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A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF PARENTAL
ATTITUDES TOWARD CHILDREN

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Robert L. Hohn
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A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF PARENTAL
ATTITUDES TOWARD CHILDREN

by
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ABSTRACT

No previous research dealing with the impact of children upon the child-raising attitudes of parents is known to the author. Longitudinal investigation extending from before marriage and parenthood to a point beyond, was seen as a means of detecting any changes that occurred. Three scales of the Child Behavior Inventory measuring the indices of manifest rejection, overprotection, and achievement pressure were mailed in questionnaire form to 127 former students. The individuals contacted had all responded to the self-ratings as undergraduates before taking a college child psychology course.

Sixty-seven replies, representing 52.8 percent of the total population were obtained, markedly below the 88 percent return rate found in a pilot study. The findings of our pilot study that manifest rejection increased and overprotection decreased were confirmed. Also substantiated was the observation that parents of two children or more contributed most significantly to these changes. Persons still single 6 years after taking a child psychology course expressed heightened achievement pressure attitudes toward children, perhaps effecting their own immediate goals. Area of occupation proved to be a differentiating factor in considering the changes; those engaged in educational and mental health fields decreased in rejection and overprotection in comparison to workers in other occupations.

The over all increase in rejection and decrease in overprotection was attributed to a more realistic appraisal of the parental role. Occupational differences were seen as depending

upon the amount of transfer of ones ideas about children from the working environment to the home.

Provisions for the attitude scales to make more specific which child is being considered in the self ratings, and further investigation of those individuals who did not appreciably change or changed in an opposite direction were suggested. The desirability for direct study of prospective parents before and after childbirth, including observation of critical incidents in the home, was stressed.

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INTRODUCTION

Much research in recent years has centered around parental attitudes toward children, particularly those influencing the child's intellectual, social, and emotional growth. Although it is almost universally accepted that parental behavior is significantly related to the success or failure of child adjustment, the extent to which this behavior is determined by relatively permanent and fixed attitudes or by more transient feelings, moods and convictions remains largely an open question.

Certainly the advent of children of ones own might crystallize the underlying attitudes of the new parent. Indeed, this occurrence seems likely to precipitate a re-evaluation of ones beliefs. If this is in fact the case, then longitudinal investigation, extending from before marriage and parenthood to a point beyond these events, should reflect the changes in attitudes, if any, that have transpired. Such studies would shed much needed light on the issue of temporary or fixed attitudes. Although it would be incorrect to assert that the differences obtained reflect factors pertaining to the advent of children only, these differences could not be ignored. The use of proper control groups would more definitively clarify this issue.

Sewell, Mussen and Harris (1955) could find no evidence in their data which would indicate a general, pervasive attitude which was reflected in specific child training practices. However, several clusters of consistent child-rearing practices were revealed

by factor analysis. This secondary finding seems to be more in accord with most research; the work of Levy (1943), Baldwin, Kalhern, and Breese (1945), Shoben (1949), Mark (1953), Block (1955), and Schaeffer and Bell (1957; 1958) points to patterns of beliefs about which parental behavior is organized.

Rejection, overprotection and achievement pressure have been postulated in various forms, by various authors, as important dimensions of these beliefs of parents about children. Their interaction, or the relative acuteness of one or the other, seems to contribute significantly to the formation of the child's personality (Read, 1945; Mark, 1953; Drews and Teahan, 1957; Hurley, 1959).

The rejection-acceptance continuum seems to be characterized by the parent's degree of reliance upon coercive techniques such as intimidation, punishment and fear, in his responses to the expressive actions of his child (Hurley, 1963). The rejecting parent has been described as being consistently hostile, unaffectionate, disapproving and emotionally distant. The pattern of behavior ranges from nonchalance, or a general unconcern for the child's welfare to an active dominance or conspicuous hostility (Baldwin, et al., 1945). Whether the attitude is expressed in the more subtle and indirect form, or it is manifested by specific behaviors; it would still appear to convey unpleasant affective meaning for the child.

The overprotective parent tries to make the child excessively dependent upon parental advice and guidance, and fails to perceive the child as a distinct individual with a right to ideas, values

and feelings of its own (Hurley and Laffey, 1957). Warmth does not seem to be accompanied by an appreciable amount of understanding. In the same light, achievement pressure can be seen as a dominating pattern of interaction with the child in which heavy emphasis is placed upon education and sophistication as primary goals. It is beyond the scope of this paper to explore the question of whether these three modes of child rearing stem from the same basic dynamics of the individual parent.

The measurement and assessment of these attitudes as well as their development and variability has represented a major challenge to psychologists. Early interest seems to have been spurred by work at the Fels Research Institute (Baldwin, et al., 1945), where direct methods of attitude evaluation were employed extensively. The speed, efficiency, and objectivity of the questionnaire form of survey soon made it a natural and valuable tool in attitude assessment.

One such questionnaire, used largely by Shoben (1949) for research purposes, has been the Parental Attitude Survey (PAS); however, this instrument has been criticized for lack of item validity (Gordon, 1957; Leton, 1958). The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) developed predominantly by Schaeffer and Bell (1957; 1958) and extensively used by Zuckerman (1958; 1960) has been extensively used in research. The 23 scales of this instrument emphasize items stating attitudes contrary to socially approved child-rearing opinions, as well as more conventional statements, in order to increase discrimination among parents. Its major purpose is to differentiate between pathogenic and normal parents; a task the instrument has met with mixed success (Zuckerman & Oltean, 1959).

The Child Behavior Inventory (CBI) as described by Mark (1953), and modified by Hurley and Laffey (1957), and Hurley (1962) has been recently used, more as a research tool than as a predictive instrument. It is at present a 178 item inventory of statements about child-raising practices; the vast majority of which were taken from Shoben (1949) and Mark (1953).

Questionnaire methods are subject to serious weaknesses which can be controlled only to a moderate extent. Primarily, respondents' verbal descriptions of their behavior and attitudes may be somewhat discrepant from their actual practices and beliefs (Zuckerman, Barrett, & Bragiel, 1960). Taylor (1961) has been quite cognizant of this defect and has emphasized the effect of "social desirability" upon questionnaire responses. Although social desirability norms do exist for attitude scale items, the author presents evidence showing persons differ in their willingness to endorse socially undesirable statements. This difference accounts for much of the variance of scores on attitude items as well as personality tests, and may produce spurious interscale correlations. In viewing attitudes as a "readiness to respond in a certain way," Taylor would prefer to conceive of social desirability as a prevailing state in the majority of respondents. As an underlying condition, we must take its effects into consideration when labelling and interpreting attitude scale scores.

In an attempt to control and measure response sets such as social desirability, Zuckerman (1959) has proposed the use of reversed items in attitude scales. The reversed statements used

should constitute an adequate sample of the main factors in the test and should exhibit high correlations with their non-reversed counterparts. Zuckerman had discovered earlier that factors on the PARI were reflecting tendencies to agree with positive sounding generalizations rather than a genuine response to test item content (Zuckerman & Oltean, 1959). These authors seem to feel reversed items would adequately control for both social desirability and general acquiescence response sets.

Pilot Study

Many of the problems of longitudinal, questionnaire research were experienced on an earlier pilot study of parental attitudes. This preliminary survey, containing only manifest rejection (MR) and overprotection (OP) scales taken from an earlier version of the CBI, was mailed to 94 former students at Michigan State University. The individuals contacted had all reacted previously to the questionnaire of 45 items as students. The primary purpose of the pilot attempt was to obtain some idea of what rate of return could be expected in attempting to reach students eight years removed from their undergraduate days. Kelly (1953) had reported this as an important factor in longitudinal research, warning of the existence of a selective bias in assuming that those who do not respond possess similar opinions to actual respondents. His staff recorded an 86% return of questionnaires after keeping in contact with their subjects for a minimum of 16 years. Crotty (1953) cites a 78% return of the PARI with a less mobile, partisan group of mothers of clinic cases. Our pilot questionnaire was returned by 79 individuals, with five unable

to be delivered, for a rate of return of 88.8%.

Test-retest correlations were .19 for the OP index and .30 for the MR scale. Previous research (Hurley and Laffey, 1957) had revealed OP to have a .75 retest correlation after a ten-week lapse of time, and the corresponding MR value was .68. The possibly transient nature of these attitudes, so dependent upon the life experiences of the individual, would lead one to expect a significant reduction in positive correlation after eight years.

No significant changes between the early and later administration for these two indices was found by correlated t-test analysis. However, the data revealed certain trends, barely missing significance, which seemed interesting enough to warrant further study. Manifest rejection scores increased for our total sample, both for men and women. Parents who had had two or more children since the initial inventory rose more sharply in MR than other Ss. The few single Ss available also increased on this index.

Overprotection decreased on the second administration, with men showing more downward change than women. Parents with two children decreased in OP responses.

The occupational alignment of the Ss seemed to relate directly to attitudes toward children. Individuals employed in "non-psychological areas of occupation" increased in MR and displayed less of a decrease in OP when compared to psychologists, teachers, social workers and other individuals in psychologically related fields of endeavor.

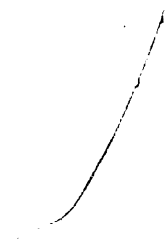
The 1955 questionnaire that was employed did not make effective use of reversed items, and neglected to intersperse the items of each scale. A respondent concerned with making a good impression might discern the direction and tone of the items quite easily. No provision for a neutral response was made; the respondent was faced with a forced choice of either agreeing or disagreeing with the statement. In addition, the items were grouped in fives for appearance sake; inspection revealed similar responses occurred in each group. The possibility that some Ss were reacting to this grouping, rather than the pull of the items themselves, cannot be overlooked.

With the correction of these defects, the main study was initiated. It was hoped that a more precise, definitive picture of the observed changes in attitudes would emerge.

METHOD

Subjects

The participants were all students enrolled in the course in Child Psychology at Michigan State University during the Winter, Spring and Summer terms of 1957. The course was structured according to familiar lecture-discussion procedures and covered approximately the same academic material for each class. A version of the Child Behavior Inventory was administered to the three groups comprising a total of 136 students. Birthdates and five digit numbers chosen by the students were used to identify the questionnaires. In all other respects the anonymity of the respondents was maintained, until the



end of the term when almost all of the students voluntarily identified themselves.

The same version of the CBI was readministered in the summer of 1963 in the form of a postal questionnaire. To efficiently reach the widely dispersed individuals involved, the most recent addresses available to the Michigan State Alumni Office were used. Addresses for 127 of the original 136 students were obtained.

A special letter explaining why the respondent was contacted and the purpose of the research was enclosed with the questionnaire form. In addition to the items of each scale, the inventory provided space for information relevant to personal history of the respondent. The letter and the questionnaire itself are set forth in Appendices A and B.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire itself consisted of 93 items in the form of declarative statements. Items comprising each of the three indices of manifest rejection (MR), overprotection (OP), and achievement pressure (AP), were intermingled in an order known only to the E. The MR index consisted of 36 items while the OP scale contained 30 statements and AP 29. Two of the statements were scored for more than one scale.

The use of reversed items, as suggested by the findings of Zuckerman (1959) and an examination of the responses to the pilot questionnaire, was adopted. Within this framework, a respondent to obtain a high score would not only have to agree with certain items, but also would be required to disagree with other statements on the same scale.

The content of the MR index, in accord with our previous definition, can be readily seen in the following items: (20) A good way to make a child behave is to shame him in front of his friends. (50) If small children refuse to obey, parents should whip them for it. (86) Most children need more discipline than they get. (91) Babies rarely cry "just to get attention." In order to obtain a high rejection score, a respondent would have to show greater than average agreement with all but the last item.

The OP scale is exemplified by the following items: (7) When the father punishes the child without good reason, the mother should take the child's side. (21) Older children are more fun than babies. (54) A child should be protected from hearing about sex. (78) Children who are several years old should not be babied. The overprotective parent would be distinguished by greater than average acceptance of items 7 and 54 and by greater than average disagreement with items 21 and 78.

The following items provide a general picture of the content of the AP scale: (22) Early weaning and toilet training are important in preparing a child for life. (31) For his own sake a child should be pressed to excel in school. (49) A child should be trained early to keep his toys in order. (58) Most children are able to do very little talking by the age of 12 months. For an individual to score high on the achievement pressure index, agreement with all but item 58 is necessary.

Five response alternatives were offered for all CBI items: strongly agree, mildly agree, neutral, mildly disagree, and strongly

disagree. Four points were allotted for responses strongly endorsing the attitude in question, three points for responses mildly agreeing with the attitude, two points for neutral reactions, one point for mildly disapproving responses and no credit for responses strongly opposed to the statement. An individual's final score on an attitude index was derived from the total points accrued by responses to the relevant items. To obtain a high score on a particular index, one would have to agree consistently with certain statements while disagreeing with others.

RESULTS

Of the 127 questionnaires placed in the mail, 67 were eventually returned, or 52.8% of the total sample. The original (1957) responses of both returnees and non-returnees were compared in order to determine if those individuals failing to respond held aberrant views. Table 1 shows that the means and standard deviations of the two groups were quite similar, and t-test analysis revealed no significant differences. The conclusion that our return sample is not a materially biased one seems quite tenable.

The stability of the three indices as revealed by test-retest correlations is more substantial than the pilot study, yet still quite discrepant from the ten week retest correlations cited by Hurley and Laffey (1957). Over the six-year interval for our

study, the Pearson r 's were .30 for the MR scale, .23 for OP and .50 for AP.*

As shown in Table 2, an increase of 3.46 MR scale points occurred over time in the group as a whole. Analysis of the difference between correlated pairs of means (McNemar, 1949) found this difference score to be significant at the .05 level. A reduction in overprotection of 5.13 points was highly significant ($p < .001$), while achievement pressure decreased non-significantly.

Since the major variable in our consideration of attitude change toward children is parenthood itself, this was our primary concern. As portrayed in Table 3 no significant differences were found in a comparison of parents and non-parents. However, in agreement with our preliminary research, MR scores did seem to increase within the parental group, although not enough to be statistically acceptable.

Length of parenthood and the increase in the number of children in the family seemed necessary to be considered as possible factors in parental attitude change. The major comparisons among male and female parents possessing two, one or no children are recorded in Table 4. Although no attitude shows clear differentiation in relation to number of children, parents with two or more

*It should be noted that these correlations were substantially effected by the atypical responses of a female S who admittedly used the questionnaire for purposes other than the frank report of her attitudes. For example, her difference score on the MR index of 57 was extremely deviant from any of the other Ss in the sample. To preserve the validity of the sample however, her responses have been included in all relevant comparisons.

children showed increases in MR when compared to parents with one child or those responding who had no children of their own. In analyzing this result more definitively, it was found that differences between men and women, both possessing two children were non-significant, however (Table 5).

Our results do not permit a firm conclusion concerning the trend indicated in the pilot study that overprotective attitudes would decrease substantially with the advent of parenthood. Although the expression of this attitude did in fact show some reduction (Table 3) the non-parental group evidenced an even larger decrease in overprotection change over the six year interval.

Although only 9 of the 61 respondents for whom we could compute difference scores were single, inspection of the responses of this group was quite provocative. Table 6 summarizes the comparison of single and married Ss. Unmarried individuals showed a significant increase in achievement pressure, which was in opposition to the direction of change in the married group.

The pilot study had suggested possible sex differences in attitude change, especially in regard to OP. Men had decreased significantly more than their female counterparts on this scale. However subsequent comparisons without consideration of the number of children revealed no significant sex differences. Achievement pressure tended to decline more perceptibly in women than in men. These comparisons are given in Table 7.

Analyses in Table 8 of the difference scores of individuals employed in psychologically related areas of employment revealed

large differences when compared to those engaged in other occupational pursuits. The teachers, psychologists and social workers for example decreased in MR in contrast to a large increase on this index by other Ss. Although both groups decreased in scorable overprotection responses, the "psychological group" tended to a marked reduction. These findings are in accord with the pilot study results.

DISCUSSION

The percent of returns proved to be somewhat disappointing; 52.8% is considerably below the excellent 88.8% return of the pilot study concerned with a group of similar composition. However, several factors in combination should account for the difference. Because of the increased length and difficulty of the second questionnaire, which included the achievement pressure scale and more carefully disguised, complex items, the inventory may have been deferred until a later time and then lost in the process. The 93 item questionnaire was more than twice as long as the preliminary one, covering two sides of a legal-sized sheet, and probably required nearly 30 minutes to complete. Busy individuals may have viewed this as too much time to devote to something related to a course they had taken in college 6 years previously. Secondly, the questionnaire was placed in the mail in mid-summer and may have conflicted with vacation periods. Temporary changes in address and long absences from permanent residences could have resulted in the loss or mislaying of the inventory. Moreover, a group composed mostly of young adults in the chaotic process of raising families, completing their education, and establishing themselves

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the asymptotic behavior of the solutions of the system of equations (1) as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. It is shown that the solutions of the system (1) converge to the solutions of the system of equations (2) as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. The convergence is uniform on compact subsets of the domain Ω . The second part of the paper is devoted to the study of the asymptotic behavior of the solutions of the system of equations (1) as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. It is shown that the solutions of the system (1) converge to the solutions of the system of equations (2) as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. The convergence is uniform on compact subsets of the domain Ω .

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in a chosen field of endeavor, seems liable to a constant fluctuation of address, making the delivery of the letters that much more difficult. With these intervening factors complicating matters, a 52.8% return may be quite reasonable.

The higher reliability noted in comparison to the pilot study may attest to the greater discrimination power of the more recent scales. Yet the wide departure from the six-week correlations cited by Hurley and Laffey, (1957) would be expected also. Longitudinal correlation studies inevitably show declining correlations on attitude scales with the passage of time (Bell, 1958). Kelly (1955) reported retest correlations on attitude measures as low as .15 after twenty years.

Our basic hypothesis. . . that children do have an effect on parents' attitudes toward them, appears confirmed by examination of our data. The over-all increase in MR largely exists due to the contribution by the parents of two or more children to this scale. Perhaps by the time a parent has undergone two childbirths or more or has found oneself restricted socially by the demands of an increasing family, a reassessment of the parental role may have occurred. The problems of supporting and caring for a growing household are difficult ones, both emotionally and financially.

This "realistic appraisal" does not necessarily imply a decrease in warmth toward the child. More accurately the younger siblings may experience less of a child-centered atmosphere, with independence being encouraged and emphasized. Indeed the rejection index might be conceptualized as a measure of child-centeredness rather than

the more negatively-toned hostility. The importance of the child-centered concept and some empirical support for its reduction in "non-first" children were expressed by Lasko (1952) of the Fels Institute.

A reduction in overprotection would also correspond to a decrease in child-centeredness. The parent learns from experience that children do not always need their constant vigilance. Treatment of the second child is more dependent upon what is right for the child, rather than the parent's emotional reactions. The environment is correctly perceived as not so threatening to one's child after all. The implication is drawn that mistakes are made, recognized, and rectified as the parental role continues and broadens.

The AP scale was the least variable of the three indices. Total change in any particular direction was slight, except for single individuals. The unmarried respondents expressed higher achievement desires in relation to children. Certainly achievement is a powerful motivating force in their own lives; of the 9 individuals in this sub-sample, 7 were working on or had attained advanced degrees. The reflection of pressure to achieve in their views of children would certainly agree with their present value system. The finding that achievement pressure declines more in women than in men would appear commensurate with this observation, when one considers the male and female roles in our highly competitive culture. The male provider and household head is expected to possess this attitude; indeed it is ingrained through middle-class social pressure. Females, however, are preconditioned to achieving only secondary successes; they are

trained for the maternal role as their eventual position. Longitudinal research delving into the question of what modifications of attitudes toward children are provoked when women are denied a maternal role and are forced to achieve a modicum of career success, would clarify some of our vague ideas as to the nature of achievement pressure. Unfortunately this group is not well-represented in our sample and it remains for future investigations with a larger N to reassess these findings.

Although not directly related to the effect of children on parental attitudes, the intervening effects of ones' occupation may also aid in determining attitude change. The contrasting patterns of change observed among those former students employed in areas of occupation not allied to psychological thought vs. those employed in fields more relevant to psychology is quite interesting. Learning theory suggests that one adheres to those ideas and actions which he has found to be accepted (or emphasized) by his environment. The reinforcement or extinguishment provided by one's occupational group seems to be a potent factor in the molding and perpetuation of adult attitudes. Moreover, the extent of transference from the business world to the home is often great. If one is actively engaged in the pursuit and encouragement of educational and mental health goals, as are our teacher and psychologist respondents, then it would follow that thinking in these terms would carry over into the family situation. On the other hand, occupations which have other, more material, utilitarian goals than mental health or the well being of children, may provide less reinforcing feedback for these views.

In considering future research needs, one must remember that an attitude questionnaire does not refer to the specific child which the parents may be considering in their responses. Parents are capable of reacting quite differently to various children in the same family. In particular, factors such as the sex of the child may precipitate a preference for one child over another. Failure to determine the referent may obscure or contaminate the differences noted in parents of two or more children. We may need more expansive scales and sets of items to measure attitudes toward daughters as well as sons, older children as well as younger ones. Adults who vary greatly in attitudes toward different offspring may be either highly sensitive to the needs of their various children or may be overinvolved with one and are working through internal conflicts with him. Knowledge of this difference in attitudes would better evaluate the contribution of each individual parent to a group picture.

Before we can state with any degree of certainty that children do precipitate attitude changes in parents it would seem instructive to further study those who did not vary, or changed very little in their attitudes. In examining the individual responses of our Ss, the great variability of each person's response is evident. Not only are there several individuals who remained remarkably stable in their responses but each sub-group in Table 4 contained at least one S who altered his attitude significantly in direct opposition to the group's direction of change. These deviations further emphasize

the importance of considering individual cases when theorizing as to the child's effect on adults.

Direct methods concerned with what the expectant parent feels and expresses before the birth of his child and after he has become accustomed to his new role, would seem to be a valuable supplement to any elaboration of our findings. Such a short-term longitudinal study, if properly conceived, could provide firsthand information on the nature of the feelings and convictions of the parent. Moreover, direct observations (actually made in the home) of critical incidents involved in parent-child interaction would further link the verbalized attitudes of parents with behavioral correlates. Further research with larger samples is needed to verify the findings pertinent to achievement pressure. With the use of proper control groups, temporary restrictions on parenthood could be studied longitudinally.

SUMMARY

No previous research dealing with the impact of children upon the child-raising attitudes of parents is known to the author. Longitudinal investigation extending from before marriage and parenthood to a point beyond, was seen as a means of detecting any changes that occurred. Three scales of the Child Behavior Inventory measuring the indices of manifest rejection, overprotection, and achievement pressure were mailed in questionnaire form to 127 former students. The individuals contacted had all responded to the self-ratings as undergraduates before taking a college child psychology course.

Sixty-seven replies, representing 52.8 percent of the total population were obtained, markedly below the 88 percent return rate found in a pilot study. The findings of our pilot study that manifest rejection increased and overprotection decreased were confirmed. Also substantiated was the observation that parents of two children or more contributed most significantly to these changes. Persons still single 6 years after taking a child psychology course expressed heightened achievement pressure attitudes toward children, perhaps effecting their own immediate goals. Area of occupation proved to be a differentiating factor in considering the changes; those engaged in educational and mental health fields decreased in rejection and overprotection in comparison to workers in other occupations.

The over all increase in rejection and decrease in overprotection was attributed to a more realistic appraisal of the parental role. Occupational differences were seen as depending upon the amount of transfer of ones ideas about children from the working environment to the home.

Provisions for the attitude scales to make more specific which child is being considered in the self ratings and further investigation of those individuals who did not appreciably change or changed in an opposite direction were suggested. The desirability for direct study of prospective parents before and after childbirth, including observation of critical incidents in the home, was stressed.

Table 1
Original Means of Non-Returnees and
Returnees on 3 Attitude Scales

	<u>Non-returnees</u> N=60	<u>Returnees</u> N=61*
<u>Rejection</u>		
	ΣX 2964	ΣX 3029
	$\bar{X}$ 49.40	$\bar{X}$ 49.66
	S.D. 10.44	S.D. 13.59
<u>Overprotection</u>		
	ΣX 2664	ΣX 2697
	$\bar{X}$ 44.40	$\bar{X}$ 44.21
	S.D. 8.19	S.D. 8.02
<u>Achievement Pressure</u>		
	ΣX 2887	ΣX 2996
	$\bar{X}$ 48.12	$\bar{X}$ 49.11
	S.D. 9.21	S.D. 11.08

* 6 Ss Dropped--No data on first CBI administration.

Table 2

T - Tests of Difference Scores for Rejection,
Overprotection and Achievement Pressure (N=61)

Index	$\bar{D}$	S.D.	t	
Rejection	3.46	16.05	1.69	p* $\leq$.05
Overprotection	-5.13	10.62	3.80	p* $\leq$.001
Achievement Pressure	-1.54	11.00	1.09	p* $>$.05

*1-tailed test

Table 3
T - Test Comparisons of Difference Scores
of Parents and Non-Parents
(N=57)*

Index		N	$\bar{D}$	S.D.	t	
Rejection	P	38	5.42	14.95	1.64	p > .05
	Non-P	19	-2.95	18.98		
Overprotection	P	38	-3.84	10.75	.84	p > .05
	Non-P	19	-6.47	11.42		
Achievement Pressure	P	38	-1.74	11.30	.09	p > .05
	Non-P	19	-2.05	12.01		

*4 Ss with children born prior to the 1957 administration were eliminated.

Table 4

T - Test Comparisons of Parents
With Two, One, or No Children
(N=57)#

		Rej.				OP				AP			
		2	1	0		2	1	0		2	1	0	
<u>Men</u>													
N		7	6	13		7	6	13		7	6	13	
$\bar{D}$		5.43	-3.67	.62		-4.71	.17	-8.69		2.57	2.50	-1.31	
S.D.		13.28	10.10	14.38		9.32	7.66	12.29		5.72	7.86	10.94	
t		1.40		.75			.97	1.85*			.02	.86	
<u>Women</u>													
N		12	13	6		12	13	6		12	13	6	
$\bar{D}$		12.42	3.15	-10.67		-3.83	-6.0	-1.67		-.25	-5.55	-3.33	
S.D.		15.92	13.99	23.98		11.50	9.99	7.88		10.36	14.18	11.33	
t		1.54		1.31			.50	1.00			1.05	.36	
<u>All</u>													
N		19	19	19		19	19	19		19	19	19	
$\bar{D}$		9.84	1.00	-2.95		-4.16	-3.51	-6.47		.79	-5.53	-2.05	
S.D.		15.34	13.29	18.35		10.12	11.07	11.42		9.04	12.82	12.01	
t		1.90*		.76			.19	.82			1.72*	.85	

#Total N= 57 (Men N= 26, Women N= 31)

*p Significant beyond .05 level (1-tailed test)

Table 5

T - Test of Difference Scores Between
Men and Women with 2 or more Children

Index		N	$\bar{D}$	S.D.	t	
Rejection	M	7	5.43	13.28	1.03	$p > .05$
	W	12	12.42	15.92		
Overprotection	M	7	-4.71	9.32	.19	$p > .05$
	W	12	-3.83	11.50		
Achievement Pressure	M	7	2.57	5.72	.76	$p > .05$
	W	12	-.25	10.36		

Table 6

T - Test Comparisons of Single vs.
Married Respondents
(N=61)

Index		N	$\bar{D}$	S.D.	t	
Rejection	S	9	5.67	11.41	.90	p > .05
	M	52	2.54	16.82		
Overprotection	S	9	-5.33	6.08	.08	p > .05
	M	52	-5.09	12.72		
Achievement Pressure	S	9	4.44	5.61	2.89	p < .01
	M	52	-2.58	10.94		

Table 7

T - Tests of Difference Scores--
Men and Women Respondents
(N=61)

Index		N	$\bar{D}$	S.D.	t	
Rejection	M	30	1.90	12.89	.69	p > .05
	W	31	4.71	18.67		
Overprotection	M	30	-5.97	10.56	.64	p > .05
	W	31	-4.32	10.38		
Achievement Pressure	M	30	-.10	8.85	1.06	p > .05
	W	31	-3.06	12.54		

Table 8

T - Tests for Difference Scores of Psychologically Related
and Non-Psychologically Related Occupations
(N=61)

Index		N	$\bar{D}$	S.D.	t	
Rejection	P	21	-2.90	14.48	2.18	p < .05
	Non-P	40	6.10	16.87		
Overprotection	P	21	-9.93	6.19	2.82	p < .01
	Non-P	40	-2.92	11.48		
Achievement Pressure	P	21	-1.90	12.07	.09	p > .05
	Non-P	40	-1.45	10.45		

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APPENDICES

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

OFFICE OF CHILD RESEARCH
Olds Hall Room 115

May 21, 1963

Dear

Because you responded to similar materials several years ago as an MSU student, the Office of Child Research is soliciting your opinions concerning the enclosed list of questions about children. Comparing your present views (several years after taking various Psychology courses) with the opinions which you expressed earlier will, we trust, yield information about significant changes.

In the intervening years, perhaps you have become a parent, an experience which probably has had considerable impact upon your opinions about children's behavior. However, the responses of those persons who have chosen to postpone the not-unmixed blessings of parenthood are of equal priority for research and critical for appraising the impact of parenthood per se upon shifts in viewpoints on children.

We are interested in your present opinions, and we hope that you will feel free to express yourself candidly. Thus, responses frankly indicative of your current views will be of greater value than information demonstrating that you can accurately recall what psychologists or other experts hold that "good persons should believe."

The ultimate purpose of this research is to contribute to a fuller understanding of how young adults perceive and think about children. Present information in this area is very sparse, and we believe that our findings will shed some new light upon an unexplored area.

The enclosed questionnaire will probably take you less than 10 minutes to complete, and we hope you will return it soon in the self-addressed envelope also enclosed. Your time and cooperation are very much appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

John R. Hurley, Ph.D.
Project Director

JRH:mc

Enc.

Name: _____ Date of Birth: _____
Maiden name (if different from above): _____ Highest educational level completed: _____
Years of College: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
Marital Status (check appropriate term) _____ Highest earned degree: _____
Single _____ Divorced _____ Widowed _____ Present Occupation: _____
Married _____ Remarried _____ Spouse's Occupation: _____
Children's age and sex (indicate adopted by A, foster by F): _____, _____, _____
_____, _____, _____. How many additional children do you plan? _____

The following statements are both agreed with and disagreed with by many people, so in this sense there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Please read each statement carefully and then indicate your opinion by encircling the letter(s) best representing your personal view. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered.

	Strongly Agree	mildly agree	Neutral	mildly disagree	Strongly disagree
It is better for children to play at home than to visit other children.	SA	a	N	d	SD
A child should be neat and orderly at all times.	SA	a	N	d	SD
It is hard to make some children really "feel bad."	SA	a	N	d	SD
Women who like lots of parties often make good mothers.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children will walk when ready for it, whether they are trained or not.	SA	a	N	d	SD
The sooner a child is toilet trained, the better.	SA	a	N	d	SD
When the father punishes the child without good reason, the mother should take the child's side.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Parents should not take it upon themselves to decide exactly when and how much a child should eat.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Talking back to parents is one of the worst things a child can do.	SA	a	N	d	SD
A child should never keep a secret from his parents.	SA	a	N	d	SD
By the time children are four-years-old, they should know enough to keep their clothes clean.	SA	a	N	d	SD
A child should not be permitted to play in the living room.	SA	a	N	d	SD
It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Too much freedom will make a child wild.	SA	a	N	d	SD
No child "acts lazy" without some good reason.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children who are continuously "kept after" seldom get anywhere in life when they grow up.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Sneakiness in children is usually the result of faulty parental training.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children should be taken to and from school until the age of eight to make sure there are no accidents.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children will neglect their school work if parents don't keep after them.	SA	a	N	d	SD
A good way to make a child behave is to shame him in front of his friends.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Older children are more fun than babies.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Early weaning and toilet training are important in preparing a child for life.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children need some of the "natural meanness" taken out of them.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Most reports which parents hear from others about their child's misconduct are exaggerated.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Parents shouldn't ask children to do things that are too hard for them.	SA	a	N	d	SD
An older child who wets the bed should be ashamed.	SA	a	N	d	SD
A child's friends usually do more good than harm.	SA	a	N	d	SD
It is the parent's duty to see that their child plays with only the right kind of children.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children should not be punished for their sex play.	SA	a	N	d	SD
A mother should never be separated from her child.	SA	a	N	d	SD
For his own sake a child should be pressed to excel in school.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Strict discipline often ruins what might have developed into a fine, strong character.	SA	a	N	d	SD
It is all right for a neighbor to occasionally discipline another parent's child.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children who do not keep up with their classmates in school usually need special tutoring more than anything else.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children should be allowed to nurse from the bottle or breast as long as they like.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Even a watchful mother cannot keep her child out of accidents.	SA	a	N	d	SD
It is of little importance whether or not a child does well in club activities, like the Boy or Girl Scouts.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Often it is a mistake to punish the child who has done something very bad.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Few mothers are fearful that they might hurt their babies in handling them.	SA	a	N	d	SD
Children should not be expected to take very good care of toys.	SA	a	N	d	SD
It is a healthy sign for children to sometimes show anger toward their parents.	SA	a	N	d	SD
If children are quiet for a little while, a mother should not try to find out what they are thinking about.	SA	a	N	d	SD

Any child who is not plain lazy can do well in school work.	SA a N d SD
Even older children should be allowed to play with their food during meals	SA a N d SD
Only a foolish mother will try to make sure that she knows her child's innermost thoughts.	SA a N d SD
When a child won't eat you should tell him how nicely other children eat.	SA a N d SD
It is a good thing for children to sometimes "talk back" to parents.	SA a N d SD
Whenever a child is slow in dressing, the parents should help him.	SA a N d SD
A child should be trained early to keep his toys in order.	SA a N d SD
When children misbehave it is their parents who are responsible.	SA a N d SD
It is all right for a parent to sleep with a child because it gives the child a feeling of being loved and wanted.	SA a N d SD
Even if the child is slow in dressing, the parent should not do it for him.	SA a N d SD
A wise parent will teach the child early just who is boss.	SA a N d SD
A child should be protected from hearing about sex.	SA a N d SD
The sooner a child realizes it must fight its own battles, the better.	SA a N d SD
If small children refuse to obey, parents should whip them for it.	SA a N d SD
A devoted mother may still have time for an active social life.	SA a N d SD
Most children are able to do very little talking by the age of 12 months.	SA a N d SD
Firm and strict discipline makes for strong character in later life.	SA a N d SD
After punishing a child a parent naturally wants to make up for it by giving the child everything it wants.	SA a N d SD
A child should be weaned away from the bottle or breast as soon as possible.	SA a N d SD
Some children have ways of making parents lose their temper.	SA a N d SD
Parents often worry that people playing with the baby might be too rough.	SA a N d SD
Four-year-olds are too young to keep their toys in order.	SA a N d SD
Most children like to help their parents.	SA a N d SD
Children should do nothing without the consent of their parents.	SA a N d SD
There is little point in encouraging the child to stand on its own feet as soon as possible.	SA a N d SD
It takes a lot of reminding to get children to do things right.	SA a N d SD
Children seven years of age are old enough to spend summers away from home in a camp.	SA a N d SD
It's foolish to expect three-year-olds to eat everything on their plate.	SA a N d SD
Slapping a child immediately after getting into mischief is the best way to stop it.	SA a N d SD
Young people should choose jobs they really like, regardless of what their parents say.	SA a N d SD
The earlier a child is weaned from its emotional ties to its parents the better it will handle its own problems.	SA a N d SD
It is normal for children to occasionally disobey their parents.	SA a N d SD
A parent's greatest fear is that in a forgetful moment they might let something bad happen to the baby.	SA a N d SD
Children should have music or dancing lessons.	SA a N d SD
Most children need more kindness and sympathy than they get.	SA a N d SD
Children who are several years old should not be "babied."	SA a N d SD
Constructive after school activities help the child to develop a better character than just playing.	SA a N d SD
A naughty child sometimes needs a good slap in the face.	SA a N d SD
A mother should make it her business to know everything her children are thinking.	SA a N d SD
Few children are toilet trained by 15 months of age.	SA a N d SD
Spanking children usually does more harm than good.	SA a N d SD
Children who always obey do not grow up to be the best adults.	SA a N d SD
An intelligent child who does poorly in school should not be ashamed.	SA a N d SD
Most children need more discipline than they get.	SA a N d SD
No child is just naturally bad.	SA a N d SD
Young people should not marry without their parents' approval.	SA a N d SD
Children are actually happier under strict training.	SA a N d SD
Children who have temper tantrums should be spanked.	SA a N d SD
Babies rarely cry "just to get attention."	SA a N d SD
Making a child feel wanted and needed is the best way to get good behavior.	SA a N d SD
Children must be kept after continuously if they are to get somewhere in life later on.	SA a N d SD

How much impact upon your potential to be an effective parent do you think your college Psychology courses had? None _____ Little _____ Quite a bit _____ Considerable _____.

If your present address is different than the one we have used to send this material, please indicate:

APPENDIX C

I. Comparisons of MR Changes For All Ss Possessing 2, 1, or 0 Children (N=57)

A. Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F</u>
Between	1748.40	2	874.20	3.32*
Within	14269.60	54	263.51	

*p < .05

B. Duncan's Multiple Range Test

No. of Children (N=19 for each group)		(2)	(1)	(0)	
		A	B	C	Shortest Significant Ranges
Means		9.84	1.00	-2.95	
A	9.84		8.84	12.79	R ₂ =8.79
B	1.00			3.95	R ₃ =9.29
C	-2.95				
Δ = .05		A	B	C	

The two children group is greater in MR changes than the 1 or 0 child group, but the 1 child group is not significantly different from the 0 group.

II. Comparisons of MR Changes For Women Ss — 2, 1, or 0 Children

A. Analysis of Variance

<u>Source</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F</u>
Between	2133	2	1016	3.26
Within	9054	29	312	

p > .05

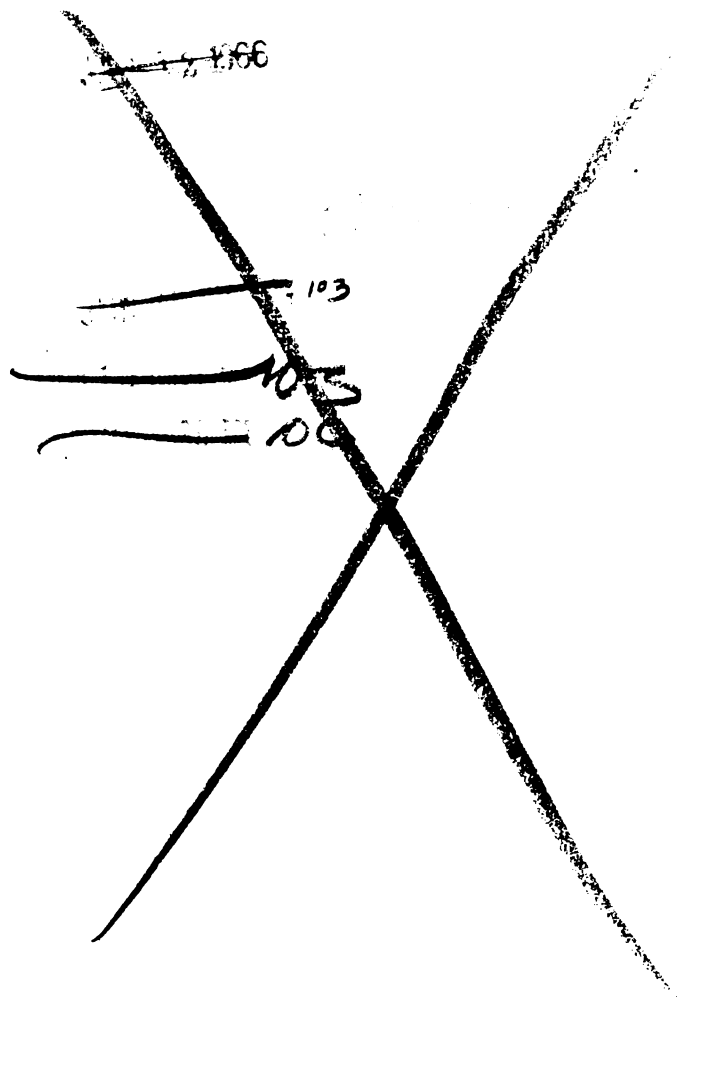
B. Duncan's Multiple Range Test

No. of Children		(2) (N=12)	(1) (N=13)	(0) (N=6)*	
		A	B	C	Shortest Significant Ranges
Means		12.42	3.15	-10.57	
A	12.42		9.27	22.99	R ₂ =14.73
B	3.15			13.72	R ₃ =15.48
C	- 10.57				
$\alpha = .05$		<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	C	

The only significant difference for women respondents was between the 2 child group and the 0 child group.

*See Kramer (1956) for cases of unequal Ns applied to Duncan's test.

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