	5	8.3
	Burglary	3	5.0

Results

Summary Statistics of the Variables

There were six variables in this study measuring psychosocial maturity, in terms of the three sub-scales of PSMI: self-reliance, work orientation, and identity, and experienced parenting style, in terms of the three parenting styles of the PSDQ: authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, permissive parenting style. The summary statistics of the variables are presented in Table 2. The questionnaires were administered as planned without compromise.

For the PSMI, self-reliance represents feelings of internal control and the ability to make decisions without extreme reliance on others. Work orientation represents pride in the successful completion of tasks. Identity represents self-esteem and consideration of life goals. All scales have scores that range from 1 to 4, with higher scores representing more responsible behavior. The average scores of the three sub-scales of PSMI ranged between 2.15 ($SD = 0.45$) and 2.40 ($SD = 0.43$), indicating that the juveniles who participated in this study had moderate levels of responsible behaviors in terms of self-reliance, work orientation, and identity.

The PSDQ measures three aspects of parenting style as reported in this study. Those parenting styles included authoritative/directive, authoritarian/controlling, and permissive. Each is ranked on a Likert-style scale from 1 to 5, where 1 means the caregivers do not engage strongly in that style of parenting, and 5 means the caregivers do strongly engage in that style of parenting. The average scores of the two out of three

sub-scales of PSDQ (authoritarian/controlling and permissive) were below 2, indicating that parent/caregivers who participated in this study did not engage strongly in these two parenting styles. The average score of the authoritative/directive parenting style was 3.28 ($SD = 1.21$), indicating that parent/caregivers who participated in this study engaged moderately in the authoritative/directive parenting style.

Table 2

Summary Statistics of the Variables

	Sub-scale	Mean	Median	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
PSDQ	Self-Reliance	2.15	2.00	0.45	1.40	3.30
	Work Orientation	2.36	2.20	0.50	1.40	3.60
	Identity	2.40	2.40	0.43	1.70	3.80
PSMI	Authoritative/directive	3.28	4.00	1.21	1.53	4.93
	Authoritarian/controlling	1.95	1.37	1.22	1.00	4.58
	Permissive	1.92	1.10	1.34	1.00	4.60

Data Analysis Procedures

Three multiple linear regressions were used to examine the relationship between psychosocial maturity PSMI (subscales: self-reliance, work orientation, and identity) and experienced parenting style in terms of the three parenting styles of PSDQ (authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, permissive parenting style) in juvenile offenders and their parent/caretakers. For a

multiple linear regression model, one of the three sub-scales of PSMI was used as the dependent variable, and the three parenting styles of the PSDQ were used as the independent variables.

The initial analysis (using the original scores of self-reliance, work orientation, and identity of the juveniles as the dependent variables and the three parenting styles as independent variables) showed a non-normal distribution of residuals, resembling the skewed pattern of the self-reliance score (Figure 1), the work orientation score (Figure 2), and the identity score (Figure 3). The black line indicates what the outline of the histogram would look like if the residuals were approximately normally distributed. Because the residuals were not normally distributed, a natural log transformation was applied to each of the sub-scales of PSDQ, including the self-reliance score, the work orientation score, and the identity score.

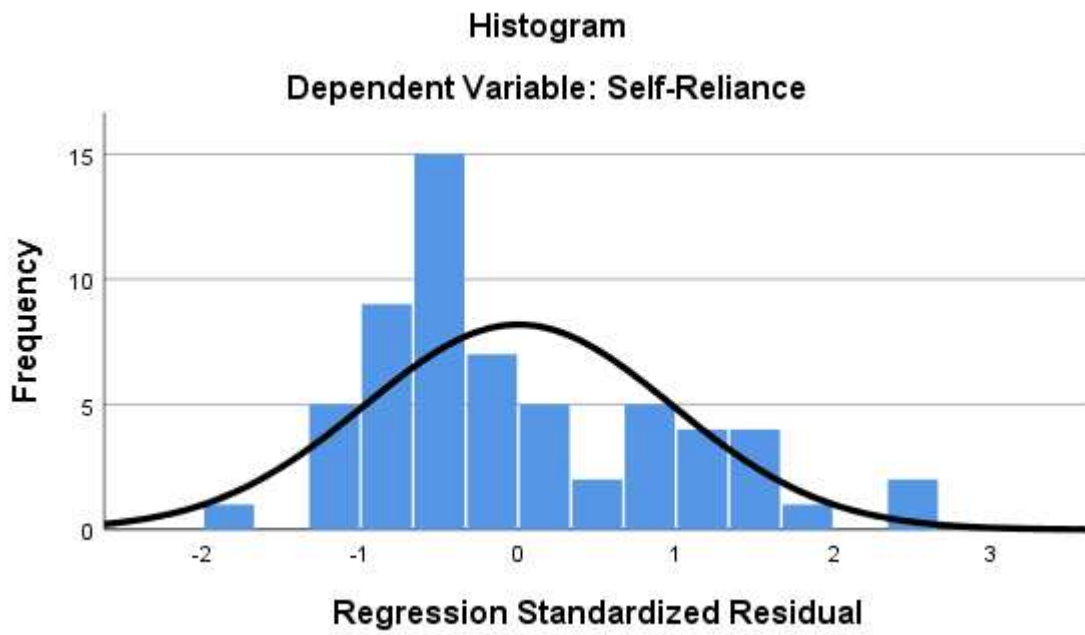


Figure 1: Histogram of regression residuals (Dependent variable = score of self-reliance).

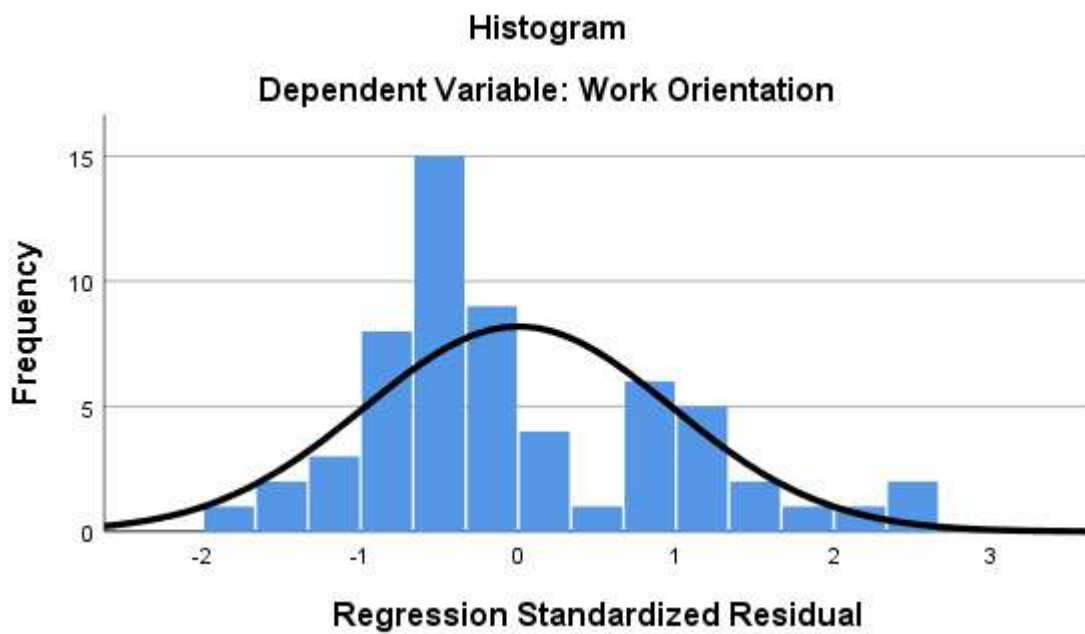


Figure 2. Histogram of regression residuals (Dependent variable = score of work orientation).

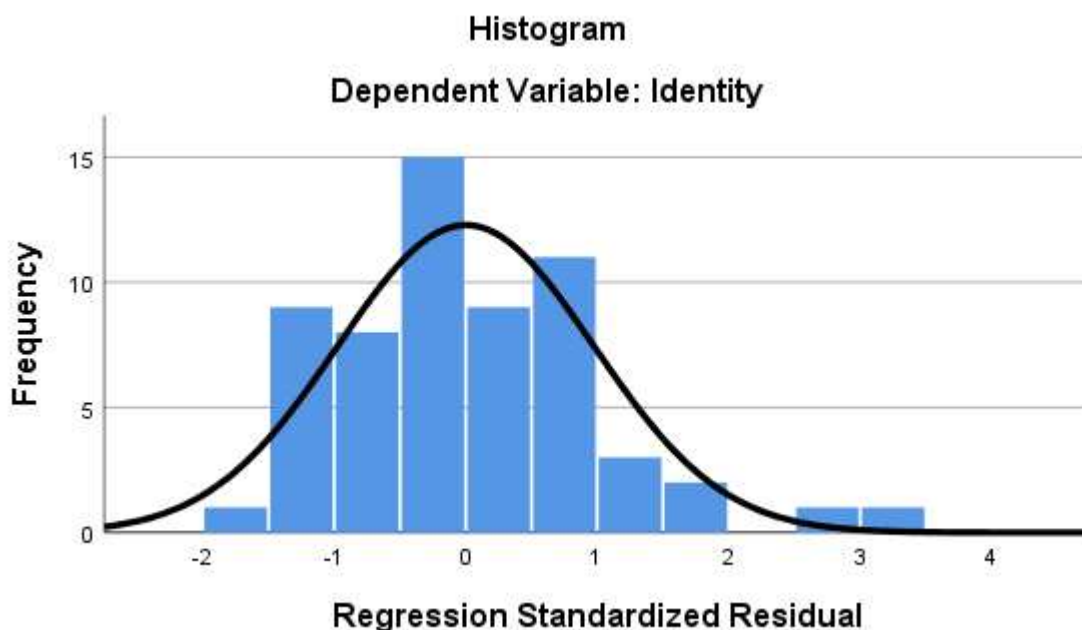


Figure 3. Histogram of regression residuals (Dependent variable = score of identity).

The transformed scores of self-reliance, work orientation, and identity were used as the dependent variable in the regression analysis for RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3, respectively. The four assumptions of multiple linear regression, including (1) linearity, (2) normal distribution of residuals, (3) homogeneity of the variance of the residuals, and (4) lack of correlation of independent variables, were examined for each regression model in order to ensure the regression results were robust and valid.

Assumption of Linearity

One of the assumptions of linear regression is that the relationships of the independent variables to the dependent variable (after accounting for other effects and relationships among the independent variables) are linear. Assessing the linearity of the

relationship between the adjusted $\ln(\text{self-reliance})$ values and the adjusted parenting style scores was accomplished by the use of partial regression plots (Figures 4, 5, and 6 for RQ1; Figures 7, 8, and 9 for RQ2; Figures 10, 11, and 12 for RQ3). In each plot, the individual points did appear to generally follow the pattern of the best-fit line. When using the Pearson correlation coefficient, the assumption according to Coolidge (2013) is that the cluster of points is the best fit by a straight line. Linearity implies that there is no curvature in the relationship of X and Y around the best-fit line—it is unrelated to clustering of the X values and unrelated to the assumptions of the model (Neter, Kutner, Wasserman, & Nachtsheim, 1996). There was no curvature of the points around the line and there were no points that “stand out” as not fitting this pattern. Therefore, the relationships of the parenting styles to the transformed dependent variables can be assumed as linear. The linearity assumption was satisfied with all three regression models.

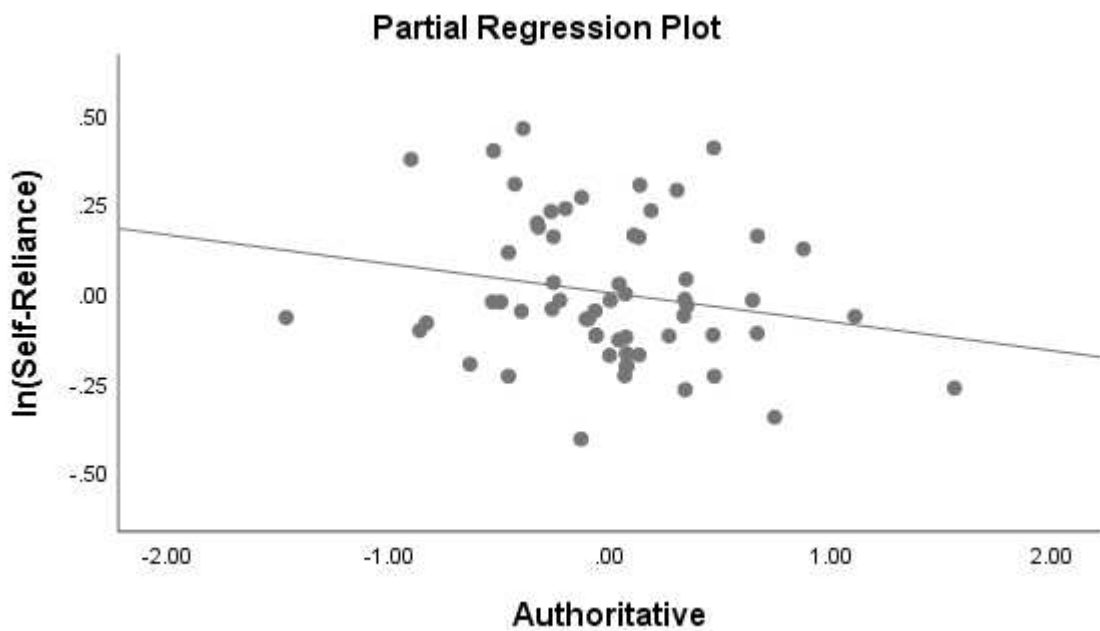


Figure 4. Partial regression plot of authoritative score vs. ln (Self-Reliance).

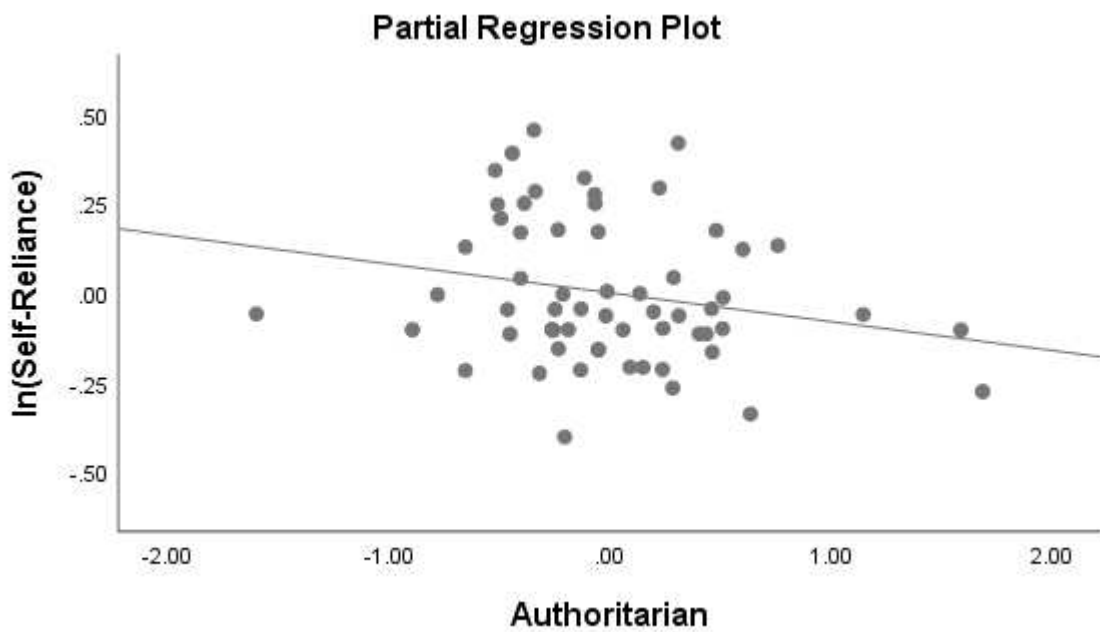


Figure 5. Partial regression plot of authoritarian score vs. ln (Self-Reliance).

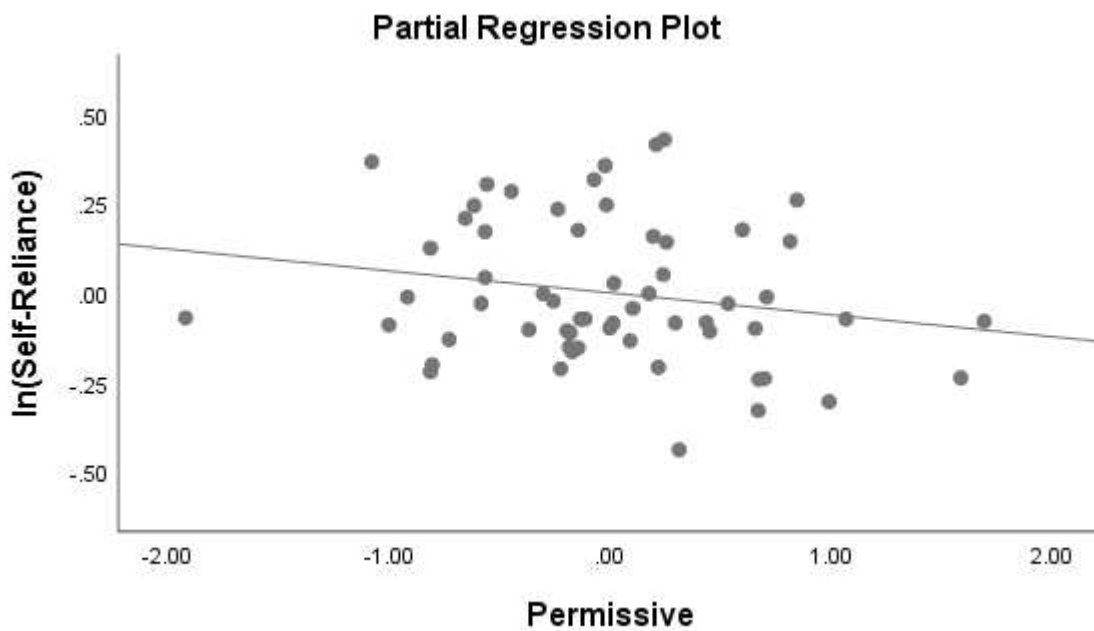


Figure 6. Partial regression plot of permissive score vs. In (Self-Reliance).

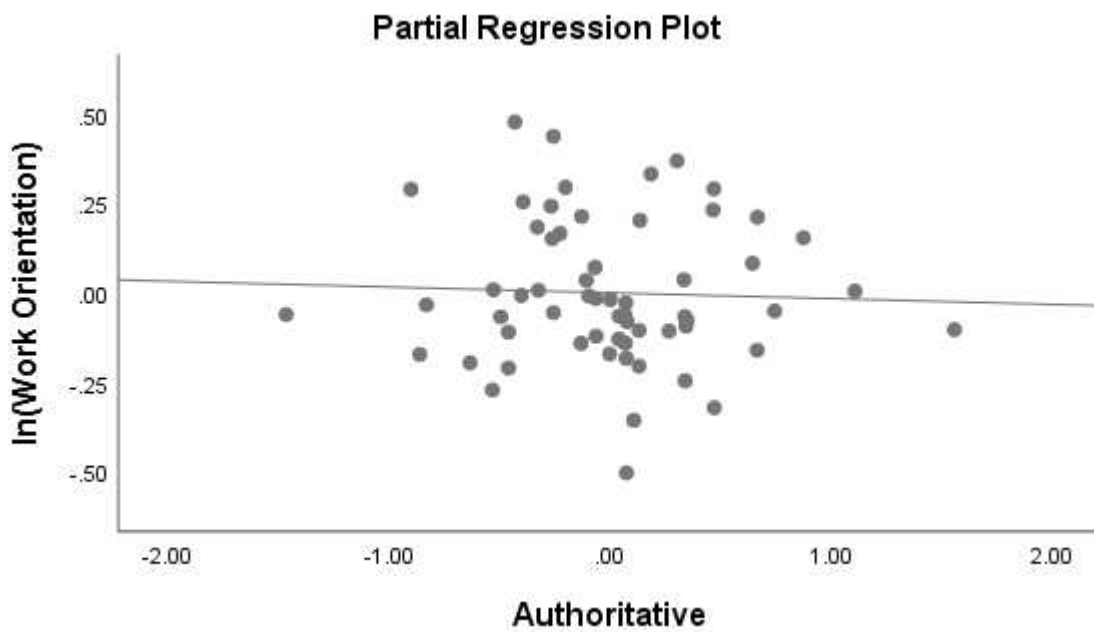


Figure 7. Partial regression plot of authoritative score vs. In (Work Orientation).

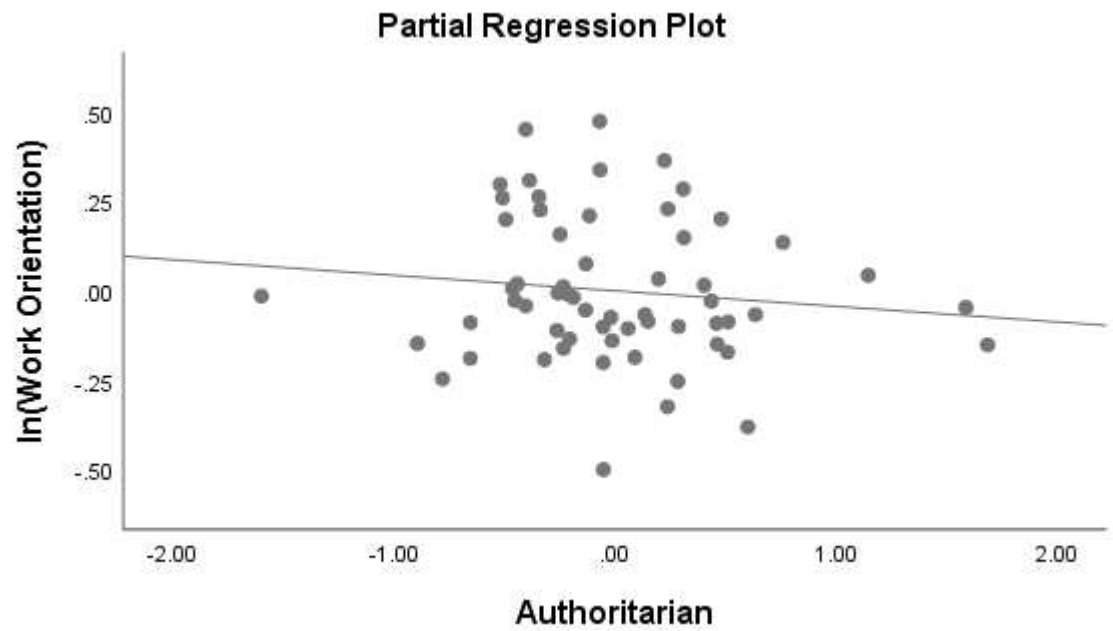


Figure 8. Partial regression plot of authoritarian score vs. ln (Work Orientation).

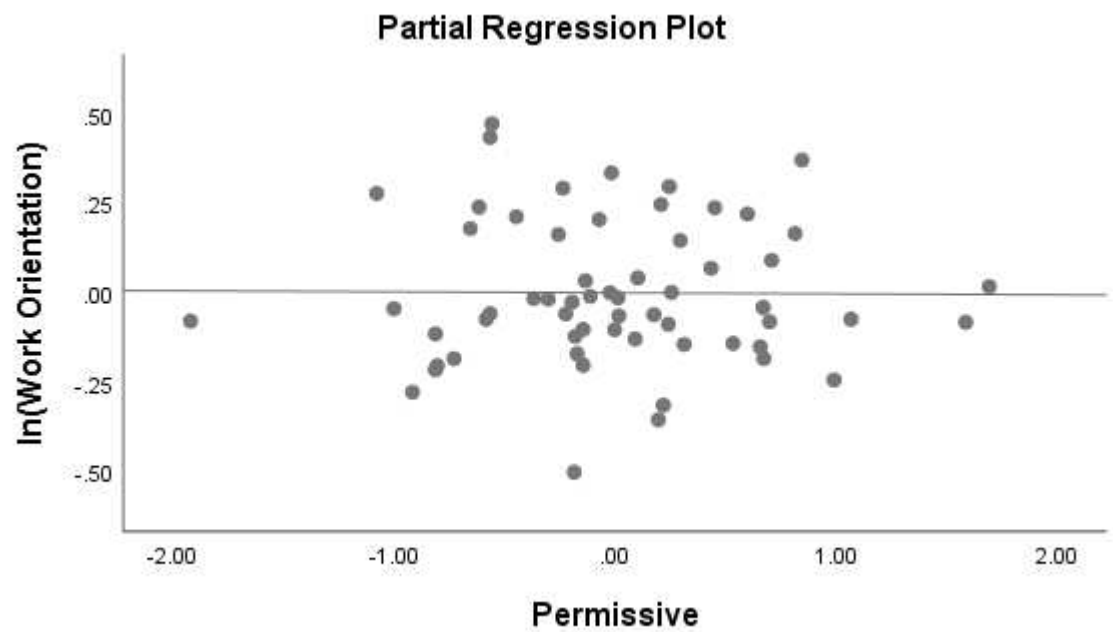


Figure 9. Partial regression plot of permissive score vs. ln (Work Orientation).

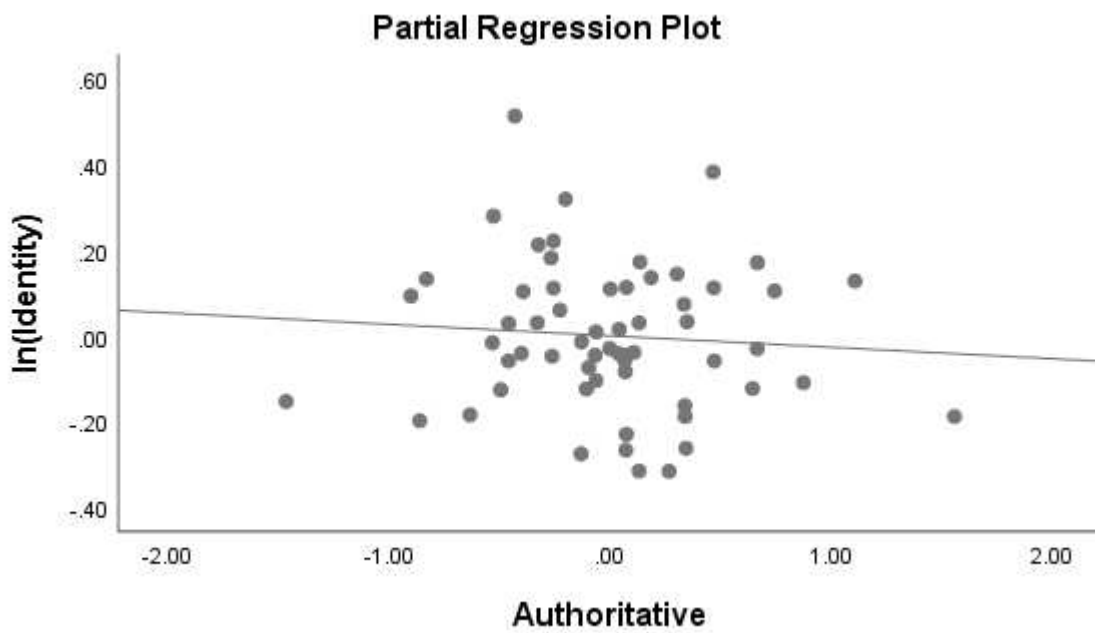


Figure 10. Partial regression plot of authoritative score vs. ln (Identity).

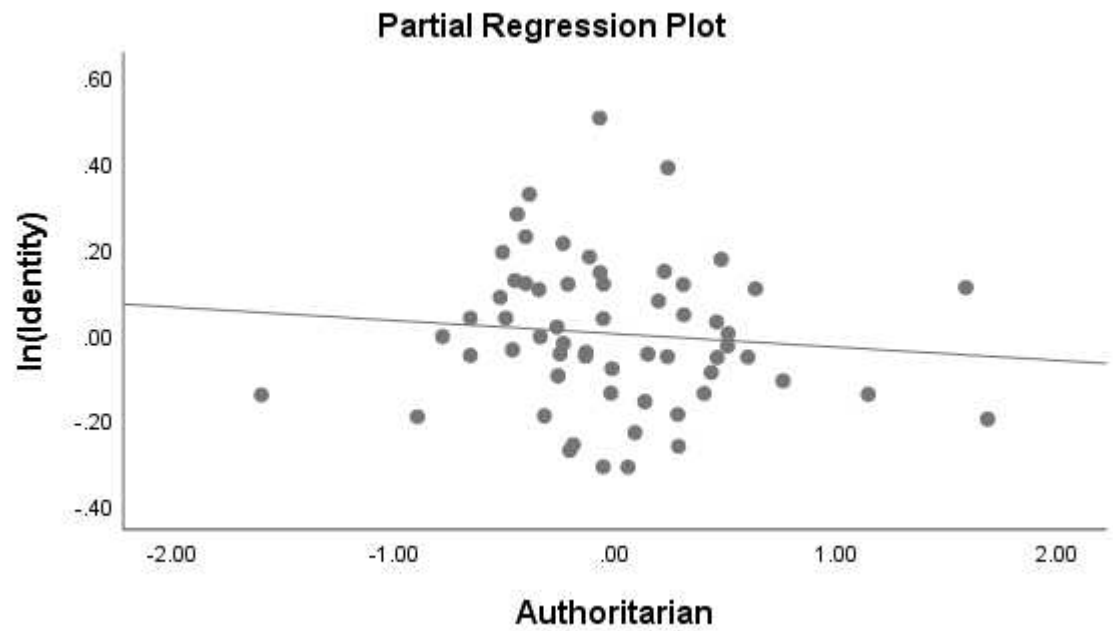


Figure 11. Partial regression plot of authoritarian score vs. ln (Identity).

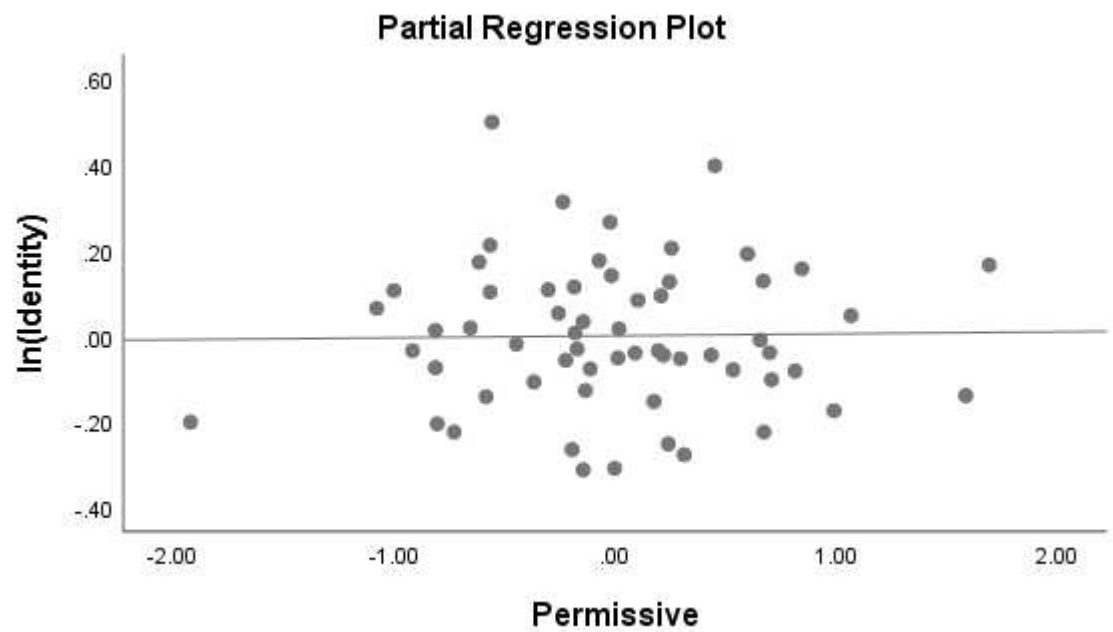


Figure 12. Partial regression plot of permissive score vs. ln (Identity).

Assumption of Normal Distribution of Residuals

The second assumption of multiple linear regression is the residuals had normal distribution. By using the natural log transformation of each of the dependent variables of psychosocial maturity measures of self-reliance, work orientation, and identity, the residuals of the model were made more normally distributed (Figures 13 to 15, histograms of the residuals for the regression models with transformed dependent variables). Additionally, the Shapiro-Wilk test did not indicate significant non-normality at the 0.05 level of significance ($W(60) = 0.96, p = 0.08$ for RQ1; $W(60) = 0.97, p = 0.19$ for RQ2; $W(60) = 0.98, p = 0.48$ for RQ3). The normality assumption was hence satisfied for all three regression models.

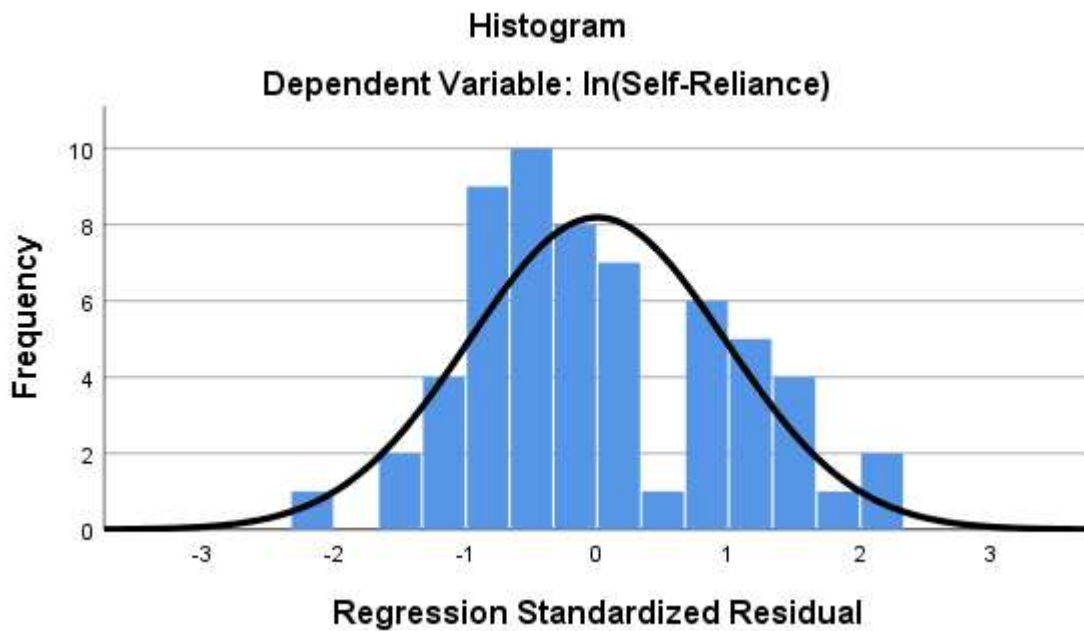


Figure 13. Histogram of $\ln(\text{Self-Reliance})$ regression residuals.

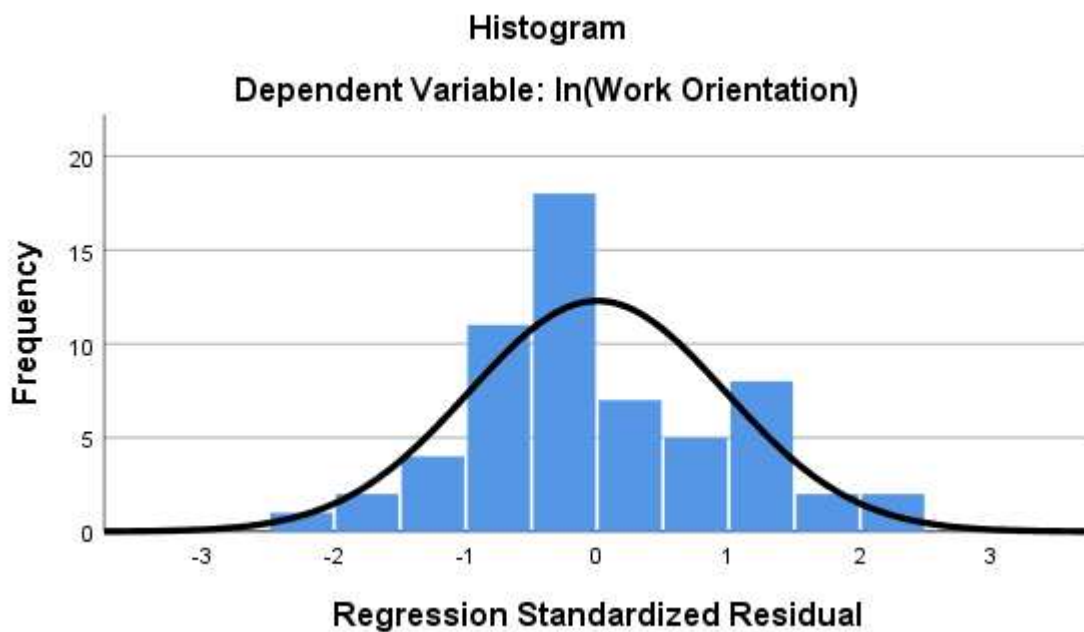


Figure 14. Histogram of $\ln(\text{Work orientation})$ regression residuals.

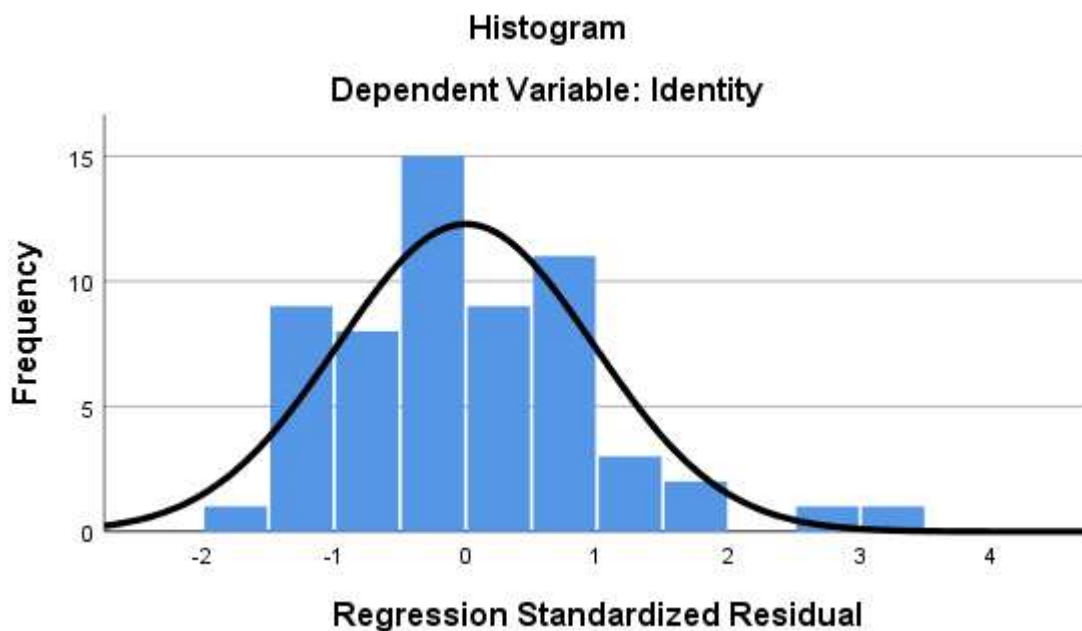


Figure 15. Histogram of ln (Identity) regression residuals.

Assumption of Homogeneity of Variance of the Residuals

Homogeneity means that the variance of the residuals is similar no matter what the predicted value of the outcome is. This assumption was examined by creating scatterplots of the residuals versus the predicted value of ln(self-reliance) (Figure 16), the residuals versus the predicted value of ln(work orientation) (Figure 17), and the residuals versus the predicted value of ln(identity) (Figure 18). The distances of the points from the line in each figure appeared uniform at all predicted values. Therefore, the assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals was verified for all three models.

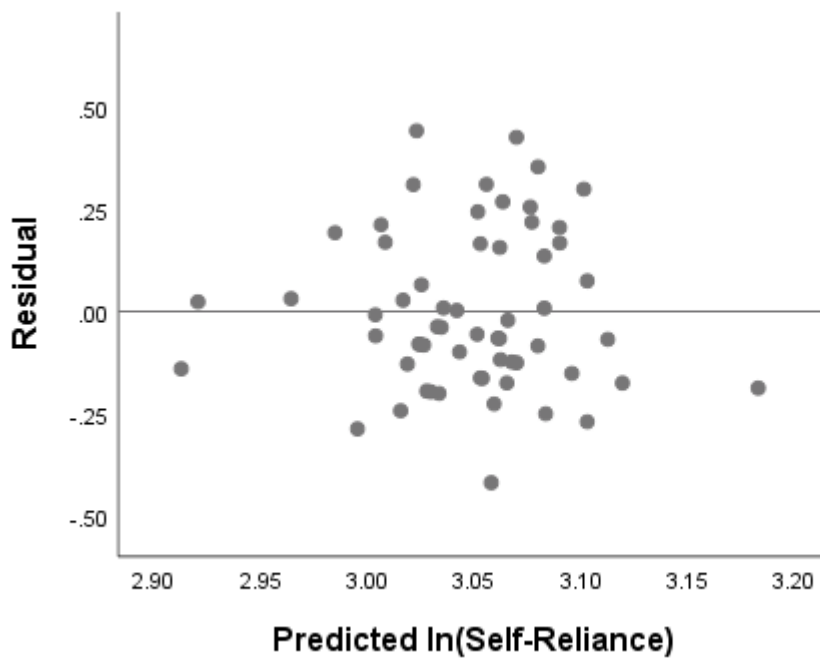


Figure 16. Scatterplot of residuals vs. predicted values of $\ln(\text{Self-Reliance})$.

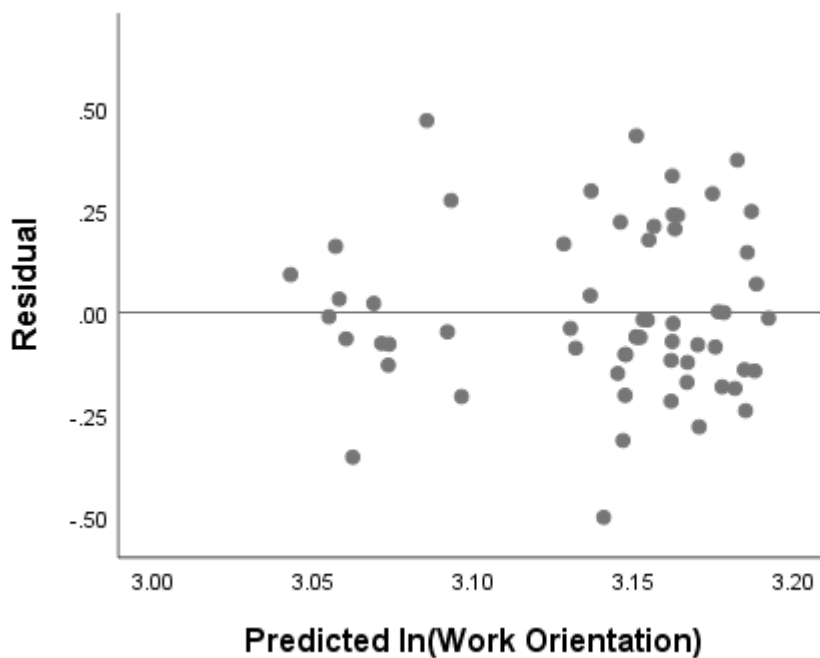


Figure 17. Scatterplot of residuals vs. predicted values of $\ln(\text{Work Orientation})$.

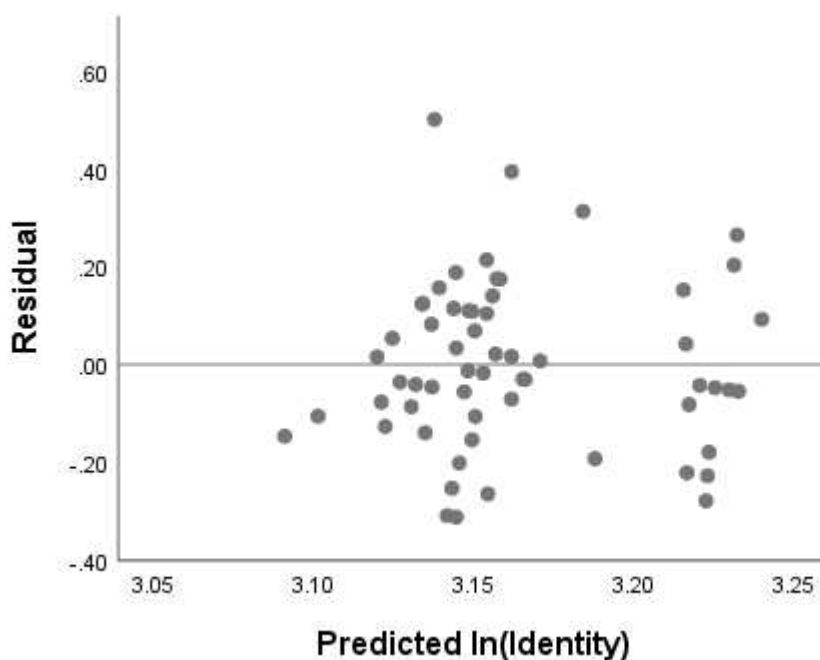


Figure 18. Scatterplot of residuals vs. predicted values of ln (Identity).

Lack of Correlation of Independent Variables

Finally, the model assumes that the independent variables (in this case, the parenting style) are uncorrelated to one another as a whole. To determine whether this was the case, the variance inflation factors (VIFs) in Tables 3 to 5 were examined. These numbers are related to the amount of variance in each parenting style that can be “explained” or is associated with variance in the other two parenting styles. The value of VIF greater than 10 indicates the presence of collinearity. In this specific model, all three VIFs were less than 10, indicating that the independent variables were not too highly correlated with one another. The assumption for the lack of correlation of independent variables was satisfied for all three models.

Analysis Results of RQ1

Research question 1 asked: Does parenting style relate to self-reliance in the sample of juvenile offenders? In other words, RQ1 examined how the three parenting styles of the adults (i.e., authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, and permissive parenting style) relate to self-reliance among the sample of juvenile offenders. Multiple linear regression with the transformed self-reliance score ($\ln(\text{Self-reliance})$) as the dependent variable and the three parenting styles of the adults (i.e., authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, and permissive parenting style) as the independent variables analysis results of the multiple linear regression are presented in Table 3. The $R^2 = 0.05$ indicated that 5.0% of the total variation in the dependent variable, log-transformed self-reliance score, can be explained by the three independent variables, score of authoritarian/controlling parenting style, score of authoritative/directive parenting style, and score of permissive parenting style.

According to the analysis, the results of multiple linear regression are presented in Table 3. Authoritative/directive parenting style, is not a statistically significant predictor of self-reliance, at $t(56) = -1.57, p = 0.12$. Therefore, the 1st null hypothesis of RQ1 (H_{10}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/directive parenting style and self-reliance.

Authoritarian/controlling parenting style, is not a statistically significant predictor of self-reliance, at $t(56) = -1.69, p = 0.10$. Therefore, the 2nd null hypothesis of RQ1 (H_{20}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship

between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance. Permissive parenting style, is also not a statistically significant predictor of self-reliance, at $t(56) = -1.53, p = 0.13$. Therefore, the 3rd null hypothesis of RQ1 (H_{30}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance. Overall, the findings indicated that parenting style does not relate to self-reliance in the sample of juvenile offenders.

Table 3

Overall Results of Linear Regression Model (Dependent variable = \ln (Self-Reliance))

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>VIF</i>
Intercept	3.588	0.325	11.04	< 0.001	
Authoritative/directive	-0.081	0.052	-1.566	0.123	5.826
Authoritarian/controlling	-0.081	0.048	-1.694	0.096	4.975
Permissive	-0.061	0.040	-1.531	0.131	4.246

*Note: $R^2 = 0.050$; *DF* of the *t*-statistic = 56.*

Analysis Results of RQ2

Research question 2 asked: Does parenting style relate to work orientation in the sample of juvenile offenders? In other words, RQ2 examined how the three parenting styles of the adults (i.e., authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, and permissive parenting style) relate to work orientation in the juveniles. Multiple linear regression with the transformed work orientation score (\ln (work orientation)) as the dependent variable, and the three parenting styles of the adults (i.e.,

authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, and permissive parenting style) as the independent variables. The analysis results of the multiple linear regression are presented in Table 4. The $R^2 = 0.043$ indicated that 4.3% of the total variation in the dependent variable, log-transformed work orientation score, can be explained by the three independent variables, a score of authoritarian/controlling parenting style, a score of authoritative/directive parenting style, and a score of permissive parenting style.

According to the analysis results of the multiple linear regression presented in Table 4, authoritative/directive parenting style, is not a statistically significant predictor of work orientation at $t(56) = -0.30, p = 0.76$. Therefore, the 1st null hypothesis of RQ2 (H_{10}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritative/directive parenting style and work orientation.

Authoritarian/controlling parenting style, is not a statistically significant predictor of work orientation, at $t(56) = -0.89, p = 0.38$. Therefore, the 2nd null hypothesis of RQ2 (H_{20}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation.

Permissive parenting style, is not a statistically significant predictor of work orientation, at $t(56) = -0.07, p = 0.95$. Therefore, the 3rd null hypothesis of RQ2 (H_{30}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation. Overall, the question of “does parenting style relate to work orientation in the sample of juvenile offenders?” can be

answered in the negative. Parenting style does not relate to the work orientation of juvenile offenders.

Table 4

Overall Results of Linear Regression Model (Dependent Variable = \ln (Work Orientation))

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>VIF</i>
Intercept	3.283	0.335	9.804	<0.001	
Authoritative/directive	-0.016	0.053	-0.304	0.762	5.826
Authoritarian/controlling	-0.043	0.049	-0.887	0.379	4.975
Permissive	-0.003	0.041	-0.069	0.945	4.246

*Note: $R^2 = 0.043$; *DF* of the *t*-statistic = 56.*

Analysis Results of RQ3

Research question 3 asked: Does parenting style relate to identity in the sample of juvenile offenders? In other words, RQ3 examined how the three parenting styles of the adults (i.e., authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, and permissive parenting style) relate to identity in the juveniles. Multiple linear regression with the transformed identity score ($\ln(\text{identity})$) as the dependent variable, and the three parenting styles of the adults (i.e., authoritarian/controlling parenting style, authoritative/directive parenting style, and permissive parenting style) as the independent variables. The analysis results of the multiple linear regression are presented in Table 5. The $R^2 = 0.05$ indicated that 5% of the total variation in the dependent variable, log-transformed identity score, can be explained by the three independent variables, a score

of authoritarian/controlling parenting style, a score of authoritative/directive parenting style, and a score of permissive parenting style.

According to the analysis results of the multiple linear regression presented in Table 5. Authoritative/directive parenting style, is not a statistically significant predictor of the identity of juvenile offenders at $t(56) = -0.60, p = 0.56$. Therefore, the 1st null hypothesis of RQ3 (H_{10}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/directive parenting style and identity. Authoritarian/controlling parenting style is not a statistically significant predictor of the identity of juvenile offenders at $t(56) = -0.75, p = 0.46$. Therefore, the 2nd null hypothesis of RQ3 (H_{20}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity. Permissive parenting style is not a statistically significant predictor of the identity of juvenile offenders at $t(56) = 0.13, p = 0.90$. Therefore, the 3rd null hypothesis of RQ3 (H_{30}) was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between permissive parenting style and identity. Overall, parenting style does not relate to identity in the sample of juvenile offenders.

Table 5

Overall Results of Linear Regression Model (Dependent Variable = ln (Identity))

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>VIF</i>
Intercept	3.303	0.283	11.679	< 0.001	
Authoritative/directive	-0.027	0.045	-0.595	0.555	5.826
Authoritarian/controlling	-0.031	0.041	-0.749	0.457	4.975
Permissive	0.005	0.035	0.132	0.895	4.246

*Note: $R^2 = 0.047$; *DF* of the *t*-statistic = 56.*

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between parental style and psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to address the research questions of this study. This chapter provided information on the sample of participants and the results of statistical analyses. From July 2018 to September 2018, sixty 11th grade juvenile offenders completed the PSMI. The majority of the adults in the samples were parents (41.7% were caretakers and 58.3% were parents) that completed the PSDQ. The majority of juveniles in the sample consisted of African Americans (70.0%), males (68.3%), and have to age between 16-17 years old (75.0%). Criminal offenses committed by juveniles were grouped in categories. The most reported charges were assault and drug charges. There were six variables in the study that measured psychosocial maturity in terms of three subscales and of the PSMI and experienced parenting style in terms of parenting styles on the PSDQ.

The average scores of the three sub-scales of PSMI (self-reliance, work orientation, and identity) showed that the juveniles who participated in this study had moderate levels of responsible behaviors in terms of self-reliance, work orientation, and identity. For the PSDQ, the average scores of the three sub-scales of PSDQ showed that parent/caregivers who participated in this study did not engage strongly in the two parenting styles of authoritarian/controlling and permissive parenting while parent/caregivers who participated in this study engaged moderately in the authoritative/directive parenting style.

Three multiple linear regressions were used to examine the relationship between psychosocial maturity—each subscale and experienced parenting style in terms of the three parenting styles. In the initial analysis, original scores of the PSMI subscales and PSDQ parenting style scores were used a non-normal distribution of residuals was evidenced. There was a skewed pattern of scores for each of the subscales of the PSMI. A natural log was used to transform all subscale scores of the PSMI and each parenting style. Transformed scores were used in all regression analyses.

The assumption of linearity; assumption of normal distribution of residuals; assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals and lack of correlation of independent variables were used to assess the linearity of the relationship between each adjusted subscale value on the PSMI and each adjusted parenting style score. The individual points in each plot generally followed the best fit line. Given the lack of

curvature of points around the line and lack of points that stood out the relationship between parenting style to the transformed dependent variables was assumed to be linear.

The natural log was used to transform each measure of the dependent variable such that they were more normally distributed. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to determine significant non-normality. Results from the testing satisfied the normality assumption in all three regression models.

The assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals was examined by creating scatterplots of the residuals versus the predicted values of each subscale of the dependent variable. The assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals was verified for all three regression models as the distance of all the points from the line in each figure appeared uniform at all predicted values.

To determine whether the parenting style as a whole, the independent variable was uncorrelated variance inflation factors were examined. The value of the variance inflation was less than 10 in all three models. These findings evidence the lack of correlation of the independent variable was satisfied.

According to the analysis results of the multiple linear regression for RQ1, the 1st null hypothesis of RQ1 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/directive parenting style and self-reliance. The 2nd null hypothesis of RQ1 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and self-reliance. The 3rd null hypothesis of RQ1 was not rejected which concluded that there

was no statistically significant relationship between permissive parenting style and self-reliance. Overall, parenting style was not found to be significantly related to self-reliance in the sample of juvenile offenders.

According to the analysis results of the multiple linear regression for RQ2, the 1st null hypothesis of RQ2 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/directive parenting style and work orientation. The 2nd null hypothesis of RQ2 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and work orientation. The 3rd null hypothesis of RQ2 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between permissive parenting style and work orientation. Similarly, parenting style was overall not found to be significantly related to the work orientation of the sample of juvenile offenders.

Lastly, according to the analysis results of the multiple linear regression for RQ3, the 1st null hypothesis of RQ3 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/directive parenting style and identity. The 2nd null hypothesis of RQ3 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between authoritarian/controlling parenting style and identity. The 3rd null hypothesis of RQ3 was not rejected which concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship between permissive parenting style and identity. All these three findings meant that parenting style does not have a significant relationship to the identity of the sample of juvenile offenders.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between experienced parenting and psychosocial maturity in a sample of juvenile offenders receiving intensive in-home services. I used parenting styles documented in the literature and three subscales of the PSMI to investigate the relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity and experienced parenting style. Because parenting practices are known to influence a child's behavior, it was important to understand the relationship between experienced parenting style and measures of psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders. Cauffman and Steinberg (2000) suggested that the more psychosocially mature a person is, the less likely the individual will be to engage in antisocial and risky behaviors. This relationship warranted examination because an individual's psychosocial understanding equips him or her with the tools needed for responsible adulthood. Meta-analytic reviews revealed the strongest links between parenting and juvenile offending based on parental monitoring, psychological control, and negative aspects of support such as rejection and hostility (Hoeve et al., 2009).

The need for this study was bolstered by the repetition of parent variables related to youth outcomes in previous research. There was a lack of studies that addressed the relationship between measures of psychosocial maturity and experienced parenting style. Juvenile delinquency continues to be a concern with an estimated 856,130 arrests of persons under age 18 in 2016 (OJJDP, 2008).

Interpretation of the Findings

I used the theoretical underpinnings of the general theory, the psychosocial maturity model, and Baumrind's (1978) theories on parenting style. The general theory as related to psychosocial maturity attributes delinquency to a lack of self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Consistent with this theory, low levels of self-control result from parents failing to monitor the child's behavior, to recognize deviant behaviors when they occur, and to punish those behaviors (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Parenting styles are relevant to juvenile outcomes because the literature suggested that parenting styles impact children's societal and criminal behavior (Brown & Lyengar, 2008; Baker-Becker, 2005; Flynn & Nolan, 2008; McLaughlin, 2006; Rytönen et al., 2005). The interplay of these theories enabled me to understand how parenting may impact juvenile behavior and how juvenile behavior may be impacted by measures of psychosocial maturity.

Parental variables have been associated with behaviors in children, providing an explanation for the inquiry into parent-child relationships to understand the nature of delinquency (Contreas et al., 2011; Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008). The role of parents in effecting positive outcomes in their children, especially in regard to controlling delinquent behaviors, identifies parenting as a form of intervention (Dorius et al., 2004). In the current study, all of the juveniles had been involved with the juvenile justice system, and average scores of psychosocial maturity were moderate. Cruise et al. (2008) used the psychosocial maturity model to explain why delinquent behaviors are at a peak

during adolescence. Moffit (2006) also suggested that criminal behaviors are at their peak during adolescence. On average, scores of juveniles reflected a moderate measure of psychosocial maturity leaning to the negative side of responsible behavior on the PSMI. The literature suggested that higher measures of psychosocial maturity are related to more responsible decision-making (Cauffman & Steinberg, 2000). Consistent with the literature, the average moderate measures of psychosocial maturity yielded on the PSMI indicated the highest incident rate of juvenile offenses as assaults indicative of bad decision-making (Cauffman & Steinberg, 2000).

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) suggested a person with moderate self-control would have a set of behavioral and attitudinal problems including predisposition for instant gratification, not wanting to complete tasks or difficult activities, engaging in risky or antisocial behaviors, and showing a lack of investment in social institutions. Based on the crimes reported by juveniles in the study, engaged behaviors were consistent with Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) assertion. Findings from the current study also confirmed Cauffman and Steinberg's (2000) assertion that high measures of psychosocial maturity equip individuals for positive outcomes.

Researchers considered authoritative parenting practices as those practices with the best likelihood of fostering positive outcomes in children (Baumrind, 1989). According to findings from the current study, this assertion was not confirmed. This study indicated that most parents/caretakers employed an authoritative parenting style, yet their children had been involved in the criminal justice system. In addition, most

juveniles had moderate rather than high measures of psychosocial maturity. Research has shown that lack of supervision, lack of discipline, lack of emotional support, and rejection are the most significant factors in predicting delinquency in juveniles (Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986). According to findings from the current study, children growing up in families where authoritative parenting styles were employed did not have the best outcomes based on measures of the PSMI. Authoritative parenting reflects high levels of demandingness and responsiveness (Baumrind, 1971). Parents employing this style are known to monitor and discipline their children in an equitable manner while simultaneously being very supportive of them. Based on the literature, it would seem inconsistent for juveniles who had experienced authoritative parenting practices to be involved in the juvenile justice system and to have moderate measures of psychosocial maturity unless other variables impacted the results. Parents are thought to mold and shape their children through their influence. This is accomplished through the discipline techniques they use. Sixty adults, most identifying as parents rather than caretakers, participated in the study. These parents reported an authoritative parenting style more than other parenting styles on the PSDQ. Parenting styles overall explained only a small portion of the variability in psychosocial maturity measures. Consequently, there may be other variables that contribute to psychosocial maturity that were not measured in this study. There is no evidence that the three parenting styles under investigation were associated with the juveniles' psychosocial maturity as measured by self-reliance, work orientation, or identity subscales of the PSMI. In this study, psychosocial maturity's

relationship to the different parenting styles was examined. Despite observing the relationship between the different parenting styles and psychosocial maturity, I could not determine which variable influenced the other. Each of the dependent variables accounted for a small percentage of variability. As parenting style increased, there was a decrease in self-reliance, work orientation, and identity. The direction of all relationships was negative.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by a nonexperimental, correlational design. Correlations can provide helpful information such as the linear relationship between two variables. However, correlational studies can not support causal relationships (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005). This study was unable to validate that the parenting style a juvenile experienced caused the measure of psychosocial maturity as measured on the PSMI. Additional limitations were inferences that could be drawn from its design, including information about the relationships between variables. Other limitations included a small sample derived from one geographical area that consisted mostly of African American males. The sample was convenient and likely not representative of the larger society. The behavior and attitudes of persons in this geographical area may not reflect the behavior and attitudes of persons in other areas.

There are many variables identified in the literature that influence juvenile delinquency: family environment, parent variables, childhood neglect, peer interactions, genetics and psychosocial maturity, parental monitoring; psychological control, and

negative aspects of support such as rejection and hostility (Baker et al., 2007; Contreas et al., 2011; Cruise, Fernandez, McCoy, Guy, Coldwell, & Douglas, 2008, Guarino-Ghezzi & Tirrell, 2008, Hovee et al. 2009, Kazemian et al., 2011; Pacheo & Hutz, 2009; Patacchini & Zenou, 2008). These variables were not under investigation in this study and their possible impact is not known. Given parenting style only contributed to a small amount of variability in measures of psychosocial maturity other variables are likely to impact measures of psychosocial maturity.

The utilization of self-report measures may present some limitations. Adolescents and parent/caretakers alike may have underreported their behaviors on the questionnaires. Provided participants responded in a socially appropriate manner or embellished negative behaviors rather than a reflection of their beliefs and behaviors, the results of the study would be less valid and less reliable. The survey method of data collection has several inherent limitations, including the sample error, where the survey method is subjective (Mahesh, Neena, & Mohamed, 2011). According to Mahesh et al., errors in measurement, a score representing a person's attitude, abilities, traits or behaviors may not match with reality. Questionnaires have limitations on the length of questions that can be asked in a survey and there are limits to the number of topics that can be covered (Mahesh et al., 2011). It is not always easy to measure theories or concepts which limit this study. Social sciences are often subjected to the unwieldy tasks of trying to measure concepts or theories like psychosocial maturity; the impact of parenting or understanding their relevance to other theories. These tasks are often difficult to measure as they have to

be quantified and measured in a valid and reliable way. In this study, I measured psychosocial maturity using three subscales of the PSMI. Consideration must be given to whether these three subscales are the best overall measure of psychosocial maturity. Self-reliance; work orientation and identity are only three of many scales of the PSMI. These scales were chosen as they represent some of the tasks teenagers face. The self-reliance scale represents feelings of internal control and the ability to make decisions without extreme reliance on others. The work orientation scale represents pride in the successful completion of tasks while the identity scale represents self-esteem and consideration of life goals.

Recommendations

Future studies should include a sample derived from a larger geographical area such that findings are more generalizable. Increasing the sample size enhances the possibility of having a sample more reflective of the population. Utilization of an experimental design in the future will provide more information about possible catalysts for behaviors. Self-reporting of behavior can present some scrutiny because employing objective measures with questionnaires may improve the quality of information gathered and create opportunities to compare objective and subjective reports of behavior. In this study, parents reported their parenting behavior on the PSDQ while juveniles on the PSMI. It is likely that the way they reported endorsing parenting behavior on the PSDQ is different from their child's experience. Future researchers may seek to establish whether

parent/caretaker's beliefs about their parenting behaviors are consistent with those of their children who experienced them or other objective measures.

Implications

The authoritative parenting style is a gold standard for parenting practice while authoritarian and permissive parenting practices are thought to provoke less favorable outcomes in children. Findings from this study may question the effectiveness of authoritative parenting practices or serve to highlight other variables that may be present and impede the implied efficacious nature of authoritative parenting practices. Parents who reported using authoritative parenting practices with their children with moderate measures of psychosocial maturity may be baffled by their child's involvement in the criminal justice system. Professionals may share that same level of exasperation in attempts to understand why parenting styles that are supposed to buffer against certain negative behaviors fail while others that are thought to contribute to poor outcomes may not have the negative effects once believed. Therefore, from the findings of the current study, the parenting style is a variable that may impact juvenile behavior and measure of psychosocial maturity. Noteworthy, parenting practices should not be the sole target of intervention or investigation. Opportunities to impact parenting and juvenile experiences especially as it relates to outcomes will likely have to solicit more information from both parents/caretakers and juveniles.

This study assists in shedding light on the need for further inquiry. It also helps in understanding the plight of a parent who has exhausted their efforts in doing what has

been recommended parenting wise (authoritative parenting) and still having failed results with keeping their child(ren) out of trouble. Social programs and other judicial interventions may need to examine factors in addition to parenting practices that may provoke juvenile delinquency. Enhanced understanding in this area will hopefully assist with curtailing failed interventions and identify strategies to minimize and buffer against juvenile delinquency. Improved understanding of variables in addition to experienced parenting styles may assist with having a more concentrated focus on factors that may have a significant impact on delinquency. Failing to understand the relationship of parenting practices to juvenile delinquency and measures of psychosocial maturity means the stage is set for having juveniles with moderate measures of psychosocial maturity; engage in antisocial behavior despite the best efforts of their parents/caretakers' parenting practices.

The social change and implications of this study rest on the premise that individuals are less likely to engage in antisocial and risky behaviors with higher measures of psychosocial maturity. For the greater good for society psychosocial maturity and its measures should be well understood. While this study does not directly augment an improved understanding of psychosocial maturity as a concept, it establishes that parenting styles accounted for minute variability in psychosocial maturity measured in juveniles. As a matter of social change, exploration must be given to those other variables that may be impacting measures of psychosocial maturity. With improved understanding, parents, educators and our judicial system can work in an informed

manner to encourage the use of evidenced-based practices that improve measures of psychosocial maturity. Better understanding can lead to interventions that are well informed by the literature to decrease delinquency.

The possibility of positively ameliorating the lives of the youth has many benefits. Young people are equipped in a manner that provokes good citizenship and positive contributions to society rather than detracting from society by involvement in the criminal justice system. Better information can transform policies and procedures into workable interventions thereby improving the plight of youth and parent/caretakers. Society reaps the consequences of its citizenry possessing those traits of good citizenship such as honesty; compassion; respect and responsibility.

Conclusion

Social science research is aimed at exploring, analyzing, and conceptualizing human life by verifying knowledge of human behavior and social life (Mahesh et. al.2011). This research complies with what is expected of most research in the social science arena. Through the study, I have provided new ideas and insights about the relationship of psychosocial maturity and experienced parenting style. It is important to understand the relationship between variables – trying to solve a social problem and helping to improve the lives of juveniles and their parent/caretakers. This study called for a systematic and critical investigation of psychosocial maturity. Several theories were utilized with an overarching goal of improving knowledge about measures of psychosocial maturity in juvenile offenders.

I found that there was no statistically significant relationship between parenting style and measures of psychosocial maturity. Parenting style only accounted for a small percentage of the variance in measures of psychosocial maturity suggesting other variables in addition to parenting style are responsible for measures of psychosocial maturity. While the study does not entail speaking of causation, the findings still provide insight into how measures of psychosocial maturity, the dependent variable were impacted by parenting style the independent variable. This study has the potential for provoking further inquiry and may serve as an acceptable starting point for other researchers.

Lackadaisical approaches to understanding variables that impede children from reaching their potential cannot be employed. This study is important as children are born every day, commit crimes every day, and are arrested every day. This matter of understanding psychosocial maturity and parenting is not a minuscule concern. Parents are charged with rearing their children in a responsible way to provoke good behavior. Parents are legally responsible for their children until they become the age of the majority. Understanding the impact of parenting on measures of psychosocial maturity and the link between psychosocial maturity and offending behavior better prepares society for evoking what is needed for more responsible citizenship.

Failing to explore and understand variables that impact psychosocial maturity and certainly, those variables that lead to only moderate measures of it expresses an irresponsible stance on improving the future. Being cognizant of the theory of

psychosocial maturity means efforts must be robust in provoking the best understanding of this theory and the behaviors parents must employ to encourage high measures of it. High rates of juvenile incarceration warrant continued attention to this matter. Deliberate and ongoing consideration is mandated to prepare juveniles for adulthood. A focus has to be placed on the best efforts to excite high measures of psychosocial maturity and fewer opportunities for juveniles to engage in antisocial behaviors.

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Appendix A: Participation Agreements

Provider agreement letters redacted from manuscript for privacy.

Appendix B: Call for Participants

Earn \$5 for helping a local researcher gather information about Juvenile Attitudes and Parenting

Denesha Alexander a doctoral candidate at Walden University is conducting research on the topic above. Each youth and parent/caretaker will be given \$5 cash for participation that takes approximately 30 minutes.

Participation is optional and not required for your continued participation in intensive in-home services. This research is independent of your intensive in-home agency and Department of Behavioral Health and Developmental Services.

In order to participate you must schedule to meet the researcher from 9am-8pm Monday through Friday.

Appendix C: Funding Agreement

Focus on Youth Mentoring, LLC

November 1, 2016

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter serves as notification that our agency will fund Ms. Alexander's research in pursuit of her doctoral degree in Clinical Psychology.

The agency will fund a maximum amount of two thousand five hundred dollars (\$2,500) for the purpose of reimbursing participants; purchasing materials such as ink pens; making copies of surveys and other miscellaneous expenses that may arise in concert with data collection.

As a contingency of this funding agreement, Ms. Alexander will share her research findings with our agency upon completion of her dissertation.

Should you have any questions please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Name redacted from manuscript for privacy

Owner

Appendix D: Permission to Use the PSDQ-Short Version

Via Email September 1, 2016

Greeting Denesha,

You have permission to use the PSDQ-Short Version and you may modify it in any way to meet your research requirements.

Best Wishes,

Clyde Robinson

Appendix E: Permission to use the PSMI Form

September 1, 2016 via email

You have my permission, Ms. Alexander!

Ellen Greenberger

Research Professor

Dept. of Psychology & Social Behavior

University of California-Irvine

Irvine, CA 92697

Appendix F: Extent of Participation

Extent of Youth Participation

(for Parent/Guardian completion)

I understand the extent of my child's participation in this study will be to complete a survey.

The name of the survey is Psychosocial Maturity Index.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. I am also consenting to my child's participation in the study. By signing below, "I consent" , I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above.

Only include the signature section below if using paper consent forms.

Printed Name of Youth Participant

Date of consent

Parent/Guardian Signature

Researcher's Signature

Appendix G: Demographic Survey

Respondent # _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Ethnicity: _____

Education (current grade): _____

Juvenile Offense(s):
