

CHILDBEARING ATTITUDES OF SINGLE AND MARRIED
WORKING MOTHERS OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE
TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

BY
MATTIE CAROLYN SISK VOIGTFL, B. S., M. ED.

DENTON, TEXAS

MAY 1981

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The contributions of numerous persons made this study possible. I appreciate the cooperation and assistance of my committee members, Dr. Basil Hamilton, Dr. Glen Jennings, Dr. James Corey, and Dr. Janet Malone. I especially appreciate the support and encouragement of Dr. Vera T. Gershner, committee chairperson, who was always available at crucial moments to offer guidance and understanding. Special appreciation is also expressed to Dr. Gloria Durr, who has encouraged me both professionally and personally and has provided numerous opportunities for growth. I am also indebted to the day care center directors who helped in identification of the respondents and to the mothers who participated in the study.

Members of my family and friends have provided continued interest and support over the years of study. My parents, Roy and Ruth Sisk, and my cousin, Jean Austin, have contributed both encouragement and physical accommodations on innumerable occasions. Particularly, the constant love, encouragement, and assistance of my husband, Dick, and children, Richard, Beth, Kathryn, and Patricia, are appreciated more than words can express.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Need for the Study	2
Purpose	3
Research Hypotheses	4
Respondents	5
Limitations	5
Delimitations	6
Definition of Terms	6
Summary	7
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
Overview of Parent Types	8
Disciplinarian Parent Type	9
Indulgent Parent Type	15
Protective Parent Type	17
Rejecting Parent Type	20
Conclusion	22
III. METHODOLOGY	23
Respondents	23
Instrumentation	24

CHAPTER	
Procedures	25
Hypotheses	27
Analyses	27
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	29
Sample Characteristics	29
Findings	31
Discussion	36
Summary	40
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	44
Summary	44
Conclusions	45
Recommendations	46
APPENDICES	49
Appendix A: Initial Contact Letter	50
Appendix B: Informed Consent Form	52
Appendix C: Maryland Parent Attitude Survey	54
Appendix D: Mean Scores for Single Variables of Discipline, Indulgence, Pro- tection, and Rejection and Cell and Marginal Means	64
REFERENCES	68

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1. Marital Status, Education, and Family Size of Respondents	30
2. F Values for Main Effects and Interactions From Multivariant Analysis of Variance . . .	32
3. F and <u>p</u> Values for Univariant Analysis of Variance for Dependent Variables	33
4. T Scores on Single Variables of Discipline, Indulgence, Protection, and Rejection . . .	38
5. Cell Data for Education by Family Size on Rejection	41
6. Education by Family Size Interaction on Rejection	42
7. Mean Scores for Single Variables of Discipline, Indulgence, Protection, and Rejection . . .	65
8. Cell and Marginal Means	66

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Maternal attitudes toward child rearing have been widely investigated by researchers in attempts to determine those factors which significantly influence the psychosocial development of children (Flynn, 1979; Kagan, 1976; Milton, 1958; Ricci, 1970; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957; Zunich, 1966). Considerable evidence supports the theory that the family provides almost the total environmental influence for the child for several years, and that the attitudes of the mother are instrumental in determining the emotional climate of the family (Brody, 1965; Clausen, 1966; Finney, 1961; Milton, 1958; Sears, et al., 1957).

Further studies into childrearing attitudes have dealt with types of parental roles as they influence the development of the child's personality (Baumrind, 1965, 1966, 1968; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Hamachek, 1978; Sears, et al., 1957) and with the consequences of differing techniques of discipline (Becker, 1964; Hoffman, 1960). While there appears to be no single best way to raise a child, there are, nevertheless, identifiable parental attitudes which exert predictable influences on the healthy development of the child (Baumrind, 1966; Kagan, 1976). The ultimate impact on the

child appears to lie more in how a parent feels than in what is done (Hamachek, 1978; Kagan, 1976) and in how the parent and child interact (Martin, 1975).

Parent attitudes can be described in terms of two orthogonal dimensions; autonomy-control and acceptance-rejection (Ricci, 1970). Schaefer's Hypothetical Circumplex Model for Maternal Behavior (1959) and Becker's Hypothetical Model for Parental Behavior (1964) provide the basis of and the stimulus for continuing research into these attitudinal dimensions (Brody, 1965; Phelps, 1969; Pumroy, 1966; Ricci, 1970; Zunich, 1966).

Need for the Study

The majority of studies of maternal attitudes have dealt with family units including children and both parents (Alpert & Richardson, 1978; Brody, 1965; Flynn, 1979; Heath, 1977; Hurley & Hohn, 1971). However, increasing numbers of single mothers are rearing children alone due to death of spouse, divorce, or bearing children out of wedlock. Unfortunately, little has been reported regarding the attitudes toward child rearing in families where one parent is permanently absent (Flanzer, 1978; Phelps, 1969). The body of research appears to be deficient in the area of maternal attitudes of single mothers and, in particular, in consideration of variables which may affect those attitudes

(Alpert & Richardson, 1978; Ernhart, 1975; Flanzer, 1978; Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1973; Heinstein, 1965; Hurley & Hohn, 1971; Phelps, 1969).

This study on the relationship of specified variables on maternal child rearing attitudes seemed to be needed because of the decided lack of research in this area (Flanzer, 1978; Flynn, 1979; Heinstein, 1965; Phelps, 1969). The number of single mothers appears to be increasing rapidly, and this trend has been projected to continue. Between 1970 and 1974, the number of female-headed single families increased by 22%, and in 1974, 10% of all households and 15% of all families with children were headed by single females (General Mills American Family Report, 1976-77). While a significant percentage of these women eventually remarry, there is a period of time between divorce and remarriage during which the mother acts as a single parent. A greater understanding of the influence of specified variables on maternal childrearing attitudes might offer insight to professionals who work in counseling relationships with single mothers.

Purpose

This study examined the attitudes toward child rearing of single mothers and mothers from nuclear families who worked outside the home and had preschool children in day

care. The question investigated was whether these mothers differed significantly in their attitudes toward child rearing on the basis of their marital status, their educational level or their family size.

Mothers completed an inventory reflecting demographic data as well as a questionnaire measuring attitude clusters which identified four parental types: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, and rejecting. The results of the questionnaire were analyzed in relation to marital status, maternal educational level, and family size.

Research Hypotheses

This study of maternal childrearing attitudes was designed to explore the following hypotheses:

1. There is a significant difference in mean scores of single mothers and married mothers on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.
2. There is a significant difference in mean scores of mothers with 12 years of education or less and those with more than 12 years of education on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.
3. There is a significant difference in mean scores of mothers of one child and those with more than one child

on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.

4. There are significant interactions between factors on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.

Respondents

Respondents were 101 working mothers who had preschool children enrolled in private day care facilities operating in the Nacogdoches County/East Texas area. The sample was stratified by selecting comparable samples of married mothers and single mothers; mothers with 12 years or less of education and those with more than 12 years; mothers of one child and mothers with more than one child. The comparatively high cost of full-time day care was expected to restrict the subjects to the middle socioeconomic level.

Limitations

Limitations in this research lay in the volunteer nature of the sample and in the designated geographic area of East Texas. The mothers in this study had children enrolled in private child care which is costly. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to include all geographic regions or members of all socioeconomic groups. Due to the unique population being investigated in this study, a

random sampling procedure was not practical, thereby posing an additional limitation. The method of administration of the self-report instrument was a limiting factor for data collection. However, complete anonymity of the study encouraged accurate reporting. The forced choice format of the questionnaire was a limitation, with some resistance to the instrument being noted among respondents. Individual responses were scored on more than one scale with the result that subscale scores are not experimentally independent (Anastasi, 1976).

Delimitations

The study was designed to include only mothers who had children in relatively large public or private licensed day care facilities during the fall of 1980. Mothers who were not included in the study were those who had arrangements for child care in private day care homes or with friends or relatives; those who had an adult other than a husband residing in the home; and those whose marital relationship had been either initiated or terminated within the previous year.

Definition of Terms

1. Disciplinary parent type - a parent who needs and expects obedience from the child, who states rules

explicitly, and, if necessary, uses punishment in a fair and consistent manner.

2. Indulgent parent type - a parent who is child centered, showers the child with affection and gifts, but does not give the child responsibility or encourage initiative.

3. Protective parent type - a parent who is overly watchful and concerned that the child not take risks or be placed in potentially dangerous situations.

4. Rejecting parent type - a parent who is openly and actively hostile to the child and bases discipline and punishment more on the negative feelings of the parent than on the behavior of the child.

Summary

Increasing numbers of single mothers are rearing children alone, and the trend is predicted to continue. A lack of research into the phenomenon of single parenthood and, in particular, of childrearing attitudes of single mothers, led to this research which explored the influence of specified individual and familial factors on the attitudes of single and married mothers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Within the last 20 years, researchers have explored in some depth a variety of parent attitudes and the relationships of those attitudes to the behavior of children. From these studies, specific parent types have been identified and described. However, little has been reported on the influence of various individual and familial factors on designated parent types. This literature review included research on the disciplinarian, indulgent, permissive, and rejecting parent types as they are influenced by maternal marital status, educational level, and family size.

Overview of Parent Types

Parent types have been described in terms of orthogonal dimensions by Schaefer (1965) and Becker (1964). These dimensions may be considered as a continuum between love/warmth and hostility/rejection and between control/restrictiveness and autonomy/permissiveness. Within this basic framework, Pumroy (1966), in developing the Maryland Parent Attitude Survey (MPAS), designated four parent types as Disciplinarian, Indulgent, Permissive, and Rejecting. Schaefer and Bell (1958) determined that scales of the

Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) measured factors representative of Authoritarian-Control, Hostility-Rejection, and Democratic Attitude. Extensive research by Baumrind (1965, 1966, 1968) established Authoritarian, Authoritative, and Permissive parent types. In a factor analytic study of 44 variables taken from Sears, Maccoby, and Levin's (1957) research, Milton (1958) identified inter-related clusters of variables relating to strictness of parental behavior, general family interaction, maternal warmth, responsible childrearing orientation, and parental attitude toward aggression and permissiveness. Ricci (1970) described parent attitudes in terms of autonomy/control and acceptance/rejection.

While researchers have taken several approaches to Schaefer's (1959) and Becker's (1964) hypothetical models, there appears to be a degree of consistency in their interpretations of parent types, particularly in relation to parental control and warmth. For the purpose of this review, Pumroy's (1966) parent types provide a structure within which the specified factors are considered.

Disciplinarian Parent Type

The disciplinarian parent needs and expects obedience from the child. Rules are explicitly stated, and the child knows that if he does not comply, he will be punished in a

fair and consistent manner. The parent pushes the child to achieve beyond his ability, forcing him to grow up early (Pumroy, 1966). Current research efforts into the effects of marital status (Flanzer, 1978; Phelps, 1969), education (Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1973; Heinstein, 1965; Minton, Kagan, & Levine, 1971; Zussman, 1975), and family size (Ernhart, 1975; Hurley & Hohn, 1971; Quinn, 1977; Zussman, 1975) on maternal orientation toward discipline are somewhat limited in both number and scope.

Marital Status

Phelps (1969) surveyed the attitudes of 38 married mothers and 22 single mothers from the middle class, based on income and education. Mothers from the two-parent group consistently reflected a more liberal and enlightened attitude toward child rearing than the single mothers. A significant difference was found between the two groups with regard to authoritarian control. Single mothers tended to have a more rigid attitude toward expression of aggression, learning about sex, and influences from outside the home, and expected their children to mature more rapidly than did married mothers. In interviews many single mothers blamed their own parents' permissiveness for their failure in marriage. They appeared to be using a more autocratic approach with their children in an attempt to avoid making

the same mistakes as their mothers. This one factor of authoritarian control appeared to typify the differences between childrearing attitudes of the two groups of mothers.

Flanzer (1978), in a study of single parents, supported the results obtained by Phelps (1969), finding that single mothers appeared to be more authoritarian disciplinarians than married mothers. In addition, many single mothers felt closer to their children because the children provided a structure and purpose for life. The recognition of their sole responsibility as a parent tended to make single mothers more anxious about failing their children and may have contributed to a disciplinarian approach (Flanzer, 1978).

Educational Level

Minton, Kagan, and Levin (1971) studied the relationship of maternal control and obedience in 27 month old children. In structured observations of 49 boys and 41 girls and their mothers, the researchers noted that less educated mothers were markedly more prohibitive and intrusive than college educated mothers, particularly with their sons. Well-educated mothers appeared to believe in the value of autonomy and responsibility and felt that a child must be given freedom in order to develop those characteristics. Less educated or lower-middle-class mothers appeared to feel

that freedom breeds rebelliousness and laziness and to hold the belief that a child must be told what to do.

In a sample of 809 mothers from a California statewide sample and 812 mothers from California's Contra Costa County, Heinstein (1965) found that a mother's educational level appeared to influence childrearing attitudes more than her socioeconomic level. Mothers with four or more years of college were the most lenient and permissive of the three groups of mothers studied. Those with eight years or less of schooling were also permissive, contrary to the results of most studies, although this approach was possibly due to indifference. Mothers with a moderate educational level were least lenient, demonstrating a more autocratic orientation. A curvilinear relationship was established between educational level and attitude toward discipline in this study.

Zussman's research (1975) dealt with 44 fifth grade boys and girls and their mothers in a study of demographic factors which influenced discipline techniques. Results of interviews indicated that parental power assertion decreased significantly as parental education increased. This observation was statistically significant for discipline applied to boys but not significant for girls. This study was limited to the middle and upper socioeconomic level, and results cannot be generalized.

Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973), in a study of maternal attitudes, noted that mothers obtaining high scores on a measure of authoritarian family ideology tended to have no college education, to have a conservative, lower-middle-class background, and to come from small towns or rural areas. They were not often influenced by new insights into child development, and when they moved toward new child-rearing practices, it was because of permissiveness rather than openness to information. Highly educated mothers were more conscious of and open to new innovations and actively acquired information concerning child rearing.

Family Size

Zussman's (1975) study of demographic factors affecting discipline suggested that a complex relationship may have existed between family size and socioeconomic level. Data indicated that with increasing family size, boys received greater parental use of power assertion and less use of teaching, while girls tended to receive less parental power assertion and more parental teaching. With socioeconomic level controlled, these results were significant beyond the 0.05 level for boys and the 0.10 level for girls. These results suggested that parents may have been using more sex-stereotyped discipline with increasing family size. One possible explanation was that with a greater

number of children, parents had less time to individuate their disciplinary techniques and were more likely to let a child's sex be a major determinant in these practices.

Ernhart (1975) tested a sample of 309 white and 130 black mothers after the delivery of a child and again three years later. On first testing, white women who had just delivered a first child scored higher on a measure of authoritarianism than those who had delivered a later child. At second testing, the scores of the white primiparous women dropped markedly so that the means for the two groups were almost identical. The initial difference in attitude between the two groups of black women was less marked. The data indicated that childrearing experience tended to modify the authoritarian attitudes of women.

In a longitudinal study of childrearing attitudes linked to parenthood and occupation, Hurley and Hohn (1971) initially sampled 119 college students and obtained follow-up data from 75 of the original sample after six years. Results indicated that as the number of children increased, less parental control was exercised and less pressure was applied on children to achieve.

Quinn (1977) studied attitudinal orientation toward childrearing in relation to years of childrearing experience. He noted that mothers who gave birth during the study were more extreme and inconsistent in their approach

toward childrearing. Those mothers with the most child-rearing experience were less analytical and relied more on the individual child's disposition when making judgments. This study did not consider number of children; rather, the approach was toward years of childrearing experience.

Indulgent Parent Type

Indulgent parents are child centered and allow the child to have his way in most matters. The child is showered with warmth, affection, and gifts, but is not given responsibilities or encouraged to demonstrate initiative. Attempts at parental discipline are circumvented by the child (Pumroy, 1966). Research relating the indulgent parent type to the factors of marital status (Phelps, 1969), educational level (Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1973; Heinstein, 1965), and family size (Hurley & Hohn, 1971) appears to be insufficient in quantity, but nevertheless shows consistency in results.

Marital Status

Phelps (1969), in his study of 38 married mothers and 22 single mothers, noted that single mothers were less indulgent than married mothers with their children. The single mothers felt that they had themselves been products of a liberal upbringing, and they blamed their parents'

permissiveness for their marital failures. This viewpoint influenced their attitudes toward indulgence, with a resulting commitment to be less indulgent with their own offspring. The data also indicated that married mothers held more democratic attitudes toward their children than did single mothers, although not at a significant level. While democratic attitude is not a measure of indulgence, it denotes a related attitude of acceptance.

Educational Level

Heinstein (1965), in his extensive study of California mothers, found that mothers with four years or more of college were more indulgent and more nurturant in all areas considered in the study. They were open to new innovations and trends in childrearing and conscientiously tried to meet their children's needs. They read extensively and their practices were close to what was recommended by experts. The least educated mothers (eight years or less) were also indulgent, but they tended to "do what comes naturally" out of indifference or lack of information. Moderately educated mothers were least indulgent. A significant difference in a measure of indulgence was noted between high and low education groups in connection with female children; a non-significant difference was noted with male children. This finding indicated that mothers

from each group tended to be less indulgent with their sons than with their daughters.

The research of Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973) agreed substantially with that of Heinstein (1965), finding that highly educated mothers were somewhat more indulgent than the mothers with least education, possibly due to concern about the child's developing individuality and to their own openness to innovative techniques. The data also indicated that lower educational level would be predictive of indulgence through lack of concern or little motivation to change one's traditional methods.

Family Size

Hurley and Hohn (1971), in their longitudinal study linked with parenthood and occupation, found evidence to suggest that as the number of children increased, parents became less indulgent. This finding appeared to be associated with the greater financial and emotional demands placed upon parents of several children.

Protective Parent Type

The protective parent is overly watchful of the children and concerned that they not take risks or be placed in potentially dangerous situations. Parents perform tasks for the children long after they are capable of doing them

for themselves; they are not allowed to grow up and do things independently (Pumroy, 1966). The protective parent as influenced by marital status (Flanzer, 1978; Phelps, 1969), educational level (Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1973; Heinstein, 1965), and family size (Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1973; Hurley & Hohn, 1971) also appears to merit further research, as most studies attempt to relate parent type to child behavior.

Marital Status

Phelps (1969) studied two-parent and one-parent families and found that single mothers were more likely to foster dependence in their children. They attempted to protect their children from outside influences and sexual knowledge in an effort to more closely control their environment. The previously noted significant differences between one- and two-parent families concerning authoritarian control were thought to be directly related to an over-protective attitude held by many single mothers.

In Flanzer's (1978) study of single parent families, data indicated that recognition of their sole responsibility appeared to influence single mothers to assume an overly protective role. They were more vulnerable to anxiety than married mothers because of a fear that they might fail their children in some manner.

Educational Level

Heinstein (1965), in his California study, determined that less educated mothers were more likely to be neglectful of their children, resulting in an overall attitude of permissiveness through indifference. Mothers with a moderate educational level were most likely to be highly protective, which related to an attempt to control their children's friends and activities.

Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973) concurred with Heinstein (1965), noting that the least educated mothers were inclined toward neglect rather than overprotection of their children. Additional data indicated that highly educated mothers were less protective than moderately educated mothers. The apparent reason was that highly educated mothers were attempting to foster the development of independence in their children, and they viewed overprotection as being stifling to a child's growth toward independence.

Family Size

Hurley and Hohn (1971) obtained lower overprotection scores from mothers of several children compared to those with small families, thereby suggesting a more permissive and less controlled childrearing approach with a larger number of children. Increased experience with children

appeared to lessen concern over protectiveness.

Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973) reported that mothers of large families promoted independence out of necessity. Mothers who were highly protective and encouraged dependence were more likely to have small families, to be in the middle and upper classes, and to not be employed outside the home.

Rejecting Parent Type

Rejecting parents are openly and actively hostile to their child, with discipline and punishment being based more on the negative feelings of the parent than on the behavior of the child (Pumroy, 1966). A paucity of research is again noted in relating the rejecting parent type to marital status (Phelps, 1969), educational level (Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1973; Heinstein, 1965; Minton, et al., 1971), and family size (Hurley & Hohn, 1971).

Marital Status

Marital status did not significantly discriminate rejecting parent types in Phelps' study of 38 married and 22 single mothers (1969). Although the married mothers were less rejecting, differences were not significant.

Educational Level

Heinstein (1965), in analyzing the relationship of maternal education to acceptance-rejection, noted that mothers with four years or more of college were the most accepting and nurturant of the three groups surveyed. Those with a moderate educational level were most rejecting, while less educated mothers were accepting but not overly involved with their children.

In their study of maternal control and obedience, Minton et al. (1971) noted that the children of middle-class, well educated mothers asked their mothers to play with them more often than did children of less educated lower-class mothers. Middle-class children were more likely to view their mothers as companions rather than as objects to fear, indicating that they enjoyed a greater level of maternal acceptance.

Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973) determined that high scores on a denial of hostility scale were obtained from the upper half of the social stratum. These results indicated that a higher maternal educational level was likely to increase the degree of acceptance of children and to modify attitudes of rejection.

Family Size

Hurley and Hohn's (1971) longitudinal study provided evidence that as the number of children in a family increased, manifest rejection also increased, with mothers being more rejecting than fathers. Indication was that bearing and caring for several children within a short time span subjects young women to a considerable amount of stress. Higher manifest rejection scores in this study were termed ominous as they related to young mothers of several children.

Conclusion

Research into the effects of marital status, educational level, and family size on the development of differing parent types appears at this time to be limited to fewer than a dozen studies, with the majority of those being conducted in the last decade. This decided lack of empirical data substantiates the need for the proposed study of parent attitudes.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive study of attitudes toward childrearing of single and married mothers was conducted in the Nacogdoches area of East Texas during the fall of 1980. Attitudes were surveyed by a self-report questionnaire which identified four parent types: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, and rejecting. The relationships of the factors of marital status, educational level, and family size to parental types were explored. All data were anonymous and confidentiality was assured.

Respondents

Participants in the study were 49 single mothers and 52 married mothers whose children were in day care in the Nacogdoches area. Single mothers were defined as those who had been separated, divorced, or widowed for a minimum of one year, or those who had never been married. Married mothers were defined as those in intact nuclear families with the marriage established for a minimum of one year. If adults other than parents were also living in the home, that mother was not included in the study. An effort was made to obtain comparable samples of married and single

mothers, mothers with an educational level of 12 years or less and those with more than 12 years, and mothers with one child and those with more than one child, with at least one preschool child currently being in day care.

Instrumentation

Questionnaires were completed on a self-report basis. A survey of relevant demographic data was administered to respondents to reveal marital status, educational level, and family size. A standardized instrument, the Maryland Parent Attitude Survey (MPAS), developed by Pumroy (1966), was used to determine parent types. The four scales of this forced choice inventory describe disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, and rejecting attitudes. Each attitude is represented by 45 statements which are paired to yield 90 items. These 90 pairs of items, plus five initial buffers, are the basis of the MPAS. Subscales within the MPAS yield raw scores ranging from 0-45 and T scores with a mean of 50 and SD of 10 (Pumroy, 1966; Schnabl-Dickey, 1977).

The MPAS was designed to control for social desirability. Correlations ranging from $-.17$ to $.19$ between the Edwards Social Desirability Scale and the four MPAS scales indicate that the MPAS is relatively free of social desirability (Schnabl-Dickey, 1977). Toler (1967) also tested for social desirability by correlating the MPAS subscales

with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Near zero, nonsignificant correlations indicated that social desirability had been satisfactorily controlled, reducing the possibility of respondents answering as they think appropriate rather than giving indication of true attitudes.

Reliability of the MPAS scales has been measured by the split-half and the test-retest methods. Test-retest reliabilities of the four MPAS scales range from .62 to .73. Coefficients of .67 to .84 have been reported for split-half reliability corrected with the Spearman-Brown formula (Pumroy, 1966; Schnabl-Dickey, 1977). Correlation indicates a negative relationship between the disciplinarian and indulgent scales and between the protective and rejecting scales and supports the subdivision of the MPAS into different parental types (Pumroy, 1966; Toler, 1967).

Procedures

An educational cross section of the population was sampled by contacting day care centers from all sections of the city. This approach excluded working mothers who had made other child care arrangements. Respondents were identified through the center directors and permission was obtained to contact eligible mothers. Letters were mailed explaining the study and bearing the signature of the center director and the researcher. A follow-up contact by

telephone provided for further explanation of the study and confirmed participation. A total of 127 mothers were contacted and agreed to participate. It was noted that single mothers were more difficult to contact than married mothers. In numerous instances, several calls were necessary in order to find an individual at home, even at traditional mealtimes.

Packets containing complete instructions, informed consent papers, questionnaires, and stamped self-addressed envelopes were then mailed to the respondents. They were asked to complete the questionnaires within three days of receipt and to return them to the researcher in the envelopes provided. After a period of 10 days, those persons who had not returned questionnaires were again contacted by telephone. This procedure resulted in nine additional responses. Three subjects contacted the researcher and declined participation in the study after receiving the questionnaire. The difficulty in responding to a forced choice instrument was cited as the reason for declining to participate. Two returned questionnaires were discarded because they were incomplete. The overall response rate of complete questionnaires was 81%, with 75% of the single mothers and 87% of the married mothers returning questionnaires. Complete anonymity was assured by separation of informed consent papers from unsigned questionnaires as

soon as they were returned.

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses established for this study were:

1. There is no significant difference in mean scores of single mothers and married mothers on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.

2. There is no significant difference in mean scores of mothers with 12 years of education or less and those with more than 12 years of education on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.

3. There is no significant difference in mean scores of mothers of one child and those with more than one child on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.

4. There are no significant interactions between factors on each of the subscales of parent type: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, rejecting.

Analyses

The design of the study was descriptive in nature. No attempt was made to determine causation; only possible relationships between variables and main effects were explored

and analyzed. All hypotheses were analyzed by multivariant factorial analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test for differences in the factors of marital status, educational level, and family size on each of the four subscale parent types. Interactions between the main effects were observed. The alpha level of significance was set at 0.01 in an attempt to hold down the Type I error rate in the multiple statistical tests and because of the possibility of small cell sizes in the 2 X 2 X 2 design. Descriptive analyses were used to examine demographic data. Data were analyzed by computer using the Biomedical Computer Programs (BMD) (1973).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Questionnaires from 101 working mothers of preschool children in day care supplied the data used in analysis. Attitudes toward childrearing were measured, using a forced choice instrument which yielded scores assessing four parental types: disciplinarian, indulgent, protective, and rejecting. Factors used in analysis were marital status, educational level, and family size.

Sample Characteristics

Marital status, educational level, and family size of the respondents are summarized in Table 1. Forty-nine mothers were single and 52 were married. Fifty-four were mothers of one child and 47 had two or more children. Of this number, 37 mothers had 2 children, 8 mothers had 3 children, and 2 mothers had 4 children. Of the 54 mothers who had one child, 33 were single.

Educational level was unequally divided, with 74 participants having more than 12 years of education. Only one respondent reported less than a high school education, 26 were high school graduates, 31 had some college, and 43 had earned degrees. Subjects were middle-class working mothers

Table 1
Marital Status, Education, and Family Size
of Respondents

Education	Single Mothers (N = 49)			Married Mothers (N = 52)			Total
	1 child	>1 child	total	1 child	>1 child	total	
12 years or less	11	5	16	5	6	11	27
more than 12 years	22	11	33	16	25	41	74
Total	33	16	49	21	31	52	101
Degree held	13	6	19	12	12	24	43

who lived in a community heavily influenced by higher education. Therefore, the 27 mothers with no personal college experience may have had contact with friends and relatives who had attended college and may have shared ideas and experiences in childrearing with such people.

The participants were selected from four day care centers serving various segments of the community. The center showing the lowest response rate was used primarily by blue-collar families. Mothers using day care centers serving predominantly white-collar workers and professionals tended to return questionnaires promptly and to be interested in the results of the study. The directors of all day care centers involved in the study were very cooperative and supportive of the project and expressed interest in the results.

Findings

The statistical analysis used on the four null hypotheses was a 2X2X2 factorial multivariant analysis of variance (MANOVA) with four dependent variables. Univariant analysis of variance yielded additional data on dependent variables. The Biomedical Computer Program (BMD) (1973), was used to test for differences in the factors of marital status, educational level, and family size on each of four subscale parent types. One significant interaction between

the main effects was observed. Results are reported as F values (Tables 2 and 3). Since the direction of differences was not established, a two-tailed probability level was used. An alpha level of 0.01 was selected for significance in an attempt to hold down the Type I error rate and because of the possibility of small cell sizes in the 2X2X2 design.

Table 2
F Values for Main Effects and Interactions
From Multivariant Analysis of Variance

Factors	F Value	Significance
A (Marital Status)	1.865	NS
B (Educational Level)	1.435	NS
C (Family Size)	2.589	NS
AXB	.809	NS
AXC	1.470	NS
BXC	3.371	NS*
AXBXC	2.241	NS

F = 3.65 for alpha of 0.01

* Significant at 0.025 level

df = 4.90

Table 3

F and p Values for Univariate Analysis
of Variance for Dependent Variables

	F Value	p
<u>Discipline</u>		
A (Marital Status)	2.431	0.122
B (Educational Level)	0.347	0.557
C (Family Size)	3.374	0.069
AXB	0.428	0.514
AXC	6.966	0.010
BXC	1.555	0.216
AXBXC	0.048	0.828
<u>Indulgence</u>		
A (Marital Status)	3.034	0.085
B (Educational Level)	0.031	0.862
C (Family Size)	0.342	0.560
AXB	0.181	0.671
AXC	0.385	0.537
BXC	0.114	0.736
AXBXC	0.227	0.635

Table 3 (continued)

	F Value	p
<u>Protection</u>		
A (Marital Status)	0.480	0.490
B (Educational Level)	0.400	0.529
C (Family Size)	0.009	0.925
AXB	0.024	0.876
AXC	0.125	0.725
BXC	3.265	0.074
AXBXC	1.051	0.308
<u>Rejection</u>		
A (Marital Status)	1.245	0.267
B (Educational Level)	0.018	0.893
C (Family Size)	0.216	0.643
AXB	0.575	0.450
AXC	1.585	0.211
BXC	8.394	0.005*
AXBXC	3.098	0.082

*Significant at .01 level

Analysis of hypothesis 1, which proposed that there were no differences in mean scores of single and married mothers on each of the four parent types, yielded an F value above the established rejection level of 0.01 among group

means using all variables (Table 2). No significant differences were observed between single and married mothers on any of the subscales measuring parent type (Table 3). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference could not be rejected.

Hypothesis 2 stated that mean scores of mothers with 12 years of education or less would not differ from scores of mothers having more than 12 years of education. An F value greater than the alpha level of 0.01 was observed among group means using all variables (Table 2). No significant differences were noted among mothers on the basis of educational level on any of the subscales (Table 3). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference could not be rejected.

Analysis of hypothesis 3, which proposed that mean scores of mothers of one child would not differ significantly from scores of mothers of more than one child, yielded an F value greater than the established alpha of 0.01 among group means using all variables (Table 2). No significant differences were observed among mothers on the factor of family size on any of the subscales of parent type (Table 3). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference could not be rejected.

Analysis of hypothesis 4, which stated that there were no significant interactions between factors on any subscale of parent type, yielded F values greater than the 0.01 level

on all interactions (Table 2). However, the interaction between educational level (factor B) and family size (factor C) yielded an F value of 3.371, which was significant at the alpha level of 0.025. Further investigation revealed that the BXC interaction on the rejection subscale was significant with an F value of 8.394 and a two-tailed $p = 0.005$ (Table 3). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference between the factors of educational level and family size on the rejection subscale was rejected. While the univariant analysis of the AXC interaction on the discipline subscale indicated a significant difference (Table 3), the multivariant F value did not approach significance (Table 2). Therefore, the AXC interaction was considered not significant. Interaction hypothesis of no difference on all other factors and subscales could not be rejected.

Discussion

Failure to reject most of the null hypotheses offers interesting information about childrearing attitudes, particularly as related to single mothers and the increasing incidence of single parenting. Earlier studies (Flanzer, 1979; Phelps, 1969) noted significant differences between single and married mothers, with single mothers measuring higher on discipline and protectiveness and lower on indulgence. In the current study, a finding of no significant differences

on any of the four attitudinal dimensions surveyed suggested that the childrearing attitudes of single and married mothers might have less relationship to the presence or absence of a mate than to other factors which might be impacting on the mother.

Both single and married mothers obtained mean discipline scores significantly lower and protection scores significantly higher than those in the MPAS standardization sample (Table 4). The results of a one-sample Z test indicate that a difference of three T score points or more from the mean of 50 is significant. These differences were observed consistently in all factors included in this study. They may have reflected changed attitudes toward discipline and protection since the MPAS was developed in 1966, or they may have been the result of differences in the sample population and in the area of the country from which the sample was chosen. This sample was somewhat more lenient in its attitudes than the 1966 sample. The protection score differences might suggest an influence brought about by societal changes, with increased concern for the physical safety of children as well as protection from undesirable influences being an important aspect of childrearing. Tables of mean scores for single variables may be noted in Appendix D.

The use of the MPAS may be questioned because of both its format and its age. However, careful investigation of

Table 4
Average T Scores* on Single Variables of
Discipline, Indulgence, Protection,
and Rejection

	D	I	P	R
Marital Status				
Single	42	53	55	50
Married	44	50	53	53
Educational Level				
12 years or less	44	50	53	50
More than 12 years	43	51	53	51
Family Size				
One child	44	51	54	50
More than one child	42	51	53	51

*T scores were obtained from the MPAS standardization statistics.

available instruments failed to produce a more satisfactory questionnaire which would control for social desirability. This factor was deemed crucial in an attitudinal study in order to reduce the possibility of respondents answering as they think appropriate rather than giving indication of true attitudes.

No significant differences were observed in this study on any subscale concerning the factor of educational level. These findings were not in agreement with those of Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973), Heinstein (1965), Minton, et al. (1971) and Zussman (1975). These researchers noted that highly educated mothers measured significantly lower on discipline, protection, and rejection, and higher on indulgence. The lack of significant differences observed in this study may have reflected the educational homogeneity of the sample, with 72% of the respondents having had some amount of direct college experience. On the other hand, the availability of popular magazines and television may encourage more homogeneous attitudes across all educational levels.

The factor of family size has been researched by Ernhart (1975), Harnischfeger and Wiley (1974), Hurley and Hohn (1971), Quinn (1977), and Zussman (1975). The results of these earlier studies indicated that increasing family size is correlated with lessened concern with discipline and protection and increased indulgence and rejection. In the current study, no significant differences were observed on any of the four subscales. No attempt was made to compare scores of mothers of one child to those of mothers with large families (four or more children) or on the basis of years of childrearing experience. The current sample was relatively homogeneous on the basis of family size, a

finding which might be anticipated among middle class working mothers.

No significant differences were observed on any of the interactions analyzed with the exception of educational level by family size on the rejection subscale, which yielded a p value of 0.005 (Table 3). Analysis of the data indicated that there was a sharp increase in rejection among highly educated mothers as family size increased (Tables 5 and 6). One possible explanation may be that more highly educated persons are likely to hold more stressful jobs. A greater number of children in the home may also be stress producing, especially when combined with job stress. Multiple stresses in this case may outweigh any potential advantages of education. Among one-child working mothers, greater rejection was evidenced by those with lower education. This finding was in agreement with the findings of Harnischfeger and Wiley (1973), Heinstein (1965), and Minton, et al., (1971). These researchers noted that a higher maternal educational level was likely to increase the degree of acceptance of children and to modify attitudes of rejection.

Summary

This study investigated the childrearing attitudes of 101 single and married working mothers of preschool children. Four null hypotheses were tested by multivariant

Table 5

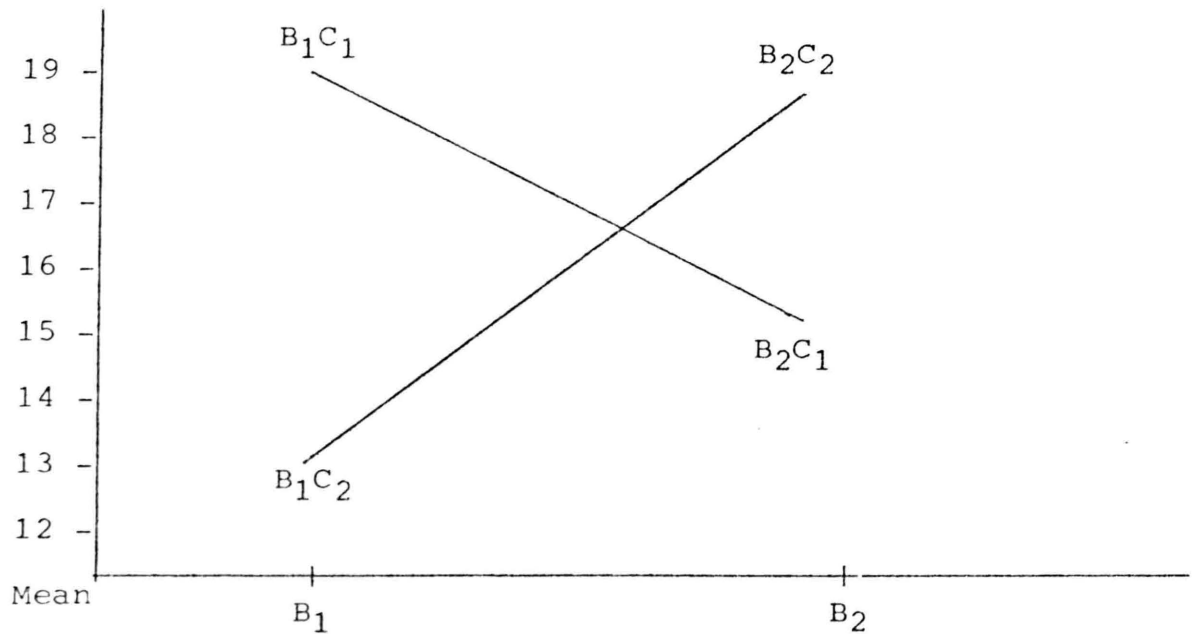
Cell Data for Education by Family Size on Rejection

	B ₁	B ₂	
C ₁	mean = 19.0 SD = 7.44 N = 16	mean = 15.4 SD = 7.61 N = 38	C ₁ mean = 16.4 SD = 7.68 N = 54
C ₂	mean = 13.1 SD = 6.88 N = 11	mean = 18.9 SD = 5.54 N = 36	C ₂ mean = 17.5 SD = 6.31 N = 47
	B ₁ mean = 16.6 SD = 7.67 N = 27	B ₂ mean = 17.1 SD = 6.88 N = 74	Overall mean = 16.9 SD = 7.06 N = 101

B₁ = educational level of 12 years or lessB₂ = educational level of more than 12 yearsC₁ = family size of one childC₂ = family size of more than one child

Table 6

Education by Family Size Interaction on Rejection



B_1C_1 = education of 12 years or less; family size of one child

B_1C_2 = education of 12 years or less; family size of more than one child

B_2C_1 = education of more than 12 years; family size of one child

B_2C_2 = education of more than 12 years; family size of more than one child

analysis of variance. No significant differences were observed between the levels of the factors of marital status, educational level, and family size on any of the four subscales of parent type (discipline, indulgence, protection, rejection). Interactions between the factors were also not significant with the exception of the interaction between educational level and family size on the rejection subscale. Results indicated that increased education and larger family size interacted to produce scores higher than the mean on the rejection subscale. Highly educated working mothers of more than one child were assessed as more rejecting than highly educated mothers with only one child. Working mothers of one child were more rejecting if educational levels were lower, while a lower educational level and family size of more than one child interacted to produce rejection scores lower than the mean for this study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study investigated the childrearing attitudes of 101 working mothers of preschool children in day care in the Nacogdoches area of East Texas. The Maryland Parent Attitude Survey was used to explore whether these mothers differ significantly in their childrearing attitudes on the basis of marital status or on educational level or family size.

Four null hypotheses were tested using multivariant analysis of variance. The investigation of the relationship of marital status, educational level, and family size to the attitudinal dimensions of discipline, indulgence, protection, and rejection yielded no significant differences. The finding of no difference between single and married mothers on any subscale suggests that marital status may not exert as direct an influence on childrearing attitudes as has been indicated in previous research.

Interactions between the factors of marital status, education, and family size also failed to yield significant differences on all analyses with the exception of educational

level by family size on the rejection subscale, where a highly significant interaction was observed. Increased education and larger family size produced scores higher than the mean on the rejection subscale. Lower educational level and smaller family size also interacted to produce scores higher than the mean. Less education and larger family size evidenced the lowest mean observed in this study, while higher educational level with one child also yielded rejection scores lower than the mean.

Conclusions

The lack of significant differences between single and married mothers may suggest that childrearing attitudes are related less to the presence or absence of a mate than to other factors impacting on the family structure. Single and married mothers may be becoming more alike in their childrearing attitudes because of similar outside influences such as education, television, and other mass media. They may also be experiencing in this case similar pressures from their multiple roles of parenting and working.

No significant differences were observed on the dimension of educational level on any of the four subscales. One might conclude that education does not shape childrearing attitudes; that this sample was too homogeneous to reveal differences; that out-of-school educational experiences may

be more influential than formal education. This study based on years of school attended did not reveal differences.

In this study, protection scores for all variables were above the standardization mean. Recent societal changes may have influenced mothers toward a more protective attitude than evidenced by the standardization sample. On the other hand, these mothers may be more experienced with children than the standardization sample and therefore more cautious. Additionally, the uniformity of means on the protective subscale may indicate that mothers surveyed in this study are vitally concerned with the safety and well being of their children regardless of the influence of marital status, education, or family size.

Recommendations

Further research into single parenting is needed because of the increasing numbers of mothers and fathers who are rearing children alone. The review of literature associated with this study revealed a decided lack of research into the area of parent attitudes, especially those of the single parent. Future efforts could be directed to four areas: the development of new instruments, studies of both single mothers and single fathers, the influence of varying socioeconomic levels upon parent attitudes, and the influence of current economic and job stresses upon maternal

attitudes.

First, new instruments should be designed in a format which produces less stress in the respondent. This might be accomplished by offering a greater variety of responses and by reducing the number of items. The control of social desirability should, however, remain an important aspect of any instrument designed to assess attitudes.

Second, studies which are directed toward both the single mother and the single father are needed in order to offer information and support to the parent of either sex who is rearing children alone. One question might concern the effects of a change in marital status on attitudes toward childrearing. Measurements after a change in status and after an extended adjustment period would be needed.

Third, the relationship of socioeconomic level to attitudes of single parents needs to be researched in greater depth. While the current study was limited to a middle-class sample of working mothers, single parent families are disproportionately in the low income range. A comparative study of middle- and low-income single parent families might provide valuable insight into the influence of income level.

Finally, multiple roles of parenting and working may increase personal stress, with income level and family size also exerting influence. Identification of stress factors may assist educators and counselors in professional planning

in areas vital to single parents.

Greater depth of research may further identify critical factors influencing maternal childrearing attitudes. With increasing incidence of single parenthood, concern is expressed by both parents and professionals as to how societal change in family structure may influence the mature adjustment of children. Single parents in particular need reassurance that their marital status is not the sole factor determining the degree of success and satisfaction they experience in the rearing of their children.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
INITIAL CONTACT LETTER

APPENDIX A: INITIAL CONTACT LETTER

Dear

This letter is to request your participation in a study of mothers' attitudes toward childrearing which is being conducted by Carol Voigtel of Nacogdoches. She is a graduate student in Child Development at Texas Woman's University, Denton, Texas, and the results of the study will be used to complete the requirements for her doctorate. I am helping Mrs. Voigtel to identify and contact mothers who are eligible for her study. She will be contacting you by telephone within the next few days to explain the study and to ask that you participate by filling out an anonymous questionnaire about your attitudes toward childrearing.

Your help in this project will be greatly appreciated.

Yours truly,

Center Director

Graduate Student

APPENDIX B
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

PARENTING OF YOUNG CHILDREN

Thank you for your participation in this study of "Parenting of Young Children." I am Carol Voigtel, Director of the Parent Education Center in Nacogdoches, and I am completing my dissertation in Child Development at Texas Woman's University, Denton, Texas. This research is expected to aid counselors and other professionals who are in a position to help women adjust to the pressures and demands of rearing children in our modern society.

You will need to complete the enclosed questionnaire without consulting with anyone else, and you will need to sign your name below. This sheet (with your signature) is a necessary research procedure at the University. However, it will be removed immediately from your envelope so that all information will be computed anonymously. I am also required to tell you that no medical service or compensation is provided by the University as a result of injury from participation. Of course, this research only involves completing a questionnaire, but this statement covers all types of University research.

YOU ARE IMPORTANT TO THIS STUDY. Please complete your questionnaire today and return it by mail in the envelope that is provided. If you have any questions, please call me at 564-4188 or 569-7913.

Sincerely yours,

Carol Voigtel, Doctoral Candidate

- - - - -

I am volunteering to participate in this study of "Parenting of Young Children." An offer has been made to answer all of my questions regarding the study, and I understand that I may terminate my participation in the study at any time. The only benefit to me is my own satisfaction for contributing to needed knowledge in the area of parent attitudes.

Signature

Date

APPENDIX C
MARYLAND PARENT ATTITUDE SURVEY

PARENTING OF YOUNG CHILDREN

Do not place your name at any place on the questionnaire, as all information will be anonymous.

Number of children: _____

Ages of children: _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____

Your marital status: married _____ single _____

Your age: _____ years

Years of school completed: _____
 Example: high school diploma = 12 yrs.
 60 semester hours of college = 14 yrs.

Degrees, if any: _____

Directions: This survey is concerned with parents' attitudes toward childrearing. Your task is to choose ONE of the pair (A or B) that MOST represents your attitude and place a circle around the letter (A or B) that preceeds that statement. Example: (A.) Parents should like their children.

B. Parents frequently find children a burden.

Note that in some cases it will seem that both represent the way you feel, while on other occasions, neither represents your point of view. In both cases, however, you are to choose the one that MOST NEARLY represents your point of view. As this is sometimes difficult to do, the best way to proceed is to put down your first reaction. Please pick one from each of the pairs.

1. A. Parents know what is good for their children.
 B. A good leather strap makes children respect parents.
2. A. Parents should give some explanations for rules and restrictions.
 B. Children should never be allowed to break a rule without being punished.
3. A. Parents do much for their children with no thanks in return.
 B. Children should have tasks that they do without being reminded.

4. A. Parents should sacrifice everything for their children.
B. Children should obey their parents.
5. A. Children should follow the rules their parents put down.
B. Children should not interfere with their parents' night out.
6. A. Parents should watch their children all the time to keep them from getting hurt.
B. Children who always obey grow up to be the best adults.
7. A. Children should never be allowed to talk back to their parents.
B. Parents should accompany their children to the places they want to go.
8. A. Children should learn to keep their place.
B. Children should be required to consult their parents before making any important decisions.
9. A. Quiet, well behaved children will develop into the best type of grown-up.
B. Parents should pick up their child's toys if he doesn't want to do it himself.
10. A. Parents should do things for their children.
B. A child's life should be as pleasant as possible.
11. A. Watching television keeps children out of the way.
B. Children should never be allowed to talk back to their parents.
12. A. Personal untidiness is a revolt against authority so parents should take the matter in hand.
B. A good child always asks permission before he does anything so he doesn't get into trouble.
13. A. Sometimes children make a parent so mad they see red.
B. Parents should do things for their children.
14. A. Children should be taught to follow the rules of the game.
B. A child's life should be as pleasant as possible.
15. A. Parents should cater to their children's appetites.
B. Many parents wonder if parenthood is worthwhile.

16. A. A child's life should be as pleasant as possible.
B. Sometimes children make their parents so mad they see red.
17. A. Children should not tell anyone their problems except their parents.
B. Children should play wherever they feel like in the house.
18. A. A good form of discipline is to deprive a child of the things that he really wants.
B. Children should do what they are told without arguing.
19. A. Children should be taken to and from school to make sure there are no accidents.
B. Children who always obey grow up to be the best adults.
20. A. Many parents wonder if parenthood is worthwhile.
B. Children should be required to consult their parents before making any decisions.
21. A. If a child doesn't like a particular food, he should be made to eat it.
B. Children should have lots of gifts and toys.
22. A. Children should play wherever they feel like in the house.
B. Good children are generally those who keep out of their parents' way.
23. A. Children never volunteer to do anything around the house.
B. Parents should pick up their child's toys if he doesn't want to do it himself.
24. A. Good children are generally those who keep out of their parents' way.
B. Children should not be allowed to play in the living room.
25. A. Modern children talk back to their parents too much.
B. Children should be required to consult their parents before making any decisions.
26. A. Parents should make it their business to know everything their children are thinking.
B. Children never volunteer to do any work around the house.

- 27. A. Children should come immediately when their parents call.
B. Parents should give surprise parties for their children.
- 28. A. Good parents overlook their children's shortcomings.
B. Watching television keeps children out of the way.
- 29. A. Parents should watch their children all the time to keep them from getting hurt.
B. A child should never be forced to do anything he doesn't want to do.
- 30. A. Television keeps children out of the way.
B. The most important thing to teach children is discipline.
- 31. A. Children should do what they are told without arguing.
B. Parents know how much a child needs to eat to stay healthy.
- 32. A. Television keeps children out of the way.
B. A child needs someone to make judgments for him.
- 33. A. Modern children talk back to their parents too much.
B. Parents should amuse their children if no playmates are around to amuse them.
- 34. A. Good children are generally those who keep out of their parents' way.
B. Parents should pick up their child's toys if he doesn't want to do it himself.
- 35. A. Parents should see to it that their children do not learn bad habits from others.
B. Good parents lavish their children with warmth and affection.
- 36. A. Parents shouldn't let their children tie them down.
B. Modern children talk back to their parents too much.
- 37. A. Children who destroy any property should be severely punished.
B. Children cannot make judgments very well for themselves.
- 38. A. Most parents are relieved when their children finally go to sleep.
B. Parents should hide dangerous objects from their children.

- 39. A. Children should not be allowed to play in the living room.
B. Children should play wherever they feel like in the house.
- 40. A. Parents should give surprise parties for their children.
B. Most parents are relieved when their children finally go to sleep.
- 41. A. Children should be taken to and from school to make sure there are no accidents.
B. Parents should clean up after their children.
- 42. A. Children are best when they are asleep.
B. Personal untidiness is a revolt against authority so parents should take the matter in hand.
- 43. A. The earlier the child is toilet trained the better.
B. A child needs someone to make judgments for him.
- 44. A. Watching television keeps children out of the way.
B. Parents should accompany their children to the places they go.
- 45. A. The earlier the child is toilet trained the better.
B. Good parents overlook their children's shortcomings.
- 46. A. Parents should clean up after their children.
B. Children need their natural meanness taken out of them.
- 47. A. Parents should give surprise parties for their children.
B. Parents should hide dangerous objects from their children.
- 48. A. Most parents are relieved when their children finally go to sleep.
B. Children should come immediately when their parents call.
- 49. A. Children who lie should always be spanked.
B. Children should be required to consult their parents before making any decisions.
- 50. A. Sometimes children just seem mean.
B. Parents should see to it that their children do not learn bad habits from others.

- 51. A. Punishment should be fair and fit the crime.
B. Parents should feel great love for their children.
- 52. A. Parents should buy the best things for their children.
B. Children are best when they are asleep.
- 53. A. Children should be required to consult their parents before making any decisions.
B. Parents should cater to their children's appetites.
- 54. A. Parents should have time for outside activities.
B. Punishment should be fair and fit the crime.
- 55. A. Children should not be allowed to play in the living room.
B. Children should not tell anyone their problems except their parents.
- 56. A. It seems that children get great pleasure out of disobeying their elders.
B. Parents should watch their children all the time to keep them from getting hurt.
- 57. A. Personal untidiness is a revolt against authority so parents should take the matter in hand.
B. Parents should buy the best things for their children.
- 58. A. Children should learn to keep their place.
B. Good parents overlook their children's shortcomings.
- 59. A. Parents should accompany their children to the places they want to go.
B. Good parents overlook their children's shortcomings.
- 60. A. Children do many things just to torment their parents.
B. Parents should insist that every one of their commands be obeyed.
- 61. A. Children should come immediately when their parents call.
B. Parents should hide dangerous objects from their children.
- 62. A. Children do many things just to torment a parent.
B. Children should be protected from upsetting experiences.

- 63. A. Children who lie should always be spanked.
B. Parents should cater to their children's appetites.
- 64. A. A child should never be forced to do anything he does not want to do.
B. It seems that children get great pleasure out of disobeying their elders.
- 65. A. Parents should keep a night light on for their children.
B. Parents live again in their children.
- 66. A. Sometimes children make parents so mad they see red.
B. Children should be taught to follow the rules of the game.
- 67. A. Parents should insist that every one of their commands be obeyed.
B. Children should be protected from upsetting experiences.
- 68. A. Good children are generally those who keep out of their parents' way.
B. Children should not tell anyone their problems except their parents.
- 69. A. Children who destroy property should be severely punished.
B. Children's meals should always be ready for them when they come home from play or school.
- 70. A. Parents should frequently surprise their children with gifts.
B. A good form of discipline is to deprive children of things that they really want.
- 71. A. Children should depend on their parents.
B. Parents should amuse their children if no playmates are around to amuse them.
- 72. A. Many parents wonder if parenthood is worthwhile.
B. Children who lie should always be spanked.
- 73. A. Quiet, well behaved children will develop into the best type of grownup.
B. Children never volunteer to do anything around the house.

74. A. Children need their natural meanness taken out of them.
B. Children should be taken to and from school to be sure that there are no accidents.
75. A. Children should never be allowed to talk back to their parents.
B. Good parents overlook their children's shortcomings.
76. A. Parents should give their children all that they can afford.
B. Television keeps children out of the way.
77. A. Children cannot make judgments very well for themselves.
B. Children's meals should always be ready for them when they come home from play or school.
78. A. Sometimes children are inconvenient.
B. Children should be reprimanded for breaking things.
79. A. If children misbehave they should be punished.
B. Parents should see to it that their children do not learn bad habits from others.
80. A. Children are often in one's way around the house.
B. Children seven years old are too young to spend summers away from home.
81. A. Children should do what they are told without arguing.
B. Parents should frequently surprise their children with gifts.
82. A. Parents should feel great love for their children.
B. Parents should have time for outside activities.
83. A. A child needs someone to make judgments for him.
B. Good parents overlook their children's shortcomings.
84. A. Parents should make it their business to know everything their children are thinking.
B. Quiet, well behaved children will develop into the best type of grownup.
85. A. Children who destroy any property should be severely punished.
B. A good child always asks permission before he does anything so that he does not get into trouble.

86. A. A good form of discipline is to deprive a child of things that he really wants.
B. Parents know how much a child needs to eat to stay healthy.
87. A. The most important thing to teach a child is discipline.
B. Parents should give their children all that they can afford.
88. A. Parents should amuse their children if no playmates are around to amuse them.
B. Parents shouldn't let children tie them down.
89. A. Parents know how much a child needs to eat to stay healthy.
B. Parents should frequently surprise their children with gifts.
90. A. Sometimes children just seem mean.
B. If children misbehave they should be punished.
91. A. Children should be taught to follow the rules of the game.
B. Parents should do things for their children.
92. A. Parents shouldn't let their children tie them down.
B. Children should depend on their parents.
93. A. Children who always obey grow up to be the best adults.
B. Parents should clean up after their children.
94. A. Children's meals should always be ready for them when they come home from play or school.
B. Children do many things just to torment a parent.
95. A. A good child always asks permission before he does anything, so that he doesn't get into trouble.
B. Parents should buy the best things for their children.

APPENDIX D

MEAN SCORES FOR SINGLE VARIABLES OF DISCIPLINE,
INDULGENCE, PROTECTION, AND REJECTION
AND CELL AND MARGINAL MEANS

Table 7

Mean Scores for Single Variables of Discipline,
Indulgence, Protection, and Rejection

	D	I	P	R
Marital Status				
Single	22.1	23.8	27.8	16.0
Married	23.2	21.7	27.1	17.8
Educational Level				
12 years or less	23.1	22.7	27.0	16.6
More than 12 years	22.5	22.7	27.6	17.1
Family Size				
One child	23.4	22.6	27.5	16.4
More than one child	21.8	22.8	27.3	17.5

Table 8
Cell and Marginal Means

Discipline

	A ₁		A ₂	
	C ₁	C ₂	C ₁	C ₂
B ₁	mean = 22.7 N = 11	mean = 20.2 N = 5	mean = 23.4 N = 5	mean = 26.0 N = 6
B ₂	mean = 24.2 N = 22	mean = 18.0 N = 11	mean = 22.8 N = 16	mean = 22.8 N = 25
A ₁ B ₁		A ₁ B ₂	A ₂ B ₁	A ₂ B ₂
mean = 21.9		mean = 22.2	mean = 24.8	mean = 22.8
N = 16		N = 33	N = 11	N = 41

Indulgence

	A ₁		A ₂	
	C ₁	C ₂	C ₁	C ₂
B ₁	mean = 22.1 N = 11	mean = 25.4 N = 5	mean = 22.4 N = 5	mean = 22.0 N = 6
B ₂	mean = 23.8 N = 22	mean = 24.7 N = 11	mean = 21.6 N = 16	mean = 21.6 N = 25
A ₁ B ₁		A ₁ B ₂	A ₂ B ₁	A ₂ B ₂
mean = 23.1		mean = 24.1	mean = 22.2	mean = 21.6
N = 16		N = 33	N = 11	N = 41

Table 8 (continued)

Protection

	A ₁		A ₂	
	C ₁	C ₂	C ₁	C ₂
B ₁	mean = 25.4 N = 11	mean = 30.2 N = 5	mean = 26.8 N = 5	mean = 27.5 N = 6
B ₂	mean = 28.7 N = 22	mean = 27.1 N = 11	mean = 27.7 N = 16	mean = 26.7 N = 25
	A ₁ B ₁	A ₁ B ₂	A ₂ B ₁	A ₂ B ₂
	mean = 26.9 N = 16	mean = 28.2 N = 33	mean = 27.2 N = 11	mean = 27.1 N = 41

Rejection

	A ₁		A ₂	
	C ₁	C ₂	C ₁	C ₂
B ₁	mean = 19.7 N = 11	mean = 11.8 N = 5	mean = 17.4 N = 5	mean = 14.2 N = 6
B ₂	mean = 13.2 N = 22	mean = 19.9 N = 11	mean = 18.3 N = 16	mean = 18.4 N = 25
	A ₁ B ₁	A ₁ B ₂	A ₂ B ₁	A ₂ B ₂
	mean = 17.3 N = 16	mean = 15.5 N = 33	mean = 15.6 N = 11	mean = 18.4 N = 41

REFERENCES

- Alpert, J., & Richardson, M. S. Onset of parenting and stressful events. August, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 169 452)
- Anastasi, A. Psychological testing. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1976.
- Baumrind, D. Parental control and parental love. Children, 1965, 12, 230-234.
- Baumrind, D. Effects of authoritative parental control on child behavior. Child Development, 1966, 37, 887-907.
- Baumrind, D. Authoritarian versus authoritative parental control. Adolescence, 1968, 3, 255-272.
- Becker, W. C. Consequences of different kinds of parental discipline. In M. L. & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Review of child development research. (Vol. I). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.
- Biomedical computer programs. Health Sciences Computing Facility, Department of Biomathematics, School of Medicine. Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1973.
- Brody, G. F. Relationship between maternal attitudes and behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1965, 2, 317-323.

- Bronfenbrenner, U. Some familial antecedents of responsibility and leadership in adolescents. In L. Petrullo & B. M. Bass (Eds.), Leadership and interpersonal behavior. New York: Holt, 1961.
- Clausen, J. A. Family structure, socialization, and personality. In M. L. & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Review of child development research. (Vol. II). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1966.
- Ernhart, C. B. Changes in authoritarian family ideology with childrearing experience. Psychological Reports, 1975, 37, 567-570.
- Finney, J. C. Some maternal influences on children's personality and character. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1961, 63, 203-278.
- Flanzer, J. P. Can the single parent parent as well? March, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 166 626)
- Flynn, T. M. Parental attitudes and the pre-school child's self-concept. April, 1979. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 171 405)
- General Mills American family report: Raising children in a changing society. 1976-77. Prepared by Yankelovitch, Skelly & White, Inc., New York, N. Y.

- Hamchek, D. E. Self concept as related to family relationships and childrearing practices. Encounters with the self. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1978.
- Harnischfeger, A., & Wiley, D. E. Maternal attitudes: Progress report. November, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 129 410)
- Heath, D. H. Maternal competence, expectation, and involvement. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1977, 131, 169-182.
- Heinstein, M. Child rearing in California: A study of mothers with young children. October, 1965. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 020 783)
- Hoffman, M. L. Power assertion by the parent and its impact on the child. Child Development, 1960, 31, 129-143.
- Hurley, J. R., & Hohn, R. L. Shifts in childrearing attitudes linked with parenthood and occupation. Developmental Psychology, 1971, 4, 324-328.
- Kagan, J. The effect of day care on the infant. June, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 156 339)
- Martin, B. Parent-child relations. In F. Horowitz, E. M. Hetherington, S. Scarr-Salapatek, & G. M. Siegel (Eds.), Review of child development research. (Vol. IV). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

- Milton, G. A. A factor analytic study of childrearing behaviors. Child Development, 1958, 29, 385-393.
- Minton, C., Kagan, J., & Levine, J. A. Maternal control and obedience in the two-year-old. Child Development, 1971, 42, 1873-1894.
- Phelps, D. W. Parental attitudes toward family life and child behavior of mothers in two-parent and one-parent families. The Journal of School Health, 1969, 39, 413-416.
- Pumroy, D. K. Maryland parent attitude survey: A research instrument with social desirability controlled. The Journal of Psychology, 1966, 64, 73-78.
- Quinn, R. J. A dialectical analysis of childrearing policies. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1977, Jan., 37(7-B), 3682-3683C.
- Ricci, C. S. Analysis of childrearing attitudes of mothers of retarded, emotionally disturbed, and normal children. American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 1970, 74, 756-761.
- Schaeffer, E. S. A circumplex model for maternal behavior. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 59, 226-235.

- Schaeffer, E. S., & Bell, R. Q. Development of a Parental Attitude Research Instrument. Child Development, 1958, 29, 339-361.
- Schnabl-Dickey, E. A. Relationships between parents' child-rearing attitudes and the jumping and throwing performance of their preschool children. Research Quarterly, 1977, 48, 382-390.
- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levin, H. Patterns of child rearing. White Plains, N. Y.: Row, Peterson & Company, 1957.
- Tolor, A. An evaluation of the Maryland Parent Attitude Survey. The Journal of Psychology, 1967, 67, 69-74.
- Zunich, M. Child behavior and parental attitudes. The Journal of Psychology, 1966, 62, 41-46.
- Zussman, J. U. Demographic factors influencing parental discipline techniques. August, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 117 583)