This is to certify that the

dissertation entitled

Parental Style: Age Trends
And Social Competency of Children
In Rural and Urban Families

presented by

Dan Fawaz

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Family Ecology

Eileen M. Earhart
Major professor

Date November 8, 1984

PARENTAL STYLE: AGE TRENDS AND SOCIAL COMPETENCY OF CHILDREN IN RURAL AND URBAN FAMILIES

By

Dan Fawaz

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Family and Child Ecology

1984

ABSTRACT

PARENTAL STYLE: AGE TRENDS
AND SOCIAL COMPETENCY OF CHILDREN
IN RURAL AND URBAN FAMILIES

by

Dan Fawaz

An extensive amount of literature has been devoted to the examination of parent/child relations. The focus has often been child outcomes related to particular dimensions of parenting behavior. These outcomes have included such variables as locus of control, self-esteem and social competency. More recent research has included multiple dimensions of parent behavior that have been typed according to various styles. To date three major typologies have emerged: authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. The authoritative style has proven to be the most efficacious for the child's development, particularly the child's social competency. Parental style and social competency are the primary variables examined in the present study.

An integration of theoretical constructs and conceptual frameworks were developed to underscore the present analysis. An ecological perspective subsuming social cognition and cognitive development provided the primary framework. The constructs associated with parental style added specificity to this integration.

Based on literature and theory, there were three aims of the present investigation. Using a combined mother/father

score as one parent score (heretofore analyzed separately), the relationship of parental style to social competency was examined. The importance of age trends in parent behavior has been largely ignored, consequently it becomes the second focus of the present investigation. The last aim of the present investigation was the comparison of rural/urban differences regarding age trends, social competency and parental style.

Results confirmed the efficiency of the authoritative parent, however, all measures of social competency were not in the predicted direction. This was true for both the authoritative and authoritarian parent. The permissive style was rarely seen. More than fifty percent of the parents could not be specifically categorized. No significant differences were found between ages for parental style. Graphic inspection of age differences did indicate some age trends specific to parental style, however, results were non-significant. No significant differences were found between rural and urban families for measures of social competency, parental style or age.

The efficiency for the authoritative parent was supported, however, there appears to be a large number of parents who have created their own style. To date such a group of parents has been undocumented. This group seems to support the potential of other styles for children's development.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writing and completion of this dissertation would have not been possible without the support and guidance from the following people:

Lawrence Schiamberg, Ph.D.

Eileen Earhart, Ph.D.

Robert Griffore, Ph.D.

Daniel Jacobsen, Ph.D.

Beatrice Paolucci, Ph.D.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER Page

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE Page

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

Introduction

During the past fifty years research in the parent/child area has undergone a dramatic shift in complexity and analysis (Becker, 1964; Burr, Hill, Nye, and Reiss, 1978; Martin, 1975). It is the intent of the present research to follow this shifting pattern to a more complex analysis of the parent/child relationship. The child's contribution, not withstanding, the parents create an atmosphere and relationship that can be complementary or contrary (Thomas & Chess, 1984) or possess a style that fosters the development of the child (Baumrind, 1980). It is this role as conductor that seems to indicate the importance of parental style theoughout the development of the child from birth to adulthood. It is a relationship of orchestration that far exceeds the unitary and/or linear quality of past research and characterizations. The analysis of parental style attends to the parent/child relationship as it is represented today (Thomas, 1982) a complex, interactive, reciprocal social network.

The present research contributes to this recognition of complexity through its examination of parental style within three domains: social competency of the child; age trends and rural versus urban issues. More specifically, three research questions have been derived from the review

of literature pertaining to each of these domains. Social competency: Is parental style related to social competency? Age trends: Do components of parental style, i.e., parental involvement limit setting, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance, intimacy, change as the child's age varies? Rural versus urban: What differences exist between rural and urban samples, regarding parental style, its relationship to social competency and age trends?

The following discussion will briefly delineate the historical changes that have taken place and the rationale for research questions under investigation. Initially investigators examined single dimensions of parent behavior such as acceptance-rejection (Altman, 1958; Anderson, 1940; Hattwick, 1936; Monkman, 1958) or loosely defined categories of permissiveness and strictness (Roy, 1950; Stendler, 1950; Symonds, 1939; Watson, 1957). These dimensions were then associated with child outcomes such as cooperation (Hattwick, 1936) or adjustment (Monkman, 1958). The introduction of a more complex analysis using two or more dimensions simultaneously (Becker, 1964; Schaefer, 1959) has contributed to Baumrind's classic series of studies, (1967, 1971, 1973, 1978). Without exception the importance of a multidimensional analysis has been revealed. Parental behavior occupies various positions on dimensions such as love/hostility, psychological control psychological autonomy, acceptance/ rejection, that do not manifest a linear relationship.

The trend toward a multidimensional analysis has continued into the eighties (Baruch and Barnett, 1981; Camp, Swift, and Swift, 1982; Mondell and Tyler, 1981). The consequence of such an analysis has led to categorization of parental behaviors into typologies, e.g., authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and harmonious, which present child rearing practices as a matrix of behaviors. This parental style is then equated with particular child outcomes such as social competency (Baruch and Barnett, 1981; Baumrind, 1978; White & Watts, 1973) or cognitive abilities (Chu, 1975; Koch, 1979). The majority of this research either focused on mothers and fathers separately, or excluded fathers altogether. Very little of this research has been directed to the parent/child triad, i.e., mother, father, child, and its impact on the development of social competency in their children. The effect of the triadic relationship on the child's social competency is the major focus of the present investigation.

Furthermore, the paucity of research regarding age-related trends in parental style is well documented (Appel, 1979). Children of different ages possess unique qualities that mediate the social situation. Parents maintain consistent trends at times, but also vary their style based upon their belief system (McGillicuddy-Delisi, 1982). For example, a parent may hold certain ideas about their children's development such as reasoning ability, impulse control and the role children play within the family system. These ideas are then translated into action within the parent/child relationship.

Consequently, the second issue to be dealt with in the present research is the preferential style of parents with children of particular ages.

Another area of parent/child interaction that warrants further examination involves rural/urban settings. The parent/child literature is almost devoid of rural/urban comparisions. The literature is replete with social class analysis as evidenced by comprehensive reviews (Deutch, 1973; Gecas, 1979), but the rural/urban distinction has not been a point of interest. Much as class characterizes parent/child interactions, so may the rural/urban differentiation have important consequences for child-rearing practices. The third issue to be considered in the present research is the comparison of rural/urban parental behavior and the subsequent consequences for the child's social competency.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework underlying the present research is comprised of principles derived from the conceptual frameworks of Bronfenbrenner (1979), Piaget (1926, 1932, 1970), Shantz (1975) and Baumrind (1967, 1971, 1978). Shantz (1975) work on social cognition, based on Piaget's cognitive developmental theory, provided the social perspective necessary in the present research. Bronfenbrenner's work provided the overall framework explicating general propositions for this research. Bronfenbrenner states that his framework:

> ...involves the scientific study of the progressive, mutual accommodation between an active, growing human

> being and the changing properties of the immediate settings in which the developing person lives, as this process is affected by relations between, and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded (p. 21).

In this perspective, the developing person, the environment, and the evolving interaction between the two are viewed. The development of the child is viewed by the way the child perceives and interacts with the environment. Further, the child's environment is defined at three different connected levels from the immediate to distant. These environmental interconnections or systems each exert their impact upon the forces directly affecting the child's microsystem, i.e., immediate situation, mesosystem, i.e., linkage between settings in which the individual participates, and exosystem, i.e., linkages between settings which affect the individual but in which the child is not a participant. Thus, although the child's immediate environment seems to exert the greatest influence, other systems have their impact as well. For example, a child's ability to read may depend no less on how the child is taught than on the relationship between the home and school. The present research is restricted to analysis of the microsystem, or more specifically the triad of mother, father, and child. The developmental importance of the triad is critical when considering intact families. According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), the developmental process can break down if components of this triad play a disruptive rather than a supportive role. Emphasizing the dyad, as most

parent/child literature (Martin, 1975) tends to do, is inadequate because many families include mother, father, and child. Most importantly, Bronfenbrenner's conception of development recognizes the importance of the child's impact within the triadic relationship. Development is defined as the child's evolving conception of the ecological environment, i.e., micro, meso and exo systems, his relation to it, as well as the child's growing capacity to discover, sustain or alter its properties. The overt manifestation of the child's conception of his ecological environment is his behavior, which constitutes both the internal mechanisms and external manifestations of psychological growth as well as the ecological environment.

Piaget's position, which is amenable to Bronfenbrenner's, provides some specific developmental corollaries that may supplement Bronfenbrenner's ecological perspective. Piaget's (1926, 1970) careful analysis of the changes evidenced in the child's thought and reasoning is organized under the cognitive levels of development he has theorized. Piaget (1962) stated that:

> from two to seven years of age (i.e., preoperational stage), representative thought developes spontaneously, often being unconscious because of its ease and egocentric quality, whereas at about seven or eight (the onset of concrete operations) it becomes deliberate and it takes its place in intelligence as a whole (p. 74).

The younger child is egocentric, i.e., the preschool child possesses an inability to take another's viewpoint, and focuses largely on perceptual as opposed to conceptual experiences, whereas the older child has the ability to decenter, i.e., take another's viewpoint, and an increasing capacity to convey information through speech. More specifically, the preoperational child's thought is irreversible and attentive to limited amounts of information. Concrete operational children, on the other hand, are able to focus on several aspects of a situation simultaneously, are sensitive to transformations, and can reverse the direction of their thinking.

Shantz's (1975) treatise on social cognition provides the necessary extension of Piaget's theory into the social realm. Social cognition deals with the child's ability to characterize others and make inferences about and attribute motives to what another person sees, feels, thinks and intends (the inner psychological experience of others). The way in which the child conceptualizes others will undoubtly have an important effect on the child's social behavior with others (Shantz, 1975). Consistent with Piaget's findings, younger children attend to the highly observable, salient, surface cues of people and situations, e.g., they often use appearance and possessions of the person to make inferences about others (Livesley and Bromley, 1973). Furthermore, this tendency to center attention on a single aspect of "external" stimuli also occurs with internal

stimuli, i.e., children focus attention on their own positions, ideas or feelings, to the exclusion of other possible positions, ideas, or feelings. The older child (concrete operational child) demonstrates substantial changes in attentional tendencies. Rather than using external cues as much as younger children, older children describe people in terms of habits, dispositions, value, beliefs and traits, i.e., more abstract descriptions based on regularities in behavior across time and situations (Peevers and Secord, 1973). They can attend to a number of cues and focus on the internal states of another. Moreover, older children can recognize more accurately a variety of emotions and deal with complex affect (Borke, 1971; Mood, Johnson and Shantz, 1974).

Throughout her discussion of research pertinent to social cognition, Shantz (1975) observed two consistent trends that have importance for the present study. First, the younger child is seen as much more competent in social understanding than Piaget's theory suggests. This does not alter the basic premises of cognitive development or social cognition, but merely reorients these premises through the recognition of the greater sophistication in the young child's social understanding. Secondly, the age group of 5-7 years is seen as a transitional one in which the child is moving to more complex cognitive functioning and social understanding. Consequently, the 5-7 year old child may vacillate between the two stages of development. For example, at times children in this age range can focus on more than one dimension of a

situation, and at other times seem only able to deal with one dimension.

The findings of Piaget and Shantz are easily incorporated within Brofenbrenner's conceptualization of human development. Bronfenbrenner emphasized the evolving nature and scope of perceived reality as it emerges and expands in the child's awareness and active involvement with the physical and social environment. The young child's egocentrism manifests itself by a lack of adaptation to the relations between events and persons in the settings that do not, form the outset, involve the child's active participation. The perceptual orientation of the preoperational child precludes symbolic encoding, therefore, active participation utilizes the predominant mode of orientation for the young child. Furthermore, the rudimentary level of social understanding directly influences the triad and the child's interpretation of the developing relationship(s). What is suggested here is that the egocentric nature of the young child (cognitively and socially) influences the adequacy and appropriateness of particular parent behaviors. The better fit would presumably occur between authoritative parents and their children because such parents are more cognizant of the child's developing abilities. Furthermore, the young child's reliance on perceptual cues limits the processing of information to concrete representations thereby restricting the number of distinct behaviors, motives and information on which the child focuses. This characteristic puts the

young child at a disadvantage when parental style manifests fixed behaviors that do not take into consideration the child's perspective.

Older children, on the other hand, have more advanced cognitive schemata at their disposal, which allow them to encode parent behavior with greater understanding and diversity by using symbolic and concrete representations. Their ability to adapt to parental style and maintain attention to the parents' perspective will increase learning of appropriate and more competent behavior.

Baumrind's work (1967, 1971, 1978) supplements the conceptual integration with specificity and closure. She identified three distinct triads of parent/ child relationships that create specific realities for the child and the developing social competencies. The fact that Baumrind was able to specify the authoritative pattern as most effective is tied to a major proposition of Bronfenbrenner (1979). More specifically, "...the developmental impact of a triad increases as a direct function of the level of reciprocity, mutuality of positive feeling, and a gradual shift of balance of power in favor of the developing person" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.59). Thus authoritative parents, as the most effective, were characterized by Baumrind as controlling and demanding, but were also warm, rational, and receptive to the child's communication. Furthermore, these parents recognized reciprocity as a pattern of mutually contingent exchange of gratification and as a generalized moral norm, with consequent

mature cognitive and moral judgment and action in the child (Baumrind, 1978). Parents who understand the changing and developing nature of the child were able to create a more responsive and appropriate reality to facilitate the child's social competency than those who did not. Parental behavior was not only subject to ecological considerations such as triadic relationships and systems, but cognitive levels of their children were inherent in an objective analysis of parental style as an emerging process. Thus, the integration of Piagetian principles with those of Bronfenbrenner and the conceptualization of Baumrind would seem to produce a viable framework for the further study of the development of social competency.

The Rationale for the Present Research

Given the frameworks of Bronfenbrenner and Piaget, and the conceptualizations of Shantz and Baumrind, the social competency of children should be enhanced by a particular parental style, i.e., authoritative. Several investigations (Abedor, 1983; Baumrind, 1967, 1971, 1973, 1978; Hartup, 1979; Jones, Rickel and Smith, 1980; White, 1975; White and Watts, 1973) have demonstrated that nurturant, demanding, controlling parents who also possess a realistic appraisal of their child's abilities, facilitate instrumental competence and/or components of social behavior. Given Bronfenbrenner's conclusion, regarding the impact of the triad, one would posit that the mother/father/child triad, representing a realistic

picture of the family, would likewise facilitate social competency. Yet given this deduction and the aforementioned studies, most parent/child research (Bing, 1963; Chu, 1975; Kuntz and Letteri, 1981; Martin, 1975; Olejnik, 1979) has been restricted to the analysis of one parent's behavior. Furthermore, despite criticisms for the failure to include fathers in analysis (Lamb, 1976), most studies neglected the paternal role. The exceptions, (e.g., Abedor, 1983; Baumrind, 1971, 1973) found an average score or created typologies of 'parental' behavior derived from mother and father scores.

The recognition of social competency as a critical goal in the developmental sequence although overlooked historically (White, 1959) has begun to emerge as an ongoing developmental task in itself (Thomas & Chess, 1980). The individual's ability to interact as a social being using effective and appropriate means is necessary for sucessful integration into society. The development of social competency throughout childhood is critical to the ultimate manifestation of socially competent behavior as an adult (Ogbu, 1982). It is this process by which parents inculcate and children acquire social competencies for their adult cultural tasks which is critical. Research on the relationship between social competency and parental behavior has been rather sparse (Rollins and Thomas, 1979), yet its importance is no less critical to the child's social world (Dickie and Gerber, 1980; Kohn and Rosman, 1972). Baumrind and White represent the major researchers to date who have systematically examined social

competency as a function of the parent/child relationship. Furthermore, they demonstrated an appreciation for the uniqueness of the family comprised of individuals who are so complex and multifaceted that they defy easy classification and comparisons on any single or simple common dimension (Mischel, 1977), This is not surprising considering both Bronfenbrenner's multidimensional framework and the absence of research truly representative of the family (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Thus it becomes important to carry the level of analysis to the triad, while concomitantly examining the parent/child relationship along a number of dimensions.

The importance of the child's changing abilities and their impact on social understanding (Shantz, 1975) and intellectual functioning (Ginsburg and Opper, 1969) has been well documented (Damon, 1980; Ruff, 1980). The way the child acquires knowledge, interacts with the social world, thinks, and perceives are all constrained by the child's developing abilities. More specifically, children of various ages possess specific age-related capacities that mediate between the child and the environment. It is because of these specific age related changes that children were selected from three different age groups. The three year olds were securely entrenched in the preoperational stage, the six year olds occupying a transitional phase and the nine year olds well into the concrete operational stage. Each one of these groups demonstrates particular behavioral, social and cognitive capacities indicative of their place in the developmental sequence.

Despite the extensive body of literature detailing these capacities, very little research has focused on age trends in parental behavior that may vary with the child's age. One would posit that parental behavior would change to accommodate the child's changing abilities for parents who are aware of such changes, however, the relationship is not so clear cut. McGillicuddy-Delisi (1982) has shown that parents base their child-rearing on complex belief systems regarding developmental processes. Furthermore, Baumrind (1978) has shown that parental beliefs were associated with particular styles of child rearing. Authoritarian and permissive parents tended to articulate an image of their child that was not realistic or flexibly responsive to the developing competencies in the child. These parents appeared to construct fictional beliefs about what their child was like and relate to that fiction rather than to the child. Authoritative parents, on the other hand, were inclined to see the rights and duties of parents as complementary to the child's rather than identical. Moveover, they felt they should be receptive to and aware of the child's needs and views before making any attempt to alter the child's actions. Combined with the view of the child as maturing through stages with qualitatively different features, authoritative parents will react differently to their children as they grow older. It would seem more likely that authoritative parents would alter their behavior, while authoritarian and permissive parents would fixate their behavior over time.

Although focusing on changes in behavioral dimensions of parenting and not parental style, a number of investigators (Armentrout, 1970; Armentrout and Burger, 1972; Chen, 1981) have looked at overall age trends based on children's perceptions. Changes do occur. Psychological control seems to give way to psychological autonomy as the child gets older, while limit setting increases. Demands seem to decrease (Chen, 1981) while psychological nuturance increased (Weisz, 1980). Despite the differential efficacy of particular parental styles and belief systems, samples of parents are treated as homogeneous groups. This general grouping of parents is also the design used in parent report studies (Baldwin, 1947; Bartz, 1978; Wenger, Berg and Berg, 1980). This leads to the second purpose of the present investigation: to examine age trends in parental behavior, according to parental style, using the child's age as an index.

Another aim of this study is to examine rural/urban differences in parental style as they relate to the child's social competency. Considerable research exists on the relationship of social class (Deutsch, 1973) to child development and family interaction. Social stratification in our society can hardly be disputed; people differ considerably in terms of power, prestige and resources, and the material consequences of these differences are apparent (Gecas, 1979). Much as class would yeild particular results, geographical locations might also. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) conceptual framework indicates the importance of situational context

for the relations occurring within the microsystem as well as between systems. The microsystem of the rural family, though operating under the same laws, might create a different set of experiences, availability of resources and interconnections between systems. Although multi-media have blurred these differences, availability of resources, frequency and quantity of contacts with a variety of situations may undoubtedly differ. At any rate the consequences for parent/child interaction are heretofore undocumented.

Although much has been written about rural or urban children (Brown, 1977; Christensen & Dillman, 1973; Irons, 1967; Poresky, 1978), the comparison of rural and urban families is almost non-existent (Schiamberg, 1981). Testimony to this paucity of literature is best exemplified in a recent study undertaken by a group of investigators in several stages (Clark, Crase, Longe, Marshall, Kalvan, Mesih,Nelson, Pease, Poresky, Schiamberg & Tuppo, 1981). A careful review of their bibliography found no references to comparisons of rural/urban families. Thus the final aim of the study is to examine the differences and/or similarities between rural and urban parent/child interaction in relation to social competency.

Overview of the Present Research

An extensive review of literature follows this initial chapter. The research is examined somewhat historically, paralleling decades from the 1930's to the present. As the review approaches contemporary scientific conceptualization

regarding parent/child interaction, consistent lines of thought begin to emerge. Early researchers (Anderson, 1940; Hattwick, 1936; Symonds, 1939) focused on singular dimensions of parenting behavior. Permissiveness-restrictiveness was one of the more prominent dimensions of the mid-twentieth century. This singular dichotomy was replaced by the simultaneous investigation of two dimensions (Shaefer, 1959) and three dimensions (Becker, 1964). Significant contributions advocating a multidimensional approach was made by Bronfenbrenner (1961a, 1961b) as well. His studies on responsibility and leadership clearly demonstrated the complexity of the parent/child relationship. Despite the importance of multidimensional and non-linear research; it was not until Baumrind's critical work (1967, 1971, 1973, 1978) that their impact had been truly felt. She examined a number of components of parent behavior that could be codified into typologies or parental styles. At present, her work buttressed by other investigators (White & Watts, 1973; White, 1975) has supported a particular parental style as the most efficacious in the development of the child's competence. This "authoritative style" is characterized by parent behavior which is moderately demanding, highly nurturant, non-punitive yet adequately controlling and inductive in its approach. The review of the literature revealed an emerging consensus of opinion regarding the efficacy of the authoritative parent.

The review also examined such areas as continuum based models, social competence, locus of control, cognitive variables,

age trends in parent behavior, and rural/urban comparisons. The last two areas were particularly germane to the purposes of the present study. A number of investigators have demonstrated differential parental responding depending upon the child's age (Armentrout & Burger, 1972; Burger, Lamp & Rogers, 1975; Chen, 1981). On the other hand, the analysis of rural/urban families was almost non-existent. Schiamberg (1981) represented the sole comparison of rural/urban parent behavior.

The method section delineated the composition of the sample, design, instruments and procedure used. The total sample included 180 families, half of which were selected from rural areas and the other half from urban areas. These rural/urban subsamples were further subdivided into three age groups using age of the child as the defining criterion. Children were three, six or nine years old, thirty of each within each rural/urban subsample. All families included mother and father.

Three instruments were used to gather information on demographic data, social competency and parental behavior. Demographic data were derived from a section of the Revised Kansas Home Interview Scale (see Appendix A). Social competency was measured using the Iowa Social Competency Scale (see Appendix A) and child rearing practices were assessed using the Iowa Parent Behavior Inventory (IPBI). Social competency of the children and child rearing practices are based upon parents' perceptions as measured by their responses

on the respective questionnaires of the Iowa Social Competency Scale were used, one form for preschool children and one for school age children. Separate mother and father forms were used to rate parental behavior.

Each parent was administered the behavior inventory, while both parents were to complete the social competency scale. Graduate assistants administered the tests. A 1 to 99 scale was used to rate child and parent behavior, 1 denoting unlikely behavior and 99 highly characteristic behavior.

A parent score was derived using a technique similar to Abedor (1983). Scores on the father form and the mother form of the parent inventory were added and then divided by two to arrive at a mean score reflecting both parents as one measure.

Both measures of parental behavior and social competency are comprised of a number of items that indicate different components of each. These components were derived using the least squares method of factor analysis for parental behavior while social competency factors were the same as those used by Pease, Clark & Crase (1982). A total of twelve factors were indicative of social competency. Factors labeled social activator, hypersensitivity, reassurance, uncooperativeness and cooperativeness measured social competency for preschool children. Seven factors were included in the school age form: task orientation, leadership, disruption, affection, capability, defiance and apprehension.

The factor analysis of the parent inventory based on 36 items resulted in five factors: parental involvement, limit setting, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance, and intimacy. Analyses were run based on the parent and child factors.

Parent factors were categorized further according to parental style. Using the same approach as Baumrind (1971, 1973) parents were ranked on their factor scores based on a median split. Each combined parent score was ranked either high or low on each of the five factors. Based on these rankings, parents were typed as to parental style (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive).

Research Questions

The foregoing literature was used to develop hypotheses derived from three research questions:

1) Social Competency: Is parental style related to social competency?
2) Age Trends: Do components of parental style, i.e., parental involvement, limit setting, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance, intimacy, change as the child's age varies?
3) Rural versus Urban: What differences exist between rural and urban samples, regarding parental style, its relationship to social competency and age trends?

Hypotheses

Social Competency: Is parental style related to social competency?

1) Higher social competency scores in children at all ages are associated to a greater degree with authoritative

parental style rather than with permissive or authoritarian styles.

2) Lower social competency scores in children at all ages are more likely to be associated to a greater degree with authoritarian parental style rather than with permissive or authoritative styles.

3) Children who fall in the mid ranges of social competency at all ages, are associated to a greater degree with permissive and/or authoritarian parental styles rather than authoritative.

Age Trends: Components of parental style, i.e., parental involvement, limit setting, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance, intimacy, change as the child's age varies.

4) Parents of 9 year old children are less involved with their children than parents of 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds are less involved than parents of 3 year olds.

5) Parents of 9 year old children set fewer limits than parents of 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds set fewer limits than parents of 3 year olds.

6) Parents of 9 year old children decrease their immediacy of assistance relative to 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds decrease their immediacy of assistance relative to 3 year olds.

7) Parents of 9 year old children use more reasoning guidance than parents of 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds use more reasoning guidance than parents of 3 year olds.

8) Parents of 9, 6, and 3 year old children show no differences in level of intimacy.

9) The authoritative parent, is more likely to follow the age changes listed in hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8.

10) The authoritarian parent, is the least likely to demonstrate age changes listed in hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Rural versus Urban: What differences exist between rural and urban samples, regarding parental style, its relationship to social competency and age trends? The rural/urban hypotheses will be stated as null hypotheses as previous research in the area is insufficient to support alternative hypotheses.

11) There is no difference in the incidence of authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parental styles between rural and urban families.

12) There are no developmental differences in parental involvement, limit setting, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance and intimacy between rural and urban children.

13) There is no difference in the relationship between parental style and social competency in rural and urban families.

The present research was based on data collected in the fall of 1978. This research was sponsored by the Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station under the auspices of the North Central Regional Agricultural Experiment Station Project (NC 124). It was at this point that the present author became involved. Participation included development of the theoretical framework, review of the literature, modification of questionnaires, design and generation of hypotheses.

The present undertaking is a secondary analysis of the existing data.

Theoretical Definitions

Social Competency- The child's ability to interact as a social being in ways acceptable to values of Western society. The socially competent child would be able to interact effectively and appropriately in a variety of contexts (Ford, 1982; Lee, 1979).

Parental Style- The child rearing techniques selected by parents (willfully or not) to socialize their children. These techniques are used for cultural transmission, learning of roles and skills, development of self and the shaping of goal-oriented activity. It is assumed in the present investigation that parental style fall into three basic types (Baumrind, 1971, 1973; White, 1975).

Operational Definitions

Social Competency- The child's social abilities are measured by the Iowa Social Competency Scale. Twelve factors, five for the preschool form and seven for the school age form represent different components of social competency. Higher scores on the positive dimensions, i.e., social activator, reassurance, cooperation, task orientation, leadership, affection, capability, and low scores on the negative dimensions (hypersensitivity, uncooperativeness, disruption, defiance, apprehension) represent more socially competent behavior. Less socially competent behavior is demonstrated

by low scores on the positive dimensions and high scores on the negative dimensions.

Parent Behavior- Child rearing practices were assessed using the Iowa Parent Behavior Inventory. Five orthogonal factors were derived measuring different components of parenting. Father and mother responses were combined and averaged to arrive at a unitary score of parenting. Each factor had a separate score. Parents who frequently demonstrated the behaviors associated with each factor had higher scores, while infrequent behavior was indicated by low scores.

Authoritative Parental Style- Parents who scored below the median on all five factors were defined as authoritative.

Authoritative Parental Style- Parents who scored below the median on all five factors were defined as authoritarian.

Permissive Parental Style- Parents who scored above the median on intimacy and immediacy of assistance, and below the median on the remaining three factors were defined as permissive.

Urban- Places of 40,000 inhabitants or more incorporated as cities, villages, boroughs and towns, but excluding those persons living in the rural portions of extended cities.

Rural- Places not classified as urban including the rural portions of extended cities (containing one or more areas each at least five square miles in extent and with a population density of less than 100 persons per square mile). Also, it must have minimal distance from any urban area.

Assumptions

Actual parent or child behavior was never directly observed, therefore, two basic assumptions regarding such behavior were made. All behavior was measured by the parental responses on the behavior inventory and the social competency scale. It was assumed that parental responses on the behavior inventory reflected their actual child rearing behavior. Secondly, the validity of parental assessment of their children's behavior in a variety of social contexts was presumed. These two underlying assumptions were the foundation upon which the research and analyses were conducted.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

The primacy, the intimacy, and the extensive protraction of parental influence render them crucial to the formation of child personality and the development of social competency. The extensive amount of research that has been undertaken in the last fifty years is testimony to this special relationship between parent and child (Becker, 1964; Martin, 1975; Stendler, 1950). Of particular interest to parents and professionals alike, are parental styles of child rearing and their child behavioral correlates which are the foci of the present research.

Research undertaken by Baumrind (1967, 1971, 1973, 1978, 1980, 1982) has brought together the findings of other investigators by incorporating the results of unidimensional studies into a multidimensional framework. Exhaustive examinations of parental style and child competency correlates have yeilded consistent results that imply that particular parental behaviors are more benefical than others for the child's development. An extensive literature which preceded Baumrind's work has been instrumental in her research. Consequently, the investigations that led to Baumrind's classic styles are examined in the following section.

Early Studies in Parent/Child Research

Most research, particularly older studies, was characterized by abstraction. Parents were categorized in either permissive or strict dimensions and these categorizations

were related, most often implying causality, to specific types of children (Hattwick,1936; Symonds, 1939). Hattwick (1936) correlated preschool children's behavior with maternal styles and reached the following conclusions: 1) over attentive mothers produced a withdrawn child with infantile reactions; 2) irresponsible, neglecting mothers produced aggressive, delinquent children who seek attention and security; and 3) a calm, happy mother produced a cooperative child with good emotional adjustment. As the results indicated, mothers were placed either on the positive or negative side of the child rearing continuum. Symonds (1939) using a similar dichotomy, with different labels, matched 28 parents who 'dominated' their children in an 'authoritative' way with 28 parents who permitted their children much freedom and who usually acceded to their children's wishes. He found children from stricter homes more courteous, obedient and neat, but also shy, timid, withdrawing, docile and troubled. More permissive parents seemed to raise children who were more aggressive, more disobedient and who had more eating problems, but also more self-confident, better at self-expression, freer and more independent. The children manifested a combination of positive and negative consequences of strict and permissive child rearing patterns. The inadequacy of such a dichotomy becomes more dubious if one were to try to model a parental style based on such results. This artificial dichotomy was also used by Anderson (1940). His two parent groups were

either dominant, unsympathetic and lacking affection or affectionate and less dominant. Children of strict parents were more aggressive, rebellious, attention getting and emotionally unstable, while the more liberal parents had children who were more cooperative, emotionally stable, cheerful and obedient.

This trend continued through the 1950's with studies of a wide range of variables pertaining to parent behavior (Altman, 1958; Beals, 1950; Becker, Peterson, Hellmer, Shoemaker & Quay, 1959; Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Monkman, 1958; Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1957; Watson, 1957). Altman (1958) looked at the relationship between maternal attitudes and child personality variables. Accepting mothers had children who were 'intellectually original', emotionally spontaneous and emotionally free while flexible mothers had children who were 'intellectually original', vigorous, assertive and expressed total intellectual freedom. An examination of home factors by Beals (1950) indicated a single factor as the most critical in the development of a happy well adjusted child was the presence of a cooperative and democratic relationship. This relationship of child well-being to family atmosphere was the exception, however, as other researchers maintained the positive/negative dichotomy. Acceptance versus rejection were critical variables in the Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) study. Positive maternal qualities, i.e., loving and accepting, were correlated with

positive qualities in children. Accepting mothers had children who were independent, less aggressive and internalized paternal values, while rejecting mothers had children who were dependent, aggressive, and monitored their behavior based on external consequences. Further support for the acceptance/rejection dimension cited by Sears et al. (1957) was obtained by Monkman (1958). He found that well adjusted children had parents that were more accepting while maladjusted children had more rejecting parents. No significant differences were found on nine measures of personality, i.e., aggression, independence. Furthermore, obviously in response to the times, he stated there was no advantage to strict discipline in a good home. This conclusion was based upon the trend that demonstrated a consistent but non-significant advantage in all good homes regardless of discipline style. More specifically, children of permissive homes demonstrated more initiative and independence, were better socialized and more cooperative, manifested less 'inner' hostility and more admirable feelings toward others and showed a higher level of spontaneity, originality and creativity. It appeared from the foregoing conclusions that permissive parents were the harbingers of all that is good while strict parents bade ill for their children. The research results are not so clear cut. The aforementioned investigation by Symonds (1939) was an indication of the ambiguity that such a dichotomy produced.

Bronfenbrenner (1961a) indicated the complexity of the parent/child relationship as he examined responsiblity in boys and girls. Although neglect, rejection and lack of discipline have negative consequences, i.e., irresponsiblity, for boys and girls, this parental composite can neither be categorized as permissive or strict. Furthermore, moderately strong discipline was advantageous for boys while low to moderate discipline facilitated responsiblity in girls. Neither relationship between responsiblity and discipline was linear as the aforementioned literature implied. In effect there were optimal levels of authority for children, with a higher optimun level for boys than for girls.

The argument for a more dynamic explanation of parent/child relations was also found when looking at leadership qualities in children (Bronfenbrenner, 1961a). Both girls and boys manifested low leadership qualities if parents were characterized as rejecting, neglecting, absent and/or overprotective. Again the same parental behavior seems to have indicated different consequences for girls and boys if one wants to facilitate leadership qualities. High nurturance, warm relations with parents and principled discipline fostered leadership in boys while the same factors were associated with dependency in girls. As with authority, there was an optimal balance of affection and control. The danger for girls was seen as an excess of both affection and control, implying oversocialization. On the other hand, the danger for boys was

seen as an underdose of both affection and control, implying undersocialization.

Emergence of Multi-Dimensional Models

The movement away from linear, continuum-based models to a more complex, dynamic ordering of parent/child relations was promoted further by Schaefer (1959). Schaefer provided an integration of work in this area as well as a novel conceptual configuration. He undertook a secondary analysis of the data gathered by the University of California Institute of Child Welfare (Jones and Bayley, 1941). Mothers were rated on eighteen behaviors related to child interaction which could be arranged in a systematic circular order. Correlations between adjacent variables were high, but taking any one variable as a starting point and moving along the circumplex ordering, the correlations between that variable and the other variables decreased, then, became negative, and finally, became positive and high again when the circle was completed. A factor analysis of these data substantiated the notion that these behaviors could be conceptualized in a two dimensional space. Based on additional findings (Baldwin, Kalhorn & Breese, 1945) Schaefer proposed a hypothetical model. The advantage of this model was that it was not necessary to select any particular orientation as representing the "true" dimensions of parent behavior. Basically, it was a method of portraying relationships among a number of variables. Those variables that appeared close to one another on the circumplex

were likely to have similar values for a given parent. The particular arrangement of the axes on this model was arbitrary, although it does happen to conform to dimensions proposed by Symonds (1939).

Becker (1964) conducted a series of factor analyses on a large number of parent/child studies and concluded that Schaefer's two dimensional model was unable to account adequately for parental behavior. Based on his findings Becker suggested the importance of at least three dimensions in looking at parental behavior. Becker's model differed from Schaefer's in that the control versus autonomy dimension was subdivided into restrictiveness versus permissiveness and anxious-emotional involvement versus calm detachment. The warmth versus hostility dimension is defined at the warm end by such variables as accepting, affectionate, approving, child centered, frequent use of explanations, high use of praise in discipline and low use of physical punishment. The hostility dimension was defined at the restrictive end by many rules and strict enforcement of demands in such areas as table manners, toilet training, aggression to peers, noise, obedience. Anxious emotional involvement versus calm-detachment was defined at the anxious end by the following parent behaviors: high emotionality in relation to the child, babying, protectiveness and solicitousness for the child's welfare.

The three dimensional model was the forerunner to Baumrind's work on parenting style. for example, both the

democratic parent and the indulgent parent (by definition) were high on the dimensions of warmth and permissiveness, but the indulgent parent was high on emotional involvement while the democratic parent tended to be low on this dimension (calm-detachment). This type of analysis can be extended around the model, showing how the typical concepts for types of parents can be thought of as being defined by various combinations of the three dimensions of parental behavior.

Despite Becker's introduction of a three dimensional model, most research continued to utilize no more than two dimensions of parental behavior (Bayley and Schaefer, 1960; Grayson, 1969) or variations of one dimension (Brody, 1969; Crandall, 1964; Finney, 1964; Hoffman, 1960). This two dimensional focus was best exemplified by Schaefer's work. For example, Bayley and Schaefer (1960) examined loving and controlling mothers. They found that loving mothers were associated with calm, happy sons during infancy while at preschool and early childhood these same boys were characterized as friendly, cooperative, attentive children. Controlling mothers on the other hand had sons who were excitable and unhappy. These relationships held for girls as well, yet the correlations were stronger. Mothers of the well adjusted, socially outgoing children were further characterized as high in autonomy, treating their children in a more equalitarian fashion and showing more affection. For the most part these mothers fell in the upper right

quadrant of Schaefer's circumplex, i.e., autonomy-love. This is consistent with Baumrind's authoritative parent who was characterized as controlling, demanding, and nurturant.

The support for a particular parental style was further enhanced by a number of studies with a uni-dimensional emphasis (Brody, 1969; Finney, 1964; Hoffman, 1960; Robinson, 1962). Significant correlations were found between rejecting mothers with children who manifested less information seeking, less interactive play, less compliance, and more attention approval-praise seeking (Brody, 1969). The debilitating effects of rejection were demonstrated further, as neurotic children had rejecting mothers who set unrealistic goals (Robinson, 1962). Furthermore, these parents made fewer independent demands which was contrary to Baumrind's authoritative parent who set realistic goals and increasingly demanded independence (Baumrind, 1978). A by-product of rejection was unqualified power assertion. Defined as direct coercive pressure on the child to change the entire ongoing pattern of behavior, this behavior contributed to the development of hostility, power needs and heightened autonomy strivings which the child displaced toward peers (Hoffman, 1960). The use of unqualified power assertion was another parent attribute that ran counter to an authoritative style of child rearing. Finney (1964) also examined deleterious parental styles. He found that overprotective mothers had children who were submissive and cold, unloving mothers had

dependent, anxious children who were lacking in self-confidence, and hostile mothers had overtly aggressive children showing overt hostility.

It is unlikely that parents can be so easily classified as the aforementioned research implied. As Becker (1964) reasoned parents might be high on one trait while low on another or some combination thereof. Clapp (1968) attempted to codify three parental styles that would differentiate more competent from less competent four year olds. Classification was based upon global treatment of the child, as follows: 1) Type I - parents who treated their child as an adult, 2) Type II - parents who treated their child as an infant and 3) Type III - parents who treated their child as a four year old. He found that the more competent children had Type III parents, while the more dependent children had Type I or Type II parents. Thus, parents who had more realistic perceptions of their child, i.e., four year old, not an adult or infant, seemed to have the more competent children.

Baumrind's Research on Social Competence and Parent-child Relationships

Clapp's (1968) finding was consistent with Baumrind's initial work investigating parental style (Baumrind and Black, 1967). Baumrind and Black (1967) attempted to define the socialization practices that were associated with competence in preschool children. They found that parental

practices which were intellectually stimulating and to some extent, tension producing, i.e., socialization and maturity demands, appropriate punitiveness, firmness in discipline were associated with various aspects of competence in the young child. Another study (Baumrind, 1967) found similar results. Parents of more mature children were controlling, demanding and nurturant. Parents of discontented children were non-nurturant, over controlling and demanding while parents of immature children were non-controlling, non-demanding and nurturant. The child's competence was not dependent upon one aspect of parental behavior, rather, it was a complex relationship of parent behavior that facilitated this competence. The dependency upon parent behavior does not preclude the reciprocal nature of the parent-child relationship (Bell and Harper, 1977). It merely recognizes the differential roles of each participant. Dyadic and triadic systems may develop in which parent and child reinforce each other, consequently child behavior will directly influence this relationship. The parents are the initial elicitors of this relationship. Children may have temperamental differences that parents respond to, but parent-child relations depend on how parents respond to these differences (Thomas, Chess, & Birch, 1968). Thomas et al. (1968) cited a number of examples where children with similar temperaments developed different relationships with

parents because parents reacted differently to the same trait. On the other hand, children with different temperaments developed similarly because of similar parental responses. Although parents are not the sole participants in this parent/child relationship, they serve as the moderators. Consequently, the type of parent who fosters social competency in children possesses more power than the child in the parent-child dyad.

Social Competence

The concept of social competence is a relatively recent phenomenon that is presently undergoing definitional debate (Kohn and Rosman, 1972; Lee, 1979; White,1975; White & Watts, 1973; Zigler and Trickett, 1978). Kohn and Rosman (1972) derived the child's social competency via the assessment of young children's functioning in a preschool setting. Their conceptualization was based on overt classroom behavior resulting in two orthogonal dimensions of social-emotional functioning. These two dimensions were interest-participation versus apathy-withdrawal and cooperation-compliance versus anger-defiance.

A similar conceptualization has been undertaken by White & Watts (1973). They also restricted their study to preschool children, however, their analysis included mothers as well. Moreover, they differentiated many dimensions of social competence that extended beyond the

preschool setting. The following social abilities comprised their measure of social competency: 1) getting and holding the attention of adults, 2) using adults as a resource after having first determined that a job is too difficult, 3) expressing affection and moderate annoyance to adults, 4) leading and following peers, 5) expressing affection and mild annoyance to peers, 6) competing with peers, 7) showing pride in personal accomplishment and 8) engaging in role play or make believe activities. All but the last dimension were general descriptors that became more sophisticated and differentiated with increasing age.

The work of White (1975), and Kohn and Rosman (1972) were consistent with Ford's (1982) definition of social competence. More specifically, social competence was defined as the attainment of relevant social goals in specified social contexts, through the use of appropriate means that result in positive developmental outcomes. The individual was viewed as a social being interacting effectively and appropriately in a variety of contexts. This was a highly differentiated conceptualization that precludes non-goal directed behavior. Moreover, this view was a static one that quantifies social competence based upon goal attainment.

Lee (1979) proposed an alternative conceptual definition of social competence. It is "a dynamic process that draws on the individual's cognitive, linguistic and social capabilities. It is the translation of these capabilities

into functionally appropriate interpersonal strategies for use in particular and/or sociocultural contexts (p.795)." This definition implied adaptive as well as assertive behavior, thereby going beyond the attainment of specific outer-directed goals.

The aforementioned definitions were all consistent with the social competency measures developed at Iowa State University and used in this dissertation (Clark et al., 1981). They have also operationalized social competency along such dimensions as cooperation, leadership and task orientation.

The use of some measure of social competence in parent-child research has received scant examination. White (1975), White & Watts (1973) and Baumrind (1971, 1973) represented the major inroads in the area. White's research included measures of both social and nonsocial abilities, however, he differentiated between social and instrumental competence. Baumrind's research appeared to emphasize instrumental competence that is more goal directed, however, she also included indices of social abilities. Despite their measurement differences, the results of the two authors concurred regarding parental style and children's competency. The authoritative style of parenting was most efficacious for the child's development.

Cognitive Variables and Parent Style

Another group of studies which indicated the efficacy of particular parental styles or traits involved cognitive variables. A number of investigators (Bing, 1963; Crandall, 1964; Hurley, 1965; Morrow and Wilson, 1961) have examined the relationship between parent behaviors and indices of intelligence. The findings of Hurley (1965) and Crandall (1964) were limited in focus, however, their results were consistent with previous data (Becker, 1964). Hurley found an inverse relationship between the acceptance/rejection dimension and IQ scores. As IQ scores increased rejection decreased. The relationship was stronger for girls than boys and mothers seemed to exert a greater influence than fathers. Crandall examined academic achievement and found that mothers of more competent girls were less nurturant than mothers of less proficient girls. The finding was consistent with Bronfenbrenner's data (1961a, 1961b) which revealed a lower optimal level for girls than boys. However, a positive correlation between academic achievement and nurturance was found for boys. Moreover, nurturance was necessary but not sufficent to facilitate development (Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind and Black, 1967). Morrow and Wilson (1961) and Bing (1963) examined clusters of parental behaviors. Morrow and Wilson selected a group of superior students who were either high or low achievers. Relations with parents were significantly different for high achievers, as follows: they shared activities more, more ideas and confidences were

exchanged, the relationship was more approving, trusting, affectionate, and encouraging, parents were less restricting and severe in their disciplinary practices and the children seemed to manifest a greater acceptance of parental standards. In a similar vein, Bing (1963) examined a number of differential cognitive abilities of fifth grade children and their mothers. She found that children with higher scores manifested a high degree of interaction and maintained a close relationship with a significant adult. The mothers of this group were also more emotionally involved with their children, provided more attention and stimulation and also tended to make more demands.

The recognition of a more complex relationship between parental style and child behavior continued through the seventies. Very few studies (Nuttal and Nuttal, 1976; Starkey, 1978) restricted their investigation to a singular dimension of parent/child relations. Parents who were perceived as being more accepting and as using less hostile psychological control tended to have children with higher achievement traits (Nuttal and Nuttal, 1976). Likewise, Starkey (1978) found that parental acceptance was associated with higher academic performance.

The Changing Role of the Family and the Child's Self Esteem

Baumrind began the shift to a more complex and dynamic look at the family in relation to child social competence. Emphasis was no longer on specific child variables or IQ

but rather, the family was seen as a facilitator of social competence (Zigler and Trickett, 1978; Hartup, 1979). The social sphere was seen as critical for the child's development, perhaps more so than the cognitive realm (White, 1973; Shantz, 1975). A common theme in child rearing studies began to emerge that centered on a child with an affiliative, person-oriented disposition as the outcome of a nurturant attitude and acceptance of the child by the parents (Hartup & Yonas, 1971). The importance of interpersonal skill was further documented by Shilling (1979) who demonstrated that training in this area improved family interaction.

This new emphasis included a renewed interest in parental correlates of child self-esteem (Sears, 1970; Miller, 1971). Coopersmith (1967) examined maternal correlates of self-esteem in boys. Mothers of high self-esteem boys were found to have high self-esteem themselves, were more satisfied with the father's child-rearing practices, had more friendly, mutually satisfying relationships with their sons, demanded higher standards of performance, enforced rules and demands with consistency and firmness, used reasoning and discussion instead of arbitrary, punitive discipline, and used more rewards and less punishment in training the child. In essence, high self-esteem boys had an authoritative mother. These findings, providing indirect support for an authoritative parental style, were corroborated by the Sears (1970) data and the Miller (1971) study in which

positive correlations between warmth (Sears, 1970), empathy, genuineness and positive regard (Miller, 1971) and self-esteem.

Locus of Control

Further support, for an authoritative style, albeit components of this style, came from the locus of control area. A number of investigators (Allen, 1971; MacDonald, 1971; Magnum, 1976; Olejnik, 1979) examined a number of parent variables that correlated with the child's inclination for an external or internal locus of control. Children who were 'internals' had parents who were more warm, emotionally supportive, interested in sharing plans and activities, more strict yet treated their children in a more egalitarian manner, and were less critical, rejecting, neglectful and ignoring (Allen, 1971). Parents in the MacDonald (1971) study were characterized in a similar fashion. They were more nurturant, made more realistic demands, were more predictable and set specific standards for their child's behavior. Parents of external children were characterized as being more protective, using deprivation of privileges as punishment and using more affective punishment. The Magnum study (1976) also showed that internality is related to acceptance, more nurturance and consistency in discipline. Finally, the belief that an individual can affect his environment was examined developmentally, i.e., across age groups, by Olejnik (1979). The author concluded with the following recommendations: parents should adopt an authoritative style or interaction which challenges

children and avoid authoritarian and permissive styles of interaction. The importance of an internal locus of control has been well established in mental health (Harrow and Ferrante, 1979), consequently the relationship to parental style seems most revealing. The consensus of findings in the locus of control studies appeared to support the previous research that promoted the authoritative parental style.

The particular style which has received direct and indirect support is best exemplified in Baumrind's studies (1971, 1973) that began in the late sixties and early seventies, respectively. Her purpose was to identify the effects of alternative patterns of parental authority on the development of competence in young children. The first study (Baumrind, 1971) was an attempt to replicate and/or expand upon parent/child relationships found in two previous studies (Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind and Black, 1967) and to differentiate further among patterns of parental authority and measure their effects upon the behavior of preschool children. Results included the following: 1) authoritative parental behavior was clearly associated with independent, purposive behavior; 2) and authoritative parental control was associated with all indices of social responsibility in boys, and with high achievement in girls.

The Topological Approach

Baumrind's attempt to differentiate various patterns of parental authority led to classification of parents according to type or style. The first was a pilot study initiated in the early sixties (Baumrind, 1971). Children were categorized into three classifications of social competency: 1) Pattern I - children were ranked high on vitality, self-reliance, approach-avoidance tendency and self-control; 2) Pattern II - children were low on peer affiliation and vitality and not high on approach-avoidance and 3) Pattern III- children were ranked low on self-reliance, self-control and approach-avoidance. Parents were defined along four dimensions: parental control, maturity demands, clarity of parent-child communication and nurturance. Generally the results were as follows: parents of pattern I children were controlling and warm and communicated more freely with their children. They also preferred positive reinforcement to negative reinforcement to obtain compliance. In essence, it was a combination of high control and positive encouragement of the child's independent strivings, i.e., authoritative control. Parents of pattern II children preferred coercion as opposed to rational methods of control, were less nurturant and sympathetic but not less controlling (i.e., authoritarian). Parents of pattern III children manifested a more complex picture. They were less controlling than the other two parental styles however, they were warmer than parents of pattern II children, yet not as warm as parents

of pattern I children. They used withdrawal of love and ridicule, rather than power (pattern II) or reasoning (pattern I) to obtain compliance. These parents of pattern III children were identified as permissive. These results were consistent with Baumrind's previous research as well as related parent-child literature (Becker, 1964; Martin, 1975). Warmth and nurturance are necessary qualities of parenting, but needed to be tempered with appropriate control. Although stated simply, these variables appeared to be critical to the child's optimal development.

In order to replicate and extend the findings of her pilot study, Baumrind began a second study (1973) that was longitudinal in nature. She followed children and their families from preschool through adolescence. In the initial analysis families were categorized into four different styles: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and a new style labeled non-conforming. Conceptual definitions of these styles were further refined in the following way:

1) The authoritarian parent values obedience as a virtue and believes in restricting the child's autonomy . . . values the preservation of order and traditional structure as an end in itself . . . does not encourage verbal give and take, believing that the child should accept the parents word for what is right (p.13)
2) The authoritative parent . . . attempts to direct the child's activities in a rational, issue oriented manner, both autonomous self-will

> and discipined conformity are valued, . . .
> they affirm the child's present qualities, but
> also set standards for future conduct. They
> use reason, power, and shaping by regime and
> reinforcement to achieve objectives . . . (p.13).

3) The permissive parent ". . . behaves in an affirmative, acceptant, and benign manner toward the child's impulses and actions, . . . gives the child as much freedom as is consistent with the child's physical survival . . . freedom means absence of restraint . . ." (p. 14).

4) Non-conforming parents were extrapolated from the data. Although similar to permissive parents they ". . . were less passive and exerted firmer control" (p. 14). "These parents were anti-authoritarian and anti-authority, but make demands on their children" (p. 14).

Results from the first phase of this study and a later follow-up (Baumrind, 1978) indicated the differential efficacy of authoritative child-rearing as opposed to both authoritarian and permissive styles. Out of the non-conforming category a new pattern emerged, harmonious parents. In her more recent work (Baumrind, 1978), the harmonious parent was more clearly defined as follows:

> ". . . while he or she almost never exercised control, seemed to have control in the sense that the child generally took pains to intuit and to do what the

> parent wanted. The atmosphere in these families was characterized by harmony, equanimity, and later rationality " (p. 265).

While other parental styles focused on control in one way or another, harmonious parents "focused not upon control issues, but upon developing principles for resolving differences" (p. 266). The harmonious parental pattern was most advantageous for girls who were extraodinarily competent, while boys seemed to suffer from such a family atmosphere. Since these data on harmonious parents were based on a sample of six girls and two boys, they must be interpreted with caution. They are presented here to temper the advantageous position of authoritative parenting and to avoid the danger of presuming one particular style of parenting as the ideal.

Concurrent with Baumrind's series of studies, White examined parental behavior and children's social competency (White, 1975; White & Watts, 1973). Although he concentrated his efforts on the first three years of life, his results were concordant with Baumrind's. Mothers of the most competent children were stimulating, involved and geared their demands, communication and the child's environment to be congruent with the child's skills and development level. They exercised firm but consistent control and maintained a loving, nurturant relationship with their child. This atmosphere was created despite the fact that mothers often

have many other duties including part-time jobs. What they seem to do is perform, ". . . excellently the functions of designer and consultant" (White & Watts, 1973, p. 243). In essence the quality of the relationship was more important, than the quantity of the relationship.

Although Baumrind (1978) indicated the viability of alternative parental patterns, i.e. authoritative, traditional and harmonious, overall the authoritative style or components of it continued to emerge in related research as the most effective for the child's development (Baruch and Barnett, 1981; Camp, Swift and Swift, 1982; Henry, 1980; Mondell and Tyler, 1981). Baruch and Barnett (1981) examined social competency in preschool girls and found one significant factor in the more socially competent girls, an authoritative parental style. The authoritative parental pattern demonstrating firm enforcement, maturity demands and the use of reason, accounted for 25% of the variance in the child's measured social competency. Camp et al. (1982) likewise demonstrated the advantage of non-authoritarian parental patterns for children's cognitive functioning. Although Mondell and Tyler (1981) concentrated on parent behaviors, results concur with others supporting an authoritative style. They found that more competent parents treated their child as being more capable and resourceful, showed generally warm and positive feelings and were more helpful with problem solving. The design of the experiment (Mondell & Tyler, 1981) included

semi-structured parent/child sessions, yet their conclusions seemed to support many of the components of an authoritative parental style, i.e., affirmed child's qualities, valued self-will, expressed warmth.

Age-Related Trends in Parent/Child Interactions

Age related trends, albeit predominantly cross-sectional in design have not been well researched. Researchers have either gleaned changes in parent behavior as a function of the child's perceptions (Armentrout, 1970; Armentrout and Burger, 1972; Burger, Lamp and Rogers, 1975; Chen, 1981; Schaller, 1973; Weisz, 1980) or parental reports (Baldwin, 1947; Bartz, 1978; Emmerich, 1962; Schaefer and Bayley, 1963; Wenger, 1980). It seems likely the components of parental practices and outlooks would vary as the child grows older (Schiamberg, 1981; Strommen, Mckinney and Fitzgerald, 1977), yet particular styles of parenting were characterized more by their consistency (Baumrind, 1973). Parents who believe in physical punishment, and use it, are likely to continue doing so. Parents who love their children when they are three will likely conitnue to love them when they are six and nine years old. Parents who believe in giving their children some voice in decisions which affect the children, or who try to reason and talk with their children will likewise continue to do so as they grow older. At the same time, though the ways in which such parental attitudes and

practices are realized are likely to change over the course of the child's development. For example, when children start school, parental concerns about their children show a predictable increase in emphasis on the children's competence, achievement and school performance (Schiamberg & Smith, 1982). Parents using physical punishment may punish both six and twelve year olds, but what the children are punished for is likely to be different, and so are the ways in which the children are punished. Moreover, changes in the children themselves are important factors influencing changes in the specific forms of interactions which may take place between the children and their parents (Burr et al., 1979). Parents who cannot accept the changes in their children, or who are too inflexible to change their own patterns as their children develop, for example, authoritarian parents, may seriously hinder their children's psychological growth (Baumrind, 1978). Note that here, too, it is not just the parents, or just the children, but the reciprocal interaction of parent flexibility and changes in the children that influence the parent/child interaction.

The evidence supports both notions of consistency and flexibility (Armentrout & Burger, 1972; Burger et al., 1975; Chen, 1981; Weisz, 1980; Wenger, 1980). Children's perceptions of parental behaviors and attitudes change as the child gets older. Armentrout and Burger (1972) selected 635 children in grades 4 through 8 in five working class Catholic

schools of St. Louis. Each child was given the Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory. Factor analyses of the results produced three dimensions of paternal and maternal behavior: 1) acceptance versus rejection, 2) psychological control versus psychological autonomy and 3) firm control versus lax control. The first factor was self explanatory; the second refers to "covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behaviors that would not permit the child to develop as an individual apart from the parent" (p. 44) and the third indicates "the degree to which the parent makes rules and regulations, sets limits to the child's activities and enforces these rules and limits" (p. 44). Parents evinced definite shifts in their behavior as a function of their children's age. More specifically, acceptance first increased then decreased with age, while acceptance for girls began a slight upsurge at grade 8. A linear relationship was found for psychological control, decreasing with increasing age. Lax control decreased until the sixth grade but then increased through grade 8. The results, consistent with a more complex analysis of parent/child interaction, seemed to indicate an interactive effect when types of control were examined. Considering the two types of parental control together, it can be understood that as the degree of perceived psychological control exerted by parents decreased from fourth to sixth grades, the degree of reported firmness of enforcement of rules and limits increased.

Yet from sixth to eighth grades, both psychological control and firmness of control decreased. Thus, it seems that as the parents of these children relinquished intrusive and dominating methods of control, they initially compensated through increased overt rule making and limit setting and then, subsequently, relinquished these latter forms of control.

The Armentrout and Burger study (1972) represented the most complex analysis to date on changing parent behaviors as perceived by children. An earlier study by Armentrout (1970) found negative correlation between parental control and the degree of parental acceptance. Consistent with the Armentrout and Burger study (1972), Burger et al. (1975) extended the results further. Using the same measures in a cross-sectional design, they examined children from the first through fourth grade. Results concerning the two controlling factors confirmed the previously noted trend that with advancing age, children perceived a decrease in psychologically controlling behaviors and a concomitant increase in parental rule making and limit setting.

More recently, Weisz (1980) and Chen (1981) examined children's perceptions of their parents at different ages. Chen studied 2,112 children in grades one through nine. The most notable finding concerned parental demands. Children perceived that parental demands decreased with age, while the demand gradient for males was higher than for females. Utilizing a more creative technique, Weisz (1980) analyzed

published letters from 249 children who responded to the title, "Why my mom is the greatest." Contents of the letters were analyzed for age differences of the children who selected maternal behaviors for positive evaluation. References to being granted autonomy and control declined with age, while references to psychological nurturance increased with age.

The aforementioned studies included parental behavior across the total sample. Parents were treated as a homogenous group without regard for particular parental style. Schaller (1973) examined children's perceptions for the total sample, but also separated parents into a high versus low controlling group of parents. Consistent with previously stated findings, parental control decreased with age, while democratic decision making within the family increased. Taking the data one step further, the author found that expectations of future parental behavior were highly dependent on actual parental behavior. Those children whose parents were perceived as highly controlling expected high parental control in the future, while children whose parents were characterized by low control expected low future control. This conclusion does not necessarily contradict the general findings cited earlier (Armentrout and Burger, 1972; Burger et al., 1975). Within each group parents may show a decrease in control while maintaining their relative position on the high/low dimension of control. Overall there was a downward

shift, but the decrease has different ramifications for parents and their children depending upon their predisposing parental style.

Research concerning parental reports of their own behavior was neither consistent nor well documented in the literature. Moreover, the paucity of studies was evidenced by the few recent studies (Bartz, 1978; Wenger, Berg, and Berg, 1980). A study undertaken in the forties (Baldwin, 1947) included the home environment for analysis and despite the probability of cohort effects Baldwin's study was included in the present review. Results of the Baldwin study showed decreases in warmth and intellectual stimulation, but increases in restrictiveness as the child grows older, findings that seem to contradict the perception literature (Armentrout & Burger, 1972; Chen, 1980; Weisz, 1980). More recent, though still somewhat dated, work by Emmerich (1962) added to this inconsistency. His results demonstrated a seemingly random pattern of nurturance and restriction behavior. Analyzing data for children aged 6 to 10 years old, nurturance vacillated between high and low points from year to year. Measures of restrictiveness followed similar patterns. Such confusion might represent the artifical grouping of all parents as a singular entity. Analysis of parental behavior data according to style or weightings of particular factors might produce quite different results. Wenger et al. (1980) attempted to ascertain changes in

parental behavior by assessing their responses to verbal statements depicting aggressive or prosocial behavior. Each recorded statement by a child was preceded by an adult's explanatory statement describing the circumstances and identifying the child's sex and age. Although results concerned a number of variables, discussion is restricted to developmental issues. Parents judged aggressive behavior of older children as more serious than the same act by younger children. Overall the findings suggested that most parents change parenting strategies as the child undergoes developmental changes.

Age related changes in children are important considerations that should be included in the understanding of parental behavior. The characteristics of both parents and their children contribute to the ultimate relationship that emerges. For example, three year olds can be said to be in the preoperational stage, the nine year olds in the concrete operational stage, and the six year old the transitional point between the two. Summarily, the preoperational child's thought is characterized by the irreversibility of the child's thinking and the ability to attend to limited amounts of information, two characteristics that are the static states of reality (Ginsburg and Opper, 1969). The concrete operational child focuses on several aspects of a situation simultaneously, is sensitive to transformations, and can reverse the direction of thinking (Ginsburg and Opper, 1969).

Moveover, as the child moves into the concrete operational stage, the child develops the ability to inhibit or withhold immediate responses to situations, permitting more thoughtful responses to be made (White, 1965). The six year old is moving toward a higher level of cognitive functioning, consequently much of the behavior vacillates between the two periods of thought (Ginsburg and Opper, 1969).

The link between cognitive process and the social realm has been made by Shantz (1975) in a comprehensive review. This area termed social cognition refers to the, "child's intuitive or logical representation of others, that is how he characterizes others and makes inferences about their convert, inner psychological experiences " (p. 258). Based on those inferences the child acts and reacts to the social world. The consequences of such inference will, in part, be the result of the child's level of social understanding. For example, young children attended to highly observable, salient, surface cues of people and situations, e.g., they often used appearance and possessions of the person (Livesley and Bromley, 1973). This is consistent with Piaget's findings with regard to preschool children's attention to the surface cues of physical objects and events. On the other hand, older children, i.e., eight years old, demonstrated substantial changes in ways they describe people. Their descriptions were more often in terms of habits, dispositions, values, beliefs and traits, i.e., they

were more abstract descriptions based on regularities in behavior of others across time and situations (Peevers and Secord, 1973). Despite the importance of social cognition, very little work has been undertaken to investigate the developmental differences in children's perceptions of parental child-rearing practices beyond mere description (Appel, 1979). Parental standards have to be perceived and assimilated by children over time. Children must accommodate themselves progressively to these standards in order to internalize then to the extent they will increasingly guide their behavior in the absence of external restraints. What is to be perceived is not matter, length or volume as in Piaget's classic experiments, but the essential intent of parental behavior on the child's actions. Based on Piaget's theory and Shantz's conceptualization, one can hypothesize that understanding of intent would be difficult until egocentrism diminishes. The significant development according to Piaget (1962) is the discovery of intentionality coincident with the attainment of concrete operations. Until this occurs the child's grasp of the "system of relationship governing the imposition of social constraints by adults will be inadequate" (p. 189-190). The child's perceptions not only govern social restraints, but the understanding of emotions (Borke, 1971; Shantz, 1975) and role taking skills (Rubin, 1978). Increasingly age merely serves as a marker for the maturing abilities to create order out of the increasingly

complex social world. Social competency reflects this ability to attain relevant social goals using appropriate means which result in positive developmental outcomes (Ford, 1982).

Urban/Rural Factors in Parent/Child Relationships

There is considerable disagreement among social scientists concerning the importance of the rural/urban distinction in modern societies (Glenn and Hill, 1977). At least three distinctive viewpoints have some prominence. The first, best exemplified by Wirth (1938), posited direct universal effects of density, population, and heterogeneity on important aspects of social structure, culture and personality. The second position promoted by Dewey (1960) posited few if any social, cultural or personality characteristics that are specific to a rural/urban residence. Lastly, Fisher (1975) proposed an intermediate viewpoint. Whereas population size, density and heterogeneity do not have such far reaching effects as proposed by Wirth, they are conducive to innovation and unconventional wisdom. Each position represents a distinct viewpoint that might lead to extensive research investigating such differences. However, this is not the case.

The area of parent child relations is almost non-existent in comparative analysis of rural and urban families (Schiamberg, 1981; Newberger and Cook, 1983). Using size

of community as an independent variable Glenn and Hill (1977) examined existing survey data, including census and Gallup polls, regarding differences in beliefs and behaviors. The only parenting data invloved, concerned sexual issues, i.e., premarital sex, extramarital sex, homosexuality, and the ideal family size. Additional rural/urban analyses were conducted to examine recreation participation (Hendee, 1969), marital happiness and satisfaction (Thorton-Stahura, 1976), day care (Olsen, 1977) and care-givers (Conklin, 1980). This paucity of research in which rural/urban families were investigated is exemplified by two recent studies (Schiamberg, 1981; Newberger and Cook, 1983). Neither study cited one rural/urban investigation that might relate to their research. Furthermore, only the Schiamberg study has relevance for the present analysis. Although Newberger and Cook looked at both rural and urban populations, they did not compare the two groups directly. Rural samples were compared with controls as were the urban samples, therefore the differences they found related to controls. Despite this methodological shortcoming ignoring direct rural/urban comparisons, consensus of results was attained. The findings indicated that awareness of developmental issues was related to a decrease in child abuse in both rural and urban samples.

Schiamberg (1981) examined rural and urban differences item by item. More specifically, each question on the measures used, i.e., parent behavior inventory and social

competency scales, represented a variable. Differences were found between rural and urban families, however, these differences related to particular questions. Very few behaviors were significantly related to social competency in either the rural or urban sample. The remaining type of rural/urban research examined either a rural or urban sample separately (Christopherson, 1980; Bigner and Jacobson, 1980). Problems of comparability of sample, operationalization of concepts and varying procedures make comparisons of such studies a dubious venture at best.

It is readily apparent that rural/urban analysis of parenting is almost nonexistent. With the exception of Schiamberg's (1981) seminal work, very little has been undertaken to remedy this gap. If the rural/urban distinction is of diminishing importance (Glenn and Hill, 1977), such a conclusion must be based on some empirical evidence.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects were one hundred eighty children and their parents. Parents included mothers and fathers for both rural and urban samples. Families were matched as closely as possible on family income, husband and wife occupations, husband and wife age and husband and wife education. Families were selected using school district rolls. Families who met the criteria were sent a letter of inquiry plus a cover letter provided by the school districts. The criteria were as follows (see Screening questions in Appendix A for exact terminology and organization): Respondents must have lived in the area for two or more years. Both mother and father had to be present and both having continuously raised the target child from age one onward. There must have been no diagnosed developmental handicap and an expressed willingness to participate must have been received. Finally, confirmation of child characteristics, i.e., sex, age, and current educational level, was ascertained. Those families who replied were called and were included in the study if they met the appropriate criteria.

Sixty children from middle class families were randomly selected from each age group of three, six and nine year olds. Half of the children were from urban areas and half

from rural areas. Areas defined as urban by the census definition and selected for study were Lansing and Holt townships of Ingham County, Michigan. More specifically, urban included all persons living in urbanized areas and all persons living in places of 40,000 inhabitants or more incorporated as cities, villages, boroughs and towns, but excluding those persons living in the rural portions of extended cities. Rural areas were defined as any that are not urban by the census definition. The city of Lansing (population, 140,000) is bordered by Holt which is considered part of the metropolitan area. The Lansing, Holt townships are prodominated by three major employed groups: 1) state government, 2) Michigan State University and 3) the auto industry. As a further criterion no county was used in which average population was more than one hundred persons per square mile. The mean ages for the urban children were as follows: three year olds were 3 years 6 months, six year olds were 6 years 4 months and nine year olds were 9 years 4 months. The mean ages for the rural sample were: three year olds were 3 years 3 months, six year olds were 6 years 3 months and nine year olds were 9 years 4 months.

Instruments

Demographic Information- Demographic data were derived from a section of the Revised Kansas Home Interview Scale (Appendix A). Questions included family size, ordinal position of the target child in the family, age and highest

level of education attained by each parent, primary occupation of each parent and gross income of each family.

Social Competency- Social competency was measured using the Iowa Social Competency Scale (ISCS) (Appendix A) developed by Pease, Clark and Crase (1982). Both the school age form and the preschool form of the ISCS were behavioral rating scales administered to parents. Reliability estimates were computed using the Spearman-Brown formula. Construct validity was examined using a multitrait-multimethod matrix. Both construct validity and reliability estimates were done by Pease et al. (1982) at Iowa State University. Typical behavior of average or normal children as they function within the family environment was measured by the scales. The ratings were based on overt behavior observed by parents.

Either a preschool form or a school age form was completed by the parents depending on the age of the child. Sixty items on the preschool form and fifty items on the school age form focused on the social development of children. For example, items on the preschool form included such questions as: Does the child verbalize his wants?, Does the child try new things when playing by himself? Examples of questions on the school age form were: Does the child persist at tasks that appear hard for him? Does the child slam doors to release anger? Generally, the items tended to descibe a child's behavior in a variety of social situations involving parents and other adults, brothers and sisters, and neighborhood and school friends.

The premise for rating the scales was within the context of the typical behavior of an average child in a family situation. Only one child at one time was to be rated, and in general, only the behavior of that child during the month prior to the rating is considered. In this way, parents tended to avoid rating behavior that was atypical and the referent behavior is standardized in time for all parents. The ratings occur within the framework of the parents' own experience with the child. In this way opinions and evaluations of others do not enter into the ratings. Furthermore, ratings were based on observed overt behavior rather than interpretations of feelings or thoughts. Five factors were derived from the sixty items of the preschool form and seven factors from the school age form (Pease et al., 1982). Pease and her associates labeled the preschool factors social activator, hypersensitivity, reassurance, uncooperativeness and cooperativeness. The school age factors were labeled task orientation, leadership, disruption, affection, capability and defiance.

Ratings for each item range from 1-99 with 1 representing behavior that is almost never seen and 99 representing behavior that is almost always seen. A rating of 50 indicates that the parent does not know if his or her child displays the behavior described in the item more or less than the average child. This type of scale developed by Wolins and Dickinson (1973) is justified in that it produces scores which better

meet the assumptions of classical scaling theory. More specifically, the 1 to 99 ratings are used as if they are cumulative proportions. This format produces better dicrimination for item analysis, such as Schiamberg (1981) had done. When items are added to form a composite, the differences between a 1 to 5 format and a 1 to 99 format dissipate. Consequently, the use of factor scores in the present study precluded a 1 to 99 scale. Statistically, the use of a 1 to 99 scale with factor scores merely created cumbersome scores to analyze (Pease et al., 1982; Wolins and Dickinson, 1973).

Parental Style- Child rearing practices were assessed using the Iowa Parent Behavior Inventory (IPBI). Parental behavior in relation to a child was measured by this scale which is based on separate forms for mothers and fathers. Ratings were based on each parent's perception of personal behavior. For example, items on the parent inventory included such questions as: "To what extent do you explain to your child, when (s)he behaves in an unacceptable way, your reasons for not approving that kind of behavior?, Hold, pat or hug your child?" Each of the thirty-six items represented an actual behavioral situation. Five factors were derived from the individual items: 1) parental involvement, 2) limit setting, 3) immediacy of assistance, 4) reasoning guidance, and 5) intimacy.

Scores for mothers and fathers were obtained for each of the five factors. The same factor scores were then

combined for each mother/father pair to produce an average score. This average score then became the unit of analysis for parent behavior. This averaging of parental scores was similar to the procedure used by Abedor (1983). Ratings were based on a 1 to 99 scale in which 1 indicated that the parent almost always never behaved that way and 99 indicated that the parent almost always behaved that way. A rating of 50 indicated that the parent behaved that way about half the time or was not sure how often he or she behaves that way.

Design

Behavior for each child ascertained using the social competency scale. Parent behavior was based on the IPBI for each parent separately, then converted to an average score for the five factors of each mother/father pair. The resulting design included three levels of child age - 3, 6, 9 and two levels of setting - rural and urban (Table 1). Dependent measures included social competency and child rearing behavior of parents.

TABLE 1

Design of Present Study

Age	Urban	Rural*
	N	N
3 year olds	30	26
6 year olds	30	26
9 year olds	30	27

*Seven of the rural subjects were dropped due to subsequent failure to meet criteria.

Procedure

Each parent was administered the IPBI separately, while parents completed the social competency scale together. Order of presentation of the two instruments was counterbalanced, so that the competency scale was administered first half the time and IPBI first half the time. Age of child was randomized so that one age did not show order effects. Demographic data were gathered first for all participants. Direct contact was made with both parents by a graduate assistant. Both the ISCS and the IPBI were completed in the home of the families. The ISCS took approximately twenty minutes, while both the mother and father forms of the IPBI took about twenty five minutes.

The parents were grouped according to style based on their high/low median split on the five parent factors. A combined parent score was derived using a technique similar to Abedor (1983). The mother and father scores of each family for each of the five factors were summed and divided by two. This mean score reflected a combined parent score that was the unit of analysis. Based on these combined scores, parents were ranked using a median split. This ranking procedure was the same as that used by Baumrind (1967, 1971, 1973). Parents were classified as authoritarian if they scored below the median on all five factors. Authoritative parents were those who scored above the median on all five parent factors. Parents who scored above the

median on intimacy and immediacy of assistance and below the median on limit setting, reasoning guidance and parental involvement were classified as permissive. There were 36 authoritative parental pairs, 39 authoritarian parental pairs and only three permissive parental pairs. The remainder of the sample was unclassified by type (n = 91).

Analysis of the data included least squares factor analysis, Pearson product-moment correlations, t-tests, analysis of variance and stepwise regression. Factor analysis was used for the parent behavior inventory. Correlations were run with parent factors and child factors to determine the relationship between social competency and specific parenting behaviors. Following the overall correlations, the same analyses were run for the three age groups separately. The same was done for rural/urban groups. A series of t-tests were run for each of the five parent factors, between the three and six year olds, the three and nine year old group and the six and nine year old group. T-tests were also used for rural/urban comparisons. Finally, stepwise regression equations were run for each of the twelve child social competency factors to determine the relative contribution of each parent factor.

Separate analyses, i.e., ANOVA, were also undertaken for the two groups of parents that were typed authoritarian (n = 39) or authoritative (n = 36). The limited number (3)

of permissive parents precluded their participation in the analysis. Examination of age differences, rural/urban differences of levels of social competency was done using ANOVA.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Factor Description

Initially, a factor analysis was performed for the Iowa Parent Behavior Inventory (IPBI). The factor analysis for the IPBI resulted in five factors for both the mother and the father forms of the scale. These factors were the same as the ones found by Clark et al. (1981) in their use of the instrument.

The factors included:

1) Parental involvement - described a parent that is actively involved with the child. The parent physically helped the child with various tasks, involved themselves with the child's activities, played with the child and facilitated the child's problem solving despite the fact the parent may be involved elsewhere.

2) Limit setting - described a parent that consistently and explicitly sets limits and enforced them in like fashion. Consequently, predictablility was a characteristic of this parent.

3) Immediacy of assistance - desribed a parent whose response latency to the child's needs was relatively brief. Parents may interrupt their ongoing behavior to respond to expressed or implicit needs.

4) Reasoning guidance - described a parent who used reasoning to help the child understand his/her behavior and learn acceptable behavior including the reasons for acceptable or unacceptable behavior. The child's emotions were supported and consideration for the reasoning of both parent and child was considered.

5) Intimacy - described the parent who was openly affectionate physically and encouraged positive verbal expressions in the child. This inclination to openly express affection extended to situations when others were present.

Factor scores were calculated for each parent. These scores were then combined to produce an average score reflecting a parent measure (Abedor, 1983) rather than individual mother and father scores. The non-additive qualities of the scale, prevented the derivation of a global measure that included the five factors.

A factor analysis was attempted with the ISCS, however, assumptions of factor analysis require three to four times the number of subjects to variables, i.e., items on the scales (Stapleton, 1983).* Consequently, factors were the same as those used by Pease et al. (1982). Based on their use with the ISCS and the present author's analysis, the following five factors were deducted for the preschool form of the ISCS.

1) Social activator - described children who were socially acceptable to others. They tended to be initiators and interacted freely with others in a variety of situations. They not only understood instructions but were able to give instructions and explanations for others to follow. In essence, they were contributing and involved members of their family, school and neighborhood.

2) Hypersensitivity - described behavior with emotional overtones. Children who scored high on this behavior were easily upset by teasing. They often were unable to cope effectively with accidents and often misbehaved in structured situations.

3) Reassurance - children who scored high on this factor were outgoing and accepting of others, including unfamiliar people. They joined children they were unfamiliar with and responded positively to contacts initiated by strange adults. They are comfortable in situations unfamiliar to them, needing little or no support from parents in close proximity.

*Stapleton, J. Personal communication regarding statistical analyses. Michigan State University, June 6, 1983.

4) Uncooperativeness - described children who have difficulty in sharing with others. Their ability to sustain involvement in an activity was often short and often they demanded their way in activities with others. This demanded quality also manifested itself with parents.

5) Cooperativeness - described children who were aware of others and responded positively to interaction with them. They cooperated with other children, allowed others to join while also able to follow the lead of others. Self satisfaction was an important component of this factor manifested in their satisfaction with achievement. Cooperation with and consideration for others were characteristics of children scoring high on this factor.

The school age form of the ISCS was comprised of the following seven factors.

1) Task Orientation - described children who were oriented to their world. They persevered in tasks and were able to communicate or share their activities, thoughts and ideas. Children who scored high on this factor were able to relate personal experiences imaginatively and creatively and to use verbal skills in relating to others.

2) Leader - described children that were able to initiate activities that others followed. Children and adults were often willing to accept their ideas and/or suggestions. They were able to make informed decisions based upon information relative to the situation.

3) Disruption - described children who demonstrated a lack of consideration and respect for others. They tended to center on themselves, showing little or no regard for the rights of others and often must be the center of attention.

4) Affection to Parent - described children who enjoyed being with their parents. They were able to express affection to their parents easily and look forward to activities they can share. In essence they enjoyed parental companionship and were open and warm in their relationship with their parents.

5) Capable - described children who were positive and problem solving oriented. These children enjoyed exploring new things and ideas. Furthermore, they were able to amuse themselves for extended periods

of time and initiate activities on their own. They were more aware of their needs and often shared their activities with parent and peers.

6) Defiance - described behavior that has negative emotional overtones. They tended to respond to pressures for conformity by overt negative physical and verbal behavior. They did not like being corrected, often complained about not having their own way. They reacted to limits by sulking or expressing anger or becoming defiant. They usually had poor self-concepts represented by their negative statements about themselves and others.

7) Apprehension - described children's ability to cope with anxiety. Children who scored high on this factor were concerned about the correctness of their behavior, appeared sensitive to criticism and were often disturbed when corrected in a given situation.

Following Baumrind's (1971, 1973) procedure median scores were obtained on each parent factor to better discriminate parental style. Parents were ranked high or low on each factor depending on their position above and below the median. Unlike Baumrind and others (Becker, 1964; Martin, 1975), analyses in this study were undertaken using a combined parent score. The resulting median split produced two distinct parental styles and one large group that demonstrated no consistent pattern. The first group, roughly corresponding to the authoritative parental style scored high on all the parent factors (n = 36). The second group which scored low on all five parent factors was comparable to Baumrind's authoritarian parental style (n = 39). The remaining parents (n = 91) demonstrated no consistent pattern of high or low on the parent factors,

rather the variety of high/low combinations was so great that categorization was impossible. Only three parents corresponded to a permissive pattern.

A variety of subsequent analyses were run to determine the relationship between parent factors and child social competency factors. The relative absence of permissive parents simplified the analyses considerably.

Overall Relationship of Parent Factors and Social Competency

Initially, the data were analyzed using pearson product-moment correlations to ascertain the overall relationship between the child's social competency and parental behaviors, i.e., factors. Separate analyses were then undertaken to test the specific hypotheses. Because the authoritative parent was defined as scoring high on all parent factors, it was expected that positive correlations would result with the following social competency factors: social activator, reassurance and cooperativeness for the preschool children, and task orientation, leader, affectionate and capable for the school age children. Negative correlations should exist for the remaining factors.

Pearson product-moment correlations were run to determine the extent of association between the five parent factors and the twelve social competency factors (five preschool and seven school age). Overall correlations were run first, collapsing across age and setting for the school

age children. Preschool children were not included in this preliminary analysis as their social competency factors were different from the school age group. A number of significant correlations were found, although not always in the predicted directions (Table 2). The factor labeled parental involvement was positively correlated with all factors of the school age ISCS. Significant correlations were quite extensive, albeit accounting for very little of the variance. The factors disruption and apprehension denote low levels of social competency were positively associated with parental involvement.

The second parent factor, limit setting, was also positively related with a number of child factors. Although statistical significance was high in many cases, significance was quite low. The trend held thoughout. All child factors were associated with limit setting except for the factor labeled defiant which showed no relationship. The school age form also showed a positive correlation between limit setting and the disruption factor, a relationship that was in the opposite direction expected.

Significant correlations were revealed between the third parent factor, immediacy of assistance, and five of the school age factors. Significant positive correlations ranged from $r = .16$ to $r = .37$. All correlations except defiance were positive, although it was predicted that those child factors denoting low social competence (disruption and apprehension) would show an inverse relationship.

TABLE 2

Overall Correlations Between Parental Factors and Child Factors

Parent Factor	School Age Factor						
	Task Orientation	Leader	Disruption	Affection	Capable	Defiance	Apprehension
Parental Involvement	.17*	.06*	.15*	.21**	.28***	.08	.35***
Limit Setting	.17*	.15*	.17*	.30***	.24**	.06	.36***
Immediacy of Assistance	.16*	.02	.31***	.27**	.30***	.00	.37***
Reasoning Guidance	.26**	.07	.08	.24**	.31***	-.02	.33***
Intimacy	.10	.14	.16*	.31***	.34***	-.00	.39***

n = 113

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

The fourth parent factor, reasoning guidance, produced four significant correlations with the school age factors, task orientation, affection, capable and apprehension. Three of the four relationships were in the predicted direction, with the one exception being apprehension.

Intimacy, the final parent factor under investigation was positively correlated with five school age factors. The child factors labeled affection, capable and apprehension were all highly significant, $p < .0001$. The fourth factor disruption produced a much lower correlation, $r = .16$, $p < .05$, accounting for very little of the variance. Again, only two of the child factors were in the predicted direction.

The preliminary correlational data maintained this trend of unexpected results throughout the correlational analyses. Although a majority of the relationships between parent factors and social competency were in the predicted direction, the negative components of social behavior did not follow prediction. Correlations were expected to be negative. This was particularly true of the school age factor apprehension and the preschool age factor of uncooperativeness which will be presented later.

Relationship Between Parent Factors and Social Competency by Age of Child

Further correlational analyses were run as a discriminating variable. As expected from the overall result, age was correlated with a number of variables, with the six year old group showing the greater number of significant correlations.

Data for the three year olds were significantly correlated with three of the five factors on the preschool form of the social competency scale (Table 3). Parental involvement was significantly correlated with the following factors: social activator, uncooperativeness, cooperativeness. The uncooperativeness factor was not in the predicted direction, although the remaining two factors were.

The parental factor of limit setting was associated with the same social competency factors, with coefficients ranging from $r = .22$ to $r = .28$, $p < .05$. All correlations were positive. Similar results were found for immediacy of assistance; correlations ranged from $r = .21$ to $r = .25$, $p < .05$. The last two parent factors reasoning guidance and intimacy were associated with only two (uncooperativeness and cooperativeness) and one (cooperativeness) social competency factors, respectively.

The greatest number of significant correlations were found for the six year old group (Table 4). Moreover, this group of coefficients were with few exceptions highly significant in the statistical sense ($p < .01$). Parental involvement was associated with all child factors except the factor labeled defiance. Correlation coefficients ranged from .21 to .44. All were positive correlations. The factors labeled task oriented, leader, affection and capable were all in the predicted direction. The remaining two factor, disruption and apprehension, were not.

TABLE 3

Correlations Between Parental Factors and Child Factors (three years old)

Parent Factor	Child Factor				
	Social Activator	Hyper-sensitivity	Reassurance	Uncooper-ativeness	Cooper-ativeness
Parental Involvement	.27*	.07	.15	.38**	.25*
Limit Setting	.22*	.17	.07	.23*	.28*
Immediacy of Assistance	.21*	.01	.18	.25*	.21*
Reasoning Guidance	.18	.08	.11	.26*	.24*
Intimacy	.07	-.03	.03	.10	.23*

n = 56

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

TABLE 4

Correlations Between Parental Factors
and Child Factors (six year old)

Parent Factor	Child Factor						
	Task Orientation	Leader	Disruption	Affection	Capable	Defiance	Apprehension
Parental Involvement	.26*	.21*	.31**	.26*	.44***	.07	.44***
Limit Setting	.24*	.17	.34**	.36**	.23*	-.07	.46***
Immediacy of Assistance	.39***	.21*	.34**	.26*	.46***	.00	.39***
Reasoning Guidance	.24*	.16	.12	.26	.31**	-.07	.35**
Intimacy	.05	.17	.13	.19	.32**	-.06	.34**

n = 56
*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

The second parent factor, limit setting, was significantly correlated with five of the child factors. Positive correlations in the expected direction were obtained for task orientation, affection and capable child factors. Despite prediction of an inverse relationship for the apprehension and disruption dimensions of the child's social competency, significant positive correlations were obtained, $r = .46$, $p < .001$; $r = .24$, $p < .03$, respectively.

Immediacy of assistance followed the trends of the previous two parental factors, resulting in highly significant correlations for almost all child factors on the social competency scales. Correlations ranged from $r = .21$ to $r = .46$. Four of the coefficients were the predicted direction while the coefficients for disruption and apprehension were opposite from the expected direction.

As in the overall correlational analysis, factors began to drop out for the last two parental scores (reasoning guidance and intimacy). The fourth, reasoning guidance, was significantly associated with four of the factors on the social competency scales. Three of the four were in the predicted direction, the one exception being the apprehension child factor, $r = .35$, $p < .001$. Factors labeled task orientation, affection and capable were all significantly related to the reasoning guidance factor on the parent inventory. The final parent factor considered was intimacy. Two highly significant correlations were shown for the

child factors of capable and apprehension resulting in the following correlations, $r = .32$, $p < .008$; $r = .34$, $p < .004$, respectively.

The parental factor scores for the nine year olds demonstrated a different pattern of association (Table 5). Unlike the other two age groups, parental involvement was associated with only one indice of social competency, apprehension, $r = .24$, $p < .03$. Again this result runs counter to the hypothesized direction as a high score on this factor denotes a less socially competent child.

The second parental factor, limit setting, was significantly correlated with two factors on the child's social competency scale. The dimension labeled capable produced a coefficient of, $r = .25$, $p < .02$, while apprehension resulted in a value of $r = .23$, $p < .03$.

The factors of immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance and intimacy were associated with greater numbers of factors on the social competency scale, although none of the parental factors demonstrated as pervasive an association as for other age groups. Three child factors were associated with the parent factor, immediacy of assistance. Correlations ranged from, $r = .29$, $p < .01$ to $r = .34$, $p < .004$. Only one coefficient was in the predicted direction, the dimension labeled affection. The importance of reasoning guidance for nine year olds is demonstrated by the greater number of child factors associated with this parent factor. Task

TABLE 5

Correlations Between Parental Factors
and Child Factors (nine years old)

Parent Factor	Child Factor						
	Task Orientation	Leader	Disruption	Affection	Capable	Defiance	Apprehension
Parental Involvement	.08	-.09	-.00	.16	.15	.07	.24*
Limit Setting	.10	.14	.00	.20	.25*	-.05	.23*
Immediacy of Assistance	-.04	-.15	.29**	.27*	.17	-.01	.34**
Reasoning Guidance	.26*	-.02	.03	.21*	.31**	.02	.29**
Intimacy	.13	.11	.19	.45***	.37**	.07	.44***

n = 57
*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

orientation, affection, capable and apprehension were all significantly correlated with reasoning guidance. All but the apprehensive factor, $r = .29$, $p < .01$ were in the predicted direction. The final factor, termed intimacy, revealed three significant correlations. These three correlations produced the highest coefficients for the nine year old subgroup. Again the apprehension factor was opposite the predicted direction.

Rural/Urban Location as a Factor

The final correlational analyses were performed using the rural/urban dimension as a differentiating factor. Unlike the age variable, few significant relationships resulted. Only three parent factors were associated with child factors for the urban sample (Table 6). Furthermore, not one preschool factor was associated with any of the parental factors. The factors were often just significant (p .05). Parental involvement was linked to three child factors including affection, capable and apprehension. Coefficients were quite similar, $r = .17$ to $r = .19$, $p < .05$.

Immediacy of assistance and limit setting were the remaining factors producing significant coefficients, each demonstrating relationships with three child factors. Limit setting was correlated with the affection, capable and apprehension dimensions. Again correlations were quite similar. Likewise, immediacy of assistance produced three significant correlations. The disruption, affection and apprehension factors were responsible for the significant correlations.

TABLE 6

Correlations Between Parental Factors
and Child Factors (urban)

Parent Factor	Child Factor						
	Task Orientation	Leader	Disruption	Affection	Capable	Defiant	Apprehension
Parental Involvement	.14	.14	.16	.18*	.17*	.15	.19*
Limit Setting	.15	.13	.14	.18*	.18*	.12	.20*
Immediacy of Assistance	.13	.11	.16	.17*	.14	.08	.19*
Reasoning Guidance	.11	.08	.10	.13	.12	.04	.13
Intimacy	.01	.04	.05	.08	.10	.02	.10

n = 79

*$p < .05$

TABLE 7 ·

Correlations Between Parental Factors
and Child Factors (rural)

Parent Factor	Child Factor						
	Task Orientation	Leader	Disruption	Affectionate	Capable	Defiant	Apprehension
Parental Involvement	.16	.11	.12	.13	.16	.12	.19*
Limit Setting	.18*	.19*	.18*	.19*	.17	.12	.23*
Immediacy of Assistance	.18*	.15	.18*	.16	.21*	.17	.23*
Reasoning Guidance	.10	.05	.04	.07	.09	.05	.13
Intimacy	.00	.00	-.01	.00	.00	-.04	.06

n = 90

*$p < .05$

The rural dimension had an equal number of significant correlations, although distributed somewhat differently (Table 7). With one exception, a relationship was revealed for only two parental factors with child social competency. The exception was parental involvement with the apprehension dimension, $r = .19$, $p < .04$. The parent factor, limit setting, resulted in the greatest number of significant correlations for the rural sample. The child factors associated with limit setting included task oriented, leader, disruptive, affectionate and apprehensive. As with the urban sample, the range of correlations was small, $r = .18$ to $r = .23$ and most were just barely significant.

Immediacy of assistance was the other parent factor that revealed significant correlations. Four correlations were found to be significant. Task oriention, disruptive, capable and apprehensive were the child factors associated with immediacy of assistance. The task orientation and capable factors were in the predicted direction, the other two factors were contrary to prediction.

Authoritative versus Authoritarian Style and the Child's Social Competency

The foregoing correlational analyses have provided some indirect evidence supporting the authoritative parental style. Since high scores on the five parent factors denoted this style, significant correlations related back to this style. More specifically, as the child's social competency scores increased so did the parental scores on the five factors, however, the results did not address directly the

issues of different styles. Additional analyses were run to address this issue and test the following hypotheses directly.

> Hypothesis 1) Higher social competency scores in children at all ages are associated to a greater degree with authoritative parental style than with permissive or authoritarian styles.
>
> Hypothesis 2) Lower social competency scores in children at all ages are more likely to be associated with authoritarian parental style than with permissive or authoritative styles.
>
> Hypothesis 3) Children who fall in the mid ranges of social competency at all ages are associated to a greater degree with permissive and/or authoritarian parental styles than with authoritative style.

Given the a forementioned operational definitions of the authoritative (high scores on the five parent factors) and authoritarian (low scores on the five parent factors) style, ANOVA's were run for each age group (Table 8, 9, 10). Permissive parents were excluded from the analysis due to insufficient numbers (n = 3).

Measures of preschool social competency revealed no significant main effects. Based on the correlational data, it was expected that the factors social activator, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24)= 1.785, $p < .19$; uncooperativeness, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 2.749, $p < .11$; and cooperativeness, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 2.749, $p < .12$, would reveal significant differences. As can be seen from the low F values and levels of significance, these three factors were not significant. The remaining two preschool factors were also not significant.

TABLE 8

Summary Table for Child Factors (Preschool)
by Group (Authoritarian and Authoritative)

Social Activator

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Significance
Main Effects	1	479343.12	1479343	1.78	.195
Explained	1	479343.12	1479343	1.78	.195
Residual	23	6174991	23268477	1.78	.195
Total	24	665433	24277263		

Hypersensitivity

Main Effects	1	4241.15	4241	.140	.712
Explained	1	4241.15	4241	.140	.712
Residual	23	697196.	30312	.140	.712
Total	24	707437	27226		

Reassurance

Main Effects	1	55377	55377	.674	.420
Explained	1	55377	55377	.674	.42
Residual	23	1888437	82105	.674	.42
Total	24	1943815	80992		

Uncooperativeness

Main effects	1	110379	110379	2.749	.11
Explained	1	110379	110379	2.749	.11
Residual	23	923462	40150	2.749	.11
Total	24	1033841	43076		

Cooperativeness

Main Effects	1	75319	75319	2.53	.125
Explained	1	75319	75319	2.53	.125
Residual	23	684755	29771	2.53	.125
Total	24	760074	31669		

TABLE 9

Summary Table for Child Factors (Six Year Olds) by Group (Authoritarian and Authoritive)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Significance of F
Task Orientation					
Main Effects	1	78597	78597	7.36*	.01
Explained	1	78597	78597	7.36*	.01
Residual	23	245586	10677	7.36	.01
Total	24	324183	.3507		
Leader					
Main Effects	1	58611	58611	.815	376
Explained	1	58611	58611	.815	.376
Residual	23	1654792	71947	.815	.376
Total	24	1713404	71391		
Disruption					
Main Effects	1	150027	150027	3.16	.08
Explained	1	150027	150027	3.16	.08
Residual	23	1090547	47415	3.16	.08
Total	24	1240574	51690		
Affection					
Main Effects	1	190918	1190918	6.78*	.01
Explained	1	190918	1190918	6.78*	.01
Residual	23	646956	28128	6.78	.01
Total	24	837874	34911		
Capable					
Main Effects	1	446896	446896	13.09**	.001
Explained	1	446896	446896	13.09**	.001
Residual	23	785177	34138	13.09**	.001
Total	24	1232073	51336		

TABLE 9(Cont.)

Disruption

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Significance of F
Main Effects	1	8029	8029	.261	.614
Explained	1	8029	8029	.261	.614
Residual	23	707161	30746	.261	.614
Total	24	715141	29799		

Apprehension

Main Effects	1	234646	234646	12.74*	002
Explained	1	234646	234646	12.74*	002
Residual	23	423448	18410	12.74*	002
Total	24	658095	27420		

TABLE 10

Summary Table for Child Factors (Nine year Olds) by Group (Authoritarian and Authoritative)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Significance of F
Task Orientation					
Main Effects	1	18647	18647	.598	.447
Explained	1	18647	18647	.598	.447
Residual	23	716728	31162	.598	.447
Total	24	735376	30640		
Leader					
Main Effects	1	44163	44163	.934	.344
Explained	1	44163	44163	.934	.344
Residual	23	1087325	47275	.934	.344
Total	24	1131489	47145		
Disruption					
Main Effects	1	17728	17728	.359	.555
Explained	1	17728	17728	.359	.555
Residual	23	1136635	49418	.359	.555
Total	24	1154364	48098		
Affection					
Main Effects	1	68083	68083	3.84	.06
Explained	1	68083	68083	3.84	.06
Residual	23	407538	17719	3.84	.06
Total	24	475622	19817		
Capable					
Main Effects	1	235500	235500	4.59*	.04
Explained	1	235500	235500	4.59*	.04
Residual	23	1179171	51268	4.59	.04
Total	24	1414672	58944		

TABLE 10 (Cont.)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Significance of F
		Disruption			
Main Effects	1	4822	4822	.274	.606
Explained	1	4822	4822	.274	.606
Residual	23	404513	17587	.274	.606
Total	24	409336	17055		
		Apprehension			
Main Effects	1	144838	144838	10.77*	.003
Explained	1	144838	144838	10.77*	.003
Residual	23	309279	13446	10.77	.003
Total	24	454117	18921		

Interpretation of the aforementioned results requires caution. Although parental style clearly relates to these five factors, it may have marginal impact on the social competency of three year olds. The difference in parental style may not be as important for this age group.

The analysis of the six year old children followed the correlational patterns set earlier. As in the correlational data, the greatest number of significant results were found in this group. Moreover, parental style revealed significant main effects for the same social competency factors: task orientation, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 7.36, $p < .01$; disruption, $\underline{F}$ (1,24) = 3.16, $p < .08$; affection, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 6.78, $p < .01$; capable, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 13.09, $p < .001$; and apprehension, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 12.74, $p < .002$. the lowest value was associated with the factor disruption, although it was not significant. Like the factor apprehension, it was expected that children scoring high on these two factors would be associated with the authoritarian style, not the authoritative one. Despite this contradiction, the authoritative parent appears to foster certain components of social competency in the six year old. The unquestioned position of the authoritative style may warrant closer scrutiny based on these contradictions.

The data for nine year olds, like that for three year olds and six year olds, followed the lead of the correlational analyses. Parental style revealed a significant main effect for two social competency factors: capable, $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 4.59, $p < .04$ and apprehension $\underline{F}$ (1, 24) = 10.77, $p < .003$.

The results of the nine year old children were consistent with the other age groups. Parental style impacted upon the social competency of children, however, the authoritative parental style may foster socially incompetent behavior as well as socially competent behavior.

Based on the correlational data and the ANOVA's, some decisions can be made regarding hypotheses one, two and three. Each hypothesis will be treated separately. The permissive parental style was omitted from consideration here, for reasons stated earlier.

> Hypothesis 1) Higher social competency scores in children of all ages are associated to a greater degree with authoritative parental rather than with permissive or authoritarian styles.

Using the indirect evidence of the correlational data and the number of significant main effects revealed by parental style, one can conclude that the authoritative style was associated to a greater degree with higher social competency scores than the authoritarian style. The authoritative style was associated with the following competent behaviors: social activator, cooperativeness, task orientation, capable and affection, however, it was also associated with less socially competent behavior: uncooperativeness, disruption and apprehension on the hypothesis is supported, however, the relationship that was revealed with the negative dimensions of social competency warrents further investigation.

> Hypothesis 2) Lower social competency scores in children of all ages are more likey to be associated to a greater degree with authoritarian parental style than with permissive or authoritarian styles.

The results obtained from the ANOVA's represented the basis for support of this hypothesis. The main effects for the various social competency factors revealed differential efficacy of the authoritative parental style. Lower social competency scores were associated with the authoritarian style.

> Hypothesis 3) Children who fall in the mid-ranges of social competency of all ages, are associated to a greater degree with permissive and/or authoritarian parental styles rather than authoritative.

Although the mid ranges were not associated with the authoritative style, it can not be stated unequivocally that they are associated with the authoritarian style to a greater degree. This hypothesis was rejected.

Finally regarding all three hypotheses, results revealed that the age of the child mitigated the findings somewhat. Some relationships were stronger and different factors more pervasive depending upon the child's age. More significant correlations and main effects were found with the six year old group than the other two combined. It is a trend that may belie the six year old's transitional nature, i.e., cognitively, socially, institutionally, that requires more parental involvement.

Age Related Trends

Hypothesis 4) Parents of 9 year old children are less involved than parents of 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds are less involved than parents of 3 year olds.

Hypothesis 5) Parents of 9 year old children set fewer limits than parents of 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds set fewer limits than parents of 3 year olds.

Hypothesis 6) Parents of 9 year old children decrease their immediacy of assistance relative to 6 and 3 year olds, assistance relative to 3 year olds.

Hypothesis 7) Parents of 9 year old children use more reasoning guidance than parents of 6 and 3 year olds, and parents of 6 year olds use more reasoning guidance than parents of 3 year olds.

Hypothesis 8) Parents of 9, 6 and 3 year old children show no differences in level of intimacy.

To test these hypotheses a series of t-tests were run. It was predicted that scores on the parent factor would change as a function of the child's age. More specifically, the parents of nine year olds would exhibit different frequencies of parent behaviors than parents of six year old children, and parents of both six and nine year old children would differ trom three year olds. A series of t-tests (Table 11) were run for each of the five parent factor between the three and six year old group, the three and nine year old group, and the six and nine year old group. No significant differences were found between any of the groups, therefore hypotheses four, five, six and seven were rejected. Although differences were expected for

TABLE 11

T-tests for Age Differences in Parent Behavior

Parent Factor	n	F	prob.	T value	df
	3 and 6 year olds				
parental involvement	112	1.23	.44	-.95	110
limit setting	112	1.23	.66	-1.49	110
immediacy of assistance	112	1.25	.41	-1.07	110
reasoning guidance	112	1.52	.12	-.39	110
intimacy	112	1.39	.22	.19	110
	3 and 9 year olds				
parental involvement	113	1.57	.12	-1.81	111
limit setting	113	1.01	.96	-1.68	111
immediacy of assistance	113	1.18	.53	-1.84	111
reasoning guidance	113	1.10	.71	-1.01	111
intimacy	113	1.11	.70	-.02	111
	6 and 9 year olds				
parental involvement	113	1.23	.45	-.86	111
limit setting	113	1.14	.62	-.13	111
immediacy of assistance	113	1.06	.83	-.72	111
reasoning guidance	113	1.37	.24	-.52	111
intimacy	113	1.25	.40	-.21	111

involvement, limit setting, immediacy of assistance and reasoning guidance, no differences were predicted for levels of intimacy. The fact that no differences were found in levels of intimacy would lead one to infer support for hypothesis eight. Based on this, hypothesis eight has not been rejected.

Rural/Urban Environment

> Hypothesis 11) There is no difference in the incidence of authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parental styles between rural and urban families.
>
> Hypothesis 12) There are no developmental differences in parental involvement, limit setting, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance and intimacy between rural and urban children.
>
> Hypothesis 13) There is no difference in the relationship between parental style and social competency in rural and urban families.

The issue of rural/urban environments and the possibility of differences is subject to several positions, therefore, null hypotheses were basis of the analyses. As with age groups, t-tests were run between the total rural/urban sample. No significant differences were found based on place of residence with regard to the incidence of parental style, levels of social competency or age trends. As can be seen from the aforementioned correlations, (Table 6 and 7), the rural/urban variable was associated with few of the child and parental factors. Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Stepwise Regression Analyses

Based on the number of significant correlations between parental factors and child factors, regression equations were run for each child factor (Table 12 through 23). Overall stepwise regression revealed a number of significant findings which are discussed individually by child factor. No significant findings were found for the school age factors of task orientation (Table 12), leader (Table 13) or defiance (Table 17) and no significant findings resulted from the preschool factors of hypersensitivity (Table 20) and reassurance (Table 21). The parental factors immediacy of assistance and reasoning guidance were significantly related to the disruption (Table 14) child factor, ($F = 11.95$, $p < .001$; $F = 5.87$, $p < .01$, respectively). The immediacy of assistance factor accounted for 9% of the variance ($p < .001$). The relationship between parental intimacy factor and the child affection (Table 15) factor was highly significant $F(11.86$, $p < .001)$, accounting for 9% of the variance. A similar relaionship was found between the capable (Table 16) dimension of social competency and the parental intimacy factor ($F = 14.71$, $p < .0001$). This relationship accounted for 11% of the variance. Finally, the apprehension (Table 18) school age factor was accounted for by parental intimacy and immediacy of assistance ($F = 20.43$, $p < .0001$; $F = 5.19$, $p < .025$, respectively). The intimacy factor accounted for 15% of the variance, when combined with immediacy of assistance the two factors accounted

TABLE 12

Stepwise Regression Summary Table for Task Orientation (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	multiple R	R square	Overall F
Limit setting	4.21	.06	.17	.02	4.21
Intimacy	2.09	.15	.20	.04	3.55
Immediacy of Assistance	1.29	.25	.22	.04	2.80
Parental Involvement	.22	.63	.22	.04	2.15
Reasoning Guidance	.12	.72	.72	.04	1.73

n = 113

TABLE 13

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For Leader (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	multiple R	R square	Overall F
Limit setting	2.74	.10	.15	.02	2.74
Immediacy of Assistance	1.51	.28	.18	.03	1.95
Intimacy	.76	.38	.20	.04	1.55
Reasoning Guidance	.33	.56	.20	.04	1.24
Parental Involvement	.17	.67	.21	.04	1.01

n = 113

TABLE 14

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For
Disruption (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	multiple R	R square	Overall F
Immediacy of Assistance	11.95	.001	.31	.09	11.95
Reasoning Guidance	5.87	.017	.37	.14	9.17
Intimacy	2.26	.13	.40	.16	6.94
Limit Setting	.43	.51	.40	.16	6.28
Parental Involvement	.14	.70	.40	.16	4.22

n = 113

TABLE 15

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For
Affection (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	multiple R	R square	Overall F
Intimacy	11.86	.001	.31	.09	11.86
Immediacy of Assistance	1.96	.16	.33	.11	6.96
Limit Setting	.68	.44	.34	.11	4.82
Reasoning Guidance	.65	.41	.35	.12	3.77
Parental Involvement	.13	.71	.35	.12	3.02

n = 113

TABLE 16

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For
Capable (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	multiple R	R square	Overall F
Intimacy	14.71	.000	.34	.11	14.71
Immediacy of Assistance	2.57	.111	.37	.13	8.7
Parental Involvement	.30	.585	.37	.13	5.8
Limit Setting	.49	.484	.37	.14	4.5
Reasoning Guidance	.14	.708	.38	.14	3.62

n = 113

TABLE 17

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For
Defiance (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	multiple R	R square	Overall F
Parental Involvement	.73	.39	.08	.00	.73
Limit Setting	3.32	.07	.18	.03	2.03
Intimacy	.02	.87	.18	.03	1.35
Reasoning Guidance	.03	.84	.19	.03	1.01

n = 113

TABLE 18

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For
Apprehension (School Age)

Parent Factor	F	sig	Multiple R	R square	Overall F
Intimacy	20.43	.000	.39	.15	20.43
Immediacy of Assistance	5.19	.025	.43	.19	13.20
Parental Involvement	.75	.38	.44	.19	9.03
Reasoning Guidance	.50	.47	.45	.20	6.87
Limit Setting	.31	.57	.45	.20	6.52

n = 113

TABLE 19

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For
Social Activator (Preschool)

Parent Factor	F	sig	Multiple R	R square	Overall F
Parental Involvement	4.41	.04	.27	.07	4.41
Immediacy of Assistance	.23	.63	.28	.07	2.29
Reasoning Guidance	.54	.46	.29	.08	1.69
Limit Setting	.30	.58	.30	.09	1.33
Intimacy	.11	.73	.31	.09	1.06

n = 56

TABLE 20

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For Hypersensitivity (Preschool)

Parent Factor	F	sig	Multiple R	R square	Overall F
Limit Setting	1.78	.18	.17	.03	1.78
Intimacy	1.52	.22	.24	.05	1.66
Immediacy of Assistance	.32	.57	.25	.06	1.20
Parental Involvement	.07	.78	.25	.06	.90
Reasoning Guidance	.01	.89	.25	.06	.71

n = 56

TABLE 21

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For Reassurance (Preschool)

Parent Factor	F	sig	Multiple R	R square	Overall F
Immediacy of Assistance	1.81	.18	.18	.03	.81
Intimacy	.27	.60	.19	.03	.03
Parental Involvement	.27	.60	.20	.04	.76
Reasoning Guidance	.21	.64	.21	.04	.11
Limit Setting	.06	.80	.21	.04	.07

n = 56

TABLE 22

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For Uncooperativeness (Preschool)

Parent Factor	F	sig	Multiple R	R square	Overall F
Parental Involvement	9.50	.003	.38	.14	9.50
Reasoning Guidance	.33	.56	.39	.15	4.86
Immediacy of Assistance	.27	.60	.39	.15	3.28
Intimacy	.11	.73	.40	.16	2.45

n = 56

TABLE 23

Stepwise Regression Summary Table For Cooperativeness (Preschool)

Parent Factor	F	sig	Multiple R	R square	Overall F
Limit Setting	4.81	.03	.28	.08	4.81
Intimacy	.38	.53	.29	.08	2.51
Parental Involvement	.26	.60	.30	.09	1.78
Reasoning Guidance	.09	.75	.30	.09	1.33
Immediacy of Assistance	.04	.84	.30	.09	.05

n = 56

for 19% of the variance. Summarily, all remaining parent factors for each child factor produced no significant additional contribution to the child's social competency.

The three preschool factors that produced significant results demonstrated unitary relationships. The social activator (Table 19) dimension resulted in an $F = 4.41$ ($p < .04$) with parental involvement, accounting for 7% of the variance. This relationship is marginally significant. The uncooperativeness (Table 21) dimension was also significantly related to parental involvement ($F = 9.5$, $p < .003$), however, a greater proportion of the variance was accounted for (15%). Finally, limit setting and cooperativeness (Table 23) resulted in the following F value (4.8, $p < .03$), accounting for 8% of the variance. Again the remaining parent factors contributed no significant combined effect.

Age Trends as a Function of Parental Style

9) The authoritative parent, is more likely to follow the age changes listed in hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

10) The authoritarian parent will be the least likely to demonstrate age changes listed in hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

It was hypothesized that authoritative parents would evince changes in components of their style to a greater extent than authoritarian parents based on their belief systems regarding child development. An examination of age differences using ANOVA revealed no main effects for age. None of five parent factors evinced changes based on the

child's age. Subsequently inspection of data revealed some pertinent, though non-significant, trends (Figure 1 through Figure 5). Mean scores of the five parent factors across the children's ages were decidedly different for the two groups. Two of the five factors for the authoritative parents produced curvilinear results. Parental involvement and limit setting means were lower for the three and nine year olds, peaking for the six year olds. Results for immediacy of assistance increased slightly from three to six years, remaining stable from six to nine; while intimacy was consistently high for the authoritative group.

The low or authoritarian group produced quite different trends. All but one of the parent factors increased with age. Moreover, the high parental scores attained on the parent factors at age nine were less for the authoritarian parent than the lowest scores of the authoritative parent. the one factor that did not follow this trend was intimacy. Levels of intimacy decreased for the six year olds before rising again for nine year olds.

Although the size of the remaining group of subjects (n = 105) precluded statistical analyses, examination of mean scores for this group demonstrated particular results. Four of the parent factors manifested relatively flat slopes across ages, parents maintained their relative levels on each factor. The one exception was limit setting which

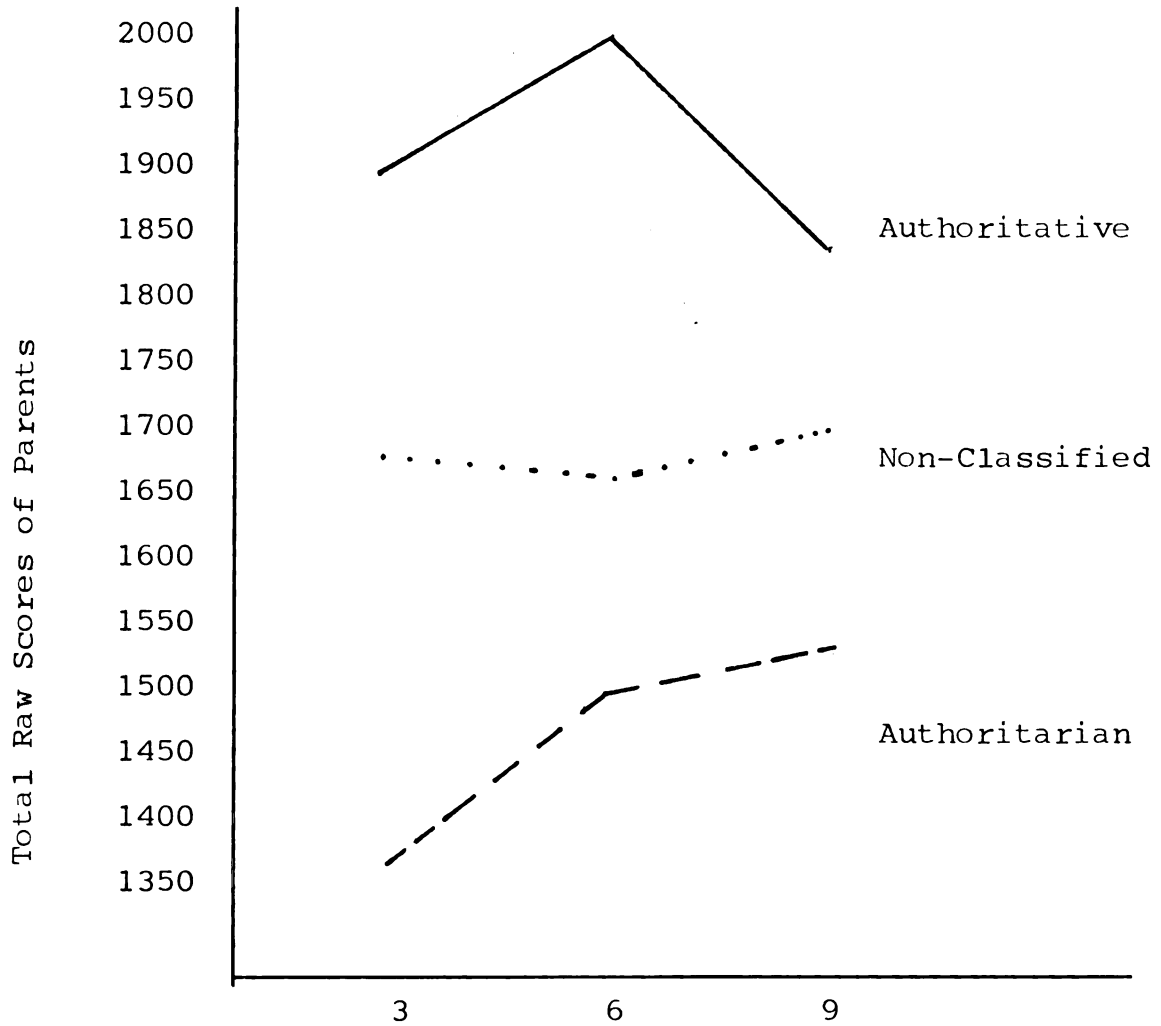

Figure 1. Mean Scores for Parental Involvement, Parent Factor, for Authoritative, Authoritarian and Non-Classified Styles.

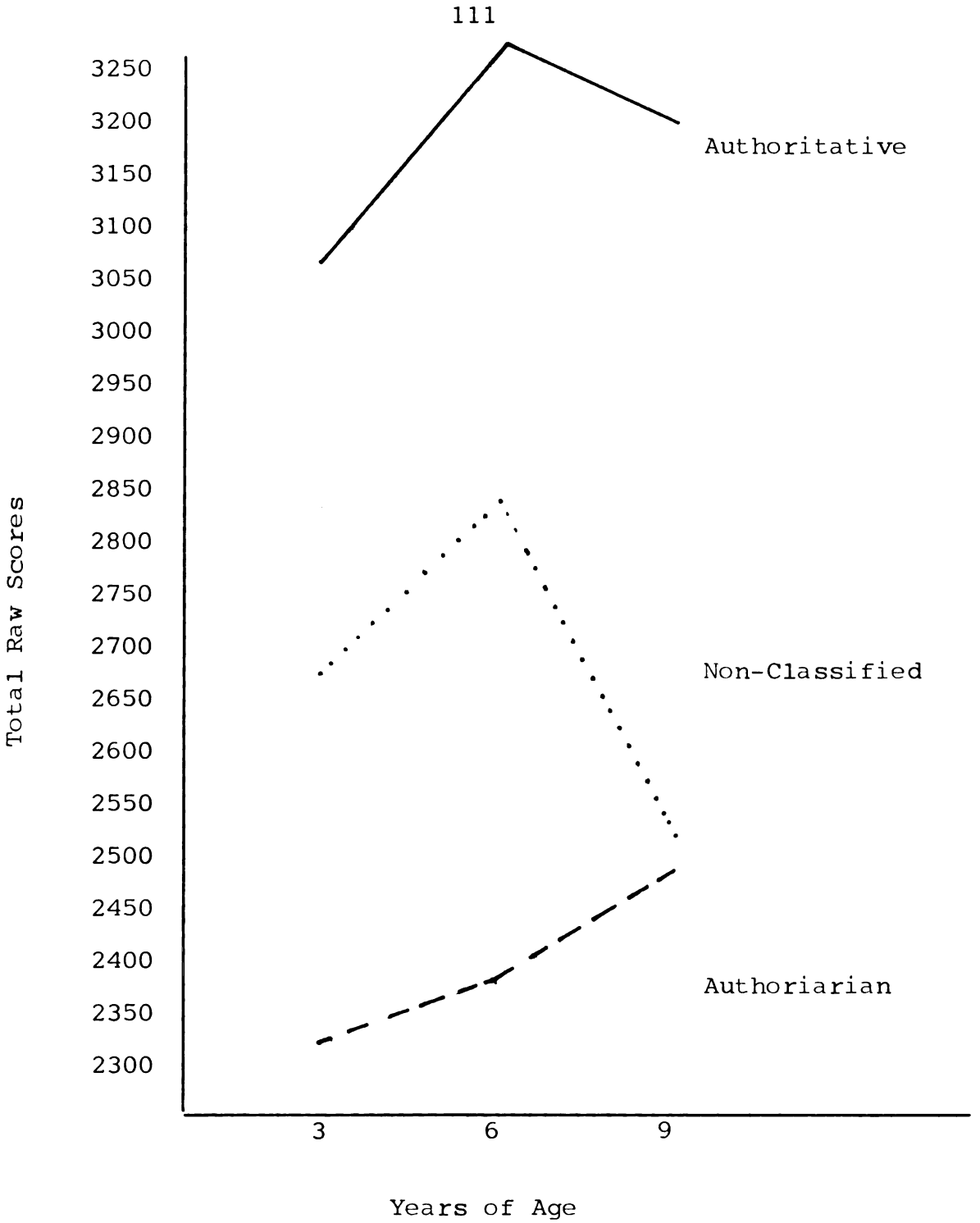

Figure 2. Mean Scores for Limit Setting, Parent Factor for Authoritative, Authoritarian, and Non-Classified Styles.

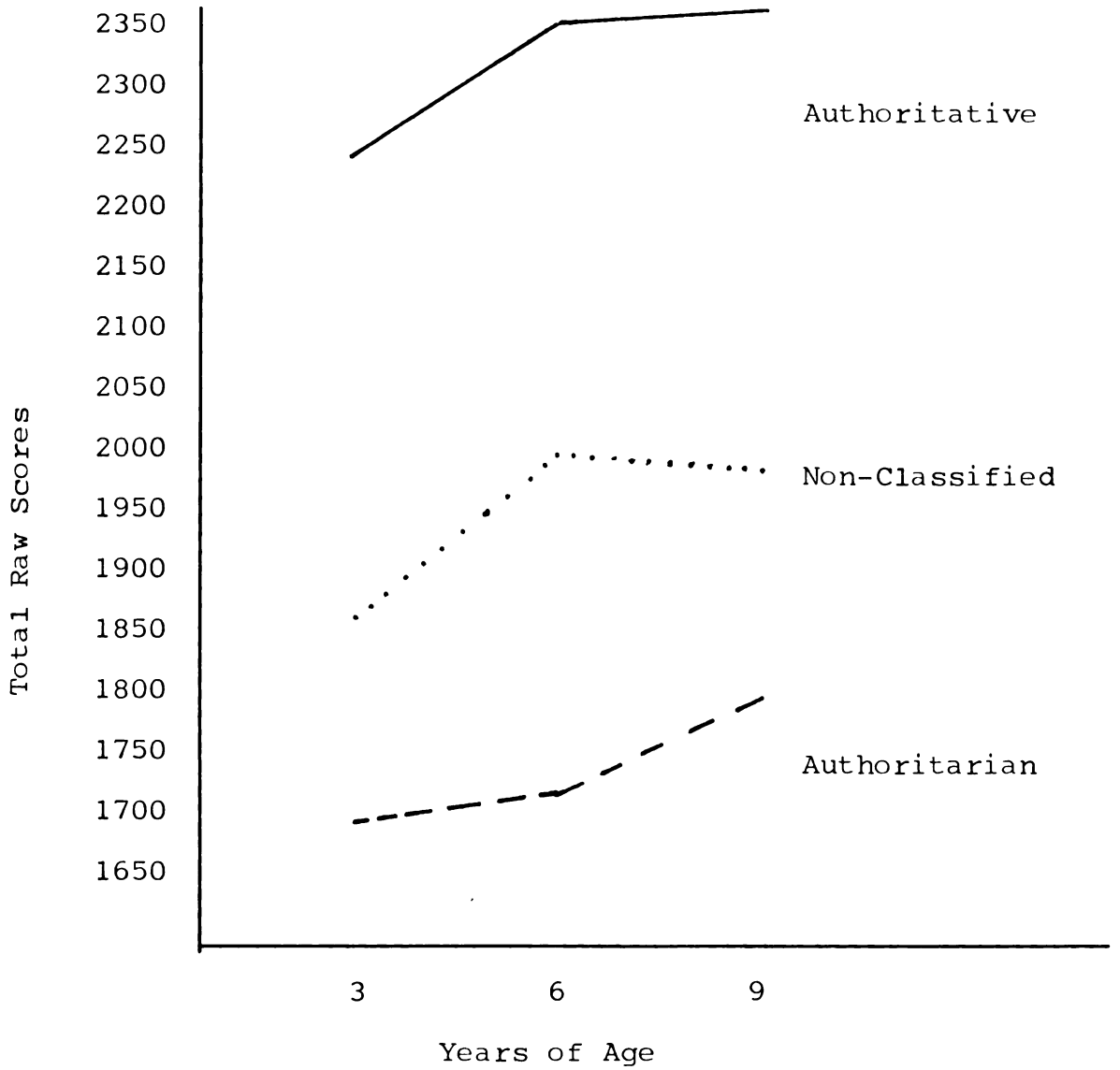

Figure 3. Mean Scores for Immediacy of Assistance, Parent Factor for Authoritative, Authoritarian and Non-Classified Styles.

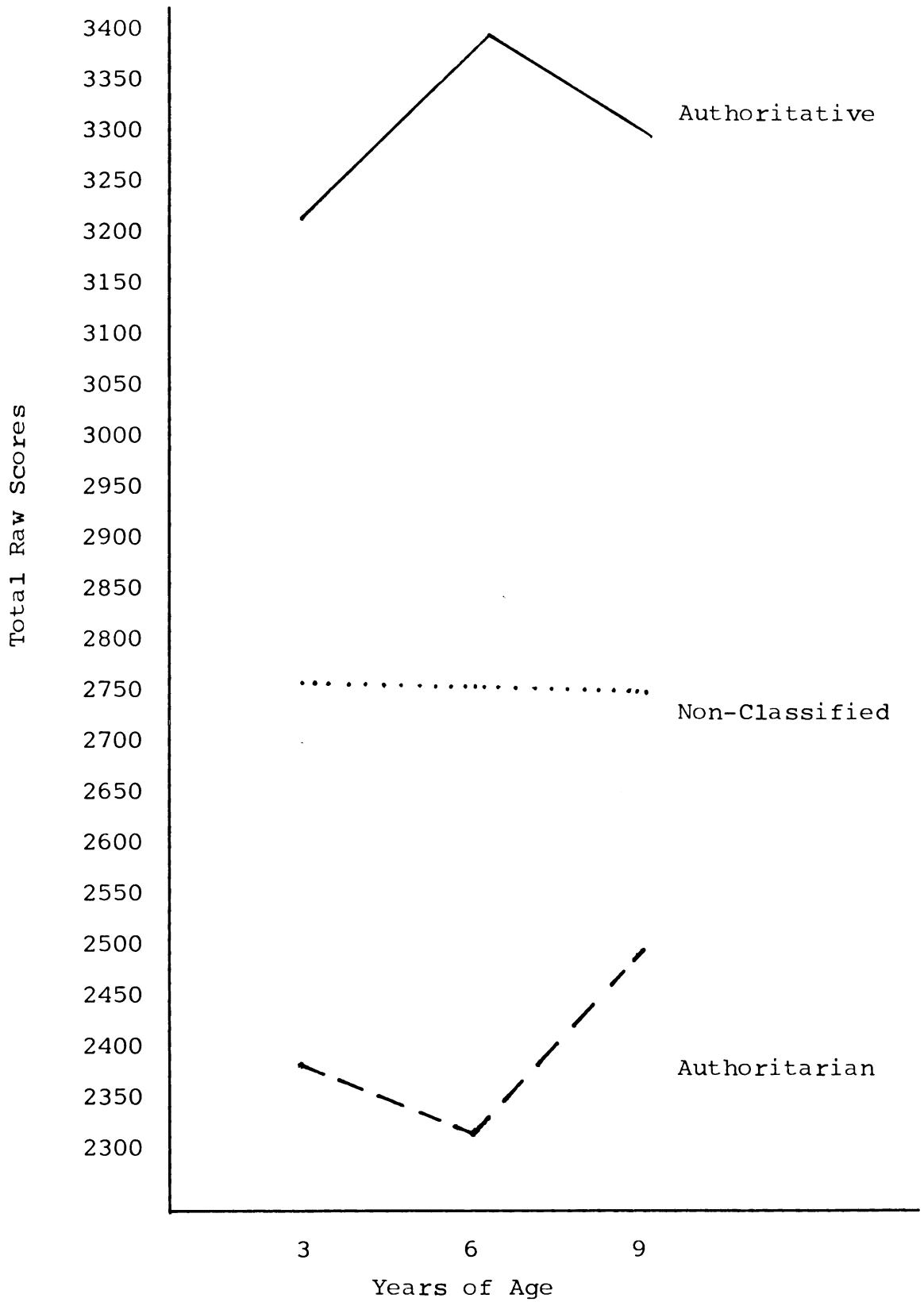

Figure 4. Mean Scores for Reasoning Guidance, Parent Factor, for Authoritative, Authoritarian and Non-Classified Styles.

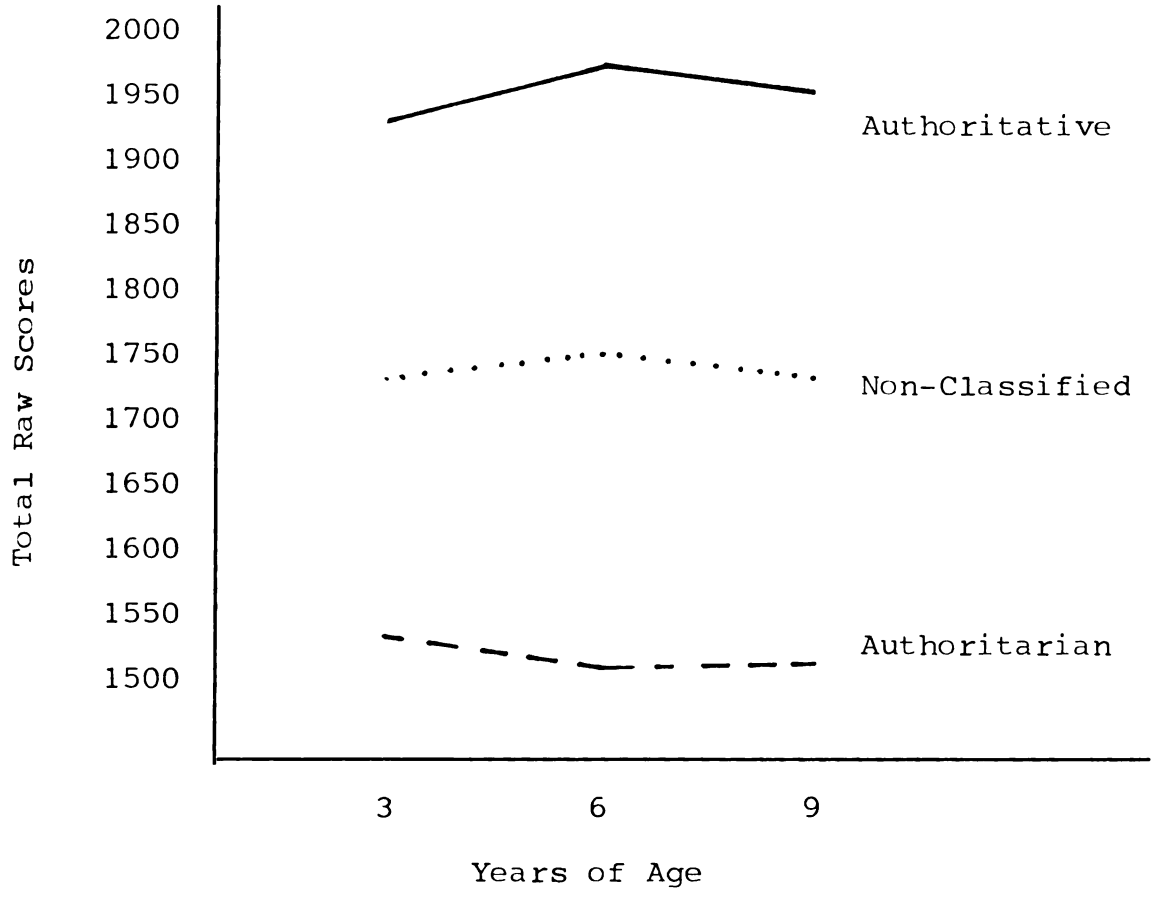

Figure 5. Mean Scores for Intimacy, Parent Factor, for Authoritative, Authoritarian and Non-Classified Styles.

reached a high at age six. The resultant inspection of mean scores revealed three distinct groups manifesting quite different age trends.

Summary of Results

Thirteen different hypotheses were tested, but most were rejected using statistical significance as the criteria (Figure 6). The authoritative parental style as opposed to the authoritarian style, proved to be the most efficacious. The results regarding style were mixed, however. The positive dimensions of social competency were associated with this authoritative style. This result was consistent with the hypotheses. The conflict involved some of the negative dimensions of social comptency that were associated with the authoritative parental style. This finding was contrary to expectations. The permissive parental style was all but non-existent. No significant age trends were found, although graphic representations clearly differentiated parental style. Examination of the correlational and ANOVA data revealed a number of significant relationships for six year olds that exceeded those of the three and nine year old groups. This result might be interpreted, albeit cautiously, as an age trend indicating characteristics germane to six year olds. No differences were found between rural and urban settings, a result that was unpredicted.

Overall the results were not overwhelming in terms of statistical significance, however, the findings were generally

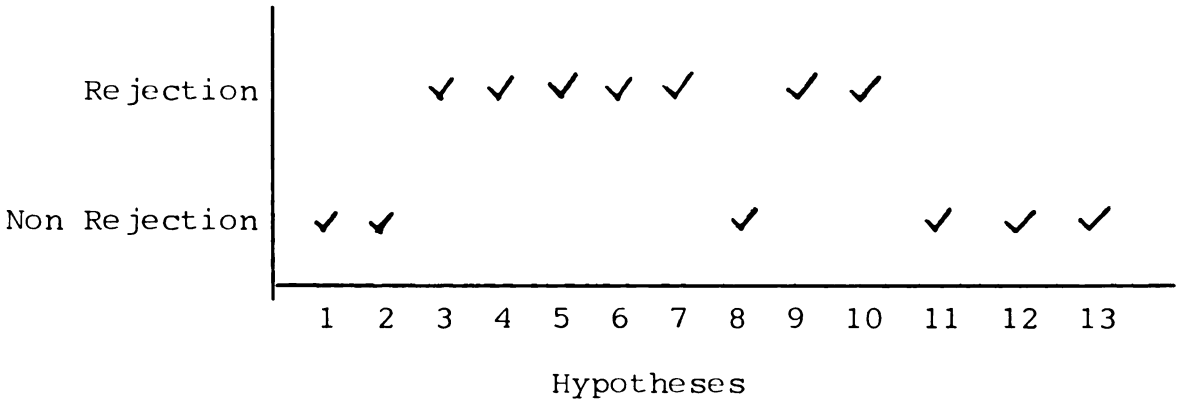

Figure 6. Hypotheses: Rejection/Non Rejection

in the predicted direction. This was particularly true with regard to age trends and the authoritative parental style. Consequently, the rejection/non rejection listed in Figure 6 must be interpreted within the context of directionality as well as significance.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The objective of the present study was to lend further support and expand upon the conclusions of Baumrind (1971, 1973), Thomas and Chess (1980), White (1975) and White and Watts (1973) regarding the authoritative parental style. Without exception the aforementioned authors promoted the authoritative style, implicitly or explicitly, as the most advantageous for the developing child.* The authoritarian and permissive styles represented the two other predominant styles, however, their influence was not viewed as conducive to the development of the child. Indices of this development such as social competency were more likely to flourish under the authoritative parental style.

Social Competency

A major hypothesis of the present study pertained to the relationship between social competency of the child and parental style. It was predicted that higher social competency of the child would be associated with an authoritative parental style. Since an authoritative parent represented high score on the five parent factors, direct relationships between parent and child data could be analyzed. Twelve different social competency factors were correlated with five parent factors. The negative child factors,

---

*Baumrind (1980) has recently found another positive parental style tabbed harmonious, however, limited sample size and lack of consensus preclude its place here.

denoting lower social competency should have been negatively correlated with all five of the parent factors for authoritative parents, however, this was not the case. Scores on the school age form produced positive relationships for all seven facotrs of the child competence. Thus, the relationship of the authoritative parents was somewhat of a paradox as the children manifested socially competent and incompetent behaviors with the parents themselves manifesting competent child rearing behaviors. These children were task oriented, demonstrated leadership skills, were affectionate toward their parents and proved quite capable in social situations. On the other hand, these same children were disruptive, defiant and somewhat fearful. This paradoxical relationship held for the preschool subsample as well. The authoritative style associated with children who were social activators and cooperative, yet manifesting uncooperative behaviors at the same time presents a perplexing issue. The association of authoritative parents with children demonstrating high levels of what appear to be less socially competent behavior is inconsistent with previous research. However, there may be migating factors specific to this study which precluded direct comparisons of past research.

Analysis of parent/child relationships has invariably excluded one parent or the other (Martin, 1975). Moreover, those studies that included both parents for analysis did not

derive a composite score reflecting both parents as members of a triad. Regardless, the majority of the studies based their conclusions on data derived from one parent. The importance of the triad, particularly for intact families has been proposed and documented extensively (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The relationship of the child and both parents represents a close approximation to existing reality in the intact family and, therefore the triad as a unit of analysis should more accurately reflect such a position. It is unrealistic to assume that children's behavior is a function of only one parent. Children are not influenced by one parent to the exclusion of the other, nor do children only influence one parent. Children assimilate and accommodate information from both parents. The picture children create from such information and their responsiveness based on such a picture has not been the subject of previous investigation. It is possible that a combined parent score, reflecting this triadic relationship, does not produce such clear cut results as previous research has indicated or, more importantly, quite different results.

Despite the conflicting results which seem to associate negative indices of social competency with parent behavior, parental style was a differentiating factor. Separate analyses comparing the authoritative and the authoritarian styles clearly supported the authoritative style as the one most likely to foster the child's social competency.

This paradox might also relate to the complexity of parental behavior and the triad. Baumrind has shown that parents present a composite that ranks them high on some factors and low on others depending upon their style. As exemplars of both positive and negative behaviors, they can be ranked based on that total picture or gestalt. The present research included only those variables that represented positive influences. For example, no measures of punitiveness were included. Although negative scores indicated lack of a specific tendency, there was no balance between the two. It is the balance of all these behaviors that appears predictive (baumrind, 1978). It seems that an unreal situation might have been created, thereby attenuating the influence of some factors and exaggerating others.

The large number of parents who manifested no particular style may also account, in part, for these results. Since they do not demonstrate consistency as a group, data from such a large number (n = 91) of families may also contribute to the conflicting influence of parent factors.

Age Trends

Based on the overall correlations, separate analyses were also run for age. The same type of conflicting trends were found. For example, the defiance factor for both the six and nine year olds was no longer associated with parent factors. The disruption factor seemed to be specfic to the

six year old group, relating to only one parent factor for nine year olds. This conflictual trend not withstanding, the three age groups seemed to possess distinct characterizations.

Data for the six year old group showed high levels of interaction between parent and child. Significant correlations were found for all parent factors across almost all social competency factors, except for the aforementioned defiance dimension. Parental involvement and immediacy of assistance produced six significant correlations, limit setting five, reasoning guidance four and intimacy two. That is a total of twenty-three significant correlations, almost twice the number for nine year olds. This appeared to indicate an age trend whereby parents' impact on measures of social competency was greater for the six year old than nine year old group. Moreover, all parent factors seemed to impact upon the six year old, while parental involvement and limit setting are noted by their absence for nine year olds. These age differences might demonstrate age related trends for the child and the family.

The six year old represents a child in transition. One who is leaving the predominately egocentric, perceptually oriented world of the preoperational stage, and yet has not attained concrete operational thought. He/she is inconsistent in manifestations of representational thought and social cognition, sometimes behaves as a preoperational child, sometimes as a concrete operational child. This transitional

task may be perceived, implicitly or explicitly, by the parents and thereby may alter their behavior. Understanding this flux, they become more involved, reduce dissonance by structuring the environment, respond more quickly, and generally are there to facilitate this transition. Moreover, the child is entering the primary grades which increases adaptive pressure for the six year old and provides a developmental marker for the parents as well. The child's entrance into school is a major task in the family life cycle, an event that may contribute to the number of significant correlations and significant F values at this age.

The nine year old, having made the transition, does not require as much parental guidance, consequently parental involvement and limit setting are no longer highly correlated with measures of social competency nor do they reveal significant F values. Intimacy and reasoning guidance become the predictor variables associated with social competence. Reasoning is better understood by the nine year old, while the high correlations between intimacy and social competency provide support for the elementary school child's ever expanding world. It appears that the examination of six and nine year old correlations manifests a differential age trend based on developmental differences. Specific components of parenting style have importance for the particular ages based on these differences.

The three year old represents a different picture. The preschool child is inextricably tied to the parent, consequently significant correlations emerged for twelve of the fifteen possible associations that remain between social competency and parent factors. Although the majority of the correlations are in the .20's, accounting for only 4% to 6% of the variance, the tie to the three year old levels of social competency is pervasive. This is understandable, considering the child's cognitive, physical and emotional abilities which create a necessary dependence.

The examination of mean scores for the age groups in the present study allows for further extrapolation of age trends. The failure to attain significance requires cautious interpretation, however, the trends are consistent with theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and previous research (Baumrind, 1971, 1973; White, 1975; White and Watts, 1973). It was predicted that parents who were cognizant of the child's changing capacities, might decrease parental involvement, limit setting and immediacy of assistance with increasing age, and increase reasoning guidance. The level of intimacy on the other hand should remain the same over time. It was further predicted that the authoritative parents who hold a philosophy that is more consistent with the developmental perspective would likely alter their behavior. Although statistical analysis were nonsignificant,

visual inspection of the mean scores implies differential responsiveness dependent upon parental style (Figure 1 through Figure 5).

Authoritative parents were much more flexible in their parenting strategy, while authoritarian parents became more controlling with age. Four of the five parent factors indicated this increasing trend for the authoritarian parent. The child creates a particular perception for these parents reflected by their parenting strategy. The developing child's increasing competence poses a threat to the structure imposed by the authoritarian parent, therefore, order is maintained by increasing the control of their child and the child's environment. Consequently, all components of parental behavior under study increased with age, except intimacy. The ranking of parents utilizing a high/ low median split was revealing in that of the 169 families, only 78 could be categorized according to pre-existing style. More than half of the 169 families followed no consistent pattern. Based an the high/low median split these remaining families produced thirty-five different styles. If this sample is representative of families in the defined population, why have they escaped detection before? No mention has been made in previous research of a group that defies categorization. Of this group five or six parents evinced similar patterns. Despite this multiplicity of style, one trend did emerge, albeit non significant. All

factors except limit setting remained relatively unchanged across ages. Parental involvement, immediacy of assistance, reasoning guidance and intimacy did not vary with age. Limit setting was the single factor which changed with age, first increasing to age six then decreasing below the three year old level at age nine. Although these parents manifested quite divergent styles, their preferred mode of responding was quite similar.

Methodological Considerations

The failure to find significant age differences and the number of contradictory correlations might be indications of a methodological flaw. The shortcomings of retrospective research that depends upon parental interviews are now well documented (Yarrow, Campbell and Burton, 1968; Heibrun et al., 1981; Hess, 1981). The present study depended upon data gathered from questionnaires for both parent behavior and child behavior. Thus, the data obtained may not represent actual behavior in natural settings. Reliance on parents for both measures despite order randomization cannot completely obviate the link that is intuitively made between parent and child by the parents. Moreover, consistent age trends appeared in studies where child perceptions were analyzed (Armentrout, 1970; Armentrout and Burger, 1972; Burger et al., 1975). Where parents' perceptions were utilized for analyses, inconsistency was predominant (Emmerich, 1962; Bartz, 1978). The present study utilizing parents' perception of their own

and their children's behavior might reflect this inconsistency. The determination of age trends might better have utilized children's reports. Children undoubtly perceive parental behavior quite differently than their parents perceive their own behavior. Children's perceptions may represent more reliable and more valid measures of parental behavior. Of course, there may be problems with three and six year olds who may not be very verbal or precise with language. The use of cue cards vis a vis Borke (1971), may alleviate this measurement problem.

The parents' perceptions of what they consider to be normative and their conclusions regarding the items on the questionnaires might also account for these contradictory results. Parents were asked to compare their child's behavior to a hypothetical average child. The average child is intuitively defined by them, therefore, this normative child can take a variety of faces. For example, the failure to achieve negative correlations might very well be the consequence of the parents' exaggeration of negative behavior. Viewing their child's negative behavior as problematic, parents might expect their children to behave more appropriately. They might compare their child's behavior to an ideal rather than a hypothetical average, consequently their child never measures up. Believing their child should act differently, they intervene more because they are concerned. This concern reflects higher parental

factor scores that occur with higher child scores on the negative factors. This misunderstood parental perception of the items denoting social incompetence exaggerates their relevance, thereby creating a positive relationship whereas an inverse one exists.

The rating scale itself has too much ambiguity. Interpretation of the 1-99 scale allowed the parent more response discrimination, however, interpretation of the intervals becomes arbitrary. One parent may interpret a thirty-nine as almost average, while another may interpret the same figure as deviant, thereby jeopardizing the ratio or interval nature of the data. Moreover, the rating of .50 allows for too much ambiguity, by statistically equating behaving like the average with uncertainity.

Rural/Urban Factors

The lack of rural/urban differences seems to support Dewey's (1960) position which posits few if any social, cultural or personality characteristics that are specific to a rural/urban residence. Taken at face value this is true, however, characteristics of the present rural sample may preclude such a conclusion. Historically, rural families were congruent with farm families (Glenn and HIll, 1977). This farm-non farm analysis was responsible for the rural/urban differences hypothesized by Wirth (1938), however farm families represent only 4% (Glenn and Hill, 1977) of the population today. Contemporary definitions of rural families

regard population density as the determining criterion. The present study used such a definition, however, rural/urban samples were also matched on age, income and education. Although rural/urban families lived in different areas, they were quite similar in most other respects. It is not unexpected given the comparability of samples, that no differences were found.

Implications for Future Research

The purpose of the present study was to replicate and extend previous work regarding parental style and age trends, and to clarify rural/urban differences. The efficacy of the authoritative parent was given another boost. In addition, the specific qualities of the present study such as triadic analysis, age trends, produced some suggestive results. Clearly, future research must include some composite score of both parents, particularly when analyzing intact families. Children do not respond to one parent or each separately, rather the triad creates a unique relationship in and of itself. Moreover, the impact of other systems on the functioning of the family has long been overlooked (Moos and Fuhr, 1982). For example, Moos and Fuhr (1982) have demonstrated the affect the school environment has on the child's behavior at home. The interactional nature of relationships also requires more dynamic analyses that account for this ecological interpretation.

The large proportion of the present sample that defied categorization is a significant finding. Although results were merely indications, they represent a legitimate focus for future research. The non-classifiable parents appear to follow their own pattern with regard to style and across ages. Moreover, the absence of permissive families calls into question the use of this construct for future research.

A total of three families could be classified as permissive. The end of an era might be taking place, giving way to a more realistic response to the authoritarian or traditional parental style. Permissive parents may have represented an overexaggerated swing to the left that contemporary society has found ineffectual. The efficacy of the authoritative parent has demonstrated the need for a certain amount of structure in the child's life. Children appear to need more structure and contingent consequences than permissive parents are likely to provide.

The sometimes contradictory results in the present study call into question the use of parent questionnaires. Using parents' reports to the exclusion of other measures seems to be a serious methodological problem. The consistency of the child perception data, while similar parent data are inconsistent, further indicates the weakness of such a unitary approach (Armentrout, 1970; Burger et al., 1975). Observational data and child perceptions would seem to be necessary additions to parent/child research. Moreover,

perceptions of different systems have been useful in developmental psychopathology (Moos and Fuhr, 1982). Their usefulness for adaptive family functioning, particularly in light of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) work, should not be overlooked. Comparisons of real and ideal child and parent perceptions of behavior and family functioning might reveal provocative and useful results.

Oftentimes significance of results is the basis for inclusion in scholarly discussion. The present investigation has its share of statistically significant results, particularly with regard to the correlational analyses. The association between parent and child factors is often quite high, however, the import of such results warrants qualification. The statistical significance must give way to the practical significance of the data. Without exception, the correlations cited (Tables 1 through 8) account for very little of the total variance of the construct under study (social competence). Considering one of the higher correlations between the parental involvement and capable dimensions ($r = .44$, $p < .001$), only 18% of the vaiance is accounted for. Correlations of such magnitude are the exception, however; most are lower order correlations (.10 to .28) accounting for very little of the variance (1 to 6%). This leaves a significant proportion of the variance unaccounted for. Moreover, the data supplied by the regression analyses are no more revealing. It appears that the child's social competency is influenced

by a host of factors that have not been the focus of the present study. Such factors might include parental belief systems, children's perceptions, tempermental compatibility between parent and child, and temperment type of the child. The recognition of the complexity of the parent/child relationship and its impact upon the development of the child are implicated here. One could say that the 'right' variables have not been investigated, however, that is a throwback to past research. Researchers have examined variables consistent with theory and research, but have refrained from a more complex analysis. Basically, the results are consistent with the research cited in the review section. The family is a more complex system than such linear relationships can underscore. The emerging influence of an ecological approach in the study of families is consistent with this complexity. Inherent in an ecological approach is the dynamic quality of the family system. The use of a combined parent score was an attempt to underscore this more dynamic parent/child relationship.

Children displayed various levels of social competency that were associated with a variety of parental styles. Although lower social competency scores were associated with authoritarian parents, the large number of unclassified parental styles was not. It appears that parental style is a more flexible pattern than research seems to be indicating. The authoritative parent emerged as the preferential style

(Baumrind, 1971, 1973; White, 1975) and the results of the present study are consistent with that position, however, the presence of other styles has been demonstrated in the present study as well. The variety of parental styles associated with various levels of social competency indicates that many appropriate styles are possible. Children of these unclassified types displayed socially competent behavior. Parents need not emulate one particular style to foster their child's development. A variety of options are available to them. Moreover, the large number of unclassified families that occupied the midranges of parental facotrs warrants further investigation. Researchers, in their search for the optimal parental style, have been quick to categorize parents in distinct patterns, ninety-one of the one hundred sixty-nine parents were not so classified. Might these families represent another distinct group in society that is comparable to the 'silent majority' and therefore ignored?

The young child's development is the result neither of spontaneous maturing of inborn capacities nor of automatic adaptation to programmed stimuli. It is, rather, the result of increasingly complex interactions with socializing adults, primarily parents who, during the early years, have the power to control these interactions. These do not preclude the child's individual predispositions (Thomas, Chess and Birch, 1968) to influence the parents' ultimate

behavior choice. Children are not the originators of their own actions in the sense that adults should be. An adult can contribute to personal development by altering stimuli which impinge upon self and by defining objectives for self which, once formulated, then structure actions. A child, on the other hand, will be presented with stimuli and asked to accomplish goals formulated by caretakers. It is only with increasing developmental capabilities that the child can begin to approximate parental contributions. Innate and maturational predispositions, present at birth, and mediated by neurophysiological processes, interact throughout the child's life with environmental factors to determine the course of development. Although maturation of the child's nervous system provides opportunities for development, these opportunities can be realized only in a facilitating social environment designed by knowledgeable adults. Parents do not operate in a vacuum, however. The microsystem presented above is but one aspect of the individual's world. Other systems impacting upon the child and the family also structure the child's world. The parental work place, the school environment and peers all contribute to the child's emerging conceptualization and the behavioral manifestations of developmental processes. Future research cannot ignore the interrelationship and interaction between and within all these systems, despite the primacy, the intimacy and the extensive protraction of parental influences.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abedor, B. L. Instrumental competencies and behavioral strategies in dual-earner families and family day care homes. Unpublished dissertation, Michigan State University, 1983.

Allen, L. J. A study of some possible origins and sources of internal - external control orientation in children. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Kansas, 1971.

Altman, C. Relationship between maternal attitudes and child personality. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1958, 28, 160-169.

Anderson, J. P. The relationship between parental affection and dominance and the behavior of children. Psychological Bulletin, 1940, 37, 505-506.

Appel, Y. H. Developmental differences in children's preception of maternal socialization behavior. Child Development, 1979, 48, 1689-1693.

Armentrout, J. Relationships among preadolescents reports of their parents child rearing behaviors. Psychological Reports, 1970, 27, 695-700.

Armentrout, J. and Burger, G. K. Children's reports of parental child-rearing behavior at five grade levels. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 7, 44-48.

Baldwin, A. C. Changes in parent behavior during childhood. American Psychologist, 1947, 2, 425-426.

Baldwin, A. L.; Kalhorn, J. and Breese, F. Patterns of parent behavior. Psychological Monographs, 1945, 58, No. 3.

Bartz, K. W. Selected childrearing tasks and problems of mothers and fathers. Family Coordinator, 1978, 27, 209-214.

Baruch, G. K. and Barnett, R. C. Competence of related behaviors of preschool girls. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1981, 103, 79-103.

Baumrind, D. Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1967, 75, 43-88.

Baumrind, D. Current patterns of parental authority. Developmental Psychology, 1971, 4, 1-103.

Baumrind, D. The development of instrumental competence through socialization, In A, D. Pick (Eds.), Minnesota symposia on child psychology. Vol. VII, Minneapolis, Minn: University of Minnesota Press, 1973.

Baumrind, D. Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. Youth and Society, 1978, 9, 239-276.

Baumrind, D. New direction in socialization research. American Psychologist, 1980, 35, 639-652.

Baumrind, D. Are androgynons individuals more effective persons and parents. Child Development, 1982, 53, 44-75.

Baumrind, D. and Black, A. E. Socialization pratices associated with dimensions of competence in preschool boys and girls. Child Development, 1967, 38, 291-327.

Bayley, N. and Schaefer, E. S. Maternal behavior and personality development: Data from the Berkeley growth study. Psychiatric Research Reports, 1960, 13, 155-173.

Beals, L. A study of certain home factors and their relation to the personal adjustment of children. School and Society, 1950, 73, 55-57.

Becker, W. C. Consequences of different kinds of parental discipline. In M. L. Hoffman and L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Review of child development research (Vol. I). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.

Becker, W. C.; Peterson, D. R.; Hellmer, L. A.; Shoemaker, D. J. and Quay, H. C. Factors in parental behavior and personality as related to problem behavior in children. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1959, 23, 107-118.

Bell, R. Q. and Harper, L. Child affects on adults. New York: Halsted Press, 1977.

Bigner, J. J. and Jacobsen, R. B. Development of social competencies in children. Unpublished manuscript, Colorado State University 1981.

Bing, E. Effects of childrearing practices on development of differential cognitive ability. Child Development, 1963, 34, 631-648.

Borke, H. Interpersonal perception of young children: Egocentrism or empathy? Developmental Psychology, 1971, 5, 263-269.

Brody, G. F. Maternal child-rearing attitudes and child behavior. Developmental Psychology, 1969, 1, 66.

Bronfenbrenner, U. Socialization and social class through time and space. In E. E. Maocoby, T. M. Newcomb and E. L. Hartley (Eds.), Readings in social psychology, New York: Henry Holt, 1958.

Bronfenbrenner, U. Some familial antecedants of responsibility and leadership in adolescents. In L. Petrullo and B. M. Bass (Eds.), Leadership and interpersonal behavior, New York: Holt, 1961 (a).

Bronfenbrenner, U. Toward a theoretical model for the analysis of parent-child relationships in a social context. In J. C. Glidewell (Eds.), Parental attitudes and child behavior, Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1961 (b).

Bronfenbrenner, U. The ecology of human development. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1979.

Brown, D. I. Recent changes in the demographic structure of urban and rural families. Paper presented at the Annual Symposium on Child Development and Family Studies, Lafayette, Indiana, 1977.

Burger, G. K.; Lamp, R. E. and Rogers, D. Developmental trends in children's perceptions of parental child-rearing behavior. Developmental Psychology, 1975, 11, 391.

Burr, W. R.; Hill, R.; Nye, F. I. and Reiss, I. L. Contemporary theories about the family (Vol. I), New York: Free Press, 1979.

Camp, B. W.; Swift, W. J. and Swift, E. W. Authoritarian parental attitudes and cognitive functioning in preschool children. Psychological Reports, 1982, 50, 1023-1026.

Chamberlain, R. W. Authoritarian and accommodative child-rearing styles: Their relationships with the behavior patterns of two-year old children and with other variables. In S. Chess and A. Thomas (Eds.), Annual progress in child psychiatry and child development, New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1975.

Chen, S. M. A study of the parent-child perceptions of Chinese school children. Bulletin of Educational Psychology, 1981, 14, 173-187.

Christenson, J. A. and Dillman, D. A. Rural-urban value patterns. Paper presented at the Rual Sociological Society Annual Meetings, College Park, Maryland, 1973.

Christopherson, V. A. Development of social competencies in children. Unpublished manuscript, University of Arizona, 1981.

Chu, C. P. The development of differential cognitive abilities in relation to children's perceptions of their parents. Cortex, 1975, 17, 41-61.

Clapp, W. F. Competence and dependence in children: Parental treatment of four-year-old girls: Final report. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Research, 1968.

Clark, S.; Crase, S. J.; Longe, G.; Marshall, W.; Kalvan-Mesih, V.; Nelson, J.; Pease, D.; Poresky, R.; Schiamberg, L.; and Typpo, M. H. Life span analysis of the mental and social development of rural children (Vol. I). Unpublished Technical Manual, 1981.

Coopersmith, S. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco, Freeman, 1967.

Conklin, C. Rural community care-givers. Social Work, 1980, 25, 495-497.

Crandall, V. J. Parents attitudes and behaviors, and grade school children's academic achievement. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1964, 104, 53-66.

Damon, W. Patterns of change in children's social reasoning: A two-year longitudinal study. Child Development, 1980, 51, 1010-1017.

Deutsch, C. P. Social class and child development. In B. M. Caldwell and H. N. Ricciuti, (Eds.), Review of child development research (Vol. 3), Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973

Dewey, R. The rural-urban continuum: Real but relatively unimportant. American Journal of Sociology, 1960, 66, 60-66.

Dickie, J. R. and Gerber, S. C. Training in social competence: The effect on mothers, fathers, and infants. Child Development, 1980, 51, 1248-1251.

Emmerich, W. Variations in the parent role as a function of the parents sex and the child's sex and age. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1962, 8, 1-11.

Finney, J. C. A factor analysis of mother-child influence. Journal of General Psychology, 1964, 70, 41-49.

Fischer, c. Toward a subcultural theory of urbanism. American Journal of Sociology, 1975, 80, 1319-1341.

Ford, M. E. Social cognition and social competence in adolescence. Developmental Psychology, 1982, 18, 323-340.

Gecas, V. The influence of social class on socialization. In W. R. Burr, R. Hill, F. I. Nye and I. L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol. I), New York: Free Press, 1979.

Ginsburg, H. and Opper, S. Piaget's theory of intellectual development: An introduction. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1969.

Glenn, N. D. and Hill, L. Rural-urban differences in attitudes and behavior in the United States. American Academy of Political Social Science Archives, 1977, 429, 36-50.

Grayson, L. M. Language development in preschool children and verbal aspects of maternal socialization style. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1969, 30 (5-B), 2401-2402.

Harrow, M. and Ferrante, A. Locus of control in psychiatric patients. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 24, 427-436.

Hartup, W. W. Current issues in social development. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, San Francisco, 1979.

Hartup, W. and Yonas, A. Developmental psychology. In P. Mussen and M. R. Rosenqweig (Eds.), Annual review of psychology, Palo Alto: Annual Review, Inc. 1971.

Hattwick, B. W. Interrelations between preschool children's behavior and certain factors in the home. Child Development, 1936, 7, 200-226.

Hendee, J. C. Rural-urban differences reflected in outdoor recreation participation. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, San Francisco, August, 1969.

Henry, R. M. A theoretical and empirical analysis of reasoning in the socialization of young children. Human Development, 1980, 23, 105-125.

Hess, R. D. Approaches to the measurement and interpretation of parent-child interaction. In R. W. Henderson (Eds.), Parent-child interaction, New York: Academic Press, 1981.

Hoffman, M. L. Power assertion by the parent and it's impact on the child. Child Development, 1960, 31, 129-143.

Hurley, J. R. Parental acceptance-rejection and children's intelligence. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1965, 11, 19-311.

Irons, J. L. Creative thinking abilities of rural and urban elementary school students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, East Texas State University, 1967.

Jones, D. C.; Richel, A. V. and Smith, R. L. Maternal child-rearing practices and social problem-solving strategies among preschoolers. Developmental Psychology, 1980, 16, 241-242.

Jones, H. E. and Bayley, N. The Berkeley growth study. Child Development, 1941, 12, 167-173.

Koch, D. A. Parental defense style and child competence: A match-mismatch hypothesis. Paper presented at the biennal meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, San Francisco, 1979.

Kohn, M. and Rosman, B. L. A social competence scale and symptom checklist for the preschool child: Factor dimensions, their cross-instrument generality, and longitudinal persistance. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 6, 430-444.

Kuntz, S. and Letteri, C. A. Cognitive profile of mothers: Causal factors in determining child's profile. Contemporary Education, 1981, 53, 26-30.

Lamb, M. E. The role of the father in child development. New York: John wiley, 1976.

Lee, L. C. Comment: Is social competence independent of cultural context? American Psychologist, 1979, 34, 795-796.

Livesley, W. J. and Bromley, D. B. Person perception in childhood and adolescence. London: John Wiley, 1973.

MacDonald, A. P. Internal-external locus of control; Parental antecedants. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1971, 37, 141-147.

Magnum, P. D. An investigation of possible variables influencing the development of a locus of control in children. International Dissertation Abstracts, 1976.

Martin, B. Parent-child relations. In F. D. Horowitz (Eds.), Review of child development research (Vol. IV), Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

McGillicuddy-Delisi, A. V. Parental beliefs about developmental processes. Human Development, 1982, 25, 192-200.

Miller, T. W. Communicative dimensions of mother-child interaction as they affect the self-esteem of the child. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., 1971.

Mischel, W. On the future of personality measurement. American Psychologist, 1977, 32, 246-254.

Mondell, S. and Tyler, F. B. Parental competence and styles of problem solving/play behavior with children. Developmental Psychology, 1981, 17, 73-78.

Monkman, J. A. The relationship between children's adjustment and parental acceptance. Dissertation Abstracts, 1958, 19, 1117-1118.

Mood, D.; Johnson, J. and Shantz, C. U. Affective and cognitive components of empathy in young children. Paper presented at the southeast regional meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Chapel Hill, N.C., 1974.

Moos, R. H. and Fuhr, R. The clinical use of social-ecological concepts: The case of the adolescent girl. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1982, 52, 111-122.

Morrow, W. R. and Wilson, R. C. Family relations of bright high-achieving and under-achieving high school boys. Child Development, 1961, 32, 501-510.

Newberger, C. M. and Cook, S. J. Parental awareness and child abuse: A cognitive-developmental analysis of urban and rural samples. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1983, 53, 512-524.

Nuttal, E. V. and Nuttal, R. L. Parent-child relationships and effective academic motivation. Journal of Psychology, 1976, 94, 127-133.

Ogbu, J. U. Origins of human competence: A cultural-ecological perspective. In S. Chess and A. Thomas (Eds.), Annual progress in child psychiatry and child development, New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1982.

Olejnik, A. B. Development of locus of control: A review and model for further exploration. Paper presented at the annual Interdisciplinary UAP-USC conference on Piagetian Therapy and the Helping Professions, Los Angeles, California, 1979.

Olsen, G. W. Rural and urban differences in day care. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1977.

Pease, D.; Clark, S. G. and Crase, S. J. Iowa social competency scales: school-age and preschool mannual. Unpublished manuscript, Iowa State University, 1982.

Peevers, B. H. and Secord, P. F. Developmental changes in attribution of discriptive concepts to persons. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1973, 27, 120-128.

Piaget, J. Judgement and reasoning in the child. New York: Harcourt and Brace, 1926.

Piaget, J. The moral judgement of the child. Gencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1948 (originally published in 1932).

Piaget, J. Play, dreams and imitation in childhood. New York: Norton, 1962.

Piaget, J. Piaget's theory. In P. H. Mussen (Eds.), Carmicheal's manual of child psychology (Vol I), New York: Wiley, 1970.

Poresky, R. H. A life span analysis of rural Kansas children's mental and social development: First year report. Unpublished manuscript, Kansas State University, 1978.

Robinson, C. H. Goal setting behavior in preadolescent boys as a function of maternal attitudes and of parent-child interaction. Dissertation Abstracts, 1962, 23, 3481-3482.

Rollins, B. C. and Thomas, D. C. Parental support, power and control techniques in the socialization of children. In W. R. Burr; R. Hill; F. I. Nye and I. L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol I), New York: Free Press, 1979.

Rose, S. A.; Blonk, M. and Spaller, I. Situational specificity of behavior in young children. Child Development, 1975, 46, 464-469.

Roy, K. Parent's attitudes toward their children. Journal of Home Economics, 1950, 42, 652-653.

Rubin, K. H. Role-taking in childhood: Some methodological considerations. Child Development, 1978, 49, 428-433.

Ruff, H. A. The development of perception and the recognition of objects. Child Development, 1980, 51, 981-992.

Schaefer, E. S. A circumplex model for maternal behavior. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 59, 226-235.

Schaefer, E. S. and Bayley, N. Maternal behavior, child behavior and their intercorrelations from infancy through adolescence. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 1963, 28.

Schaller, J. Some aspects of parental control as children see it. Goteborg Psychological Reports, 1973, 3, 9.

Schiamberg, L. The cognitive and social development of rural and urban children. Unpublished manuscript, Michigan State University, 1981.

Schiamberg, L. and Smith, K. U. Human development. New York: MacMillan, 1982.

Sears, R. R. Relation of early socialization experience to self-concepts and gender role in middle childhood. Child Development, 1970, 41, 267-289.

Sears, R. R.; Maccoby, E. E. and Levin, H. Patterns of child rearing. New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1957.

Shantz, C. U. The development of social cognition. In E. M. Hetherington (Eds.), Review of Child Development Research (Vol. V), Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

Shilling, C. S. The relationship between the assertive of parents and the behavior of their children. American Journal of Family Therapy, 1979, 7, 59-64.

Starkey, S. L. Relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and the academic performance of fourth and fifth graders. Unpublished Master's Thesis, 1978.

Stendler, C. B. Sixty years of child training practices. Journal of Pediatrics, 1950, 36, 122-134.

Strommen, E. A.; McKinney, J. P. and Fitzgerald, H. F. Developmental Psychology: The school aged child, Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press, 1977.

Symonds, P. M. Psychology of parent-child relationships, New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1939.

Thomas, A. Current trends in developmental theory. In S. Class and A. Thomas (Eds.), Annual progress in child psychiatry and child development, New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1982.

Thomas, A.; Chess, S. and Birch, H. G. Temperment and behavior disorders in children. New York: New York University Press, 1968.

Thomas, A. and Chess, S. The dynamics of psychological development. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1980.

Thomas, A. and Chess, S. Genesis and evolution of behavioral disorders: From infancy to early adult life. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1984, 141, 1-9.

Thorton-Stahura, B. Rural-urban differences in marital happiness and family satisfaction: Towards a general mode. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, New York, 1976.

Watson, G. Some personality differences in children related to strict or permissive discipline. Journal of Psychology, 1957, 44, 227-249.

Weitz, J. R. Autonomy, control, and other reasons why "Mom is the greatest": A content analysis of children's mother's day letters. Child Development, 1980, 51, 801-807.

Wenger, S.; Berg, C. L. and Berg, C. G. Parents judgements of children's aggressive behavior. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1980, 26, 161-169.

White, B. Critical influences in the origins of competence. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1975, 21, 243-266.

White, B. and Watts, J. C. Experience and environment: Major influences on the development of the young child, (Vol. I), Englewood, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

White, R. W. Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. Psychological Review, 1959, 66, 297-333.

White, S. W. Evidence for a hierarchical arrangement of learning processes. In L. Lipsitt and C. C. Spiker (Eds.), Advances in child development and behavior (Vol. II), New York: Academic Press, 1965.

Wirth, L. Urbanism as a way of life. American Journal of Sociology, 1938, 44, 3-24.

Wolins, L. and Dickinson, T. C. Transformations to improve reliability and/or validity for affective scales. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1973, 33, 711-713.

Yarrow, L. J.; Campbell, J. D. and Burton, R. V. Child rearing. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1968.

Zigler, E. and Trickett, P. E. IQ, social competence, and evaluation of early childhood intervention programs. American Psychologist, 1978, 33, 789-798.

APPENDIX A

Case No. _____

Region No. _____

(Office use only)

NC - 124[1]

IOWA SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALE: PRESCHOOL FORM

Damaris Pease, Samuel G. Clark, Sedahlia J. Crase

Department of Child Development

Iowa State University

CHILD'S NAME _____ DATE OF RATING _____

CHILD'S SEX _____ CHILD'S BIRTHDATE _____
(month, day, year)

PARENT'S NAME _____ SEX OF PARENT FILLING OUT THIS SCALE _____

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

All ratings are made in comparison to what you believe to be the typical behavior of an average (normal) child in a family situation. Before you begin to rate the items, have firmly in mind the child you are rating. Consider only the behavior of that child over the past month.

Base your ratings on your own experience with your child. Consider only your own impressions. As much as possible, ignore what others have said about your child.

Make no effort to describe a consistent behavioral picture or personality. Consider each question independently. It is known that children may show seemingly contradictory behavior.

Avoid interpretations of "unconscious" motives and feelings. As much as possible, base ratings on outward behavior you actually observe. Do not try to interpret what might be going on in the child's mind.

RATING DIRECTIONS

You are being asked to rate the behavior of your child using the rating scale given below for each of the descriptive statements. The statements tend to describe behavior you would expect to find in most children. We are interested in knowing if your child displays the behaviors described in the statements more or less frequently than the average child. In the space provided to the right of each statement, place a number (1 to 99) that seems to you to best represent how frequently, compared to the average child, your child behaves in the manner described. You may use any number from "1" to "99" to indicate the extent to which you think the statement describes your child.

---

[1] North Central Regional Project: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Wisconsin, Michigan.

For example, if you believe your child behaves as described in Item 1, you may decide to place an 80 in the Rating column. This 80 indicates that you believe your child displays the behavior more frequently than the average child. If you decide to give your child a rating of 25, it would indicate that you believe he displays the behavior less frequently than the average child. If you decide to give him a rating of 50, it would mean that you believe he displays this behavior as frequently as the average child. To the extent that you are not sure how to rate the behavior described in the Item your responses should lean toward 50.

The number distinctions you make should be as fine as you can determine. Use any numbers from 1 to 99 with which you feel most comfortable. Make use of the full range whenever possible. Rate each statement quickly. If you are unable to reach a decision quickly, go on to the next statement and come back later to the one skipped. Be sure to rate every statement.

RATING SCALE

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child.	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child.	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average child
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD . . .

	ITEM	RATING
1.	Verbalize his wants?	_____
2.	Return play materials borrowed from other children?	_____
3.	Wait for his turn when playing with others?	_____
4.	Refuse to play with another child if he doesn't get his way?	_____
5.	Wander from activity to activity without sustained involvement?	_____
6.	Tell his correct home address when asked?	_____
7.	Play in dangerous situations such as on unstable climbing equipment, near fire, etc.?	_____
8.	Avoid contact with unfamiliar adults when they visit your home?	_____
9.	Try new things when playing by himself?	_____
10.	Interrupt activities of other children?	_____
11.	Repeat songs, riddles or stories correctly?	_____

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child.	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child.	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average chil
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD . . .

	ITEM	RATING
12.	Cry, pout or run away when he has an accident like spilling his milk?	
13.	Understand verbal instructions without being shown what to do?	
14.	Need to have instructions repeated?	
15.	Initiate activities which include two or more children?	
16.	Change his activity when an adult requests it?	
17.	Get upset when teased by members of his family?	
18.	Hide behind you when you are talking with an adult unfamiliar to him?	
19.	Seek help in solving a problem without making an attempt to solve it by himself?	
20.	Ask to visit grandma and grandpa or other relatives?	
21.	Work with you on household tasks?	
22.	Show worry about the "right" things to do?	
23.	Express satisfaction in what he does?	
24.	Become upset when you talk with him about his behavior that is unacceptable to you?	
25.	Prefer to engage in familiar activities rather than unfamiliar ones?	
26.	Follow the lead of other children?	
27.	Give an understandable explanation on how to use toys, etc.?	
28.	Allow another child to join him in his play?	
29.	Ask to play with other children?	
30.	Give directions to other children while they are playing?	

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average child
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD . . .

	ITEM	RATING
31.	Attempt to touch, hug or talk to a new child he meets?	
32.	Smile or laugh at jokes played on him by family members?	
33.	Help another child who is having difficulty using equipment, dressing, etc.?	
34.	Say his first and last name when an unfamiliar adult asks?	
35.	Misbehave in a structured situation such as church, restaurant, etc.?	
36.	Ask to go to the neighbor's to play?	
37.	Talk to you about things he sees or hears?	
38.	Ask his playmates home for cookies?	
39.	Share with other children?	
40.	Cooperate with parent in games played together?	
41.	Suggest things the family can do together?	
42.	Need reassurance from you when you go together to visit places unfamiliar to him?	
43.	Tell you his first and last name when asked?	
44.	Get upset when teased by other children?	
45.	Show satisfaction with the things he does such as drawings and singing songs?	
46.	Prefer to play by himself rather than with other children?	
47.	Join in play with a child he doesn't know?	
48.	Respond to contacts initiated by an unfamiliar adult?	
49.	Listen to you when you talk to him?	
50.	Ask for the same kind of toys, etc., as his friends?	

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child	I am sure he/sh behaves that wa much more than the average chi
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD . . .

	ITEM	RATING
51.	Try to be first when playing with other children?	
52.	Tell other children how to play the game?	
53.	Initiate activities which include adults or older children?	
54.	Seek reassurance when taken to strange places?	
55.	Initiate play activities with other children?	
56.	Like the clothes he wears?	
57.	Have to have an adult's coaxing and prodding to share toys, food, etc.?	
58.	Get your attention by pointing, pulling, pushing, shouting, or otherwise interrupting?	
59.	Show an awareness of what is going on around him?	
60.	Ask if he is proceeding correctly in what he is doing?	

Case No._____

Region No._____

(Office use only)

NC - 124[1]

IOWA SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALE: SCHOOL-AGE FORM[2]

Damaris Pease, Samuel G. Clark, Sedahlia J. Crase

Department of Child Development

Iowa State University

CHILD'S NAME_____ DATE OF RATING_____

CHILD'S SEX_____ CHILD'S BIRTHDATE_____
(month, day, year)

PARENT'S NAME_____ SEX OF PARENT FILLING OUT THIS SCALE_____

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

All ratings are made in comparison to what you believe to be the typical behavior of an average (normal) child in a family situation. Before you begin to rate the items, have firmly in mind the child you are rating. Consider only the behavior of that child over the past month.

Base your ratings on your own experience with your child. Consider only your own impressions. As much as possible, ignore what others have said about your child.

Make no effort to describe a consistent behavioral picture or personality. Consider each question independently. It is known that children may show seemingly contradictory behavior.

Avoid interpretations of "unconscious" motives and feelings. As much as possible, base ratings on outward behavior you actually observe. Do not try to interpret what might be going on in the child's mind.

RATING DIRECTIONS

You are being asked to rate the behavior of your child using the rating scale given below for each of the descriptive statements. The statements tend to describe behavior you would expect to find in most children. We are interested in knowing if your child displays the behaviors described in the statements more or less frequently than the average child. In the space provided to the right of each statement, place a number (1 to 99) that seems to you to best represent how frequently, compared to the average child, your child behaves in the manner described. You may use any number from "1" to "99" to indicate the extent to which you think the statement describes your child.

[1]North Central Regional Project: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Wisconsin. Michigan.

[2]Adapted from Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale by George Spivak and Marshall Swift.

For example, if you believe your child behaves as described in Item 1, you may decide to place an 80 in the Rating column. This 80 indicates that you believe your child displays the behavior more frequently than the average child. If you decide to give your child a rating of 25, it would indicate that you believe he displays the behavior less frequently than the average child. If you decide to give him a rating of 50, it would mean that you believe he displays this behavior as frequently as the average child. To the extent that you are not sure how to rate the behavior described in the Item your responses should lean toward 50.

The number distinctions you make should be as fine as you can determine. Use any numbers from 1 to 99 with which you feel most comfortable. Make use of the full range whenever possible. Rate each statement quickly. If you are unable to reach a decision quickly, go on to the next statement and come back later to the one skipped. Be sure to rate every statement.

RATING SCALE

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average child
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD.....

	ITEM	RATING
1.	Have to be reprimanded or controlled by you because of his behavior in a structured situation (e.g., grocery store, church, restaurant, etc.)?	_____
2.	Persist at tasks that appear hard for him?	_____
3.	Let other children use his equipment?	_____
4.	Appear very outgoing (socially at ease)?	_____
5.	Poke, torment or tease other children when he is with them?	_____
6.	Initiate actions that others follow?	_____
7.	Make lots of negative statements about himself (e.g., "I'm dumb" - "I'm stupid", etc.)?	_____
8.	Eagerly try new things (explore new ways to do things)?	_____
9.	Enjoy a joke on himself?	_____
10.	Happily entertain himself for short periods of time?	_____
11.	Enjoy going with you to visit relatives?	_____

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average child
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD.....

	ITEM	RATING
12.	Try new things and enter new activities with confidence?	
13.	Tell stories or describe things imaginatively?	
14.	Discuss everything with you?	
15.	Continue to play the game even though his team is losing?	
16.	Show worry or get anxious about knowing the "right" things to do?	
17.	Suggest ideas that other children use?	
18.	Apply what he has learned to a new situation?	
19.	Climb trees?	
20.	Know what to do when needed (e.g., give his name and address to policeman, hold plate so as not to tip it when serving to company, know where his father works, name his siblings)?	
21.	Seek you out before or after school to talk about school or personal matters?	
22.	Accept suggestions from other children?	
23.	Break family rules (e.g., throw things in the house, jump on the beds, play with matches, etc.)?	
24.	Play in a group of 3 or more children?	
25.	Slam doors to release anger?	
26.	Visit other children more than he brings children home?	
27.	Relate personal experience or things he has heard to family discussions?	
28.	Make informed decisions?	
29.	Bring things home that relate to current family interests (e.g., fall leaves, rocks, arrow heads, etc.)?	

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average child
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD.....

	ITEM	RATING
30.	Initiate group activities that others follow?	_____
31.	Refuse to give other children a chance to do things for themselves?	_____
32.	Get the point of what he reads or hears?	_____
33.	Make a gift for you on a special occasion?	_____
34.	Act defiant (e.g., will not do what he is asked to do, says "I won't do it")?	_____
35.	Figure out how mechanical things work?	_____
36.	Complain you never let him do anything first (e.g., you first ask his brothers, sisters or other children to help you)?	_____
37.	Go bicycling with other children?	_____
38.	Interrupt when others are talking?	_____
39.	Struggle to control a group of children?	_____
40.	Get openly disturbed about discussing his performance (e.g., may cry, get emotionally upset, etc.)?	_____
41.	Show affection toward you?	_____
42.	Appear sensitive to criticism or correction about his behavior, particularly his behavior with those outside the family (e.g., gets angry, sulks, seems "defeated", etc.)?	_____
43.	Play baseball with other children?	_____
44.	Speak disrespectfully to you (e.g., call you names, treat you as an equal)?	_____
45.	Let other children take a turn before he does?	_____
46.	Initiate things to do on his own (e.g., without assistance from you)?	_____

I am sure he/she behaves that way much less than the average child	He/she behaves about like the average child OR I'm not sure he/she behaves that way more or less than the average child	I am sure he/she behaves that way much more than the average child
1	50	99

DOES YOUR CHILD.....

	ITEM	RATING
47.	Appear outwardly nervous when he is expected to perform well (e.g., in the presence of company, visiting relatives, formal situations - shopping, church, restaurants, etc.)?	_____
48.	Invite other children home for snacks?	_____
49.	Belittle or make derogatory remarks about the subject being discussed (e.g., "checkers are dumb")?	_____
50.	Like to be physically close to you (e.g., hug or touch you, stand next to you, etc.)?	_____

Case No. _____

Region No. _____

(Office Use Only)

NC 124[1]

IOWA PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

(Mother Form)

Sam Clark, Sedahlia Jasper Crase, Damaris Pease

Department of Child Development
Iowa State University

CHILD'S NAME _____ DATE OF RATING _____

CHILD'S SEX _____ CHILD'S BIRTHDATE _____
(Month, Day, Year)

PARENT'S NAME _____

We are interested in learning more about how parents and children interact. The following statements represent a variety of ways that parents may interact with their children. Please respond to the statements in the way which you feel best represents your behavior toward your child. Before you begin, picture in your mind the identified child. Base your ratings on your own experiences with this child over the last month.

Consider each statement separately. There are no "right" or "wrong" responses. In the space provided to the right of each statement, place a number (1 to 99) that best describes how you see your behavior toward your child. Respond "99" if you think you always behave as described and "1" if you think you never behave that way. Use numbers larger than "50" to show you behave that way more than half the time, and numbers smaller than "50" to show you behave that way less than half the time. This means the more you behave as described, the larger the numbers should be and the less you behave as described, the smaller the numbers should be. To the extent you are uncertain you behave that way, your response should lean toward "50". If an item does not apply to your particular home situation, place a "50" in the rating column. Make use of the full range (1 to 99) whenever possible and make your ratings as fine as you want.

RATING SCALE

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

[1]North Central Regional Project: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Wisconsin, and Michigan.

Items continued on the reverse side.

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU: ITEM	RATING As I see my behavior
1. excuse yourself from invited guests when your child asks for help with such things as pasting, sewing, or model building?	
2. require your child to remain seated in the car while you are driving?	
3. give your child things (s)he especially likes when (s)he is ill?	
4. go to your child quickly when you see his/her feelings are hurt?	
5. find children's books, reference books or records that you and your child can share together?	
6. explain to your child the consequences related to her/his behavior?	
7. restrict the times your child can have friends over to play?	
8. find crafts such as painting, coloring, woodworking or needlework you and your child can do together on cold rainy days?	
9. listen when your child tells you of a disagreement (s)he has had with another child?	
10. interrupt a telephone conversation to assist your child if (s) he can/t find such things as scissors, thread, or paste?	
11. require your child to put away his/her clothes?	
12. enforce your child's established bedtimes when (s)he ignores them?	
13. restrict the kinds to food your child eats?	
14. listen to your child when (s)he is upset even though you feel (s)he has nothing to be upset about?	

Items continued on the next page

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU?

	ITEM	RATING As I see my behavior
15.	tell your spouse of your annoyance with a neighbor or employer while your child is listening?	
16.	insist your child speak politely to you as opposed to being sassy?	
17.	remind your child when (s)he forgets to do daily household chores?	
18.	explain to your child, when (s)he behaves in an unacceptable way, your reasons for not approving that kind of behavior?	
19.	hold, pat or hug your child?	
20.	point out to your child the acceptable choices of behavior when (s)he misbehaves?	
21.	maintain the limits you have set for your child's television watching?	
22.	change plans to attend a night meeting so you can be with your child if (s)he becomes ill?	
23.	go immediately to your child when you see him/her hurt from a fall off a bicycle?	
24.	disagree with your spouse when your child is present?	
25.	ask your child for her/his reasons when (s)he misbehaves?	
26.	go to your child quickly when you hear her/him sobbing?	
27.	get out of bed at night to go to your child as soon as you hear her/him crying?	
28.	let your child know that you are afraid during fear-provoking situations such as storms?	
29.	make special efforts to stay with your child when (s)he is ill?	
30.	hug or kiss your spouse in the presence of your child?	

Items continued on reverse side

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU:

ITEM	RATING As I see my behavior
31. help your child to recognize another person's point of view?	
32. take your child with you when you visit friends?	
33. tell your child when you are in agreement with her/him?	
34. cry if you feel like crying when your child is present?	
35. work together with your child on household and yard cleaning tasks?	
36. hold, pat and/or hug your child when other children are watching?	

Case No. _____

Region No. _____

(Office Use Only

NC-124[1]

IOWA PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

(Father Form)

Sam Clark, Sedahlia Jasper Crase, Damaris Pease
Department of Child Development
Iowa State University

CHILD'S NAME _____ DATE OF RATING _____

CHILD'S SEX _____ CHILD'S BIRTHDATE _____
(Month, Day, Year)

PARENT'S NAME _____

We are interested in learning more about how parents and children interact. The following statements represent a variety of ways that parents may interact with their children. Please respond to the statements in the way which you feel best represents your behavior toward your child. Before you begin, picture in your mind the identified child. Base your ratings on your own experiences with this child over the last month.

Consider each statement separately. There are no "right" or "wrong" responses. In the space provided to the right of each statement, place a number (1 to 99) that best describes how you see your behavior toward your child. Respond "99" if you think you always behave as described and "1" if you think you never behave that way. Use numbers larger than "50" to show you behave that way more than half the time, and numbers smaller than "50" to show you behave that way less than half the time. This means the more you behave as described, the larger the numbers should be and the less you behave as described, the smaller the numbers should be. To the extent you are uncertain you behave that way, your response should lean toward "50". If an item does not apply to your particular home situation, place a "50" in the rating column. Make use of the full range (1 to 99) whenever possible and make your ratings as fine as you want.

RATING SCALE

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

[1]North Central Regional Project: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Wisconsin, and Michigan.

Items continued on the reverse side.

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU: ITEM	RATING As I see my behavior
1. require your child to remain seated in the car while you are driving?	
2. give your child things (s)he especially likes when (s)he is ill?	
3. go to your child quickly when you see his/her feelings are hurt?	
4. find children's books, reference books or records that you and your child can share together?	
5. suggest to your child outdoor games that you and (s)he might play together?	
6. explain to your child the consequences related to her/his behavior?	
7. help your child select items that interest her/him at the store?	
8. express your appreciation when your child carries his/her dishes to the sink?	
9. enforce rules for your child concerning pushing or shoving of other children?	
10. find crafts such as painting, coloring, woodworking or needlework you and your child can do together on cold rainy days?	
11. maintain the limits you set for your child's behavior in public places like basketball games, church, or grocery stores?	
12. listen without interrupting when your child tells you reasons for his/her misbehavior?	
13. require your child to put away his/her clothes?	
14. enforce your child's established bedtimes when (s)he ignores them?	

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU: ITEM	RATING As I see my behavic
15. listen to your child when (s)he is upset even though you feel (s)he has nothing to be upset about?	_____
16. tell your child that you are unhappy when (s)he tracks mud into the house?	_____
17. participate with your child in storytelling and reading?	_____
18. insist your child speak politely to you as opposed to being sassy?	_____
19. have rules about the places your child can go alone?	_____
20. remind your child when (s)he forgets to do daily household chores?	_____
21. hold, pat or hug your child?	_____
22. point out to your child the acceptable choices of behavior when (s)he misbehaves?	_____
23. talk with your child about his/her fears of the dark, of animals or of school failures?	_____
24. change plans to attend a night meeting so you can be with your child if (s)he becomes ill?	_____
25. go immediately to your child when you see him/her hurt from a fall off a bicycle?	_____
26. ask your child for her/his reasons when (s)he misbehaves?	_____
27. go to your child quickly when you hear her/him sobbing?	_____
28. ask your child for his/her opinion in family decisions?	_____
29. get out of bed at night to go to your child as soon as you hear her/him crying?	_____
30. make special efforts to stay with your child when (s)he is ill?	_____
31. hug or kiss your spouse in the presence of your child?	_____
32. consider suggestions made by your child?	_____

Items continued on reverse side

I never behave this way	I behave this way about half the time OR I'm not sure how often I behave this way	I always behave this way
1	50	99

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU:

ITEM	RATING As I see my behavior
33. suggest to your child indoor games that you and (s)he might play together?	_____
34. tell your child why you are angry, irritable or impatient when (s)he is not to blame?	_____
35. help your child to recognize another person's point of view?	_____
36. hold, pat and/or hug your child when other children are watching?	_____

Revised Questionnaire

KANSAS HOME INTERVIEW SCALES[1]

For

[2]
NC-124

A LIFE SPAN ANALYSIS OF RURAL CHILDREN'S MENTAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

[1]
Revised by:

Larry Schlamberg, Ph.D.
Department of Family & Child Sciences
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan

May 1978

Developed by:

Robert H. Poresky, Ph.D.
Department of Family & Child Development
Kansas State University
Manhattan, Kansas

March 1977

[2]
North Central Regional Project:

Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, and Nebraska

Case # 155

(Office Use On

Office Use Only
Do Not Write ir
this Column.

Please answer all of the questions below.

PART I -- DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

We would like to ask you some questions about your family and home.

1. A. How many daughters are living at home? _____
   B. How many sons are living at home? _____
   C. What is the age of the child who is the subject of this questionnaire? ("Target Child")

   ___ YRS. ___ MOS.

   D. What is the position of this child among all other children in the family? (Circle one position below.)

   1. First born
   2. Second born
   3. Third born
   4. Fourth born
   5. Fifth born
   6. Sixth born or greater

   E. How many other adults also live here (over 21 years old)? _____
   F. How many other children live here? _____

2. A. How old is your husband? _____ (in years)
   B. How old are you? _____ (in years)

3. A. What was the highest grade in school your husband completed? (Circle one grade)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 | 9 10 11 12 | 13 14 15 16 | 17 18 19 20 21

   Elementary School | High School | College | MA/MS

   22 23 24

   Post-Grad.

   B. What was the highest grade in school you completed? (Circle one grade)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 | 9 10 11 12 | 13 14 15 16 | 17 18 19 20 21

   Elementary School | High School | College | MA/MS

   22 23 24

   Post-Grad.

Page Two

Office Use
Do Not Write i
this column

Use the scale below for answering questions 4a, 4c and 5a and 5 c.

1. Whatever he/she wants, well adjusted person
2. Professional (doctor, lawyer, veternarian, nurse)
3. Teacher (preschool, elementary, high school, college)
4. Self-employed businessman
5. Clergy
6. Clerical or sales worker
7. Farmer or rancher
8. Armed services (Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, Coast Guard)
9. Protective Services, (Police, Sheriff, Marshall, Highway Patrol)
10. Homemaker
11. Construction worker
12. Factory worker
13. Other
14. Unemployed

4. A. What is your husband's Primary Occupation? _____
   B. Is this full-time work or more? (full time = 40 hrs./week) YES NO
   C. Secondary Occupation? _____

5. A. What is your Primary Occupation? _____
   B. Is this full-time work or more? (full time = 40 hrs./week) YES NO
   C. Secondary Occupation? _____

6. Which CROSS income bracket below most closely corresponds to your family's gross income in 1977? (Circle the correct number below.)

1 = $ 0-- 4,999	5 =$ 50,000-- 99,999
2 = 5,000--14,999	6 = 100,000--499,000
3 = 15,000--24,999	7 = 500,000--999,999
4 = 25,000--49,000	8 =1,000,000 and above

IF YOU FARM, ANSWER 7 A&B, IF NOT, DISREGARD AND CONTINUE WITH SATISFACTION INDEX--QUESTION NUMBER (8).

7. A. What is the size of your farm (in acres) (Record the number of acres of owned farm land) _____ ACRES
   B. How much, if any additional land do you rent? _____ ACRES

SCREENING QUESTIONS

To be used in initial telephone call after explaining project.
To be used in initial homemaker visit to check

For homemaker: review of screening questions
We would like to check some of our information:

1. Have you lived in the area for two or more years? Yes (2) No (1) _____

2. Has _____ been raised by both parents continuously since one year of age or younger? Yes (2) No (1) _____

3. Does this household have a mother and a father living in it? Yes (2) No (1) _____

4. Does _____ have any diagnosed developmental handicaps such as blindness, deafness or mental retardation? Yes (2) No (1) _____

5. Are you the mother (or father) of _____? Yes (2) No (1) _____

6. Are you willing to participate in this study? Yes (2) No (1) _____

7. Confirmation information:

   a) Sex of target child: Male (1) Female (2) _____
   b) Chronological age of target child in months at time of information (List birthday here _____) _____
   c) Current educational level: Preschool, nursery, Head Start (1); Kindergarten (2); First grade (3); Second grade (4) check. ((Code grade level + 2)) _____

APPENDIX B

TABLE 5

SUMMARY TABLE FOR PARENT FACTORS
BY AGE AND GROUP (AUTHORITARIAN, AUTHORITATIVE)
SCORES

Parental Involvement

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
Main Effects	3	3943623.	.131E	63.589*
Group	1	3877000.	.388E	182.54*
Age	2	66623.	33311.	1.611
Group x Age	2	124996.	63498.	3.07

Limit Setting

	DF	SS	MS	F
Main Effects	3	11155236	.372E	71.94*
Group	1	10993266	.110E	212.78*
Age	2	1611970	80985	1.56
Group x Age	2	90613	45396	.87

Immediacy of Assistance

	DF	SS	MS	F
Main Effects	3	6531304	218E	64.49*
Group	1	6446857	648E	190.97*
Age	2	84445	42223	1.25
Group x Age	2	24084	12042	.35

Reasoning Guidance

	DF	SS	MS	F
Main Effects	3	15521484	.517E	115.94*
Group	1	15414359	.15E	345.42*
Age	2	107125	53562	1.20
Group x Age	2	230027	2115013	2.57

Intimacy

	DF	SS	MS	F
Main Effects	3	3442213	.115E	53.09*
Group	1	3441987	.344E	159.27
Age	2	226.02	113.01	.005
Group x Age	2	29813	14756	.683

* $p < .001$

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire Items Comprising Each Factor

Parental Involvement: 4,5,7,8,10,17,33(father form); 1,5,8,10(mother form)

Limit Setting: 1,9,11,13,14,16,18,19,20(father form); 2,7,11,12,13,16,17,21(mother form)

Immediacy of Assistance: 2,3,24,25,27,29,30(father form); 3,4,22,23,26,27,29(mother form)

Reasoning Guidance: 6,12,15,22,23,26,28,32,34,35(father form); 6,9,14,18,20,25,31(mother form)

Intimacy: 21,31,36(father form); 19,30,32,33,34,35,36, (mother form)

Preschool Form Iowa Social Competency

Social Activator: 1,6,9,11,13,15,27,30,36,37,38,41,53,55,60

Hypersensitive: 12,17,24,35,44

Reassurance: 8,18,25,31,42,47,48,54

Uncooperative: 4,5,10,51,57,58

Cooperative: 16,23,26,28,43,45,49,56,59

School Age Form Iowa Social Competency

Task Oriented: 2,13,14,15,27

Leader: 4,6,17,22,27,28,30

Disruptive: 1,5,31,34,36,38,39

Affectionate Toward Parent: 11,21,22,41,50

Capable: 8,10,18,20,29,35,45,46

Defiant: 7,23,25,44,49

Apprehension: 16,40,42