CHILD ABUSE AND SOCIAL CLASS

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A Thesis

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and the Behavioral Sciences

Sam Houston State University

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

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by

James Rhoden

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A THESIS

Approved:

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Jeanne P. Young, Ph.D.

_____
Jack W. Humphries, Ph.D.

Approved:
_____
Pauline Loveless, Ph.D.

_____
Robert G. Brooks, Ph.D.
Vice President of Academic Affairs

ABSTRACT

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Purpose

The objective of this study was to analyze eight
selected social and personal variables and their relation-
ship to child abuse in white collar and blue collar families.
Prior studies of child abuse have usually focused on fami-
lies of lower socioeconomic standings other than middle
class. This is partly due to easier access to this infor-
mation plus a greater amount of information already existing
on lower socioeconomic families. Since it is information
on child abuse of families in the middle class that is
insufficient, class status determination will be limited to
white collar and blue collar social status. The major
hypothesis guiding this study was that no significant dif-
ferences would exist between blue collar and white collar
families with regard to these eight selected variables.

Methods

This study uses a survey questionnaire form to
gather data. Analysis of the information consisted of sepa-
rating respondents into categories of child abuse, blue
collar, and white collar social status, and the eight

selected variables for determining social class differences. Chi-square contingency tables were used to establish significant relationships between the eight personal and social variables relative to child abuse in blue collar and white collar families.

Findings

1. This study indicates that there is a significant relationship between the variable of ethnic background and social class of abused children.

2. This study indicates that there is significant relationship between the variable of father's discipline and social class of abused children.

3. This study indicates that there is a significant relationship between the variable of a father's drinking habits and social class of abused children.

4. This study indicates that there is a significant relationship between attempted suicide and social class of abused children.

5. This study indicates there is a significant relationship between the variable of running away from home and social class of abused children.

6. This study indicates there is a significant relationship between the variable of a mother's drinking habits and attempted suicide and running away from home by her children.

7. This study indicates there is a significant relationship between a father's drinking habits and a father's discipline.

Jeanne P. Young, Ph.D.
Supervising Professor

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The topic of this study is child abuse in middle
class families. Child abuse has been generally viewed as
something that sprang up just recently. Actually child
abuse is quite old in its history. It was evident in the
time of the Greeks and virtually every childrearing tract
from antiquity to the 18th century supported child beating
as a disciplinary measure. The sexual abuse of children
appears to have been even more prevalent in the past than
is evident today. Growing up in Greece and Rome often in-
cluded being abused sexually by older men. Boy brothels
flourished in nearly every city of antiquity (DeMause, 1975).

It is only recently that children have been viewed
as something other than property. This change has occurred
only after centuries as each generation has tried to over-
come the terrible abuse of their own childhood by establish-
ing something better in their relationship to their children
(DeMause, 1975).

Child protection agencies and programs have existed
in this country in some form since the Mary Ellen case of
1874. This particular case involved a child who was being
beaten everyday and who was seriously malnourished. Attempts
to help the child were futile until, in desperation, an

appeal was made to the American Society for the Prevention
of Cruelty to Animals (Fontana, 1964). The early protec-
tive services developed after 1875 primarily focused efforts
on physical abuse and neglect found in the slums, within
industrial exploitation, and among immigrants (Zalba, 1966).

For many years a few private organizations and
foundling homes were the only institutions interested in
child protection. Local, state, and federal governments
were not concerned as long as somebody else was taking care
of these problems. Child abuse itself was considered a
minor problem. During this time parents continued to bring
their fractured and abused children to the hospitals, but
it was not until much later that the use of X-rays were to
show what caused these injuries (Fontana, 1973).

Child abuse has recently received more recognition
than was previously given to it. Major efforts throughout
the United States have been made to deal with this phenomenon.
Legislation has been passed by the fifty states establishing
reporting centers for child abuse as well as requiring re-
porting under criminal penalty. Television and radio broad-
casts are being used to alert the public to the existence of
the problem and the necessary steps needed to report it.

Until the establishment of the central registry
centers of the states, few means existed for determining the
extent of child abuse. The central registry center results
in part from the heightened interest in child abuse that

goes back to the years after World War II. At this time
doctors and social workers determined violent physical
attacks by parents and other caretakers as the cause of
the puzzling phenomena of concurrent subdural hematomas
and multiple fractures of the long bones in very young children
(Gil, 1971).

However, whether or not the problem is growing is
still unanswered at this time and probably will not be known
until after several years of collecting and analyzing data
from the different states.

It appears historically that concern for children
and parental mistreatment of children is directly related
to the decline of sanctioned societal violence toward
children themselves. Sanctioned societal violence has been
seen in the form of child labor, indenture, slavery, and
other means of enlisting children as a source of cheap labor
as well as in the form of physical violence upon the person
(Giovannoni, 1971).

The recognition of physical abuse of children in
the late nineteenth century as shown by the establishment of
the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children in-
volved children abused not by their parents. The abuse came
from outside agencies such as cruel employers, or "foster"
and "adopted parents" who were more like employers rather
than parents (Gil, 1971).

Concern about physical abuse of children by their own parents is actually of relatively recent origin. In part this increasing interest in the problem of child abuse is a result of new medical technology such as the use of X-rays in diagnosis (Gil, 1971).

In the 1950's and 1960's a substantial amount of writing was done on the subject of child abuse and neglect. Papers were presented at conferences of physicians, social workers and lawyers. Numerous radio and television specials and announcements in regards to child abuse and neglect were aired, also. This publicity and intensive interest of professional groups led to the enactment in the 1960's of legislation requiring physicians to notify welfare and law-enforcement authorities of incidents of suspected child abuse (Gil, 1971).

At the same time this growing concern led to efforts to investigate the scope and nature of the phenomenon. As more knowledge accumulated concerning the problem of child abuse and neglect, it became of major importance to obtain a more accurate picture of the true incidence of the problem. Grants were awarded and several major studies, such as those by Gil and Young, were done in regard to the incidence and causative factors of child abuse (Gil, 1971).

The Problem

The problem of this study is child abuse in blue collar and white collar families. The means of pinpointing accurately the incidence of child abuse and its causative agents are not yet available. A national central registry for the reporting of child abuse incidents will help but it is not the complete answer.

Most studies on the incidence of child abuse and neglect are slanted toward lower socioeconomic populations since data for the studies are often gathered from Department of Public Welfare files. It seems also true that the problems of families on welfare are much more visible as a result of exposure to the welfare services. Instances of child abuse and neglect in more affluent families not on welfare roles are not nearly so exposed to public scrutiny and as a result much less data are available regarding the incidence of child abuse and neglect among these families.

While the true incidence rate of child abuse is not known, considerable data do exist regarding the incidence and family characteristics of child abuse in the lower socioeconomic classes of American society. However, very few studies exist that gather this type of information specifically from the blue collar and white collar families of American society. The need for further information on child abuse in this area is well known. A review of the literature

shows there is a dearth of knowledge concerning the back-
grounds and behavior patterns of children and parents associ-
ated with the incidence of child abuse in the middle class.
The problem then is that more information is needed about
child abuse in the middle class in order to secure a more
complete picture of the incidence of child abuse and factors
relative to its occurrence.

The Purpose

The purpose of this thesis will be to further know-
ledge of the incidence of child abuse among middle class
white and blue collar families by compiling information
gathered from students enrolled in a state university rela-
tive to their child abuse experiences. By gathering infor-
mation on these students and their families by a question-
naire, by relating this to the reported incidence of child
abuse and by determining what variables are relative to its
occurrence, the main purpose of this thesis should be accom-
plished.

In the coming sections will be a review of the liter-
ature to examine recent research on factors relative to
child abuse. Also included will be a methodology chapter
showing how the data were obtained and broken down and in
Chapter IV, a detailed analysis of the data will be presented,
followed by a summary and conclusion.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature will deal primarily with the relationship of socioeconomic and social class variables to child abuse. Secondarily, the literature pertaining to incidence surveys will be reviewed since this is similar to the format in this study.

Literature on child abuse is continuing to grow as a result of the larger roles medicine, law, social work, and the community must play in this area. There is a tremendous need for more knowledge that would aid these institutions in providing greater protection and care for the abused child.

One of the difficulties early researchers found when dealing with child abuse was ascertaining the extent of the problem. As more instances of abuse were being discovered serious questions were also raised in regard to the causes of this abuse. One of the first problems encountered in further studies of child abuse was the actual definition of it. The numerous definitions put forth have caused problems in the scientific investigations of child abuse.

Child abuse as a sufficiently precise variable was attempted in a review of the literature by D. Weisfeld. He found the term lacking as a psychological, medical or legal

concept. Yet all fifty states currently have child abuse laws and all are in agreement that one may not physically abuse a child to the point of death. Yet to this day, the problem of definition has never been resolved (Roberts, 1974).

It is no less confusing when one looks at the purported causes of child abuse. Most attempts at finding cause end up in writing about the characteristics of one or both parents as causal factors. Authors such as Steele, Pollock, Flynn, and Fontana list a range of psychological disorders and social conditions within the family as major reasons for child abuse (Roberts, 1974).

Fontana goes into detail in classifying and discussing the causes. He lists emotional immaturity, neurosis, or psychosis, mental deficiency, lack of information, misinformation, authoritarian discipline, criminal sadism, and drug addiction on the part of the parents as some of the factors involved in child abuse. The emotionally immature are interested in satisfying their needs first and are very insecure. Their security often depends on how well their child behaves, the slightest misbehavior becomes a threat to their security and they become frightened and attack (Fontana, 1973).

Factors Relative to Child Abuse

Psychiatric knowledge pertaining to the problem of child abuse is meager and frequently nonspecific. Social

workers and other investigators have published reports that describe the battering parent as of low intelligence and sometimes as psychopathic or sociopathic. Alcoholism, sexual promiscuity, unstable marriages, and minor criminal activity are reported as common to this type of family. It should be noted, however, that some studies have shown that the beating of children is not confined to people with psycho-pathic personalities or a borderline intelligence or low socioeconomic status. The battered child has been seen in financially stable families of good education and social background (Raffalli, 1970).

The several social and economic strata of society as well as the various ethnic and nationality groups tend to differ, for numerous environmental and cultural reasons, in their child rearing philosophies and practices, and con-sequently in the degree of approval for corporal punishment of children. These socioethnic and economic factors are reflected in significant variations in the incidence rates among these diverse groups. For example, some American Indian tribes never use physical punishment to discipline their children, while relatively high incidence rates of physical punishment seems to exist among American Blacks and Puerto Ricans (Giovannoni, 1971).

The economic environment a family lives in also seems to play a part in child abuse. Family disorganization in general cannot be confined to one class. Social class imposes

certain behavioral standards and permits or prohibits what the family may act out in plain view of the community. Lack of economic resources and the request for financial assistance does expose a family often to an investigation that would under other circumstances be rejected by non-assisted middle class families as an invasion of privacy.

Official knowledge and action against family members who violate the law is often dependent upon the social status and financial resources of that family. Lack of financial resources for a family may limit alternate solutions that could stop this invasion of privacy. Consistent and severe parental abuse can more easily be concealed by a family of high social status. No studies show abuse to be limited to any one class, but conditions of modern living seem to promote the recognition of it in the most economically deprived class. In Young's study there was nothing to substantiate an assumption that neglect and abuse of children are confined to the lower economic social classes (Young, 1971).

Although lower stratum economic background seems to have a relatively high rate of child abuse incidence it may be partly due to biased reporting procedures. It may be true that the poor and non-whites are more likely to be reported than middle-class and white population groups for anything they do or fail to do. The net effect of reporting bias with respect to child abuse cannot at this time be estimated (Giovannoni, 1971).

Young concluded in her study that no one knows the root causes of abuse and neglect, nor is it known whether or not the causes are unitary. It is thought that when a child grows up under the care of neglectful and abusive parents he will in turn create the same kind of home for his children. Young's study of neglectful and abusive families shows evidence of this concern in that of 301 fathers and mothers, 158 were from homes in which they were physically neglected or abused. Sixty-six were severely rejected by their families, 45 grew up in institutions, 23 were characterized as being different from other members of their family and only 9 out of 301 had any positive relationship with a member of their own families (Young, 1971).

The foregoing would seem to indicate that childhood environment plays a big role in the causation of pathological families. However, there is no evidence that any great proportion of abusing parents have themselves been abused as children. A number of psychiatrists believe there may be organic or constitutional factors involved. They believe people are born with a predisposition toward a particular personality. Environment may deter or encourage its development but the seeds are already present in the genetic make-up of an abusive individual (Young, 1971).

Several interesting psychiatric studies have been done that provide different perspectives as to the causes of child abuse. William R. Flynn, believes child abuse to

be dependent upon structural and dynamic elements within the psyche of the adult. He believes abusing parents tend to project their anger onto their children, while denying it and repressing it in themselves (Flynn, 1970).

He goes further to state that the hateful feelings ascribed to the children are actually feelings of the parent toward another adult. The parent may think the child hates him but the child does not and the feelings of hate are actually the parent's own feelings.

The suicidal mother often thinks of her child as an extension of herself. Punishing the child is like punishing herself. She often picks an overloved individual for her victim. By identifying her child with herself she may project her own unacceptable symptoms on to the victim. The motive of sparing the victim of the same fate as the mother is quite common, (i.e., "I've had such a bad life and marriage, I'm not going to let this happen to you.") What seems to occur is role reversal in which the child becomes the parent and the parent becomes the child. When this occurs the parent may feel that the child is rejecting her. He thus ascribes his feelings of rejection to the child. Parents may feel that they were abandoned by their mothers as children. The child is identified as the mother, then the parent kills the child when they really wanted to kill their own mother or father (Resnick, 1969).

In a fascinating study of parents who murder their children, six reasons for this type of behavior are given. The first is called altruistic, and is commonly seen in suicidal mothers and fathers. This is where a mother will attempt suicide and kill her child also because she cannot stand to see it abandoned at her death. A second type of murder may occur to relieve suffering. This is usually due to delusions that the child is suffering or that she is possessed by the devil or evil spirit. The third classification includes the acutely psychotic parents who kill under the influence of hallucinations, epilepsy, or dilirium. The fourth is the unwanted child, actually a child who is just not wanted. The fifth category is accidental killing and is a result of the "battered child syndrome." It is believed in this case homicidal intent is lacking. However, according to Young, intent to harm is present. The last category is revenge of the spouse, and this takes place to make the spouse suffer by killing his favorite child (Resnick, 1969).

Also in connection with child murders a 40 percent rate of incest was found perpetrated by mothers who killed their children. They had eroticized relationships with their murdered children and the destructive wishes aimed at the original incest object were reactivated and vented on the current incest object, the child (Resnick, 1969).

In another family study of child abuse it was found
by Steele and Pollack that child abusers suffered a lack
of mothering themselves and therefore revealed deciciencies
in their own motherliness. In this same article, in six
of the families studied the educational level of the abuser
was higher than the occupational level. It was also be-
lieved that in each case of child abuse a specific fantasy
about the child existed for the parent. They often felt
that the child was extremely dirty, evil, or just different.
Extremes in dominant-passive or aggressive-passive marital
relationships between parents were found in many instances
of child abuse (Terr, 1969).

The family dynamics leading to child abuse are
complex. Theories such as role reversal or "violence breeds
violence," are thought to be too simple to satisfactorily
explain the many forces leading to child abuse (Terr, 1969).

Classification and Typology

Two classifications of parents that often ascribe
adult motives to a young child's behavior are neurotic and
psychotic. The parents may have poor reality contact, i.e.,
they may claim a six month old child hates them when at that
age a child does not know what hate is. The mentally defi-
cient or uninformed often do not have the intellectual capa-
bilities to raise a family especially when they cannot be
helped or reached by an outside agency. It is common for

these types of families to select one child as a scapegoat, viewing him as ugly, different, or stupid, perhaps as a reflection of the parents' own upbringing, though this is not limited to the unintelligent or ignorant.

The disciplinarians are able to take out their anger and frustrations on a child under the guise that physical punishment is a legitimate method of child rearing. Severe and excessive beatings are easily allowed since the parent "knows" it is for the child's own good. The criminal/sadistic parents are the most bizarre. They beat and kill for the sheer joy of it. They show no guilt or remorse and are incapable or normal human relationships (Fontana, 1973).

The alcoholic is included under the addict category. While some people do seem to become vicious under the influence of alcohol and drugs much of the harm done to children comes from the loss of economic or emotional support in that the parent now uses money and/or energy for his drinking or drug habit and not for his child's welfare (Fontana, 1973).

Zalba's Typology

While this typology has not been empirically tested or quantified, it is an interesting typological treatment of abuse and should be mentioned. Zalba presents a problem/ treatment typology and within each category he specifies (1) the immediate danger to the child, (2) the locus of the

dysfunction in the child parent relationship, and (3) the reason for the aggression/abuse. In addition, treatment objectives and strategy are outlined regarding the listed categories (Zalba, 1967).

He divides the abusive parent into the following six categories:

1. psychotic parent;
2. pervasively angry-aggressive parent;
3. depressive passive-aggressive parent;
4. cold compulsive disciplinarian parent;
5. impulsive, but generally adequate parent with marital conflict; and
6. parent with identity-role crisis

Using the first classification, the psychotic parent, as an example of his classification typology, he starts by describing the abusive behavior of this particular type of parent. Zalba describes this classification as "ritualistic, unpredictable, sometimes violent." He goes on to list the danger to children from this type of parent saying, "they are in grave danger since infanticide and child homicide most often fall into this category." (Zalba, 1967).

Following this is a list of treatment objectives such as separation first of the abuser and child then psychological and material support to stabilize the family. Finally, resolution of psychosocial problems of children and parents and maintenance of separation until significant change in the abuser makes reunion safe (Zalba, 1967).

Zalba is very detailed in his typology, even proposing treatment strategies to implement his objectives. He

proposes first to use the courts and legal sanctions to protect the child and secure treatment for the parent, followed by casework services to aid the family and children. He also recommends psychiatric treatment for the psychotic parent, and supervision of the family to insure that any reunion of child and family is not premature (Zalba, 1967).

In the first three classifications of Zalba's typology it is not expected that abuse can be controlled without separation of the abusive parent from the children. According to Zalba's conception, the locus of the problem in each of the first three classifications is in the personality structure of the abuser. In classification four, while the basic problem is his personality, the parent may control his actions if proper social environmental pressures are applied.

For classification five, the impulsive, but generally adequate parent with marital conflict, the problem of abuse stems primarily from marital conflict. For classification six, the parent with identity-role crisis, the problem of abuse stems mainly from the parents environmental circumstances. The treatment strategies differ for each of these classifications and range from authority-based control to conjoint family therapy (Zalba, 1967).

Rights and Duties of Parents

Generally speaking, legal thought is in terms of rights and duties. For every right there is a corresponding

duty. For each duty there exists a corresponding right. This type of reasoning indicates that if society has a right to intervene in a family situation, it must be because parents have violated some duty. But what are the duties of a parent to a child? If there is a right action to remedy neglect or abuse of a child, there has to be some violation of duty toward a child. Parental duties in this area are most often spoken of as care, custody, and control (Downs, 1963).

The concept of the child as a possessor of rights is relatively new, actually only about a hundred and fifty years old. Before this radical change took place, parental rights in regards to their offspring were absolute, including the right of life or death for the child. Current laws use several guidelines when dealing with neglect and abuse cases. These are as follow:

1. The law cannot command what it cannot enforce. It cannot command a mother to love her child.

2. American law protects the individual from governmental interference.

3. Natural rights of parents to the care and custody of children imposes upon them a legal duty to care for their children.

4. Rights of the parents to custody of their child creates a "strong presumption" in their favor in any proceeding to remove the child from the home.

5. This presumption can be overcome only when it can be shown that the parents' acts indicate that they have "forfeited" their right to care and custody of their children (Raffalli, 1970).

Parental rights regarding care and custody of their children are formidable. Criminal action in cases of child abuse rarely results in conviction of the guilty parent, even in those cases where it has led to the death of a child. Practically all of the crimes are committed behind closed doors making it almost impossible to prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the crime was committed by the parent. Punitive action does not correct the underlying causes of abuse. At best punitive action can be said to protect the child from further harm only because the per-petrator is in jail (Fontana, 1971).

There is nothing simple in dealing with child abuse cases in a court of law. Laws dealing with child neglect and abuse are broad and subject to conflicting interpreta-tions. Interpretations are based not only on law, but on very real moral, religious, and cultural beliefs (Fontana, 1973).

Legal Aspects of Child Abuse

Doctor C. Henry Kempe and several of his colleagues published, in 1962, an article in which they used the term "the battered-child syndrome." This paper was a study of

447 child abuse cases in which many children were killed or
maimed. It also declared that child abuse was a major social
problem. This article was presented to a group of lawyers,
medical doctors, and social workers at a conference called
in 1962 by the United States Children's Bureau. This
conference recommended the drafting of a model child-abuse
reporting statute and recommended strong efforts be made to
have these statutes implemented in all the states. By June
of 1967 almost every state had adopted laws regarding the
reporting of suspected child abuse to the proper authorities
(Gil, 1970).

The legislation for reporting child abuse was enacted
in almost every state within just four short years. This
rush by legislators to be counted on the side of abused
children came about as a result of a public outcry for urgent
action to halt the growing number of battered children. Of
these laws passed by the states the statutes which encourage
the reporting of suspected abuse cases have played a major
part in the attempt to protect children under law. These
laws which seek to expedite the discovery of instances of
child abuse by requiring or permitting physicians and others
to report their suspicions do so by offering a certain de-
gree of immunity from the legal liability which may flow
from such a report. In certain states doctors may not be
sued for reporting suspected child abuse cases as long as
their reporting is in good faith and without malice (Helfer
and Kempe, 1968).

As can be observed, child abuse is a complex phenomenon. When a child is abused this abuse may occur in relation to psychological problems, socioeconomic difficulties, alcoholism, and possibly other factors. The child often has to be taken to the hospital where medical services are brought into play. Then social agencies will be notified. The police are often involved at some point, and, ultimately, the courts may become involved.

Role of the Physician

In part the current interest in the battered child (a severe form of child abuse) can be traced to the work of three or four doctors who by the use of X-rays were able to determine the probable incidence of child abuse in young children who came to their attention. Doctor John Caffey published an article in 1946 discussing several cases involving multiple fractures of the long bone associated with subdural hematomas (Gil, 1970).

Doctor F. N. Silverman also reported this type of injury, and, like Caffey, suspected they were traumatic. He also believed they resulted from parental carelessness but not from intentionally abusive behavior. P. V. Woolley and W. A. Evans were actually the first medical authors who attributed the injuries to possibly intentional acts of parents or others caring for the children (Gil, 1970).

With the advent of the X-ray and the findings of radiologists such as John Caffey, the role of the physician is a primary factor in raising the awareness of child abuse as pertaining to traumatic cases. In recognition of the important part physicians play in spotting and treating child abuse, many states have passed legislation making it mandatory for doctors to report suspicious instances of child abuse.

The Role of the Social Agency

The role of the social agencies is manifested primarily through the caseworker. When a complaint comes through to the child welfare agency, the caseworker must take action upon it. It is often hard to determine if actual abuse took place because the parents seldom admit to any wrong doing. But by observation of the family and awareness of the odd reality judgment of many of the parents, the act of abuse often comes to light. An example of odd reality judgment is a parent who admits to beating her child once, but says since the school nurse told her this was wrong she does not do it anymore (Young, 1971).

Often when a case is reported to a social agency the agency may not have adequate staff to deal sucessfully with the child abuse report. Also, when a case goes to court the court itself in many instances, does not follow through with casework but returns the responsibility to the same understaffed agency that reported it (Finberg, 1965).

It sometimes happens that if removal of the child from the parents is necessary the court may remand the infant to the hospital. In some instances this can be bad for the infant and hospital alike since it likely needs the space for sick children and is ill-equipped to act in a custodial capacity and meet the emotional needs of the child. In many cases a physician does not like to report child abuse incidents since in some states it is mandatory for the physician to be physically present in court for the hearings. Worse yet, if the physician reports a number of bonafide instances, follows through with court appearances, and then sees what he considers poor solutions to serious problems by the court, his motivation to report diminishes considerably (Finberg, 1965).

The Role of the Police

While it is generally agreed police have an important function in protecting neglected and abused children, originally community agencies and police departments were divided as to the appropriate role of the police (Swanson, 1961).

The traditional role of the police had been the protection of life and property and keeping peace in the community. In cases of abuse and neglect their role could now be broken down into receiving and investigating, verifying, evaluating, and disposing of complaints. In many

instances an overlapping function has existed in regards
to receiving and responding to complaints of neglect and
abuse by community agencies and police departments. Actu-
ally, both agencies are needed. It is thought by some that
police departments can better handle the emergency situations
while community social agencies are better able to respond
to chronic cases of abuse and neglect (Swanson, 1961).

The broadened roles of the police in neglect and
abuse cases requires close cooperation and adequate planning
between the community social agencies and the police depart-
ment. In some areas this has resulted in agreement between
police and social agencies regarding the type of cases to
be referred by police and those accepted for treatment by
the social agencies. One community for example, has a police
officer assigned to a social agency with the responsibility
of investigating complaints of neglect and abuse (Swanson,
1961).

Community Involvement with Child Abuse

Community involvement in regard to child abuse often
includes several agencies working with the same family. Some-
times the different agencies are actually working with dif-
ferent problems for the same family and may not even be aware
that other agencies are involved with that family. Also,
where records have been kept long enough, agency involvement
with some families may go back to the time when the

grandparents and their children were on these same agency's rolls. For example, one 24 year old mother of a battered child had been listed as a truant and a runaway when she was 14 years of age. This mother felt at the time that her father would beat her if she returned home (Silver, 1971).

In the community, battering parents and their families may suffer from a not uncommon malaise called "community exclusion." In various ways, economically, politically, and socially, these families suffer exclusion. Any abuse on their part recognized by the community results in retaliation by the community which further increases the families' sense of rejection, alienation, and isolation (Wasserman, 1967).

The battering parent has amazing success in provoking hospitals, the police, courts, and social agencies into treating him as his parents once treated him, i.e., punishment and rejection. What he desperately needs though is not "community exclusion" but care and involvement in the community (Wasserman, 1967).

The nature of the problem of child abuse calls for close cooperation and planning by all community agencies. Child abuse is a legal problem, involving the police and the courts; it is a medical problem in regard to treatment and diagnosis of abuse; it is also a social work problem involving rehabilitation and continued protection of the child for his own welfare and the good of the community.

Incidence Surveys

It was reported in 1974 that in looking at the causes of child abuse there had only been one well controlled correlation study, no experimental studies, and a few hundred reports of case studies, individual and agency observations, and speculations. The report also noted that it has been only ten years since public and scientific attention has begun to focus seriously on an obviously highly complex problem. Hopefully, in the near future, some firm knowledge about the causes and motivations for child abuse will be acquired so powerful treatment and prevention programs may then be developed (Roberts, 1974).

A survey conducted in 1965 by the National Opinion Research Center of the University of Chicago was designed to provide an indirect estimate of the actual incidence rate of child abuse in the United States. A structured interview was used focusing on factual knowledge and attitude concerning child abuse. Respondents were asked whether they personally knew families involved in incidents of child abuse during the 12 month period preceding the interview. Of 1,520 adult respondents to the survey, 45 or 3% reported knowledge of 48 different incidents involving child abuse during the course of the year (Helfer and Kempe, 1968).

At the time of this study there were 110 million adults 21 years of age and over in the United States, which constituted the population universe of this survey. It is

commonly known as the NORC survey and it estimated child
abuse occurring at a rate of about 13.3 to 21.4 incidents
per year per 1,000 persons. The study also noted the
actual incidence rate was not uncovered by the survey and
is likely to be considerably lower. It was suggested in
the NORC study that some of the abusing families might be
known to more than one agency (Helfer and Kempe, 1968).

A major criticism of the NORC survey was the small
sample size of abused children. Also criticized was the
survey's indirect manner of sample selection and the fact
that the information was derived by untrained observers.
Due to these faults any generalizations from the information
gained by this survey would be limited.

A press survey of all child abuse incidents recorded
in newspapers was undertaken by Brandeis University to ob-
tain an indirect measure of the volume of child abuse through-
out the United States. This was a replication of a newspaper
survey taken three years earlier by the American Humane
Association in 1962. The press survey examined newspaper
clippings concerning child abuse incidents collected by a
news clipping service. Coverage of incidents was for a six
month period from July to December in 1965 (Helfer and Kempe,
1968).

The Brandeis press survey reported 412 incidents
with 504 children being abused. While 130 incidents involv-
ing 164 children were fatal, 282 incidents involving 340

children were nonfatal. The data from this survey lends itself even less to generalizations than the larger NORC survey in spite of the much larger number of abuse cases. The manner in which the press clipping data were obtained gives no clue concerning the selective criteria as to how or why these cases were picked from an underlying universe of children abused during the period in question (Helfer and Kempe, 1968).

Perhaps, the most well known survey of child abuse is the one done by David G. Gil. His book, Violence Against Children, is a comprehensive report of various studies funded by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. While Gil used the NORC study listed previously, the major study in his series consisted of the segment of children abused reported through the legal channels of the states and territories. Of this study he warns "extrapolations of findings from this survey beyond this clearly circumscribed segment may not be appropriate" (Gil, 1970).

The 1967 survey by Gil was carried out on two levels: (1) a basic level reportedly involving every case in every locality in the United States (except Philadelphia) and (2) a more comprehensive level involving every case reported in a representative sample of cities and counties. The survey was extended into 1968 but only on the basic level and including Philadelphia.

In Gil's survey, 5,993 children were classified as physically abused in 1967 and 6,617 were classified as abused in 1968. He mentions the fact that these are only reported cases of child abuse. Unreported cases could not, of course, be counted, so the survey reports should not be confused with the real incidence of child abuse (Gil, 1970).

Another independent study involved a total of 376 children from 334 families. The study period was from November 1966 to October 1969. The study defined abuse as "non-accidental physical injury, including fatal injury, inflicted upon children by persons caring for them." Reported results from this study did not indicate a clear-cut identification of the causes of child abuse. The reported cases were felt to represent a small percentage of the actual physical injury inflicted upon children. It also concluded that child abuse is not unique to any one segment of society and occurs in the ghetto as well as suburbia (Thompson, 1971).

It does not take long to get the picture that not much is known about the causes and rate of incidence of child abuse. The field is still pretty much open regarding areas to be studied and knowledge that can be gained and used. The recent child abuse legislation passed by the states shows an awareness of the problem and stresses the need for research in this area. It is believed, according to government statistics, that on the average two children

are battered to death everyday. It is estimated that be-
tween 50,000 and 75,000 incidents of child abuse occur each
year. Again these are only estimates (Thompson, 1971).

In summary, the means to estimate accurately the
true incidence of child abuse are not yet available. There
is some evidence that child abuse cuts across all socio-
economic levels of our society, all educational and intel-
ligence levels, all races, and that it is found among ad-
herents of all religious faiths. The extent of child abuse
in each of these subgroups is not known. Whether the rate
differs relative to the above factors and, if so, how much,
cannot be determined at this time. On the basis of current
evidence, about the only generalization that can be made
about parents who batter their children is that they are
breaking the law (Roberts, 1974).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This research paper has approached a sample of the general student population at a state university campus in regard to their experiences of child abuse. Relevant demographic material, family behavior characteristics, and personal life experiences relative to child abuse have been studied.

The objectives of this research have been to determine the incidence of child abuse among students on the campus of a state university and to determine the relationship of child abuse among blue collar and white collar families to certain relevant factors such as race, alcohol consumption, attempted suicides, runaways, family discipline, sexual preference and other factors thought significant.

Several key questions have been asked in this study in order to determine the existence of and severity of child abuse experiences among the students on this campus. While emotional neglect has not been dealt with in this study, certain behavior characteristics consistent with physical neglect have been examined to determine its significance to class strata and child abuse. The most important questions will deal with the receiving of severe beatings and the type of injuries that result from this.

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Child abuse resulting from deviant sexual behavior has been explored to some extent. Questions regarding sexual seduction or rape of a child by a family member or custodian have been asked in the questionnaire. Also, while motivations for sexual abuse and physical abuse are considered different, they are both a form of child abuse and will be treated as such.

Study Site

This research project was carried out during the spring semester of 1975 on the campus of a medium sized state university in Southeast Texas. The city in which the university is located is a small conservative town of approximately 20,000 people which includes a number of university students. The university offers graduate and under graduate degrees in many different fields and is best known as a teacher training institution but with an excellent criminal justice component.

The Sample

The sample for this study was taken from the population of students on the state university campus in the months of May and June 1975. The sample consisted of 331 students out of a total of approximately 10,000 students. These students were used as a study group because they

represented a higher bracketed income group that has not
been researched as extensively as lower socioeconomic groups.
Information gained from study of this income group would
add to the knowledge base in a content area which lacks
this type of research data. This survey, it is hoped, will
add knowledge as to the scope of child abuse problems for
the socioeconomic groups under study and will indicate where
further research may be needed.

The data were collected by a saturation type of
sampling technique where several key areas on campus were
chosen which could provide a diversified flow of students
in order to lessen bias in regards to the randomness of the
sample.

The specific areas on campus that were chosen were
as follows:

1. The university student center.

2. In front of the main university library.

3. In front of the administration building.

The Data Collecting Instrument

A questionnaire was designed to gather data on abused
and non-abused students currently on campus at a state uni-
versity. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The
first major part consisted primarily of demographic data on
the families of the respondents and background information
on the students themselves. Included in this section were

questions of occupation, education, and annual yearly income of the respondent's mother and father. The foregoing items were used to determine the class stratum as being either "blue collar" or "white collar" socioeconomic status with reference to the respondent's parents.

The second major part of the questionnaire concerns itself with the childhood abuse experiences of the respondent. The second major section can be further broken down into eight different areas relative to child abuse. These are as follows: (1) physical neglect; (2) abused or not abused; (3) family discipline; (4) sexual abuse; (5) family drinking habits; (6) attempted suicide; (7) runaways; and (8) identity of perpetrator and action taken against him.

The interviews conducted on these areas of campus consisted of handing out the questionnaire and asking the student for a few minutes of time to fill out a questionnaire on child abuse. All but two students cooperated and only one questionnaire was eliminated due to inappropriate responses. Filling out the questionnaire took less than five minutes and then it was returned to the researcher. Because of the sensitive nature of the questions on the questionnaire it was felt some students would be reluctant to answer some of the questions honestly since the researcher received the questionnaire back immediately after it was answered. In order to lessen this type of anxiety the

researcher continually stressed that the questionnaires
were anonymous and no one would know who filled out which
questionnaire. It was felt that this procedure would mini-
mize this type of bias.

One of the primary problems with questionnaire type
research is to phrase and define the questions so they are
easily understood by the respondent and can be operationally
defined by the researcher. The survey questionnaire used
for this thesis has two major categories. The first cate-
gory consists of background data on the respondent and his
family, such as sex, age, fathers occupation. These data
are usually understood by the respondent and the researcher
as to their meaning and definition. The second major cate-
gory of this questionnaire consists of eight sections deal-
ing with individual and family factors relative to child
abuse. These questions are not as simple as the background
data and interpretation requires more thought on the part
of the respondent and an operational definition on the part
of the researcher.

Operational Definitions

The eight sections and their operational definitions
are as follows:

1. Physical neglect can be defined (using Leontine
Young's definition) as a lack of cleanliness, adequate clo-
thing, proper supervision, medical care, and/or proper feeding.

The questionnaire for this thesis looks for physical neglect from improper feeding or lack of supervision. The question- naire asks the respondent if he were ever left alone for hours at a time or for a day or more as a child under 10.

2. Physical abuse (according to Leontine Young, 1964) occurs when parents beat their children (some more violently than others). Determination of physical abuse is based on the respondent's answer to the question of whether or not he or she had ever been the victim of a severe beat- ing administered by a parent or custodian when under 17 years of age. If the respondent considers himself abused and marks the question thus, then this is referred to as physical abuse in this thesis.

3. Family discipline (defined by Webster) is treat- ment that corrects or punishes. The term as used in the thesis questionnaire deals with the form of discipline or punishment a respondent received as a child from his parents or guardian. The questionnaire classifies family discipline into five categories; cruel, harsh, firm, permissive, and never punished. Whenever the term family discipline is used in this thesis in regard to questionnaire data it will refer to the five categories of discipline listed above.

4. Sexual abuse as the term is used in this thesis refers to the two questions on the questionnaire asking the respondents if they were ever raped or sexually seduced by a family member or custodian. Sexual abuse is defined as

the act of violating someone sexually. Violating means to do harm to the person, as in rape of a woman. While sexual seduction of a minor is viewed as sexual abuse by law, it may not be viewed as such by the respondent and in fact may be viewed as a pleasureable act or a fond memory. Therefore, whether or not abuse occurred is determined by the respondent's perception of the act in this questionnaire.

5. Suicide, as mentioned previously in Chapter Two, is the act of putting oneself to death. In this questionnaire only the act of attempted suicide by the respondent shall be considered in the analysis of data. Attempted suicide by the respondent shall be defined as an affirmative response to the statement in the questionnaire, "I have attempted suicide."

6. Family drinking habits refers to the respondent's view of whether or not his father or mother get what he considers drunk, either sometimes, frequently, or never. The main purpose of this question was not to determine whether the respondent's mother and/or father drink. It was assumed that acts of violence toward children would be more likely to occur when intoxication was present in the parents.

7. Running away refers to the act of leaving home as a child. A respondent was listed as a runaway if he marked sometimes, or frequently, for question number ten on the questionnaire. While the reason for running away was also asked for in question ten, it had no bearing as to whether or not a respondent was classified as a runaway.

8. Perpetrator is defined as the person viewed by the respondent who sexually or physically abused him or her. This section was included to learn more about the identity and action taken against a perpetrator for sexual or physical abuse of the respondent.

Determination of Social Class

White collar status is considered synonymous with middle-class status, while blue collar status is viewed as being synonymous with working-class status. Middle-class status can be divided into two major categories. These are upper and lower middle class. Also an upper class status does exist with its own separate criteria for membership, this being in part the inheriting of that position by birth or inheriting wealth. However, the components of this questionnaire do not allow accurate determination of upper class social status or division of middle class or lower class into several other status bracketts. Class status determination, therefore, will be limited to white collar and blue collar social status (Barth, 1972).

Blue Collar

Membership in the working class or blue collar status is characterized by an adequate job or semi-skilled and un-skilled jobs with little chance of mobility in any of these. These jobs generally have a lower income than white collar workers and in terms of education many members of this status

never finished high school. Boundaries between the working class and the middle class are not precise and in actuality the ascribed status given to an individual may vary with the class status of the ascriber (Barth, 1972).

White Collar

Included in this category are professionals, successful businessmen, small businessmen, certain skilled workers and jobs requiring training and skill, such as bookkeepers, and salesmen. The white collar worker is usually college or high school educated and makes more money than the lower class workers (Barth, 1972).

Survey Methodology

Since the design for this thesis is in the nature of a survey it seems proper that some of the advantages and disadvantages of this type of study should be mentioned. Much of the current data on child abuse comes from questionnaire type surveys and interviews. Gil's book, Violence Against Children, is a prime example. In spite of the many drawbacks to this type of experimental research, the knowledge gained overcomes much of the criticism directed toward it.

The use of the questionnaire as an independent research tool is controversial. There is more agreement that if the survey is used as a subsidiary research tool it does have great value and advantages. The disadvantages of

questionnaires stem from difficulty in determining the
representativeness of the data obtained by these means
which leads to problems with the degree to which the con-
clusions may be generalized. Certain questions may not be
readily understood by individuals in different walks of
life, and questions do not always fit the varied cultural
patterns, and educational levels of the people who parti-
cipate in the study (Young, 1966).

Some important points to remember in dealing with
questionnaires are definiteness and concreteness of each
question so they may be interpreted easily and accurately.
One must make sure that the questions are simple and not
ambiguous. Care must be taken to avoid leading questions.
It is assumed however, that the questionnaire does hold
some advantages over the interview as a research technique.
In spite of its shortcomings, questionnaires are being in-
creasingly used as a valuable research tool.

The tables presented in Chapter Four have been tested
by the chi-square formula to determine statistical signifi-
cance between the various factors examined by the questionnaire.
The null-hypothesis, which predicts no significant inter-
actions will exist among the factors presented in the tables
of Chapter Four, is listed below for each table. This is
done to structure and clarify the large amount of data ob-
tained from the questionnaire.

Tables 3 and 18 deal with the relationship of social class to the eight different areas relative to child abuse listed on the previous page. Tables 20 through 22 deal with the factor of intoxication by the mother and father of the respondent relative to family discipline, runaways, and attempted suicides.

In the Summary and Conclusions section of Chapter IV, the null-hypothesis for each significant table will be commented upon and the findings and recommendations for Chapter IV will be presented. The only tables not commented upon in the Summary and Conclusions segment of this study will be those on which the chi-square formula was not used. These are Tables 1, 2, and 19.

Table 1 contains a comparison of background characteristics between sample population and university population. Table 2 contains education and yearly income of respondents' father and mother and distribution of white and blue collar families among the study sample. And Table 19 contains the action taken against perpetrators of physical and sexual abuse. Data from these tables are either self-explanatory or the sample size was too small to use the chi-square formula.

TABLE 3: There are no significant differences between the factors, incidence of child abuse, and social class of the respondents.

TABLE 4: There are no significant differences between the factors, seriousness of injury, and social class of abused respondents.

TABLE 5: There are no significant differences between the factors, perpetrators of child abuse, and social class of abused respondents.

TABLE 6: There are no significant differences between the factors, sex of the child abuse victim, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 7: There are no significant differences between the factors, ethnic background, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 8: There are no significant differences between the factors, no supervision for an hour or so, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 9: There are no significant differences between the factors, no supervision for a day or more, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 10: There are no significant differences between the factors, preparing one's own meal as a child under 10, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 11:   There are no significant differences between the factors, fathers' discipline, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 12:   There are no significant differences between the factors, mothers' discipline, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 13:   There are no significant differences between the factors, sexual seduction, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 14:   There are no significant differences between the factors, sexual preference, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 15:   There are no significant differences between the factors, fathers' drinking habits, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 16:   There are no significant differences between the factors, mothers' drinking habits, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 17:   There are no significant differences between the factors, suicide attempts, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 18:   There are no significant differences between the factors, runaways, and social class of the abused and non-abused respondents.

TABLE 20:   There are no significant differences between the factors, attempted suicide, runaways, non-attempted

suicides, non-runaways, and drinking habits of the re-
spondents' mothers.

TABLE 21: There are no significant differences
between the factors, attempted suicide, runaways, non-
attempted suicides, non-runaways, and drinking habits of
the respondents' fathers.

TABLE 22: There are no significant differences
between the factors, fathers' discipline, and drinking
habits of the respondents' fathers.

TABLE 23: There are no significant differences
between the factors, mothers' discipline, and drinking
habits of the respondents' mothers.

*The percentages on the following tables have been rounded
 to 100 percentile.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS

The results of the questionnaire data obtained from
331 respondents on a state university campus are examined
in this chapter. This analysis will include the two major
sections of the questionnaire. The first section covered
will be the background data for the respondent and his family.
This will include the sex, ethnic background, and student
classification of the respondent. In regard to the family
background, family income, educational level of the mother
and father, and occupational status of the family will be
covered.

Eight additional categories of data will be analyzed
in this section. These categories are as follows: (1) abused
respondents; (2) physical neglect; (3) family discipline;
(4) sexual abuse; (5) family drinking habits; (6) suicide
attempts; (7) runaways; (8) characteristics of perpetrators.
Also included will be a section relating the family drinking
habits and family discipline to suicide attempts and running
away from home by the respondents. The eight categories
have been classified as to blue collar or white collar status
of the respondent and from this profile of child abuse and
social class the above related variables have been developed.

In this chapter, background data regarding the re-
spondent and his family is compared with background data for

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the total university population. This was done to test the
representativeness of the sample and acquaint the reader
with the socioeconomic data used in determining social class
for the respondent. Table 1 (see page 47) deals with the
sex, ethnicity, and student classification of the respondent.
Table 2 (see page 48) lists factors used in determination
of social class.

Table 1 (see page 47) shows an imbalance in the repre-
sentativeness of the sample population with regard to the
male and female distribution as compared to the actual uni-
versity population. As can be seen the percentages between
the two groups do not correspond exactly. The sample had
more females than males when it should have been the opposite
according to the actual university population. This discrep-
ancy is possibly due to a larger number of females than males
living on campus or it could be due to several other variables
of which the researcher was unaware. Since the discrepancy
is small, (8.7%) its effect upon the results of the question-
naire were felt to be minimal.

The ethnic background section of Table 1 (see page 47)
shows percentages between the actual university population
and sample population to be similar except for the Black
population which seemed to be somewhat over-represented in
the sample.

This may have some effect upon the results from the
questionnaire, but it was felt to be minimal since several

Blacks were dropped from the tables due to inadequate information for determination of social class.

TABLE 1.--Comparison of background characteristics between
sample population and university population

Sex	Sample Population		University Population	
Male Distribution	151	(45%)	5151	(54.3%)
Female Distribution	180	(54%)	4328	(45.6%)
Total	331	(100%)	9479	(100%)
Ethnic Background				
Caucasion	275	(83%)	8693	(91.7%)
Black	29	(8.7%)	436	(4.5%)
Mexican American	13	(3.9%)	200	(2.1%)
Other	6	(1.8%)	150	(1.5%)
No Answer	8	(2.4%)	0	(0.0%)
Total	331	(100%)	9479	(100%)
Classification				
Freshmen	95	(28.7%)	2313	(24.4%)
Sophomore	45	(13.5%)	1757	(18.5%)
Junior	76	(22.9%)	1862	(19.6%)
Senior	69	(20.8%)	1681	(17.2%)
Graduate Student	37	(11.1%)	1631	(17.2%)
Other	9	(2.7%)	235	(2.4%)
Total	331	(100%)	9479	(100%)

TABLE 2.--Education and yearly income of respondents' father
and mother and distribution of white and blue collar
families among the study sample

Educational level	Mother		Father	
Grade school	31	(9.3%)	44	(13.2%)
High school	185	(55.8%)	121	(36.5%)
College	111	(21.1%)	158	(47.7%)
Not listed	4	(1.2%)	8	(2.4%)
Total	331	(100%)	331	(100%)
Annual income	Mother		Father	
1 - 4,999	19	(5.7%)	3	(.9%)
5,000 - 9,999	40	(12.0%)	21	(6.3%)
10,000 - 14,999	29	(8.7%)	57	(17.2%)
15,000 - 19,999	5	(1.5%)	34	(10.2%)
20,000 - plus	7	(2.1%)	70	(21.1%)
Not listed	221	(66.7%)	146	(44.1%)
Total	331	(100%)	331	(100%)

Social class	Frequency	Percentage
White collar	240	(75.5%)
Blue collar	62	(18.7%)
Unknown	29	(8.7%)
Total	331	(100%)

The student classification section of Table 1 (see page 47) shows a representation of all classifications of students. The representativeness of percentages between the actual university population and the sample population are similar except for the sophomore population. As long as all student classifications were represented it was felt this provided a diversified flow of students and would limit bias.

Table 2 presents the background data used to determine social class of the respondents. While no comparison with the actual university population is attempted since these data were not available, a comparison between the respondents' mothers and fathers is used since they both played a part in determining family social class.

The educational level of the respondents' mothers and fathers shows almost five times as many fathers as mothers attended some college. This could also play a part in the large discrepancy between the number of mothers having an income of $10,000 or more a year, and the number of fathers making $10,000 or more a year.

The educational level of the respondents' parents, their annual yearly income, and most importantly their listed occupation was used to determine the social class of the respondent and his family. Table 2 shows the respondents' fathers' occupation divided into either blue collar or white collar classification. Due to the sample population being

made up of college students the predominance of white collar
to blue collar workers is to be expected since college is
traditionally a white collar institution.

Table 3 deals with the first null hypothesis by ex-
amining the data for significant differences between the
amount of child abuse occurring within the two social classes.
The table shows that a higher percentage of abuse exists
for the blue collar working-class as opposed to the white
collar class of respondents. The chi-square test of signifi-
cance for this table gave a probability of .2349, which is
not significant. It is of interest to note that if the find-
ings from the survey sample from this table could be general-
ized toward the whole white collar and blue collar population
in existence, it shows child abuse occurring among blue collar
families at a rate of almost twice that found among white
collar families. The differences might be ascribed to eco-
nomic or environmental differences between the two classes,
but this would not be the total answer. The differences
could lie in the respondents' perception of what constitutes
child abuse.

The null hypothesis for Table 3 states there will be no
differences in the amount of abuse found in blue collar and
white collar families. The amount of abuse will be equal for
both social classes. While the chi-square probability shows
no significant interaction between the factors in the table,
the difference between the observed frequency and expected

frequency used in chi-square computation shows almost twice the number of abused respondents as expected exist for the blue collar abused category. This would imply social class does play a part in causing child abuse.

TABLE 3.--Class status of abused and non-abused respondents

Social Class	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
White Collar (79.8%) n=238	15 (6.3%)	223 (93.6%)	(100%)
Blue Collar (20.1%) n= 60	7 (11.6%)	53 (88.3%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 298
X = 2.889
df= 2
P = .2349

Table 4 examines the injuries of the respondents who classified themselves as abused. For the purpose of statistical analysis the injuries were broken down into three groups: light, moderate, and serious. Light injuries were those of only soreness and pain, moderate injuries consisted primarily of bruises and welts, while abrasions, lascerations, and burns made up the serious injury category. There were a total of 18 abused respondents whose injuries could be classified, with 33 percent of these receiving light injuries, 44 percent receiving moderate injuries, and 22 percent suffered serious injuries. It can also be pointed out that the greatest

number of moderate and serious injuries occurred in the white
collar abused category, while the blue collar category had
the highest percentage of light injuries.

TABLE 4.--Injuries sustained by abused respondents

Sustained		White Collar Abused	Blue Collar Abused	Total
Light (33.3%)	n=6	3 (50%)	3 (50%)	(100%)
Moderate (44.4%)	n=8	6 (75%)	2 (25%)	(100%)
Serious (22.2%)	n=4	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 18

X = 1.125

df= 2

P = .5755

The chi-square test of significance showed no signifi-
cant relationships between the factors of social class and
severity of abuse among the respondents. The probability was
computed at .5755, and was above the .05 level of probability
for significance. The null hypothesis listed in Chapter III
stated there were no significant differences between serious-
ness of injury among abused respondents in white collar and
blue collar families. Data from the chi-square test of sig-
nificance showed little difference between the observed fre-
quency and expected frequency, which further substantiates
the null hypothesis. It is of interest to note a slightly

higher percentage of white collar respondents than blue collar respondents were the more seriously injured. This could possibly be caused by difference in perception by the respondents of how serious their injuries actually were. It is recommended further research be aimed toward differences in the perception of injury by the party meting out the punishment and by the party receiving it.

Table 5 shows the most frequent perpetrator of abuse for both white collar and blue collar is the father. The mother is listed as a perpetrator once in the white collar category and twice in the blue collar group. The other category includes the mother and father both as abusers, also stepmothers and babysitters. The mother and father both as abusers were listed twice by respondents in the white collar category. The stepmother was listed once as an abuser by a respondent also in the white collar category and the babysitter as an abuser was listed once by a respondent in the white collar group and once by a respondent in the blue collar group.

The chi-square test of significance shows a probability of .3568, therefore, no significant relationship was found to exist between the perpetrators of abuse and their social class. It is interesting to note that the father was considered the primary abuser by both categories in the sample group. The null hypothesis for the chi-square test of significance predicted no differences would exist between the perpetrators

of abuse of white collar or blue collar families. When the

observed frequencies and expected frequencies are compared

for this table, as determined by chi-square computation, it

shows there should be twice as many mothers as shown in the

white collar abused category. Also the expected frequency

for the mother in the blue collar abused category should be

about half what is shown for this category. This means,

according to these data, white collar mothers are less likely

to be abusers than blue collar mothers. The reasons for

this are not known, but it is recommended further research

be channeled in this direction to substantiate the data pre-

sented and to find reasons for its occurrence.

TABLE 5.--Pepetrators of abuse

Perpetrator		White Collar Abused	Blue Collar Abused	Total
Father (63.6%)	n=14	10 (71.4%)	4 (28.5%)	(100%)
Mother (13.6%)	n= 3	1 (33.3%)	2 (66.6%)	(100%)
Other (22.7%)		4 (80%)	1 (20%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 22

X = 2.2069

df= 2

P = .3568

In regards to the sex and social class of an abused

respondent, Table 6 shows in the white collar category that

nine of the abused respondents were male while six were female.

In the blue collar category six of the abused respondents were

male and only one was a female. It is interesting to note

that the largest percentage differences are found in the num-

ber of males in the blue collar category as compared to all

other categories. This could imply that a substantially

larger percentage of males are abused in the blue collar

social class than in the white collar class. This would have

to be determined by further research and is only mentioned

as a matter of interest. The chi-square test of significance

shows no significant relationships existing between the fac-

tors sex and social class in relation to abuse.

TABLE 6.--Sex and class status of abused and non-abused
respondents

	Male		Female		
Class Status	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
White Collar	9	92	6	133	
(79.4%) n=240	(3.7%)	(38.3%)	(2.5%)	(55.4%)	(100%)
Blue Collar	6	28	1	27	
(20.5%) n= 62	(9.6%)	(45.1%)	(1.6%)	(43.5%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 302

X = 5.541

df= 3

P = .1354

The null hypothesis for Table 6 predicted no signifi-

cant relationships would exist between the abused female or

male respondent and their social class. Differences between

observed and expected frequencies used in the computation of
chi-square showed twice as many males as expected were abused
in the blue collar abused category. This supports the infer-
ence drawn from the data that blue collar males are more
likely to be abused than blue collar females. A possible
reason for this would be a difference in perception of what
constitutes abuse between male and female blue collar respon-
dents. It is recommended that further be made in this area
to see if these differences do exist.

Table 7 deals with the ethnic background of the abused
and non-abused and their social class. In the total ethnic
population only 5 percent of the Caucasions listed themselves
as abused as compared to the Black population in which 22
percent of the respondents listed themselves as abused. Also
22 percent of the total Mexican American population listed
themselves as abused. The chi-square test of significance
yielded a probability at .0001, well within the significance
range. On the basis of this, the null hypothesis is rejected.
The null-hypothesis predicted no significant relationships
would exist with regard to ethnic background of the abused
and non-abused respondent and social class.

Comparison of the observed and expected frequency
used in computation of chi-square shows several interesting
relationships. Most of the Caucasions in the abused category
fall into the white collar slot. This implies one is more
likely to percieve one's self abused as a Caucasion if one

falls within the white collar social status. For the Black population it seems youths are more inclined to view themselves as blue collar non-abused than white collar non-abused. This is probably due to the fact an unusually large number of them did come from blue collar families. The Mexican American population in the blue collar category sees itself abused more than is expected. This implies that a relationship exists between abuse for Mexican Americans and their blue collar social status.

TABLE 7.--Ethnic background and class status of abused and non-abused respondents

Ethnic Background		White Collar Abused	Non-Abused	Blue Collar Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Caucasion (86.4%)	n=261	14 (5.3%)	204 (78.1%)	0 (0%)	43 (16.4%)	(100%)
Black (7.2%)	n= 22	1 (4.5%)	8 (36.3%)	4 (18.1%)	9 (40.9%)	(100%)
Mexican American (2.9%)	n= 9	0 (0%)	5 (55.5%)	2 (22.2%)	2 (22.2%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 292

X = 63.357

df=   6

P = .0001

It should be mentioned however, that due to the small sample size and zero cells within the table the validity of the data is in some question and results should be viewed with caution. It is recommended this area be further studied

to determine if white collar caucasions are more likely to consider themselves abused than are blue collar Caucasions. It is also suggested efforts be made to study abuse among blue collar and white collar Mexican Americans since no abused white collar Mexican American was found in this study and data on this topic seem to be lacking.

Table 8 deals with respondents who answered the question as to whether or not they had ever been left alone as a child under 10 by their parents for an hour or so. Approximately 27 percent of the sample population in Table 8 recorded that this had occurred sometimes. Only about 7 percent recorded that it occurred frequently and 66 percent stated it had never occurred. Twelve percent of the group that had marked sometimes category were victims of abuse. Fifteen percent of the group that stated they had been left alone for an hour or so were victims of abuse. From the 66 percent of the sample population that marked themselves as having never been left alone for an hour or so, only 4 percent of this group were abused. The probability obtained from the chi-square test of significance was .0559, which is not within the level of significance for the factors of abused and non-abused white and blue collar respondents, and amount of supervision received as children. The results are of interest here since they imply a possible relationship exists between supervision and abuse. However, due to the small sample size generalizations should be based on further

research along these lines since the validity of the table
results is in question.

TABLE 8.--Supervision and class status of abused and non-abused
respondents

| No Supervision for an Hour or so | White Collar | | Blue Collar | | |
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Sometimes (26.9%) n=81	9 (11.1%)	57 (70.3%)	1 (1.2%)	14 (17.2%)	(100%)
Frequently (6.6%) n=20	2 (10%)	14 (70%)	1 (5%)	3 (15%)	(100%)
Never (66.4%) n=200	4 (2%)	153 (76.5%)	5 (2.5%)	38 (19%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2 = 301
          X = 12.307
          df= 6
          P = .0559

The null hypothesis predicted no significant relation-
ships would exist between abused and non-abused blue collar
and white collar families with regard to lack of supervision
for an hour or so for a child under 10. Even though this
hypothesis was confirmed the probability was close enough to
merit further discussion concerning the data. By comparing
the observed and expected frequencies from computation of
the chi-square it shows white collar abused children are
more likely to be left alone for this time period than chance
would indicate. This is of interest since it provides strong
indication of a major difference between white collar abused
children and the other categories. Why white collar abused

children would perceive themselves left alone more often for an hour or so than the other categories is not known. It is recommended further research be applied to perceptions of white collar abused individuals to see if and why it differs from abused and non-abused individuals in different social classes.

Table 9 deals with respondents who answered the question as to whether or not they had ever been left alone as a child under 10 by their parents for a day or more. Approximately 8 percent of the sample population in Table 9 indicated that this had occurred. Only 24 respondents marked that this had happened and the white collar non-abused category contained 19 or 79 percent of these individuals. No one in the white collar abused category marked that this had happened to them and only 2 respondents in the blue collar abused category said they experienced this. Approximately 28 percent of the blue collar abused category had been left alone for a day or more as a child under 10. None in the white collar abused group were ever left alone for a day or more. It would seem on a percentage basis, lack of supervision may not be correlated with abuse. This is only speculation however, since the zero cells in the table limit its validity.

The null hypothesis predicted that no relationship will exist between the factor of non-supervision for a day or more and social class of the abused and non-abused respondent. The null hypothesis is accepted since the probability

obtained from the chi-square test is not within the significant range. Further research is recommended to determine if differences between this type of supervision do exist for the social classes as data from this table implies. Serious lack of supervision may be class related with regard to child abuse.

TABLE 9.--Supervision and class status of abused and non-abused respondents

Unsupervised for a Day or more	White Collar		Blue Collar		Total
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	
Yes (7.9%) n=24	0 (0%)	19 (79.1%)	2 (8.3%)	3 (12.5%)	(100%)
No (92%) n=277	15 (5.4%)	205 (74%)	5 (1.8%)	52 (18.7%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 301

X = 4.370

df= 3

P = .2235

The table on meal preparation for children under 10 (see Table 10) shows out of a sample population of 299 approximately 24 percent of the respondents replied in the affirmative while 75 percent of the respondents stated they had never prepared their own meals. Approximately 10 percent of the respondents who had prepared their own meals as children under 10 were abused, while only 6 percent of the group who had never prepared their own meals were abused. Class shows the white collar non-abused having the highest percentage of

respondents who had not prepared their own meals as children.
The abused category shows the white collar section has having
the largest percentage of abused members who prepare their
own meals. The probability from chi-square analysis was
listed as .6026, so no significant relationships seem evi-
dent.

TABLE 10.--Meal preparation and class status among abused and
non-abused respondents

Fixed Meals as Child Under 10	White Collar Abused	Non-Abused	Blue Collar Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Yes (24.7%) n=74	5 (6.7%)	50 (67.5%)	3 (4%)	16 (21.6%)	(100%)
No (75.2%) n=225	10 (4.4%)	172 (76.4%)	4 (1.7%)	39 (17.3%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 299

X = 2.974

df= 3

P = .6026

The null hypothesis foretold no relationships would
exist between the factors of having to prepare one's own meal
as a child under 10 and being a member of a white or blue
collar family as an abused or non-abused respondent. This
hypothesis was sustained by the chi-square probability but
differences between the observed and expected frequencies
show three times as many respondents as expected in the blue
collar abused group prepared their own meals as a child.
This was the largest difference found and implies a correlation

between lack of proper supervision and abuse, especially for blue collar families.

Table 11 deals with the fathers' discipline as viewed by the respondents. Out of the total sample population listed in the table, 5 percent of the respondents viewed their fathers as cruel or harsh, 69 percent saw their fathers as firm, and 25 percent viewed them as permissive or never punishing. In the cruel and harsh group, approximately 56 percent of the members of this category were victims of abuse. This is a high percentage considering in some of the respondents' families the only perpetrator of abuse is the mother. Results from the chi-square test of significance shows a probability of .001, which substantiates a relationship between the factors of the fathers' discipline and social class of the abused and non-abused respondent. However, sample size would limit making any generalizations from this table.

TABLE 11.--Fathers' discipline and class status for abused and non-abused respondents

Fathers' Discipline	White Collar		Blue Collar		Total
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	
Cruel or harsh (5.3%) n=16	7 (43.7%)	6 (37.5%)	2 (12.5%)	1 (6.2%)	(100%)
Firm (69.5%) n=208	7 (3.3%)	159 (76.4%)	2 (.9%)	40 (19.2%)	(100%)
Permissive or Never Punished (25%) n=75	1 (1.3%)	58 (77.3%)	2 (2.6%)	14 (18.6%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 299   X = 65.569   df= 6   P = .0001

The null hypothesis predicted no significant differences would exist between the factors of fathers' discipline and white collar, blue collar abused and non-abused respondents. This hypothesis is rejected since the probability level shows significant relationships do exist between the above factors. Data from the table indicate fathers in the white collar abused category are the most likely to be considered cruel or harsh. This is followed by the blue collar abused category. It is recommended further research be done to determine how class status affects the fathers' discipline.

Table 12 lists the mothers' discipline as viewed by the respondents. From a total sample population listed in the table, approximately 4 percent of the respondents see their mothers as cruel or harsh, 56 of the respondents view their mothers as firm, and 39 percent of the respondents said they were either permissive or never punished. In the cruel and harsh group 22 percent of the respondents were victims of abuse, while in the firm category only 6 percent of the respondents were victims of abuse, and in the permissive or never punished category only 6 percent of the respondents viewed themselves as abused. Out of a total of 15 respondents in the white collar abused section, 13 members or 86 percent viewed their mothers as either firm, permissive, or never punishing. This can be compared with results from Table 11 (see page 63), where in the white collar abused

section 8 fathers or 53 percent, are viewed as firm, per-

missive, or never punishing. This would tend to support

the view that fathers are more often thought of as the

perpetrators of abuse. Chi-square for Table 12 shows a

probability of .5099, which shows no significant correla-

tion between the factors of abuse, social class, and mothers'

discipline.

TABLE 12.--Mothers' discipline and class status of abused and
non-abused respondents

| Discipline | White Collar | | Blue Collar | | |
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Cruel or harsh 2 (4.3%) n=13	8 (15.3%)	(61.5%)	1 (7.6%)	2 (15.3%)	(100%)
Firm 7 (56.3%) n=169	126 (4.1%)	(74.5%)	4 (2.3%)	32 (18.9%)	(100%)
Permissive or Never Punished 6 (39.3%) n=118	89 (5%)	(75.4%)	2 (1.6%)	21 (17.7%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 300

X = 5.281

df= 6

P = .5099

The null hypothesis which predicted no significant

differences would exist between the factors of mothers' dis-

cipline and social class of abused and non-abused respondents

is accepted for this table. Differences in the observed and

expected frequencies shows twice as many mothers as expected

are listed as cruel or harsh in the white collar abused category.

This goes along with the data concerning the fathers' discipline in that people who abuse their children are viewed as cruel or harsh by their children. It is recommended that further research be attempted regarding perceptions abused and non-abused children have of their parents' discipline. It would add to our understanding of abuse to know what acts by the parents children define as cruel, and whether or not they feel their own actions contributed to the abuse. Similarities and differences between their perceptions could possibly be an aid for treatment methods.

Table 13 examines the sexual seduction of the respondent as a child under 17 by a member of their family or custodian. Only 1.3 percent of the total sample group reported they had been sexually seduced. This was a total of 4 respondents. Three were from the white collar non-abused category and 1 was from the blue collar non-abused category. The questionnaire showed that seduction was perpetrated by an uncle in the blue collar non-abused category and by a grandfather, a brother-in-law, and one unlisted perpetrator in the white collar non-abused category.

Two respondents reported they were raped by family members but did not name the perpetrator. It was thought that this was not a large enough sample of respondents to include in a table for analysis. Using the chi-square test for significance for the factors of sexual seduction and social class, the probability was listed at .94 so no positive relationships were found to exist.

TABLE 13.--Sexual seduction and class status of abused and
non-abused respondents

Sexual Seduction	White Collar		Blue Collar		Total
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	
Yes (1.3%) n= 4	0 (0%)	3 (75%)	0 (0%)	1 (25%)	(100%)
No (98%) n=296	15 (5%)	220 (74.3%)	7 (2.3%)	54 (18.2%)	(100%)
No Answer (.6%) n= 2	0 (0%)	2 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 302

X = .39

df= 3

P = .94

The null hypothesis predicted no significant relation-
ships would exist between the factors of sexual seduction
and class status of abused and non-abused respondents. The
level of probability was .94 which is not within the range
of significance. Even though the null hypothesis is accepted
for this table it is of interest to note that all sexual
seduction took place in the non-abused categories. This im-
plies sex is not a strong impetus in abuse. However, since
the sample size was so small for this question more data
would be needed to substantiate this trend.

Table 14, in regard to sexual preference, shows 93
percent of the listed sample population view themselves as
completely heterosexual, while only approximately 6 percent
see themselves as other than completely heterosexual. The

largest percentage difference among the factors is found in the white collar non-abused category. Out of a total of 19 respondents, 16 or 84 percent of the other than completely heterosexual group fall into this category. The chi-square probability is listed at .5820, so no significant interactions between the factors exist.

TABLE 14.--Sexual preference and class status of abused and non-abused respondents

| | White Collar | | Blue Collar | | |
Preference	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Completely Heterosexual (93.4%) n=271	14 (5.1%)	199 (73.4%)	6 (22.2%)	52 (19.1%)	(100%)
Other than Completely Heterosexual (6.5%) n= 19	1 (5.2%)	16 (84.2%)	1 (5.2%)	1 (5.2%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 290

X = 2.846

df= 3

P = .5820

The null hypothesis predicted no significant interactions would exist between the factors of sexual preference and social class of abused and non-abused respondents of this questionnaire. The null hypothesis is accepted with some comment on the results from the chi-square computation. The blue collar non-abused category whould have three times as many respondents as observed in the other than completely heterosexual. Or it could mean they are the most likely to

bisexual or homosexual activity. It is recommended further research be done to see if a class difference exists in regards to the existence of and perceptions of bisexual or homosexual activity.

Table 15 deals with the respondents' fathers' drinking habits. Out of the total listed sample population, only 30 percent are reported as drinking sometimes or frequently. From a total of 14 white collar abused respondents, 5, or 35 percent, of their fathers are listed as drinking sometimes of frequently. From the blue collar abused category out of a total of 6 listed respondents, 1 or 16 percent fall into the above category. The chi-square test of significance shows a probability of .0160, which would mean a level of significant interaction between the factors of alcohol consumption and abused and non-abused members of the white and blue collar social class. However, due to the small sample sizes involved, any generalizations from the data should be made with caution.

TABLE 15.--Fathers' drinking habits and class status of abused and non-abused respondents

| Fathers' Drinking Habits | White Collar | | Blue Collar | | |
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Sometimes or frequently (30.7%) n= 89	5 (5.6%)	59 (66.2%)	5 (5.6%)	20 (22.4%)	(100%)
Never (69.2%) n= 200	9 (4.5%)	157 (78.5%)	1 (o.5%)	33 (16.5%)	(100%)
(100%) n_2= 289	X = 10.356		df = 3	P = .0160	

The null hypothesis which predicted no significant interactions would occur between the factors of alcohol consumption by the father and social class of abused and non-abused respondents is rejected. Data from the chi-square computation shows five times as many fathers in the blue collar abused category are consumers of alcohol as chance would allow. Also in the blue collar abused category, four times as many respondents should have indicated their fathers did not consume alcoholic beverages. This implies drinking and abuse are related factors for the blue collar segment of society but this does not seem to be the case for the white collar segment of society. It is recommended further research be done in this area to see if class differences do exist with regard to alcoholic consumption and abuse.

Table 16 lists the mothers' drinking habits only. It shows 21 percent of the respondents' mothers are listed as drinking sometimes or frequently. In the white collar abused category out of 15 respondents 12, or 80 percent, list their mothers as not drinking sometimes or frequently. In the blue collar abused category 5 out of 7, or 71 percent, list their mothers as not falling in the drinking sometimes or frequently category. It would appear the majority of mothers of respondents who consider themselves abused are not thought of as frequent consumers of alcohol, no more so than the mothers listed in the non-abused categories. The chi-square test shows the probability level for significant interaction as .0870, therefore, no significant interaction seems evident.

TABLE 16.--Mothers' drinking habits and class status of abused and non-abused respondents

| Mothers Drinking Habits | White Collar | | Blue Collar | | Total |
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	
Sometimes or frequently (21.2%) n=40	3 (7.5%)	30 (75%)	2 (5%)	5 (12.5%)	(100%)
Never (78.7%) n=148	12 (8.1%)	83 (56%)	5 (3.3%)	48 (32.4%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 188

X = 6.550

df= 3

P = .087

The null hypothesis predicted no significant inter-actions exist between the factors of alcoholic consumption and class status of the abused and non-abused respondents. This hypothesis was accepted for this table as a result of the probability obtained from the chi-square test. It is of interest to note that twice as many respondents as listed should be in the blue collar non-abused category according to chi-square computation. This means blue collar mothers who do not abuse their children are less likely to drink than chance would indicate. Perhaps some social stigma exists for blue collar mothers who do drink that would limit this type of behavior. It is recommended further research be pursued in this area to see what limits drinking among blue collar mothers and whether or not this has a bearing on child abuse.

Table 17 presents data regarding suicide attempts by the respondents within the listed sample group. Out of the total listed sample population, 4 percent list themselves as having attempted suicide. The results of this table seem interesting in that out of 224 respondents in the white collar non-abused group, 9, or 4 percent, list themselves as having attempted suicide. This is greater than any other group except the white collar abused group where 3 out of 15, or 20 percent, list themselves as having attempted suicide. It would seem chances of suicide increase with membership in the white collar social class and more than triple if you are a member of the white collar social class and are also a victim of child abuse. Within the attempted suicide category which totals 13, 69 percent are members of the white collar non-abused group and 23 percent are members of the white collar abused category. This means 92 percent of the respondents who attempted suicide fall into the white collar category. The chi-square test shows a significant level of interaction among these factors of attempted suicide and social class of abused and non-abused respondents. The probability level is .0183.

The null hypothesis predicted no significant interactions would exist between the factors of attempted suicide and social class of abused and non-abused respondents. The null hypothesis is rejected on the basis of the probability score obtained by the chi-square test. It is interesting to

note that more than three times the number of respondents
expected are listed in the white collar abused category.
This implies that attempted suicide is a class related
phenomenon and if you are a member of the white collar seg-
ment of the population and were abused as a child the chances
are even greater that a suicide attempt will take place. It
is recommended that further research be applied to this area
to discover the relationship of attempted suicide to abuse.

TABLE 17.--Suicide attempts and class status of abused and
non-abused respondents

| Suicide Attempts | White Collar | | Blue Collar | | |
	Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	Total
Yes (4.3%) n= 13	3 (23%)	9 (69.2%)	0 (0%)	1 (7.6%)	(100%)
No (95%) n=287	12 (4.1%)	215 (74.9%)	7 (2.4%)	53 (18.4%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 300
X^2 = 10.054
df= 3
P = .0183

Table 18 examines runaways and social class of abused
and non-abused respondents. Out of a total sample population
of 298, 35 or 11 percent of the respondents listed them-
selves as having runaway from home as a child. The largest
percentage of runaways is found in the white collar abused
category with 33 percent claiming they had run away from
home. In the white collar non-abused category 12 percent

reported they had at some time run away from home, while 9 percent from the blue collar non-abused category said they were runaways. It would seem most runaways are from the white collar category (85%), while the child who had the greatest chance of running away would be from a white collar home and also the victim of abuse. The chi-square test shows a significant relationship between the factors with a probability of .0446.

The null hypothesis predicted no significant relationships would exist between the factors of being a runaway and social class of abused and non-abused respondents. Since the chi-square probability shows significance the null hypothesis is rejected. It is interesting to note that five times as many runaways as chance would allow according to chi-square computation exists in the white collar abused category. This means one is more likely to runaway from home if one is a member of the white collar segment of society and if one were also abused as a child. It is recommended further research be made into this area to determine why this mode of coping is so widely pursued by the white collar abused category.

Perpetrator

Regarding action taken against the perpetrator of the severely beaten respondents as presented in Table 19, it seems to bear out what was previously mentioned in Chapter II; that conviction on charges of child abuse are rare and hard

to prove. Prosecution was attempted in one case but was

dropped due to lack of proof. In the table presented it

shows one attempted prosecution, one had hostile feeling against

the mother, one left home permanently at age 15, and 12 did

not reply to the question. In the case where evidence was

used in the divorce of the grandparents this was not a child

beating incident but was sexual seduction by the grandfather.

TABLE 18.--Runaways and class status of abused and non-abused
respondents

Runaways		White Collar		Blue Collar		Total
		Abused	Non-Abused	Abused	Non-Abused	
Yes (11.7%) n=35		5 (14.2%)	25 (71.4%)	0 (0%)	5 (14.2%)	(100%)
No (88.2%) n=263		10 (3.8%)	197 (74.9%)	7 (2.6%)	49 (18.6%)	(100%)

(100%) n_2= 298

X = 8.048

df= 3

P = .0446

This table (Table 19) was not divided into blue collar

and white collar categories due to the limited number of

responses to this question. As mentioned above, the table

also contains one case of action taken against a sexual seduc-

tion perpetrator. This table seems to support the data in

Chapter II that very little is done to the perpetrators of

sexual or physical abuse.

TABLE 19.--Action taken against perpetrators of physical
and sexual abuse

Action Taken	Total
Evidence used in divorce case of grandparents	1
Mother divorced father	1
Attempted to prosecute babysitter, but not enough medical evidence existed. Babysitter testified child had fallen down stairs and burned herself with cigarette	1
Mother was viewed in family as perpetrator and father as a hero	1
Left home permanently at age 15	1
Total	5

*These were the only responses to the perpetrator question.

Several additional tables will be presented in this chapter using the total 331 questionnaires in the sample. These tables present variables that seem of interest and significance in regards to behavior relative to child abuse. Because of the high incidence of violence and family disorganization usually associated with excessive alcoholic consumption within families, it was felt that additional emphasis and study on the role alcohol might play in specific family behavior patterns of suicide and runaways would be worth further study. This section is not divided into blue collar and white collar worker categories in order to use the data from all the questionnaires in the sample.

In regards to the mothers who drank as shown in Table 20, a total of 42 mothers are listed by the respondents as drinking until drunk. Out of this group came 8 runaways and 3 attempted suicides. From the mothers who never drank which totaled 280, there were 28 runaways and 9 attempted suicides. The chi-square test of significance shows a probability of .04. Though this is significant, the small number of respondents in the cells limits the validity of the test and any generalizations that can be made from it.

TABLE 20.--Suicide attempts and runaway respondents who listed their mothers as consumers of alcoholic beverages

Mothers listed as Consumers of Alcohol	Freq.	Perct.	Mothers not listed as Consumers of Alcohol	Freq.	Perct.
Suicide Attempts	3	7.1%		9	3.2%
Runaways	8	19.0%		28	10.0%
Non-runaways Non-Suicide Attempts	31	73.8%		243	86.7%
Total	42	100.0%		280	100.0%

n_2 = 322
X = 3.87
df = 1
P = .04

The null hypothesis predicted no significant relationships would exist between the factors of consumption or non-consumption of alcohol and attempted suicide and running away

from home. It is recommended further studies be done to determine if the quantity or frequency a mother drinks is a factor in causing more attempted suicides and running away. Heavy drinking would seem to be an inadequate form of coping as would attempted suicide and running away from home. Perhaps it is not the drinking that would lead to attempted suicide or running away but the teaching of ineffective coping skills to the children as a result of this drinking.

As Table 21 shows, out of a total of 97 fathers reported as drinkers only 12 of their children ran away from home at sometime in their lives and 7 children attempted suicide. Of the fathers who were not listed as drinkers by the respondents, (which totaled 216), 22 of their children ran away sometimes, while 6 of the children attempted suicide. Of the respondents who gave no answer as to whether or not their fathers drank, (which totaled 18), there were 4 runaways in this group and 1 suicide attempt. The chi-square test of significance was used to determine if any relationships existed among the factors within the table. The probability was .08, so significant relationships did not exist. Percentage-wise there did seem to be a tendency for more suicides to be found among fathers who drank, though this did not seem to be the case with runaways.

In regards to the fathers listed as drinkers and their form of discipline, as Table 22 shows, out of a total of 97 fathers who drank, 3 were reported as cruel, 8 as

TABLE 21.--Suicide attempts and runaway respondents who
         listed their fathers as consumers of alcohol.

Behavior	Fathers Listed As Consumers of Alcohol		Fathers Not Listed As Consumers of Alcohol	
	Freq.	Perct.	Freq.	Perct.
Suicide Attempts	12	12.3%	6	2.7%
Runaways	7	7.2%	19	8.7%
Non-Runaways/ Non-Suicide Attempts	78	80.4%	191	88.4%
Total	97	100.0%	216	100.0%

n_2 = 313

X = 2.92

df = 1

P = .08

TABLE 22.--Discipline of father relative to family drinking
         habits

Degree of Discipline	Fathers Listed as Drinkers		Fathers Listed as Non-Drinkers	
	Freq.	Perct.	Freq.	Perct.
Cruel or harsh	11	11.3%	8	3.7%
Firm	55	56.7%	155	71.7%
Permissive	24	24.7%	46	21.2%
Never Punished	6	6.1%	6	2.7%

n_2 = 313

X = 11.098

df = 3

P = .0116

harsh, 55 as firm, and 24 as permissive with 6 as having never been punished. One respondent did not answer the question.

Out of a total of 216 respondents who did not list their fathers as drinkers, 2 of their fathers were reported as harsh, 155 were recorded as firm, 46 viewed as permissive, and 6 having never been punished, and 1 respondent not answering. Of those respondents who gave no answers as to whether or not their fathers drank there was 1 father reported as harsh, 13 as firm, 1 as permissive, and 3 no answers. None were listed as cruel. The probability using the chi-square test of significance was listed as .0007; this is highly significant, but due to the small sample size in the cells the validity may be in question. On a percentage basis some large differences seem to exist between a fathers' drinking habits and the type of discipline he uses.

The null hypothesis which predicted no significant differences would exist between fathers who drink or don't drink and the discipline they meted out is rejected. It seems fathers who drink are more often considered cruel or harsh disciplinarians than fathers not listed as consumers of alcoholic beverages. It is recommended further research be done regarding family discipline and family drinking habits.

As Table 23 shows, the mothers listed as consumers of alcohol were not considered cruel or harsh disciplinarians by any of the 42 respondents in that category. Of these 42

respondents, 21 regarded their mothers as firm disciplinarians, 19 regarded their mothers as permissive, and 1 reported her mother never punished, and then 1 respondent did not answer the question. In the category of mothers not listed as consumers of alcohol, 13 out of 280 are reported as cruel and harsh disciplinarians.

TABLE 23.--Discipline of mother relative to family drinking habits

Degree of Discipline	Mothers Listed as Drinkers		Mothers Listed as Non-Drinkers	
	Freq.	Perct.	Freq.	Perct.
Cruel or harsh	0	0	13	4.6%
Firm	21	51.2%	160	57.0%
Permissive	19	46.3%	93	33.3%
Never Punished	1	2.4%	13	4.6%
Total	41	100.0%	279	100.0%

n_2= 320

X = 4.279

df= 3

P = .2322

The null hypothesis predicted no significant relationships would exist between the factors of alcohol consumption by the respondents' mothers and their type of discipline. The chi-square probability is listed at .23 so the null hypothesis is accepted. It is of interest to note that none of the mothers who drink were reported as cruel or harsh.

This is contrary to the data regarding the fathers' discipline and drinking habits. Even though chi-square shows no significance among the factors in this table, it is recommended further research be done to see if a trend does exist whereby consumption of alcoholic beverages affects discipline habits of the mother and father in completely different ways. It would also be interesting to study the effects alcohol would have on mothers who do not drink yet are considered cruel or harsh by their children.

Summary

In this section the findings from this study will be analyzed to determine what conclusions can be drawn from them. Each hypothesis will be listed and evaluated relative to its statistical significance. Also the findings and recommendations will be covered along with the hypothesis listed for each table of significance in this study.

Hypothesis Evaluation

The purpose of this thesis was to examine the incidence of child abuse among white collar and blue collar families and compare selected variables relative to child abuse between white collar and blue collar families. By doing this, major differences between child abuse in middle class and working class families could be examined and knowledge could be gained regarding these differences. It should be mentioned again

that due to the small sample size of this study, the validity
of the findings are in question and results should be viewed
with caution.

The null hypothesis for Table 7 predicts no relation-
ship exists between ethnic background, and social class of
the abused and non-abused respondent. The null hypothesis
is rejected since the probability level obtained by the chi-
square test falls well within the significant range. Data
from the table shows a larger percentage of Blacks and
Mexican Americans are more likely to be abused than Caucasions.
Also, as a Black or Mexican American respondent, abuse was
more likely to occur for members of the blue collar segment
of society. This did not seem to be the case for Caucasions
since the data showed abuse was more likely to occur if re-
spondents were Caucasion and a member of the white collar
segment of society. The data implies a relationship between
social class and ethnic background of the abused and non-
abused respondent. It is recommended further research be
made into these areas to test these findings.

The null hypothesis for Table 11 predicts no rela-
tionship exist between fathers' discipline and social class
of the abused and non-abused. The chi-square test indicated
a significant probability exists that there is a relation-
ship between these factors, so the null-hypothesis is rejected.
Fathers in the white collar abused category are the most
likely to be considered cruel or harsh. The data also shows

not all fathers who abused their children were considered cruel or harsh, while some fathers who did not abuse their children were considered cruel or harsh. While a father's discipline plays a significant part in abuse it is not the only factor to consider and it is recommended research be made in this area to see what factors are involved in a father's discipline and abuse and non-abuse of the child.

The null hypothesis for Table 15 predicts no relationships will exist between the fathers' drinking habits and social class of the abused and non-abused respondent. A significant relationship was found by use of the chi-square test. The data indicates there is a relationship between a father's drinking habits and child abuse for the blue collar segment of the sample population in that five times as many fathers of blue collared abused respondents were classified as consumers of alcoholic beverages than chance would allow. It is recommended that further research be done in this area to see if class differences do exist with regard to alcoholic consumption and child abuse.

The null hypothesis for Table 17 predicts no relationships exist between attempted suicide and social class for abused and non-abused respondents. Results from the chi-square test rejects the null hypothesis and shows a significant relationship exists. The findings indicate attempted suicide has the greatest chance to occur if you are a member of the white collar abused segment of society. It is recommended

that further research be utilized to discover the causal factors in the relationship of attempted suicide, social class, and child abuse.

The null hypothesis for Table 18 predicts no relationship exists between runaways and social class of the abused and non-abused respondent. Results from the chi-square test rejects the null hypothesis and shows a relationship existing for the factors listed above. The findings indicate running away from home is class related and the respondent is most likely to run away from home if his family is white collar and he was abused as a child. It is recommended that further research be done in this area to determine why this mode of coping is so widely pursued by the white collar abused category.

The null hypothesis for Table 20 predicts no relationship exists between mothers' drinking habits and attempted suicide and runaways. The results from the chi-square test show a significant relationship between these factors exists and the null hypothesis is rejected. The data shows children of mothers who were judged as being intoxicated are more likely to have runaway from home or attempted suicide. It is recommended that further research be done in this area to locate the causal factors for this behavior.

The null hypothesis for Table 22 predicted no significant relationship between the factors of fathers' drinking habits and fathers' discipline. Results from the chi-square

test rejects the null hypothesis and shows a significant probability that relationship exists. It seems that fathers who drink are more often considered cruel or harsh disciplinarians than fathers not listed as consumers of alcoholic beverages. It is recommended that further research be conducted regarding the relationship of family discipline and family drinking habits.

Conclusions

At the beginning of this study it was stressed little was known about child abuse in white collar and blue collar families. The extent to which class membership played a part in affecting the variables relative to child abuse was not known. Data from this study have demonstrated that class membership plays a significant part in affecting variables relative to the occurrance of child abuse. Recommendations from this study are based upon the view that this study serves primarily as a catalyst for further research. Notes of interest on data from insignificant tables also serve as catalysts and are not meant to be viewed as having been substantiated.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE TO CAMPUS MAIL BOX 2991. THANK YOU.

AGE___ SEX ___ RACE _____ RELIGION _____ ANNUAL INCOME FOR FATHER _____
                                               ANNUAL INCOME FOR MOTHER _____

EDUCATION OF FATHER   EDUCATION OF MOTHER   PLEASE STATE FATHER'S OCCUPATION
GRADE SCHOOL _____   GRADE SCHOOL _____   _____
HIGH SCHOOL _____   HIGH SCHOOL _____   PLEASE STATE MOTHER'S OCCUPATION
   COLLEGE   _____   COLLEGE   _____   _____

HOMETOWN _____   STATE _____   CLASS STANDING
APPROXIMATE POPULATION _____   FRESHMAN__ SOPHMORE__JUNIOR ____
                                               SENIOR __ GRADUATE STUDENT ____

                                               PLEASE MARK ONE
I. HAVE YOU EVER BEEN TREATED IN THE FOLLOWING
    MANNER?

    (A) WHEN YOU WERE UNDER TEN YEARS OF AGE WERE SOMETIMES FREQUENTLY NEVER
        YOU EVER LEFT ALONE FOR HOURS AT A TIME?   _____   _____   ___

    (B) WERE YOU EVER LEFT ALONE FOR A DAY OR MORE
        WHEN YOU WERE UNDER TEN YEARS OF AGE?   _____   _____   ___

    (C) WHILE UNDER TEN YEARS OF AGE DID YOU EVER
        HAVE TO FIX YOUR OWN MEAL?   _____   _____   ___

    (D) HAVE YOU EVER BEEN THE VICTIM OF A SEVERE
        BEATING ADMINISTERED BY A PARENT OR CUS-
        TODIAN WHILE UNDER SEVENTEEN YEARS OF AGE? _____   _____   ___

    (E) WHO ADMINISTERED THE BEATING? _____

    (F) WHAT TYPE OF INJURIES RESULTED FROM THIS BEATING(S)? PLEASE EXPLAIN.

        _____

2. WHICH BEST CHARACTERIZES YOUR FATHER'S APPROACH TO DISCIPLINE?
    NEVER PUNISHED___ PERMISSIVE___ FIRM ___ HARSH ___ CRUEL _____

3. WHICH BEST CHARACTERIZES YOUR MOTHER'S APPROACH TO DISCIPLINE?
    CRUEL _____ HARSH _____ FIRM _____ PERMISSIVE ___ NEVER PUNISHED___

4. AS A PERSON UNDER SEVENTEEN WERE YOU EVER SEXUALLY SEDUCED BY A MEMBER OF
    YOUR FAMILY OR CUSTODIAN? YES___ NO___. BY WHOM? _____

5. WERE YOU EVER RAPED BY A MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY OR CUSTODIAN? YES__NO____
    BY WHOM? _____

6. WITH REGARD TO SEXUALITY I COULD BE CHARACTERIZED AS:

   COMPLETELY HETEROSEXUAL ___ BISEXUAL ___ COMPLETELY HOMOSEXUAL ___
   PRIMARILY HETEROSEXUAL ___ PRIMARILY HOMOSEXUAL ____

7. MY FATHER GETS DRUNK FREQUENTLY:

   NEVER ___ SOMETIMES ___ FREQUENTLY ____

8. MY MOTHER GETS DRUNK FREQUENTLY:

   NEVER ___ SOMETIMES ___ FREQUENTLY ____

9. I HAVE ATTEMPTED SUICIDE. YES ____ NO ____. HOW MANY TIMES? _____

10. I RAN AWAY FROM HOME FREQUENTLY AS A CHILD.

    SOMETIMES ____ NEVER ____ FREQUENTLY _____

    REASONS AND AGE(S) I RAN AWAY FROM HOME. (USE BACK OF QUESTIONNAIRE
    TO ANSWER) _____

11. IF YOU WERE BEATEN OR SEXUALLY ABUSED AS A CHILD OR TEENAGER WAS ANY
    ACTION TAKEN AGAINST THE PERPETRATOR AND WERE ANY ATTEMPTS MADE TO
    HELP YOU IN SOME MANNER? (PLEASE ANSWER ON BACK OF QUESTIONNAIRE).

    _____

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS ON QUESTIONS ASKED FOR ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL
BE APPRECIATED. THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Vita was removed during scanning.