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By

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ABSTRACT

AN ECOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH PARENTAL DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES

By

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Parenting is a complex process. The ultimate aim of this study was to shed light on this complexity. Among the many aspects of parenting researchers have studied, early parental disciplinary practices have been recognized as important factors in the socialization of children. Ineffective parental disciplinary practices lead to negative outcomes in children such as high rates of child misbehavior and high levels of childhood aggression. Effective parenting practices, on the other hand, lead to low levels of noncompliance and low levels of aggressive behavior in children. The purpose of this study was to examine to what extent mothers and fathers differ in their disciplinary practices, to identify which of the variables were related to the maternal and paternal disciplinary practices, to identify which of the variables were associated with effective and ineffective parental disciplinary practices, and to examine the effects of cumulative risk factors on ineffective disciplinary practices.

This study was designed to look at parental disciplinary practices more comprehensively than most prior research.

Factors that may contribute to parental disciplinary practices were grouped into three major categories: (1) child factors, (2) parental factors, and (3) family contextual factors.

The subjects for this study consisted of 120 mothers and 120 fathers of two to six year old children attending a university child development laboratory as well as families on the waiting list for the program.

Self-report questionnaires were used to collect data on the following variables: 1) family background characteristics; 2) child temperament; 3) quality of life; 4) social support; 5) intergenerational transmission of parenting; and 6) parental disciplinary practices.

Descriptive analysis, zero-order correlations, MANOVA, multiple regression analyses, t-test, and chi-square analyses were used for data description and analysis.

The results of this study indicate that the characteristics of the child, parent, and contextual factors all contribute to the parental disciplinary practices.

DEDICATION

I'd like to take this opportunity to dedicate this dissertation to my parents.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Parenting has been described as the most challenging and complex task of adulthood. The parents of today may face unprecedented levels of social and economic stress due to major contextual changes. The growing incidence of such significant contemporary problems as the growth of one-parent families, mothers in the labor force, single-parent households, and poverty makes parenting increasingly difficult.

Among the many aspects of parenting researchers have studied, early parental disciplinary practices have been recognized as important factors in the socialization of children, because disciplinary episodes between parents and toddlers occur as frequently as once every 6 to 9 minutes (Power & Chapieski, 1986). This leads to the early emergence of stable patterns of interactions between parents and children. Moreover, there is a significant association between parental disciplinary behaviors and preschoolers' behavior and development. Overall, the presence of poor disciplinary practices is likely to maintain or exacerbate negative child behavior. For instance, Patterson and his colleagues (1989) have shown that the frequent occurrence of

coercive cycles between parent and child can undermine the child's acquisition of prosocial behavior and positive social interactional skills. Inconsistent, irritable, explosive, inflexible, rigid, harsh parental discipline, and love withdrawal have been associated with child problems such as antisocial and delinquent behavior (McCord, 1979), depression (Gelfand & Teti, 1990), child noncompliance, aggression (Forgatch, 1991), and irritable child temperament (Lee & Bates, 1985).

In contrast, nonpunitive, supportive parenting practices and parental use of reasoning and induction have been linked to higher levels of child moral reasoning, maturity, prosocial behavior, and altruism, as well as increased popularity with peers (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Shaffer & Brody, 1981; Eisenberg, 1986).

Much of the parenting literature in the past 50 years has dealt with differences in parental disciplinary practices. For example, there is evidence that parents react differently to the misbehavior of boys and girls (Yarrow, Waxler, & Scott, 1971) and that they respond differently to younger children than older children (Dishion & Patterson, 1992). Knowledge about how mothers and fathers differ in disciplinary strategies has recently been recognized as important in the socialization of children. A study by Lytton & Romney (1991) reported that fathers tend to differentiate more than mothers between boys and girls, and

Holden and Zambarano (1992) found that mothers tended to approve of physical punishment less than fathers. Recent research also suggests that mothers tend to reflect upon and are more accepting of alternate explanations of children's behavior than fathers (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992). Trickett & Kuczynski (1986) have suggested that parents tend to use power-assertive discipline for high-arousal transgressions, reasoning or inductive discipline for conventional social transgressions, and reasoning and punishment for moral transgressions. Their results also indicate that physically abusive parents use punishment as their predominant strategy for all types of child transgressions. Thus, taken together, the evidence indicates that most parents use different disciplinary techniques, depending on the characteristics of the child, the characteristics of the parent, as well as the circumstances in which discipline is required.

Nonetheless, there are few empirical studies on the possible comprehensive nature of the relationships of observed differences in parenting children. It seems unlikely that any one factor would be sufficient to examine the similarities and differences in the ways that parents rear their children. It is, therefore, important to understand the complex multiple variables that affect discipline related interactions between children and parents.

Statement of the Problem

Despite the fact that much research has focused on parental disciplinary practices, most studies have looked at only a few isolated variables at any one time. Also most research has focused on uni-directional influence (e.g., from parent to child or from child to parent), resulting in relatively few studies that have addressed the influence of broader contextual factors on parenting children.

Furthermore, most studies have tended to pay much more attention to the mother's role in shaping the child than they have to the father's role (Sigel, Dreyer, & McGuillicuddy-Delisi, 1984) Until recently, the role and impact of the father in chid care has been overlooked. With more dual earner households, the father's influence in various aspects of child development is now being increasingly recognized. Therefore, the present research contributes to this recognition of multiple contexts and the paternal role in child rearing in order to advance understanding of differences in parental disciplinary practices toward children.

Purpose of the Study

Parents use many different strategies to teach their young children right from wrong. This is often referred to as parental disciplinary practices. Some parental disciplinary practices lead to negative outcomes in children

such as high rates of child misbehavior and high levels of childhood aggression. Effective parenting practices, on the other hand, lead to low levels of noncompliance and low levels of aggressive behavior in children. These impacts appear by almost age two and appear to be lasting. Many factors seem to influence these practices including the child's personality, family traditions, and other family factors. This study is designed to explain the unique combination of factors that influences how parents go about the important task of teaching their child how to behave.

This study is based on the premise that it is essential to investigate the dynamic influence of multiple, contextual variables on parental disciplinary practices. A variety of factors that may be associated with parental disciplinary practices with their children will be studied. These will be grouped into three major categories: (1) child factors, (2) parental factors, and (3) family contextual factors.

In order to achieve the purpose of this research, the following objectives were developed for this research.

1) To determine if there are differences between mothers and fathers in their disciplinary practices;

2) To determine the extent of associations between the identified child, parent, and contextual variables and parental disciplinary practices;

3) To identify which of the identified child, parent, and contextual variables have an effect on the effective and

ineffective parental disciplinary practices;

4) To examine the combined effects of risk factors on the ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework underlying the present research is comprised of principles derived from Belsky's "Determinants of Parenting Model." The model summarizes and organizes many variables related to parenting. Viewing the family as a system through systems theory acknowledges that these influences are complex and that there are many variables that affect the parents, the child, and any interactions between them directly and indirectly. More specifically, "the model presumes that parenting is directly influenced by forces emanating from within the individual parent (personality), within the individual child (child characteristics of individuality), and from the broader social context in which the parent-child relationships is embedded - specifically, marital relations, social networks, and occupational experiences of parents. Furthermore, the model assumes that parents' developmental histories, marital relations, social networks, and jobs influence individual personality and general psychological well-being of parents and, thereby, parental functioning and, in turn, child development (Belsky, p.84, 1984)."

Rather than focusing solely on the child and family microsystem, the ecological model calls our attention to the possibility that any element in the entire system may influence or interact with any other. Within this perspective, the context for development is not seen as a simple stimulus environment, but rather as an ecological environment (Bronfenbrener, 1979). In other words, this approach emphasizes that the process of developmental change between children and parents is reciprocally embedded in multiple contextual environments. The essential idea is that organism and context cannot be separated (Lerner, 1984).

Parenting involves bi-directional relationships between members of two (or more) generations and reciprocal relations between individuals and the multiple levels of contexts within which they live (Lerner, 1986). In other words, the parent-child relationship does not exist in isolation. Both the child and the parent have other social roles which lead into social relationships with other groups of people. Parents are also spouses, adult children of their own parents, workers, and neighbors. Children also may be siblings, friends of other children, and students. The sorts of relationships in which children and parents engage in outside of their role of child or parent can be expected to impact on the quality of the parent-child relationship (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1979). For this reason, the factors that may link to parental disciplinary behaviors with their

children can be grouped into three major categories: (1) child factors, (2) parental factors (3) family contextual factors.

Child factors are important contributors to parenting. Characteristics of the child such as gender, temperament, or birth order have been shown to influence parental behavior (Bates, 1980; Campbell, 1979). In regard to parental factors, various aspects of parental characteristics have been studied in relation to their disciplinary behavior. There is strong evidence that parenting attitudes and practices are also a complex result of parental age, marital status, employment status, and education level (Fox, 1995; Hashima & Amato, 1994; Kelley et al., 1992; Polit & Falbo, 1987). Considering the family context is important in understanding differences in parental disciplinary behaviors. The influence of family contextual factors such as number of children living at home, family size, SES, ethnic and cultural background, social support, stress level, and history of parenting on parental disciplinary practices has been found (Crockenberg, 1987; Rauh et al., 1990; Turner & Avison, 1985). The research addressing the adverse effects of numerous individual risk factors for parents such as marital distress, single parent status, parental depression, chronic stress, daily hassles, and poverty on studies of the parent-child relationships seem to indicate that the relationships are indeed adversely affected.

As previously mentioned, there is persuasive evidence that characteristics of the child, characteristics of the caregiver, and of the caregiving environment all affect parenting. It is therefore important to understand the complex multivariate processes that influence parental disciplinary behaviors from an ecological perspective.

Based on Belsky's "Determinants of Parenting Model", an ecological model of parental disciplinary practices is presented in Figure 1.

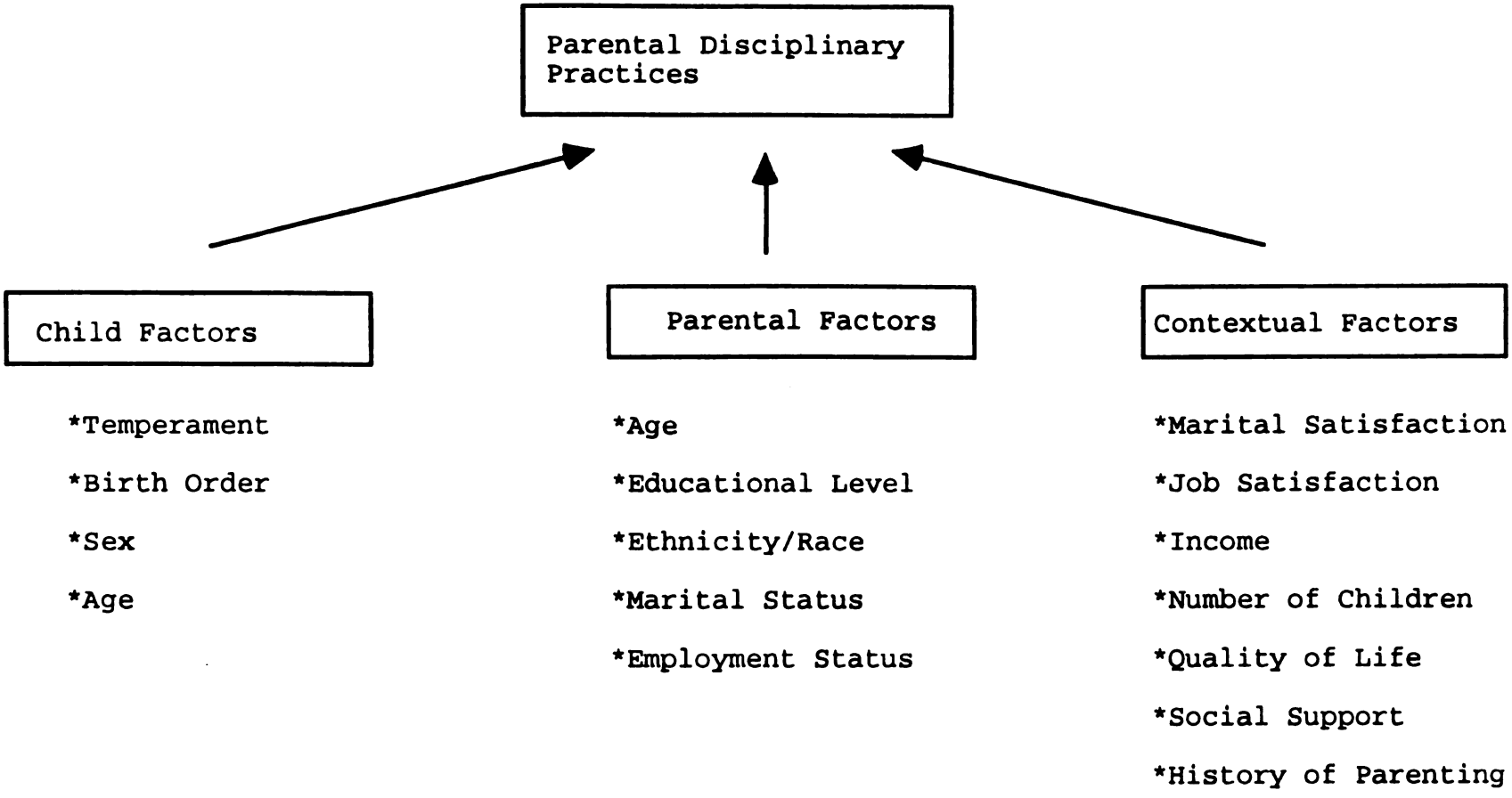

Figure 1: Theoretical Model

Source: J. Belsky (1984) and variables identified(*) in the literature

Conceptual and Operational Definitions

In this section, the major variables of the study will be defined. Concepts used in this study will be defined first. Where applicable, operational definitions follow conceptual definitions.

1. Parenting is defined as the tasks of a parent such as nourishing, protecting, guiding children's life throughout the course of development.

2. Parent-child relationship refers to frequency, extent and structure of interactions as well as the degree of positive affect and closeness between parents and children.

3. Discipline is defined as the application of standards (internal,external) to regulate conduct or behavior.

4. Parental disciplinary practice refers to the child rearing techniques selected by parents to discipline their children. In this particular study, the term parental discipline style/method/behavior is used interchangeably with parental disciplinary practice.

Operationally, parental disciplinary practice is measured using Parenting Scale developed by Arnold et al. (1993).

5. Temperament is conceptually defined as individual differences in reactivity to internal and external stimulation, and in patterns of motor and attentional self-regulation (Sanson & Rothbart, 1996, p.229).

Operationally, temperament is determined by the parents'

response to the Colorado Childhood Temperament Inventory (CCTI) (Rowe & Plomin, 1977).

6. Parental stress refers to the levels of tension and difficulty experienced by parents as a result of the process of adapting to the parenting role (Touliatos, Perlmutter, & Straus, 1990).

7. Quality of life refers to an individual's global sense of well-being on present life (e.g., self, neighbors, financial stability, health, standard of living, and life as a whole) Operationally, the quality of life is assessed with parental reports on the questionnaire items drawn from the Perceived Quality of Life (POQL) measure (Andrews & Withey, 1976).

8. Parental social support is conceptually defined as emotional, instrumental, or informational help that people provide to an individual (Crockenberg, 1988).

> With respect to families, emotional support refers to expressions of empathy and encouragement that convey to parents that they are understood and capable of working through difficulties in order to do a good job in that role.
> Instrumental support refers to concrete help that reduces the number of tasks or responsibilities a parent must perform, typically household and child care tasks. Informational support refers to advice or information concerning child care or parenting (p.141).

Operationally, parental social support is measured by parental reports on the Social Provisions Scale (Russell & Cutrona, 1987).

9. Intergenerational transmission of parenting is conceptually defined as the process through which an earlier

generation influences the parental attitudes and behaviors of the next generation toward childrearing (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Supportive parenting means that parents show concern about their child's feelings, manifest love and acceptance, and help with problems (Simons et al., 1992). Harsh parenting refers to instances of yelling, spanking, slapping, shoving, or hitting the child with an object (Arnold et al., 1993).

Operationally, two measures will be used as indicators of the extent to which the parents experienced supportive or harsh parenting from their own parents. The supportive Discipline Scale has been adapted from Simons et al. (1992) and the Harsh Parenting Scale has been adapted from Straus et al. (1980).

A summary of variables and instruments is presented in Table.1

Table 1: Variables and Instruments

Independent Variable	**Instrument**
Child Factors	
Sex	Demographic Sheet
Temperament	Colorado Childhood Temperament Inventory (1977)
Birth Order	Demographic Sheet
Parental Factors	
Age	Demographic Sheet
Educational Level	Demographic Sheet
Race/Ethnicity	Demographic Sheet
Marital Status	Demographic Sheet
Job Status	Demographic Sheet
Contextual Factors	
Number of Children Living at home	Demographic Sheet
Household Income	Demographic Sheet
Marital Satisfaction	Quality of Life Measure
Job Satisfaction	Quality of Life Measure
Quality of Life	Quality of Life Measure
Social Support	Social Provisions Scale (1974)
Intergenerational Transmission of Parenting	Supportive Discipline Scale (1982) Harsh Discipline Scale (1980)
Dependent Variable	
Parental Disciplinary Practices	Parenting Scale (1993)

Overview

This chapter presented a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, a theoretical framework, and conceptual and operational definitions. Literature relative to a variety of factors that may contribute to parental disciplinary practices toward their children is reviewed in Chapter II. In chapter III, methods for carrying out the investigation are discussed. An analysis of the data and results of the study are presented in Chpater IV. Summary, discussion and implications are explicated in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter, a comprehensive review of research literature is organized around five major topics to provide the basis for the research questions and hypothesis of this study. These topics are: 1) the goals of discipline, 2) parental discipline philosophies and practices, 3) child factors, 4) parental factors, and 5) family contextual factors.

Goals of Discipline

The discipline of young children in the parenting process has been a central issue for decades to many parents and researchers, both because children do not raise themselves and because young children are dependent on their parents for direction, socialization, and nurturance.

One of the most important jobs of parents is to teach children what are socially desirable acts and what are inappropriate behaviors. Although children are born as social beings, they are not born socially competent. This means that children need to be reminded constantly of the difference between acceptable and unacceptable behavior from a very young age.

Socialization enables children to acquire the knowledge, skills, and character traits in order to participate as effective members of groups and society. Among many significant agents of socialization such as the family, the school, the peer group, the media, and the community, in the early years parents, within the family environment, are usually the most critical influence in the socialization of children. In particular, there is strong evidence that helping children develop autonomy and self-regulation during early childhood is extremely crucial, because poor social behavior may impair well-being in adolescence and adulthood. For example, children who are aggressive, or undercontrolled at early ages often persist in this pattern (Caspi, Elder, & Bem, 1987; Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989), with long-term repercussions which include negative reports from teachers, poor performances in school, and rejection by peers. These consequences may result in violent delinquent behavior during adolescence.

Initially, young children are dependent on external control such as rewards, punishments, and the presence of authority figures to guide their behaviors. They have no internal sense of right and wrong and no means of figuring out how to conduct themselves appropriately in unfamiliar situations. As children get older and mature with parents' guidance, nurture and support, most of them become self-disciplined and develop their own sense of right and wrong

and thus have a guide for how to behave appropriately in various kinds of circumstances, without the need for constant reminders and the presence of an authority figure. They are not preoccupied with gaining the approval of others or a quest for external rewards (Kostelnik et al., 1993).

In sum, the practical question of how to raise contented, competent, self-disciplined children is a major issue for parents. An additional review of the literature concentrating on to what extent parental use of specific discipline techniques affects a child's internalization is undertaken in the next section.

Parental Discipline Philosophies and Practices

First, historical views of parenting are considered along with a review of modern-day theories of parenting with regard to discipline.

In the late 1600s, Locke, (1693/1964) in a treatise entitled "*Some Thoughts Concerning Education*" , provided a practical guide to a father about rearing a son. Locke expressed a concern that children might be spoiled by too much love, material rewards, and servants. His view of individual differences in children, of the superiority of discipline through reasoning as opposed to corporal punishment and the importance of parental role models were presented. Girls were not mentioned in Locke's work. In the late 1700s, the ideas of Wollstonecraft suggested that both

boys and girls need a warm and loving environment.

Within the parenting literature of the last 50 years, individual investigators have conceptualized types of parental styles of discipline in a variety of ways.

Maccoby and Martin (1983), for example, proposed a two dimensional classification of parenting behaviors. These authors suggest that parents differ on dimensions of demandingness and reponsiveness. Demandingness refers to the degree to which parents maintain expectations for their children's behavior and attempt to control the outcome of their children's development. Responsiveness refers to the degree to which parents accept or reject their children.

Hoffman (1983) described three distinct kinds of disciplinary practices used by parents. In the first kind, power assertive techniques involve the use of physical force, deprivation of possessions or privileges, direct commands, or threats. In contrast to power assertion, the inductive discipline approach attempts either to point out the effect of the child's behavior on others or give an understanding of the reasoning behind the discipline, whereas in the case of love withdrawal techniques, "the parent simply gives direct, but nonphysical, expressions to anger or disapproval of the child for engaging in some undesirable behavior" (p.247).

Baumrind (1972b) assessed patterns of parental behavior using lengthy interviews, standardized test instruments, and observations of parent-child interactions at home, and

distinguished between three styles of parenting in which the types of control and warmth varied, namely: 1) authoritarian, 2) authoritative, 3) permissive. Baumrind and her collegues found that parenting behaviors in 77 percent of their families fitted into one of three patterns.

The first style of parenting which she called authoritarian approaches to childcaring are characterized by arbitrary and power-oriented limit setting. Authoritarian parents, for example, emphasize that their children conform to their expectations and value obedience as a virtue. They tend to favor forceful punitive measures (i.e., physical punishment, shame, and ridicule) without talking to their children about the misbehavior and the reason for the punishment. A study by Michels (1993) examined the relationship between physical discipline at home and children's acting-out behaviors at school. Children who received frequent physical discipline (at least once per week) acted out significantly more than those who received infrequent physical discipline. Baumrind refers to a second pattern of childrearing as authoritative parenting. It encourages children to be independent but still set limits and rules and imposes consequences for failure to comply. The authoritative parents value self-assertion, willfulness, and individuality, and foster these characteristics by reasoning with the child about the specific misbehavior. They balance high control with high independence-granting,

and high standards for maturity with much support and nurturance. A third type of parenting is permissive parenting. It is a style in which the parent allows the child excessive freedom of expression and places too few constraints on his/her children's behavior. Permissive parents appear cool and uninvolved.

There are numerous studies examining the types of discipline discussed by Baumrind. Authoritarian or power-assertive approaches were likely to be associated with lower levels of social competence, reflected either in social withdrawal, or unfriendly, suspicious, resentful, and unhappy or aggressive and explosive behavior. Children who grow up under a permissive parenting style tend to get along poorly with peers and to be bossy, aggressive, and rebellious. Of the three styles, children of permissive parents also have the lowest levels of independence and self-control. Authoritative and supportive childrearing strategies are associated with social competence in relations with with peers, sensitivity to others' feelings, a higher level of cooperation and responsibility, healthier adjustment and higher achievement, and much lower rates of behavioral problems in young children than either authoritarian parental behavior or permissive parental behavior (Denham, Renwick, & Holt, 1991; Hart, Dewolf, Wozniak, & Burts, 1992; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Baumrind, 1967, 1971).

Maccoby and Martin (1983) have reported findings suggesting that limit-setting and control appear to be most effective in the context of a positive affective relationship between mother and child, and that this is partly a function of the reciprocity in the relationship that has developed over the course of the first year. In addition, laboratory findings demonstrate that timing (Parke & Walters, 1967), intensity (Parke, 1969), and consistency (Sawin & Parke, 1969) of negative consequences can greatly influence the effectiveness of discipline.

Taken together, there is some consensus that parental warmth and responsiveness, and clear, firm, consistent, and appropriate consequences in combination with effective techniques and appropriate limit setting have implications for optimal parental discipline.

Child Factors

This section explores some of the important aspects of the child's contribution to parenting. In other words, how parents behave toward their children depends to a large degree on how the children have influenced their parents to behave. Such child influences are termed child factors. Child factors appear to play a critical role in determining parental discipline. Child factors likely include important individual child characteristics such as temperament, gender, and birth order.

Child Temperament and Parenting

Children differ from each other from early infancy and many researchers attribute these individual differences to child temperament.

In the early work of the New York Longitudinal Study (NYLS), Thomas, Chess, and their colleagues (1963) analyzed infants' reactions to everyday situations on the basis of interviews with 22 parents of infants. They identified a set of nine temperament categories: Activity Level, Rhythmicity, Approach versus Withdrawal, Adaptability, Intensity, Threshold, Quality of Mood, Distractibility, and Attention Span/Persistence. They also classified three major behavioral patterns, namely "difficult," "easy," and "slow-to-warm-up" infants. Difficultness describes those who are prone to show negative mood, withdrawal, low adaptability, high intensity, and low regularity (Thomas et al., 1963). The opposite pole of this measure was described as "easy." The "slow-to-warm-up" child is described as one who does not respond well to changes in his/her environment. In their longitudinal investigation, Thomas and Chess (1991) found that 40 percent of children they studied could be classified as "easy," 10 percent as "difficult," and 15 percent as "slow-to-warm-up." 35 percent of children in the study could not be readily classified as belonging to any of the three temperamental styles.

A major idea which Thomas and Chess have suggested is

that the child's temperament must be considered in any discussion of appropriate parenting, because child temperament plays a key role in that an irritable, difficult-to-train child definitely alters the behavior of his or her parent (Anderson, Lytton, & Romney, 1986). The importance of "goodness of fit" between the child's temperament style and the patterns of child rearing used by parents has also been stressed. In other words, because "difficult" children are more demanding to parents, the usual parenting strategies may be ineffective with them. They may also often elicit poorer parenting. Crockenberg & Acredolo (1983), for example, found that mothers are less engaged with their babies if they are difficult or irritable. It is also true that extremely difficult, stubborn, and aggressive children wear their parents out, causing them to become lax, less affectionate, and possibly even hostile and uninvolved (Anderson et al., 1986; Lytton, 1990).

There has been empirical attention paid to issues surrounding a difficult temperament as contributing to the everyday stressors of parenting. Children's temperamental styles, and especially those that reflect more difficult temperaments, offer the most salient child characteristics for everyday stress considerations. Hinde (1989), for instance, has provided evidence for links between distress-related temperament attributes such as irritability, difficultness, negative mood and poor parenting and general

parent unresponsiveness. Likewise, Kyrios & Prior (1990) have found associations between a child's positive affect and self-regulation, and parental responsiveness, social interaction, and use of rewards. The direction of causation is not clear in these studies. Lee and Bates (1985) have reported that difficult children more often approach situations that cause them "trouble" than do children with easy temperaments and thus mothers of difficult children might use intrusive, controlling techniques to keep them out of trouble.

A number of studies have established a relationship between children's temperamental fearfulness and anxiety and parental child-rearing methods. The model proposed by Dienstbier (1984) suggests, for instance, that children who are temperamentally less likely to experience discomfort after transgressing may inspire harsh parental moral socialization practices. Conversely, some children are prone to distress upon wrongdoing, and may inspire gentle discipline. For children who are relatively fearful and anxious, lower power approaches by parents may be effective because they are likely to lead to the optimal level of discomfort and thus promote internalization of moral standards. However, for children who are relatively fearless and not anxiety prone, simply increasing the amount of applied power may not be effective, as a high power approach is almost detrimental to internalization (Kochanska, 1993).

A study by Kochanska (1995) has found support for Dienstibier's model that children's temperamental fearfulness/anxiety proneness plays a significant role in the development of internalization. The correlation between fearfulness and behavioral internalization without surveillance was significant for girls (r=.35) but not boys (r=.17).

Several longitudinal investigations reveal that temperamental characteristics of a child are stable over time. A recent study by Pedlow et al. (1993) found a high level of stability for such temperament factors as Approach, Irritability, Cooperation-manageability, Inflexibility, Rhythmicity, and Persistence during the period from infancy to 8 years.

Taken together, temperament is without doubt an important aspect of the child's contribution to the parent-child relationship.

Other Child-Related Factors and Parenting

In addition to the issues regarding the child's temperament discussed above, other child factors are highlighted in this section. Clearly the sex of the child is an important factor in parent-child interaction. There is strong evidence that committed, wholehearted compliance was higher for girls than for boys, and passive noncompliance was higher for boys than for girls after a parental request

(Kochanska & Askan, 1995; Kuczynski et al., 1987). Lytton (1979) also found that the boys were less inclined to obey their mothers than they were their fathers. But when their fathers were present, they were more likely to be responsive to their mothers' commands and prohibitions. In addition, girls are more inclined than boys to rely on polite suggestions, cooperation, and verbal negotiations rather than forceful, demanding and individualistic strategies to persuade others (Maccoby, 1988). These gender differences in compliance may have an important influence on the type of parenting style adopted by the parents.

Other aspects of the sex differences during childhood have been examined. Boys are rougher and engage in more verbal taunting and physical fighting than girls, starting as early as age 2 (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1987; Hyde, 1984). These gender differences in aggression are found in all social classes and all cultures (Parke & Slaby, 1983). Biological explanations for sex differences emphasize the organizing and activating effects of hormones (i.e., androgen, testosterone). Social-learning theorists rely on the processes of reward, punishment, and imitation to account for sex differences. For instance, aggressive behavior is a more socially acceptable for boys than it is for girls (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1987). Girls who engage in physical aggression tend to be rejected by peers and reprimanded by adults (Fagot & Hagan, 1982).

In particular, a number of investigators have examined how the sex of the child influences parental disciplinary practices, as boys and girls turn out so differently. This is a continuation of the nature and nurture question that has been a central issue in the discussion about the rearing of boys and girls. Obviously, the sex of the child is an important factor in rearing children from birth. Often the first information that parents receive about their child is his or her sex, and that the very first question most friends and relatives ask is the child's sex (Intons-Peterson & Reddel, 1984). In addition, parents often call an infant son things like "big guy" or "tiger," whereas female infants are more likely to be labeled "sugar" or "sweetie" (Maccoby, 1980). Besides, parents and others provide gender prescriptive environments by such means as the choice of clothes, toys, and playmates for the child from birth.

Clear evidence exists indicating that there are strong associations between the sex of the child and parenting approaches which leads to different developmental pathways. Earls (1987), for example, has provided evidence that throughout childhood more boys than girls are seen to have adjustment problems. Furthermore there are clear correlations for boys between a lack of monitoring, inept discipline (particularly harsh and abusive discipline), and a lack of problem solving to antisocial behavior, delinquency, school failure, and a lack of self-esteem (Capaldi &

Patterson, 1991). Thus, taken together, parental discipline appears to be a salient aspect of life that has a strong potential influence on the differences in behavior between boys and girls.

Despite the fact that much research has studied sex differences and parental discipline methods, there is little agreement on the extent to which boys and girls are treated differently by their parents. Lytton and Romney (1991), for instance, have reported findings from a meta-analysis of 172 studies suggesting that in North American studies parents are likely to display encouragement of achievement, restrictiveness and disciplinary strictness (including physical punishment) slightly more toward boys, while parents tend to show warmth and encouragement of dependence slightly more toward girls. While most effect sizes were found to be nonsignificant and small in this study, in 17 other countries, including Australia, physical punishment is applied significantly more to boys than to girls.

The predominant pattern emerging from data regarding the effects of the sex of the child and the child's temperament on parenting suggests a more tolerant response to boys' difficultness, and a lower acceptance of difficultness in girls, especially on the part of fathers (Rendina & Dickerscheid, 1976; Sanson et al., 1993).

Much of the data on sex effects may be interpreted in terms of different beliefs about the acceptability and

desirability of attributes for boys and girls, for example, that boys will be active, intense, and hard to manage, and need to stand up for themselves, whereas girls will be more docile, and compliant, and need to be cooperative.

A number of investigators have found that birth order effects the parent-child relationship. Results indicate that mothers appear to be less tolerant and supportive, and more controlling, demanding, intrusive and inconsistent with their firstborns (Ward et al., 1988), especially when the firstborn is a daughter (Baskett, 1984). Some investigators examined the parent-child relationships of only children and reported that only children have more positive relationships with their parents and parents with one child spend more time than do parents with two or three children (Falbo & Polit, 1986; Lewis & Feiring, 1982).

Parental Factors

This section addresses potential determinants of parenting practices including the age of parents, marital status, and education level.

Mothers who were younger, were single or unmarried, and had a lower educational attainment were likely to report less positive parenting practices concerning nurturing and discipline and to use a more parent-oriented disciplinary approach than comparison mothers (Fox, 1995; Kelley et al., 1992). There is evidence that the vulnerability of women

rearing their children alone may affect parenting behavior directly and indirectly through reduced social supports and increased stress (Compas & Williams, 1990).

Hart (1994) compared maternal and paternal disciplinary strategies based on individual interviews with parents (109 mothers, 109 fathers) of 109 middle-class preschool-age children and found that fathers were prone to use power assertive disciplining strategies while mothers reported using more inductive reasoning in their disciplinary strategies. However, Bentley (1991) reported that mothers of children (aged 1-4 years) obtained significantly higher nurturing scores than the fathers of the children did but that developmental expectations and disciplinary strategies did not differ between mothers and fathers.

Family Contextual Factors

Knowing something about family context is important in understanding differences in parental disciplinary behaviors and for predicting likely outcomes in young children.

The first section in the review of literature about family system factors included family size, socioeconomic, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds associated with parenting. The second section presents the relevant study regarding employment status and satisfaction and parenting. The third section presents the relevant study regarding quality of life. The following section summarizes prior research

studies that illustrate the effects of parental stresses on the quality of parent-child relationships. In the next section, an attempt is made to examine previous research on the relationship between social support and networks on the one hand, and positive and negative parenting discipline practices on the other. Finally, the literature on the subject of intergenerational transmission of parenting behavior will be described.

Family Size, Socioeconomic, Ethnic, and Cultural Factors and Parenting

Parents who had more than 1 child living at home and those with large families were likely to report less positive parenting practices (Nye et al., 1970). In a classic study of large families, Bossard and Boll (1956) reported parenting in large families stresses obedience and discipline. In other words, as family size increases, parents are also more autocratic (Elder, Liker, & Cross, 1984) and fathers become more involved in childrearing (Lewis & Feiring, 1982).

The interaction among parents' SES and their disciplinary behaviors toward their children has been studied. In some of the earlier research on socioeconomic status and parenting, Bronfenbrenner (1958) concluded that "over the entire twenty-five-year period studied, parent-child relationships in the middle-class are consistently reported as more acceptant and egalitarian, while those in

the working-class are oriented toward maintaining order and obedience" (p.420).

In addition, a classic study of the effects of social class and parental child-rearing values and practices has demonstrated similar relations (Kohn, 1963). A more recent study by Sigel (1985) has noted, in support of previous studies, that higher SES parents express more positive attitudes toward independent behavior and responsibility from their children than lower class parents, who favor obedient behavior.

Other studies have consistently described higher SES homes and higher income levels as being more democratic, less punitive, and more child centered than homes with lower SES parents (Fox, 1995; Hoffman, 1963; Gecas, 1979; Skinner, 1985). Similarly, Maccoby (1980) concluded that higher SES parents tend to talk more with their children and reason with them more and show more warmth and affection toward their children than lower SES parents. Greater sensitivity and flexibility towards the individuality of their children among higher SES mothers might explain these patterns of parental responses (Prior et al., 1989).

In overview, the literature on parenting makes it clear that parents in different social strata child rearing differently.

The research on ethnicity has demonstrated that ethnic minority families differ from White American families in

their size, structure, and composition, their reliance on the kinship networks, and their levels of income and education. Large and extended families are more common among ethnic minority groups than White Americans (Harrison et al., 1990). Also ethnic minority parents are less well educated than White Americans and ethnic minority children are more likely to come from young, single-parent families, and low income families than White American children (Spencer & Donbusch, 1990). And the extended family system in many ethnic minority families provide an important buffer to stress (Munsch & Wampler, 1992).

Several studies have examined the childrearing attitudes and behaviors held by members of different ethnic groups in the United States. In native-American families, children can be treated permissively, in accord with a belief in the importance of respecting children's autonomy (Phillips & Lobar, 1990). African-American parental discipline practices have been characterized as being comparatively more harsh, authoritarian, and parent-focused than White American practices (Baumrind, 1972a; Durrett et al., 1975). Mexican American mothers were less authoritative but more protective than African American or White American mothers (Durrett et al., 1975). Hispanic-American mothers tend to be nurturant, warm, and egalitarian, with relative permissiveness and indulgence characterizing their behavior toward the young

(Vega, 1990). Finally, Asian American parents tend to be highly lenient, nurturant, and permissive during infancy and toddlerhood, while becoming stricter when children reach 3 to 6 years (Kelly & Tseng, 1992; Hess et al., 1980). The literature on variations in parenting patterns suggests the importance of taking into consideration the relationship between acculturation and parenting styles.

In addition to differences among ethnic and minority families, several cross-cultural studies indicate further cultural differences in parenting styles. Whiting and Edwards (1988) found mothers' behavior toward their children in agricultural communities of Philippines, Mexico, and North India to be more controlling than that of mothers in the U.S. community of Orchard Town. However, a study by Solis-Camara (1995) reported that Latin mothers from Mexico and Caucasian mothers from the US did not differ significantly in their developmental expectations or parenting practices when demographic variables were controlled for formal educational level, socioeconomic and marital status. Both samples maintained higher expectations and reported more frequent use of discipline with older children than with younger children.

In summary, ethnic, minority, and cultural groups are characterized by relatively different parenting attitudes, values, and behaviors.

Employment Status and Satisfaction and Parenting

Ample data exist to suggest relations between parental employment and parenting behavior. A study by Greenberger and his colleagues (1994) found that parents with more challenging and stimulating jobs and parents whose jobs involve complex interactions with people, were associated with less harsh disciplinary practices, more warmth, and greater responsiveness.

Interest in the role of maternal employment and parenting has been coincident with the increase in mothers' employment over the past 40 years (A.E.Gottfried, Bathurst, & A.W.Gottfried, 1994). Only 16 percent of U.S. children had working mothers in 1950, and by 1970, 36 percent of the children had mothers in the labor force. However by 1990, this proportion had grown to 59 percent (Hernandez, 1993). The single (male)-earner, intact, two-parent family is now in the minority. Maternal unavailability during early childhood because of employment was believed to be deprivational, as psychoanalytic theory considered the mother to be of unparalleled importance to her child's psychological development (Bretherton, 1993).

Recently, mothers' satisfaction with employment and parenting roles has been a significant issue. A positive association between maternal job dissatisfaction and parental use of rejecting behaviors has been noted (Lerner & Galambos, 1985). Women's dissatisfaction with their role as employed

mother was associated with negative moods. The mothers' negative moods in turn influenced the incidence of their rejecting and punishing behavior towards their children (MacEwen & Barling, 1991). On the other hand, when mothers are satisfied with their employment they tend to be more authoritative and rely less on power assertive forms of discipline to enforce rules (Greenberger & Goldberg, 1989). Similarly, O'Neil (1991) assessed mothers in a variety of middle-class occupations and found that those who described a higher level of job demands (e.g.,time pressure and performance expectation) reported lower involvement in cognitively challenging activities with 5- and 6-year-old sons. In contrast, high job demands were related positively to mothers' reports of more involvement in cognitively challenging interactions with daughters.

A positive trend regarding the greater involvement of fathers in childrearing has been reported. The trend is most distinct when the mother is employed and as her employment hours increase (Biernat & Wortman, 1991). Moreover, paternal unemployment and the unavailability or unaffordability of high-quality day care have thrown many men into the role of part-time or full-time caregiver for young children. Some fathers have assumed increased or primary caregiving responsibility (Ross, 1987).

Repetti (1992,1994) conducted research on the relationship between daily fluctuations in job stressors

experienced by male air traffic controllers, and their self-reported daily interactions with their children over a 3-month period. He suggested that a higher perceived workload (e.g., a busy day and difficult conditions) was associated with an increase in withdrawal (i.e., fewer high-involvement interactions such as helping with homework) by the fathers, and fewer disciplinary efforts. Similarly, Moen (1982) found that the more time and energy fathers devoted to their jobs, the more irritable and impatient they were with their children, as reported by both husbands' and wives' reports. Taken together, these findings indicate that conditions of parental employment significantly effects parenting behaviors.

Quality of Life

Two major studies on quality of life were conducted in the early 1970s (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et al., 1976). Both studies demonstrated that an individual's overall quality of life is additive. It reflects the sum of one's satisfaction on various life domains. Domains include self, standard of living, family life, marriage, friends, neighbors, work, income, housing, health, and leisure activities. Glenn and Weaver (1979) found that satisfaction with marriage was the strongest predictor of quality of life when other factors such as income, education, and occupation were controlled.

An extensive body of research has found a negative impact of stress on overall quality of life (Caplan, 1983).

In the following section, literature on the impact of parental stress and social support on parenting is reviewed.

Stress and Parenting

Other contextual factors, such as chronic stress and daily hassles, as well as social isolation have been documented as having significant effects on the parent's ability to discipline and supervise his or her child. Hence, numerous researchers have been concerned with investigating the negative affects of stress on the quality of parenting and on the functioning of the family system, both of which influence the quality of a child's developmental functioning.

The relationship between family stress and less effective parenting in preschool children has been clearly documented. Thompson, Merritt, Keith, Bennett, & Johndrow (1993) have reported findings suggesting that, with demographic variables controlled for, higher levels of maternal daily stress related to both parent- and child reported adjustment difficulties. This study suggests that parental stress and hassles are associated with coercive parent-child interactions, and with disruptions in children's development. There is accumulating evidence that preschool children are more likely to show overactive, noncompliant, aggressive, and impulsive behavior in the context of

uninvolved, rejecting, or harsh parenting. Campbell and his colleagues (1991), for example, have provided convincing evidence that maternal reports of stressful life events and marital distress were each associated with higher levels of negative maternal control after controlling for children's observed behavior.

The importance of understanding the connection of daily hassles to parental disciplinary practices has been reported. Snyder (1991) found that on days when mothers reported negative mood and frequent hassles, they were more likely to respond to child misbehavior in a negative way. In other words, parents may respond to negatively biased perceptions of their children's behavior by becoming more controlling and punishing or by avoiding interactions with their child.

The literature regarding work-family stressors for employed parents has emerged as a significant issue. Some of the most contemporary work-related issues include work-family conflict. Typical work-family conflict has been discussed with regard to time availability, child care, work schedules, and performing housework (Voydanoff, 1989). Furthermore, Hughes and Galinsky (1988) found that one of the most salient work-family stressors for maternal and dual parent employment was associated with availability of adequate and stable child care. For both men and women, being an employed parent held more role strain than for nonparents.

Another topic in need of attention concerns marital

discord and its effect on parenting. Marital conflict, low marital satisfaction and poor spousal support have been associated with increased parenting stress by both men and women. These marital problems are also associated with inconsistent and punitive parenting as well as a lack of parental agreement concerning discipline (Webster-Stratton, 1990; Stoneman, 1989; Jouriles et al., 1988).

There is emerging evidence that marital quality moderates gendered parenting. Maritally dissatisfied partners have been found to be more likely to differentiate between their children on the basis of gender (Brody et al., 1986).

There is evidence that minor parenting stressors affect the quality of parenting children receive, as well as the satisfaction that parents receive from the process of child-rearing. Minor daily hassles experienced by mothers and fathers were related to negative behavioral responses toward their child. Mothers responding to more minor stressors responded with greater negative affect. Fathers who reported more hassles, on the other hand, tended more often to show no response to their children (Acevedo, 1993).

McBride (1989) found that when mothers were employed outside the home, fathers tended to perceive their roles as being more restricted, experienced more depression in their parental role, and saw their children being more moody and demanding. He also notes that many working mothers have been

subject to the stress associated with the multiple role demands of being a parent and working outside the home. Most fathers, on the other hand, have not, and may experience stress as they attempt to meet the changing expectations for paternal involvement of child care in response to maternal employment.

As poverty rates of U.S. families have increased gradually (Strawn, 1992), attention has been drawn to the adverse effects on parenting behaviors caused by the stress of living in poverty. Many studies reveal that economic hardship has effects on a depression-loneliness distress factor. Consequently parents were found to exhibit more irritable and moody behavior, and to be less nurturant, involved, and child centered. Poverty-stricken parents also displayed more inconsistent disciplinary behavior toward their children than parents who had few financial difficulties (Conger et al., 1993; McLoyd & Wilson, 1991). It has also been found that the reported incidence of maltreatment is disproportionately large among families in poverty (U.S. Advisory Board on Child Abuse and Neglect, 1990). Likewise, socially isolated families and increased family size (total number of children living in the household) have both been associated with higher rates of child abuse than other families (Hashima & Amato, 1994; Corse et al., 1990; Zurabin, 1988).

In summary, stressors appear to have the power to

disrupt parenting practices. In turn, such parenting practices may increase the presence of children's reported behavioral problems which may activate a cycle of negative parent-child interactions and place additional stress on parents (Mash & Johnston, 1990; Webster-Stratton, 1990)

Social Support (Network) and Parenting

There has been empirical attention devoted to issues surrounding the "buffering" view of social support and to networks of parenting.

Weiss (1974) describes six different social provisions that may be obtained from relationships with others. He contends that all six provisions are needed for individuals to feel adequately supported and to avoid loneliness, although different provisions may be most crucial in certain circumstances or at different stages of the life cycle. The six social provisions are: guidance (advice or information); reliable alliance (the assurance that other can be counted upon for tangible assistance); reassurance of worth (recognition of one's competence, skills, and value by others); opportunity for nurturance (the sense that others rely upon one for their well-being); attachment (emotional closeness from which one derives a sense of security); and social integration (a sense that belonging to a group that shares similar interests, concerns, and recreational activities).

Many writers have stressed the importance of the support from family, relatives, neighbors and friends. Numerous studies have found that for mothers and fathers, spousal support of both the emotional (e.g., love, intimacy) and instrumental (e.g., child care tasks) variety and marital satisfaction levels are associated with skillful parenting. This holds true for parents in various countries, and for parents of infants, toddlers, and preschoolers (Belsky & Isabella, 1988; Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984; Bristol et al., 1988).

There is strong evidence that the mother's access to social support moderates the effects of everyday parenting stresses (Crnic & Greenberg, 1990). The marital relationship is the primary support system for parenting. Mothers in happy marriages are warmer and more sensitive to their children, and their husbands hold more positive childrearing attitudes than do husbands in less happy relationships (Cox et al., 1989). The types of relationships in other social networks in which children and parents engage when "outside" of their role of child or parent, respectively, can be of secondary influential capacity on the parent-child relationship (Belsky & Vondra, 1989; Simons et al., 1993). Several studies, for example, have demonstrated that more supportive maternal networks, and satisfaction with one's network are associated with less restrictive, more nurturant parenting, more praise for children and a less intrusive

style of interaction (Melson et al., 1993; Corse et al., 1990; Belsky, 1984; Weinraub & Wolfe, 1983). Similarly, Jennings et al. (1991) reported that mothers who are satisfied with their social support exhibit more supportive, affectionate behavior and a less intrusive style of interaction.

Unlike previous investigators, Belle (1982) has proposed that it is not network size, proximity of membership, or frequency of contact that is associated with emotional well-being but rather the number of people reported as engaged specifically in providing child care assistance and the availibility of "someone to turn to".

Cochran and his colleagues (1990) have compared parents' network membership across cultures (Sweden, United States, Wales, West Germany), social class (blue collar vs. white collar), and family structure (one- vs. two-parent families) and have found that across cultures, mothers in white collar families reported involvement with a higher number of network members in every category of social support. The networks of single mothers were smaller than those found in two parent families, regardless of culture or class.

Cross (1990) has examined network size differences by race and ethnicity, and has reported that the networks of African American two-parent families were more than 25 percent larger than those of single mothers. Results also suggest that the networks of ethnic white mothers were larger

than those of either nonethnic White or African mothers, regardless of family structure.

In summary, the effects of stress on parenting can be moderated or buffered by the availability of social support.

Intergenerational Transmission of Parenting

Since the late 1940s investigators have looked at the intergenerational transmission of attitudes toward childrearing as a determinant of parenting behavior.

Several studies have demonstrated evidence for a strong association between the type of parenting the father or mother received as a child and the individual's subsequent parenting practices (Egeland, Jacobvitz, & Papatola, 1987).

Laub and Sampson (1988), for example, have reported that girls from families that use inept discipline and that lack positive reinforcement consequently provide the same treatment to their own children. It has been reported that adults who are secure in their relationships with their own parents provide more emotional support and assistance when interacting with their young children (Crowell & Feldman, 1988; Grossmann et al., 1988). Crockenberg (1987) also found that young mothers holding angry, punitive parenting attitudes experienced little social support from a partner after birth and had memories of being rejected by their own parents during childhood. This study was based on 40 mothers (aged 17-21 years at follow-up) who gave birth as adolescents

and their 2-year-old children.

In a large study of 451 two-parent families, each of which included a 7th grader, in which intergenerational transmission of harsh parenting was assessed, the investigators reported that parents' attitudes toward harsh discipline correlated with their reports of their own parents' aggressive parenting. Results also indicate the early transmission of attitudes toward spanking. Interestingly, the effect was stronger for mothers than for fathers (Simons et al., 1991).

There is convincing evidence indicating an association between social class and parenting practices across generations. The linkages that have been reported between generations may merely represent the tendency of adult children to replicate the lower social-class status of their parents, with its accompanying stressors and life style, a life style that may promote irritability and increase the likelihood of harsh parenting (Burgess & Youngblade, 1988).

In summary, there is strong evidence that styles of parenting are transmitted across generations. Furthermore, the supportive and harsh parenting of one generation may directly influence the parenting of the next generation through a simple modeling effect.

Summary

For several decades, researchers have documented the relation between parental disciplinary practices and developmental outcomes in children. The literature has found that reasoning, which involves providing the child rationales and explanations requiring compliance, promotes self-control in children. On the other hand, power assertion, which involves direct commands and punishments, provides external motivations for compliance (Kuczynski, 1983).

Given the importance of parental disciplinary practices for children, findings from these studies suggest a combined influence of several factors on individual differences in parental disciplinary practices. Such research reviewed also provide persuasive evidence that characteristics of the child, characteristics of the parent, and the context in which the parent-child relationship is evolving affect parental behaviors. The studies support Belsky's model that parenting behavior is multiply determined.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is divided into the following sections: 1) Research Design, 2) Dependent and Independent Variables, 3) Sample Selection and Description, 4) Research Questions, 5) Description of Instruments, 6) Data Collection Procedures, 7) Data Analysis.

Research Design

A survey design was undertaken to achieve the objectives of this study. The units of analysis examined were the mothers and fathers of preschool age children. Self-report questionnaires were used to collect data on the following variables: 1) family background characteristics; 2) child temperament; 3) quality of life; 4) social support; 5) intergenerational transmission of parenting; and 6) parental disciplinary practices.

Dependent and Independent Variables

The dependent variable in this study was parental disciplinary practices. The study involved three sets of independent variables: 1) child factors, which include sex, temperament (sociability, soothability, activity level,

emotionality, attention span-persistence), and birth order; 2) parental factors, which include age, education level, ethnic and cultural background, marital status and job status; and 3) contextual factors, which include number of children living at home, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, quality of life, social support, and recollected childhood experiences.

Sample Selection and Description

The subjects for this study consisted of 120 mothers and 120 fathers of two to six year old children. 474 mothers and fathers whose children attended a university child development laboratory as well as families on the waiting list for the program were recruited. The mothers and fathers of the children were informed about the research, and invited to participate. Those who agreed to participate were included in the study.

Table 2 presents a summary of the demographic characteristics of the subjects. Approximately 58% of the children were males, and most (64.2%) of the children were first born. The age of the children included in the research ranged from 19 to 70 months, with a mean of 44.9 months (SD = 12.3).

The age of the mothers ranged from 24 to 48 years, with a mean of 35.3 years (SD = 4.91). The mean age for the participating fathers was 37.58 (SD = 5.72). The range

spanned 29 years with the youngest father being 27 years old and the oldest being 56 years old. Mothers and fathers in the sample were highly educated. More than ten percent (10.8%) of the mothers had only finished high school and 52.5% completed a college degree, while 7.5% of the fathers finished high school and 31.7% completed a college degree. Approximately thirty-four percent (34.2%) of the mothers and 57.5% of the fathers completed a master degree or above. Mothers reported their occupational status as homemaker by 57.5%, professional by 22.6%. Fathers reported their occupational status as professional by 50% and sales manager by 20.8%. All subjects were married. These subjects also represented different ethnic groups. More than seventy-four percent (74.2%) of the mothers and 77.5% of the fathers were Euro-American, 25.8% of the mothers and 22.5% of the fathers were Asian. The Asian mothers and fathers represented different citizenships, including Korean, Chinese, and Japanese.

The average number of children at home for this sample was 2.0 (SD = 0.8), with a range from 1 to 5. Family income ranged from less than $15,999 to over $100,000 annually. 29.2% of families reported an income of over $100,000 annually, 36.7% between $50,000 and $99,999, 22.5% between $25,000 and $49,999, 4.2% between $15,000 and $24,999, and 7.5% at less than $15,999.

Table 2

Sample Demographic Characteristics

Variable		
Child Characteristics(N=120)		
Male(%)	58.3	
Female (%)	41.7	
Age(months)		
M	44.90	
Range	19-70	
Birth Order(%)		
First born	64.2	
Second born	25.0	
Third born	8.3	
Fourth born or greater	2.5	
Parental Characteristics	Mother(N=120)	Father(N=120)
Age(years)		
M	35.30	37.58
Range	27-48	27-56
Education(%)		
Less than high school graduate	0.0	0.8
High school graduate	2.5	2.5
Some education beyond high school graduate	10.8	7.5
B.A/B.S degree	52.5	31.7
M.A./M.S. degree	23.4	22.5
Ph.D.,M.D.,J.D.,D.D.S.	10.8	35.0
Occupation(%) ,		
Professional specialty	22.6	50.0
Self-employed businessman	5.0	7.5
Service	0.0	4.1
Homemaker	57.5	0.8
Student	7.5	13.3
Sales Manager	7.5	20.8
Other	0.0	3.3
Ethnicity(%)		
Euro-American	74.2	77.5
Asian	25.8	12.5
Family Characteristics		
Number of children		
M	2.01	
Range	1-5	
Gross household Income(%)		
Under $ 15,999	7.5	
$ 15,000 - 24,999	4.2	
$ 25,000 - 49,999	22.5	
$ 50,000 - 99,999	36.7	
$100,000 and over	29.2	

Research Questions

The following research questions were explored in this study:

1. What are the differences between mothers and fathers in their disciplinary practices?
2. What are the child, parent, and contextual variables most associated with parental disciplinary practices?
3. Which child, parent, and contextual variables, identified in research question two, distinguish effective and ineffective parental disciplinary practices?
4. What are the relationships between cumulative risk factors and ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers?

Description of Instruments

The following research instruments were used in the research: (a) The Parenting Scale, (b) The Demographic Questionnaire, (c) The Colorado Childhood Temperament Inventory, (d) The Social Provisions Scale, (e) Quality of Life measure, (f) The Supportive Parenting Scale, (g) The Punitive Parenting Scale.

The measure used to assess the parental disciplinary practice is described first. This description is followed by an overview of the predictor variables.

Parental Disciplinary Practice

The Parenting Scale. The Parenting Scale developed by Arnold et al (1993) was used to measure disciplinary practices in parents of young children. Copies of the Parenting Scale are located in Appendix A. Three factors indicating a dysfunctional discipline style were identified: (1) Laxness, (b) Overreactivity, and (c) Verbosity.

The Laxness factor included 11 items related to permissive discipline. The Overreactivity factor consisted of 10 items used to identify parenting mistakes such as displays of anger, meanness, and irritability. The Verbosity factor was composed of 7 items related to lengthy verbal responses and a reliance on talking even when talking is ineffective. For this study, the Verbosity subscale was dropped in order to reduce the time parents spent completing forms.

Each of the preceding items was paired with a more effective counterpart to form the anchors of a 7-point scale. For example, the mistake anchor of one item is *I let my child do whatever he or she wants*, and its effective counterpart is *I set limits on what my child can do*.

A total score was determined by totaling the ratings of all 21 items. Scores can range from 21 to 147. Higher scores indicated that the parent utilized a more effective disciplinary practice.

The alpha reliability and test-retest reliability of the

Parenting Scale were examined by Arnold et al (1993). The coefficients ranged from .82 to .84. The internal consistency of this instrument for the present study sample was also established. Cronbach's alpha was .86 for laxness subscale, .83 for overreactivity subscale, and .87 for total scale.

The Demographic Questionnaire

Parents were asked information about the age, sex, ordinal position of a target child in the family, number of children living at home, as well as each parent's age, each parent's highest level of education, and marital status. Questions about the primary occupation of each parent, employment status, and the gross income of each family, as well as the ethnic and cultural background of the respondents were also included (see Appendix B).

Temperament

The Colorado Childhood Temperament Inventory. Child temperament was assessed with the use of The Colorado Childhood Temperament Inventory (CCTI) (Rowe & Plomin, 1977). Copies of the CCTI are presented in Appendix C. This instrument consists of twenty-five items. For each item, parents are asked to circle one response on a five-point scale ranging from "not at all like the child" to "a lot like the child". Five dimensions are derived from the individual

items: 1) sociability, 2) emotionality, 3) activity level, 4) attention span-persistence, 5) soothability.

The internal consistency of each dimension reported by Rowe and Plomin (1977) was as follows: sociability .88; emotionality .80; activity level .82; attention span-persistence .79; soothability .73. The test-retest reliability of each dimension reported by Rowe and Plomin (1977) was the following: sociability .58; emotionality .72; activity level .80; attention span-persistence .77; soothability .43. Data from this study were used to assess the internal consistency of the five subscales. The Cronbach's alpha for each dimension were as follows: sociability .85; emotionality .86; activity level .78; attention span-persistence .75; and soothability .81.

A total score for each dimension is achieved by summing the ratings of 5 items. The highest possible score on this scale is 25 and the lowest possible score is 5. High scores on each subscale indicate that the child is very social, emotional, active, persistent, and easy to soothe. Low scores on the sociability dimension indicate that a) the child doesn't make friends easily, b) the child is not friendly with strangers, c) the child is not sociable, d) the child takes a long time to warm up to strangers, and e) the child tends to be shy. Low scores on the emotionality dimension indicate that a) the child doesn't get upset easily, b) the child tends not to be emotional, c) the child

doesn't react intensely when upset, d) the child rarely cries, and e) the child rarely fusses. Low scores on activity dimension indicate that a) the child is not energetic, b) the child is not on the go, c) the child prefers more active games to quiet, inactive ones, d) the child is rarely off and running as soon as he wakes up in the morning, and e) when the child moves about, he usually moves slowly. Low scores on the attention span-persistence dimension indicate that a) the child plays with a single toy for short periods of time, b) the child doesn't persist at a task until successful, c) the child goes from toy to toy quickly, d) the child gives up easily when difficulties are encountered, and e) with a difficult toy, the child gives up quite easily. Finally, low scores on the soothability dimension indicate that a) whenever the child starts crying, he/she can hardly be distracted, b) when upset by an unexpected situation, the child is slow to calm down, c) the child doesn't stop fussing although someone talked to him/her or picked him/her up, d) although talked to, the child doesn't stop crying, and e) the child doesn't tolerate frustration well.

Social Support

The Social Provisions Scale.

The parental levels of social support were assessed through utilization of the Social Provisions Scale (Russell & Cutrona, 1987; Appendix D)

to measure the six relational provisions of the social support theory developed by Weiss (1974). The six provisions of social support are: 1) provisions of guidance, 2) reassurance of worth, 3) social integration, 4) attachment, 5) reliable alliance, 6) opportunity for nurturance. Each provision is assessed by four items. Two of the items relate to the presence of the provisions and two related to the absence of the provisions. Parents use a four point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree) to indicate how much each of the items described their social support. The scores from each of the items are summed to produce a total score. The highest possible score on this scale is 96 and the lowest possible score was 24. A high score is indicative of greater social support.

The internal consistency for each of the subscales was reported by Russell & Cutrona (1987). The coefficients ranged from .68 to .89. The reliability coefficient, Cronbach's alpha, for the total Social Support Scale of the present sample was .91.

Quality of Life

Quality of Life Measure.

A Quality of Life Measure was adapted by this researcher based on the Quality of Life Measure developed by Andrews and Withey (1976). There are ten items to determine parental feelings about life concerns. Only items applicable to this study are included. Among ten

items, 2 items were used to test marital satisfaction and job satisfaction. Appendix E contains this scale.

The original Quality of Life Measure includes 26 items. The reliability of .70 for the original measure was estimated by Andrews and Withey (1976). For this study's sample, Cronbach's alpha of the modified version of this measure was .84.

Parents select answers from a seven point scale. Responses on the seven point continuum range from "terrible" to "delighted" (1 = terrible, 2 = unhappy, 3 = mostly dissatisfied, 4 = mixed, 5 = mostly satisfied, 6 = pleased, 7 = delighted). The scores of the 8 items are summed for the Quality of Life total score. The highest possible score on this scale is 56 and the lowest possible score is 8. Higher scores on this scale correspond to higher levels of satisfaction.

Intergenerational Transmission of Parenting

Two measures were used as indicators of the mothers' and fathers' ratings of their parent's parenting (see Appendix F).

The Supportive Discipline Scale. This measure requires that the mothers and fathers recollect their childhood memories using the seven-item Supportive Discipline Scale (Simons et al., 1992). Response categories range along a 5-point continuum with 1 = never, 3 = about half the time, and

5 = always.

The total supportive discipline score is the sum of the parent's responses to the seven items. A higher score on this measure indicates higher levels of grandparents' supportive parenting.

The Supportive Parenting Scale is found to have acceptable alpha reliability. Coefficient alpha for mother's reports of the grandparent's supportive parenting ranged from .92 to .93, while coefficient alpha for father's reports of the grandparent's supportive parenting ranged from .87 to .91 respectively (Simons et al., 1992). In the present sample, the seven item Supportive Parenting Scale had Cronbach's alpha of .89 for mothers and fathers.

The Harsh Discipline Scale. In this test, mothers and fathers are asked to think about their childhood relationship with their parents. This measure requires mothers and fathers to complete a four-item Harsh Discipline Scale adapted from Straus et al. (1980). Response categories range along a 5-point continuum with 1 = never, 3 = about half the time, and 5 = always.

The scores of the 4 items are summed for the Harsh Discipline Scale. The highest possible score on this measure is 20 and the lowest possible score is 4. A high score on this measure indicates higher levels of grandparents' harsh parenting.

Coefficient alpha ranged from .70 to .73 for fathers'

reports on their parent's punitive parenting. Coefficient alpha ranged from .75 to .78 for mothers' reports on their parent's punitive parenting (Straus et al., 1980). In the present sample, the four item Punitive Parenting Scale had a Cronbach's alpha .73 for mothers and fathers.

Data Collection Procedures

The questionnaire, two cover letters, one for families in the program and one for families on the waiting list, and a consent form were submitted to and approved by the Michigan State University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects. The packets were then mailed to the home of 474 families of preschool-age children in late October. Within the packets were two sets of questionnaires to be completed by the parents, one designated 'mother' and one designated 'father.' A consent form, a stamped and return-addressed envelope, and a cover letter (introducing the researcher, describing the purpose of the study, the importance of the study, and an maintenance in strict confidentiality) were also included. The parents were directed not to consult with one another when completing the questionnaire.

Of the 474 mailed questionnaires, 11 sets were not deliverable and 3 couples maintained that their children did not fit criteria. Of the 460 potential couples left, 139 couples returned their questionnaires. This yielded a response rate of thirty percent. Nineteen sets were

eliminated because either one of the parents did not complete the questionnaire or returned it partially complete.

During the winter of 1996 and 1997, the data were coded, entered into computer files, and thoroughly cleaned by the researcher. Families who returned their forms received five children's books and were thanked for their participation and assistance. A summary of the results of the study was sent to those who expressed interest.

Data Analysis

Data were coded and entered into a data file by the researcher. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The analyses were conducted separately for the group of mothers and the group of fathers. Descriptive analysis was used to describe the demographic characteristics of the sample. The descriptive statistics included frequencies of child, parent, and contextual characteristics. Mean standard deviations of the variables were run for the following variables: 1) age of the child, 2) number of children living at home, 3) age of mother, 4) age of father, 5) mother's level of education, 6) father's level of education, 7) gross income of the family. Percentages were computed for the following variables: 1) sex of the child, 2) ordinal position of the target child in the family, 3) marital status of the parents, 4) mother's employment status, 5) father's employment status, 6) ethnic

and cultural backgrounds of the mother and father.

Five statistical methods were used for data description and analysis: MANOVA, zero-order correlations, multiple regression analyses, t-test, and chi-square analyses. MANOVA was computed to test for difference in disciplinary practices between mothers and fathers. Zero order correlations were calculated to determine the extent of associations among the predictor variables, and the associations between predictor variables and the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. Multiple regression analyses, employing the stepwise procedure, were performed to examine the combined effects of several predictor variables on the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. T-test and chi-square analyses were computed to identify which of the variables were related to the ineffective and effective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. Chi-square analyses were employed to examine the relationship between the scores on a "risk index" and the probability of having a low disciplinary score (ineffective disciplinary score). Findings were considered to be significant when the coefficient was greater than zero by a chance probability that was less than or equal to .05.

Summary

The research design, the major variables of the study, and the selection as well as description of the subjects who

participated in this study were discussed. The instruments and techniques for data collection and analysis employed in this study were also discussed in this chapter. Chapter IV contains a report of the findings for this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of the statistical analysis of the data will be presented and discussed in this chapter. Each research question is stated, followed by results related to that question.

Research Question 1: What are differences between mothers and fathers in their disciplinary practices?

The disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers toward their preschool-age children were assessed using the Parenting Scale total score and with two subscales (laxness and overreactivity) of the Parenting Scale. Higher scores represented more effective parental disciplinary practices.

In order to ascertain whether there were statistically significant differences in the disciplinary practices that mothers and fathers utilized with their children, MANOVA was conducted. Maternal disciplinary total scores ranged from 72 to 140, with a mean of 115.68 and a standard deviation of 14.09. Paternal disciplinary total scores ranged from 79 to 141 with a mean of 113.26 and a standard deviation of 13.35. Mothers showed a higher mean than fathers on the total scores, although the difference was not statistically

significant.

The laxness dimension of the maternal disciplinary scores ranged from 30 to 74, with a mean of 60.50 and a standard deviation of 8.89. The laxness dimension of the paternal disciplinary scores ranged from 29 to 75, with a mean of 58.22 and a standard deviation of 8.93. Mothers scored significantly higher than fathers on laxness scores.

The overreactivity dimension of the maternal disciplinary scores ranged from 34 to 68, with a mean of 55.18 and a standard deviation of 7.74. The overreactivity dimension of the paternal disciplinary scores ranged from 32 to 70, with a mean of 55.04 and a standard deviation of 7.98. No significant difference was found between overreactivity scores on the maternal disciplinary practices and overreactivity scores on the paternal disciplinary practices. These results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

MANOVA of Differences Between Disciplinary Practices of Mothers and Fathers

Scale	Mother (N=120) M	SD	Father (N=120) M	SD	F
Laxness	60.50	8.89	58.22	8.93	3.94*
Overreactivity	55.18	7.74	55.04	7.98	.02
Total	115.68	14.09	113.26	13.35	1.86

*P<.05

Research Question 2: What are the child, parent, and contextual variables most associated with parental disciplinary practices?

As the first step of the analysis to test research question 2, the zero order correlations between the predictor variables and the outcome variable, parental disciplinary practices, for the group of fathers and the group of mothers were examined. The predictor variables used in this study fell into three categories: child factors, parental factors, and contextual factors. In the present study, three child factors were considered, including sex, temperament (sociability, emotionality, activity level, attention span-persistence, soothability), and birth order. The parental factors identified were age, education level, ethnicity, and employment status. Seven contextual factors included in the analyses: number of children living at home, household income, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, levels of social support, levels of quality of life, and recollected childhood experiences. These results are presented in Table 4 for mothers and Table 5 for fathers. Most of the correlations were in the expected directions, and small to moderate in magnitude. Relations between predictor variables that were significant at the zero-order level and disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers are presented in Table 6.

Table 4
Zero-Order Correlations Among the Predictor Variables of Mothers

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.										
2.	-.08									
3.	.05	.11								
4.	-.06	-.08	-.01							
5.	.12	.01	.02	-.10						
6.	.09	.04	-.15	.08	-.27***					
7.	.03	-.04	.16*	.17*	-.07	-.15				
8.	.02	-.12	.04	-.00	.14	-.51****	.17*			
9.	.28***	.02	.39****	-.06	-.10	-.09	.11	.16*		
10.	.09	.06	-.13	-.02	.03	-.07	-.17*	.07	.24***	
11.	.02	.01	.07	-.02	.01	-.20**	.23**	.06	.36****	.09
12.	.05	.21***	-.02	.08	.03	-.05	-.05	.01	-.08	-.12
13.	-.03	-.01	-.05	.04	-.18**	.08	-.05	.03	-.07	-.11
14.	.03	-.08	.18*	-.19**	.07	-.17*	.08	.17*	.15*	.01
15.	-.06	-.16*	.02	-.10	.14	-.10	.05	.15	.00	-.12
16.	.05	-.15*	.06	.10	-.03	-.11	.11	.14	.17*	.21**
17.	.25***	.14	.62****	.04	.12	-.12	.18**	.11	.17*	-.05
18.	.15	-.01	.15	-.03	-.16*	.08	.02	-.18**	-.08	-.25***
19.	-.16	-.04	-.03	.10	-.04	-.09	-.02	16*	-.07	.12
20.	.04	-.20**	.07	-.09	.03	-.18**	.17**	.21**	.12	.08
21.	.04	-.09	.06	.06	.01	-.14	.12	.19**	.15	.09
22.	-.17*	-.09	-.14	.09	-.01	-.38****	.18**	.22**	.01	.12

Continued

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
12	-.10										
13	-.13	-.20**									
14	-.02	-.15	-.11								
15	.13	.10	-.17*	.29***							
16	.38****	-.30***	.15	-.07	.12						
17	.06	-.10	-.04	.13	.05	.21**					
18.	.04	-.05	.01	-.18*	-.16*	.05	.21**				
19	-.10	.06	-.06	.13	.14	-.02	-.15*	-.43****			
20	.29***	-.21**	-.09	.54****	.56****	.37****	.16*	-.14	.18**		
21	.32****	-.20**	-.11	.30***	.30***	.12	.09	-.06	.18*	.58****	
22	.31****	-.02	-.15	.21**	.25***	.23**	-.05	-.01	.11	.42****	.32****

* p<.10
** p<.05
*** p<.01
***** p<.001
Sex of the child is coded as male (1) or female (2).
Employment status is coded as employed(1) or homemaker(2)
Ethnicity is coded as Asian(1) or Euro-American(2).

Child Factors
1. Age, 2. Sex, 3. Birth Order, 4. Activity Level, 5. Attention-Span Persistence,
6. Emotionality, 7. Sociability, 8. Soothability
Maternal Factors
9. Age, 10. Educational Level, 11. Ethnicity/Race, 12. Employment Status, 13. Secondary Occupation
Contextual Factors
14. Marital satisfaction, 15. Job satisfaction, 16. Household Income, 17. Number of Children,
18. Punitive History of Parenting, 19. Supportive History of Parenting, 20 Level of Quality of Life,
21. Level of Social Support, 22. Disciplinary practices

Table 5
Zero-Order Correlations Among the Predictor Variables of Fathers

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1										
2	-.09									
3	.04	.11								
4	.00	-.13	-.11							
5	.16*	.01	.06	-.13						
6	-.06	.05	-.08	.13	-.32****					
7	.16	-.09	.07	.09	.12	-.23**				
8	.03	-.06	-.03	-.01	.31****	-.42****	.26***			
9	.27***	.02	.26***	-.02	.13	-.16*	.12	.07		
10	.07	-.03	-.06	.04	.07	-.09	-.01	.03	.15*	
11	.05	-.04	.13	.03	.03	-.06	.33****	.15*	.21**	-.23**
12	.08	.09	-.17*	-.16	.10	-.00	-.18**	.01	-.21**	.20**
13	.02	-.07	.09	.03	-.04	.12	-.15*	-.08	-.05	-.00
14	.04	-.13	.20**	-.00	.00	-.03	.03	.09	.03	.10
15	-.05	-.16*	.09	.02	-.10	.01	-.08	.01	-.02	.16*
16	.05	-.15*	.06	.14	-.00	.01	.13	.03	.23**	-.07
17	.24***	.14	.62****	-.09	.06	.00	.13	.00	.11	-.06
18	-.10	-.04	.09	.05	-.13	.01	-.06	-.07	-.00	-.05
19	.12	-.01	-.00	.10	-.03	.01	.06	.01	-.11	-.08
20.	09	-.23**	.13	.01	-.17*	-.06	.05	.08	.05	.12
21	.11	-.15*	.05	.07	.06	-.15	.11	.13	.06	.28***
22	.01	-.24**	.00	.05	.00	-.22**	.09	.16*	.06	-.07

Continued

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
12	-.48****										
13	-.01	-.20**									
14	.08	.06	-.08								
15	-.07	-.01	-.07	.46****							
16.	.38****	-.62****	.19**	.08	.09						
17.	.11	-.18**	.16	.16*	.14	.21**					
18.	.14	-.03	.20**	-.11	-.09	-.01	.02				
19	-.13	-.18*	.22**	.12	.13	.23**	.03	-.31***			
20	.11	-.16*	-.05	.70****	.68****	.34****	.15	-.17*	.32****		
21	.14	-.03	-.08	.44****	.37****	.17*	.12	-.04	.05	.59****	
22	.23**	-.23**	-.04	.21**	.15*	.30***	-.01	.04	.11	.42****	.34****

* p<.10
** p<.05
*** p<.01
***** p<.001
Sex of the child is coded as male (1) or female (2).
Employment status is coded as full-time employed (1) or in school(2).
Ethnicity is coded as Asian(1) or Euro-American(2).

Child Factors
1. Age, 2. Sex, 3. Birth Order, 4. Activity Level, 5. Attention-Span Persistence,
6. Emotionality, 7. Sociability, 8. Soothability
Paternal Factors
9. Age, 10. Educational Level, 11. Ethnicity/Race, 12. Employment Status, 13. Secondary Occupation,
Contextual Factors
14. Marital Satisfaction, 15. Job Satisfaction, 16. Household Income, 17. Number of Children,
18. Punitive History of Parenting, 19. Supportive History of Parenting, 20 Level of Quality of Life,
21. Level of Social Support, 22. Disciplinary Practices

Table 6

Zero-Order Correlations:
The Relations between the Predictor Variables
and the Disciplinary Practices

	Parenting Scale	
	Zero-Order Correlations	
Predictor Variables	Mothers (n=120)	Fathers (n=120)
Child Factors		
Temperament		
Emotionality	-.38***	-.22*
Sociability	.18*	
Soothability	.22*	
Sex		-.24*
Parental Factors		
Employment Status		-.23*
Ethnicity	.31***	.23*
Contextual Factors		
Marital Satisfaction	.21*	.21*
Job Satisfaction	.25**	
Quality of life	.43***	.42***
Social support	.32***	.34***
Household income	.23*	.30***

* p<.05
** p<.01
*** p<.001
Sex of the child is coded as male(1) or female(2).
Employment Status is coded as employed full-time(1), in school(2)
Ethnicity is coded as Asian(1), Euro-American(2).

Only three child factors were related to disciplinary practices of mothers: emotionality, sociability, and soothability. The correlations for the disciplinary practices of mothers were negatively related to the child's emotionality as perceived by mothers and positively associated with two dimensions of child's temperament as perceived by mothers: sociability and soothability. The data here indicate that mothers who perceived their child as less emotional, more sociable, and more soothable scored higher on effective disciplinary practices.

The child's emotionality as perceived by fathers was negatively correlated with the disciplinary practices of fathers, and sex of the child showed a significant correlation with the disciplinary practices of fathers. The data here indicate that boys who were perceived as less emotional by fathers received more effective disciplinary practices. The correlations with perceptions of child's sociability and soothability were not significant for fathers.

Ethnicity was found to be a significant predictor of the disciplinary scores of mothers and fathers. The data here indicate that Euro-American mothers and fathers scored higher than Asian parents on effective disciplinary practices.

Employment status was significantly associated with the disciplinary practices of fathers, but not for mothers. Thus, fathers who were employed full-time scored higher on

effective disciplinary practices than fathers who were in school.

For both mothers and fathers, there were strong associations between the four contextual factors and parental disciplinary practices. Levels of perceived marital satisfaction, levels of perceived quality life, levels of perceived social support, and levels of household income were positively and significantly correlated with disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. Levels of job satisfaction made a modest contribution to predicting disciplinary scores for mothers, but was not significantly related to the disciplinary scores of fathers.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the combined effect of three sets of predictor variables on the outcome variable, to examine which of the predictor variables contributed uniquely to the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers, and to compute the percentage of variance explained by the model.

The nine variables (emotionality, sociability, soothability, ethnicity, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, quality of life, social support, and household income) that were significant in the zero-order correlations were run with the method of stepwise entry. The results of these analyses are presented in the Table 7. Only three variables were found to be predictive of the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers: emotionality, ethnicity,

and quality of life measure. The data here indicate that Euro-American mothers and fathers, less emotional children, and higher levels of quality of life made unique contributions to predicting more effective disciplinary practices. Thirty-one percent of the variance in maternal disciplinary scores was accounted for by these variables while the three predictor variables combined to explain 24% of the variance in paternal disciplinary scores. The F values for the two regression models were found to be significant ($p<.001$).

Table 7

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses:
Predictors of the Disciplinary Practices

	Parenting Scale	
Predictor Variables	Standarized Betas Mothers (n=120)	Standarized Betas Fathers (n=120)
Child Factors		
Temperament		
Emotionality	-.30***	-.17*
Parental Factors		
Ethnicity	.18*	.17*
Contextual Factors		
Quality of life	.32***	.39***
R-square	.31	.24
F	17.10***	12.14***

* p<.05
** p<.01
*** p<.001
Ethnicity is coded as Asian(1), Euro-American(2).

Research Question 3: Which child, parent, and family contextual variables, identified in research question two, distinguish effective and ineffective parental disciplinary practices?

T test and chi-square analyses were run to determine variables that contributed to distinguishing between effective and ineffective parental disciplinary practices. Effective and ineffective groups of maternal and paternal disciplinary practices were created by using the upper third and lower third scores on the outcome variable, maternal and paternal disciplinary total scores as measured by the Parenting Scale. Forty-one mothers and 42 fathers using effective practices and 39 mothers and 39 fathers using ineffective practices were produced due to tied scores. Effective groups of maternal and paternal disciplinary practices comprised the top third for the outcome measure. Ineffective groups of maternal and paternal disciplinary practices comprised the bottom third for the outcome measure. The circumstances of mothers and of fathers in the top and bottom third were compared on the predictor variables that were significantly related to the outcome variable in the previous correlation and multiple regression analyses.

As shown in Table 8, statistically significant differences were found between ineffective and effective disciplinary practices of mothers on the following variables: emotionality, sociability, soothability, maternal ethnicity,

marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, levels of quality life, social support, and household income.

Table 8

Comparison of Ineffective and Effective Disciplinary Practices of Mothers

	Mother					
	Ineffective (n=39)		Effective (n=41)		T Value	Phi
	M	SD	M	SD		
Child Factors						
Temperament						
Emotionality	15.82	4.61	12.37	4.55	3.37**	
Sociability	17.95	4.28	19.78	4.62	-1.84+	
Soothability	16.45	4.34	18.85	3.76	-2.61*	
Maternal Factors						
Ethnicity						.30**
Contextual Factors						
Marital satisfaction	5.51	1.07	6.02	.82	-2.40*	
Job Satisfaction	5.00	1.03	5.59	.92	-2.69**	
Quality of life	51.10	5.64	58.34	5.32	-5.09***	
Social support	80.54	8.43	87.80	8.25	-3.89***	
Household income	4.36	1.29	5.02	1.13	-2.46*	

\+ p<.10
* p<.05
** p<.01
*** p<.001
Ethnicity is coded as Asian(1), Euro-American(2).

As shown in Table 9, statistically significant differences were found between ineffective and effective disciplinary practices of fathers on the following variables: emotionality, sex of the child, employment status, paternal ethnicity, marital satisfaction, levels of quality life, social support, and household income.

A comparison of disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers revealed that there was a greater probability of both mothers and fathers engaging in ineffective disciplinary practices when they perceived the child as more emotional. Fathers, but not mothers, were more likely to utilize ineffective disciplinary practices when the child was a girl. Mothers, but not fathers, who perceive the child as more soothable tended to exhibit more effective disciplinary practices.

Mothers at higher levels of marital satisfaction and job satisfaction were likely to utilize more effective disciplinary practices toward their children, whereas neither level of marital satisfaction nor job satisfaction had significant effects upon the disciplinary practices of fathers. The results also showed that Euro-American parents were more likely than Asian parents to report more effective disciplinary practices. Fathers, but not mothers, who were employed full-time were more likely to provide effective disciplinary practices than fathers in school.

Finally, for both mothers and fathers, high levels of perceived quality of life and social support increased their likelihood of reporting effective disciplinary practices. Also the findings regarding household income showed the likelihood of reporting ineffective disciplinary practices decreased as household income increased.

Table 9

Comparison of Ineffective and Effective Disciplinary Practices of Fathers

	Father					
	Ineffective (n=39)		Effective (n=42)		T Value	Phi
	M	SD	M	SD		
<u>Child Factors</u>						
Temperament						
Emotionality	15.10	4.58	12.57	4.25	2.58*	
Sex						-.26*
<u>Paternal Factors</u>						
Employment Status						-.28*
Ethnicity						.25*
<u>Contextual Factors</u>						
Marital satisfaction	5.59	1.02	6.05	1.15	-1.89+	
Quality of life	52.82	6.24	58.17	5.82	-3.99***	
Social support	80.62	8.91	87.88	7.92	-3.89***	
Household income	4.31	1.40	5.02	.98	-2.69**	

\+ p<.10
* p<.05
** p<.01
*** p<.001
Sex of the child is coded as male(1) or female(2).
Employment Status is coded as employed full-time(1), in school(2)
Ethnicity is coded as Asian(1), Euro-American(2).

<u>Research question 4</u>: What are the relationships between cumulative risk factors and ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers?

In order to examine the cumulative effect of risk, child, parent, and contextual influences on ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers, the seven predictor variables for mothers and five predictors for

fathers that had significant effects upon ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers in Tables 8 and 9 were converted to dichotomous variables (risk factors vs. protective factors). Of the seven predictor variables for mothers, two were child factors (emotionality, soothability) and five were contextual factors (marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, quality of life, social support, household income). Each of the following was considered to be a risk factor for mothers: (a) scores on the child's emotionality which were above the upper third for this sample, (b) scores on the child's soothability which were below the lower third for this sample, (c) scores on the marital satisfaction which were below the lower third for this sample, (d) scores on the job satisfaction which were below the lower third for this sample, (e) scores on the quality of life which were below the lower third for this sample, (f) scores on the social support which were below the lower third for this sample, (g) family income which was below the lower third for this sample.

Of the five predictor variables for fathers, two were child factors (emotionality, sex of the child), and three were contextual factors (quality of life, social support, household income). Each of the following was considered to be a risk factor for fathers: (a) scores on the child's emotionality above the upper third for this sample, (b) the child's sex was female, (c) scores on the quality of life

which were below the lower third for this sample, (d) scores for social support which were below the lower third for this sample, (e) family income which was below the lower third for this sample. Each of the risk factors was coded as 1 (present) or 0 (absent), and the total score was produced by summing the number of risk factors that were present for each fathers and mother.

The cumulative risk index score ranged from 0 (none of these risk factors) to 7 (all of risk factors) for mothers and scores could range from 0 (none of these risk factors) to 5 (all of risk factors) for fathers. The percentage of mothers at each level of risk factors were: 0 (7.7%), 1(7.7%), 2(23.1%), 3(30.8%), 4(17.9%), 5(10.3%), 6(2.6%). The percentage of fathers at each level of risk factors were: 0(2.6%), 1(17.9%), 2(35.9%), 3(20.5%), 4(20.5%), 5(2.6%). To avoid small cell sizes, the risk indexes for outcome were collapsed into five categories for both mothers and fathers: zero risk factor, one risk factor, two risk factors, three risk factors, four or more risk factors.

For these analyses, the outcome variable, the disciplinary practices as measured by the Parenting Scale, was also converted to a dichotomous variable (the lowest 32.5% of scores vs. the upper 67.5%). Crosstabulations were used to determine the probability of utilizing ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers for each level of risk factor. These analyses are presented in Table 10.

The results of the analyses indicate that both mothers and fathers exposed to several risk factors simultaneously are at much greater probability of ineffective disciplinary practices than mothers and fathers exposed to few or no risk factors. Approximately sixty-three percent (63.2%) of the mothers exposed to four or more risk factors had high ineffective disciplinary scores compared to approximately ten percent (9.7%) of mothers with a score of 0 on the risk index. As was true for mothers, sixty percent of the fathers exposed to four or more risk factors had high ineffective disciplinary scores compared to approximately four percent (3.8%) of fathers with a score of 0 on the risk index.

Table 4.8

Probability of Mothers and Fathers with Ineffective Disciplinary Scores (Bottom 33rd percentile) for Each Level of Risk Factors

	Ineffective Disciplinary Score			
No. of Risk Factors	Mother(N=39) N	% with Risk	Father(N=39) N	% with Risk
0	3	9.7	1	3.8
1	3	11.5	7	22.6
2	9	39.1	14	42.4
3	12	57.1	8	53.3
4 or more	12	63.2	9	60.0
Phi.....	.47***		.42***	

*** p<.001

Summary

A summary of the research questions tested and the outcomes of the study is presented below.

Table 11

Summary of the Findings

Research Question	Analysis Used	Outcome ($p<.05$)
1.What are the differences between mothers and fathers in their disciplinary practices?	MANOVA (two-tailed)	There was a statistically significant difference in the laxness scores between mothers and fathers.
2.What are the child, parent, and contextual variables most associated with parental disciplinary practices?	Zero-Order Correlations & Multiple Regression Analyses	Child Factor Emotionality Parental Factor Ethnicity Contextual Factor Quality life
3.Which child, parent, and contextual variables, identified in research question two, distinguish effective and ineffective parental disciplinary practices?	T-test & Chi-Square Analyses	Factors Related to Only Mother Child's Soothability Marital & job satisfaction Factor Related to Only Father Employment Status Factors Related to Both Mother and Father Child's Emotionality Quality of life Social Support Family Income
4.What are the relationships between cumulative risk factors and ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers?	Chi-Square Analyses	Parents exposed to several risk factors were much more likely to exhibit ineffective disciplinary practices than parents exposed to no risk factors.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents (a) a summary of the study; (b) conclusions; (c) discussion of the findings; (d) limitations of the current study; (e) suggestions for future research.

Summary

The major purpose of the study was to examine the influence of multiple factors on the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. The factors affecting parental disciplinary practices were grouped into three broad categories: child characteristics, parental characteristics, and contextual factors.

The child factors investigated were: sex, temperament (sociability, emotionality, activity level, attention span-persistence, soothability), and birth order. The parental factors considered included: parental age, education level, ethnicity, marital status, and job status. Contextual factors examined in this study included: number of children living at home, household income, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, levels of quality of life, social support, and recollected childhood experiences.

Answers to the following questions were sought in this

study:

1. What are differences between mothers and fathers in their disciplinary practices?

2. What are the child, parent, and contextual variables most associated with parental disciplinary practices?

3. Which child, parent, and contextual variables, identified in research question two, distinguish effective and ineffective parental disciplinary practices?

4. What are the relationships between cumulative risk factors and ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers?

The study included 120 mothers and 120 fathers of preschool age children. A survey design was the methodology employed. Both mothers and fathers completed the same questionnaire which represented a composite of measurement instruments appropriate to the selected major variables, i.e., child temperament (Colorado Childhood Temperament Inventory), parental social support (Social Provisions Scale), quality of life (Quality of Life measure), intergenerational transmission of parenting (supportive parenting as measured by the Supportive Discipline Scale and punitive parenting as measured by the Harsh Discipline Scale).

Descriptive analysis, zero-order correlations, MANOVA, multiple regression analyses, t-test, and chi-square analyses were used for data description and analysis.

Conclusions

Based on the research findings, the following conclusions are offered.

1. Fathers are more likely than mothers to utilize permissive disciplinary practices.

2. Factors that contributed uniquely to disciplinary practices of both mothers and fathers were perceptions of child's emotionality, parental ethnicity, and perceived levels of quality life. Both mothers and fathers who perceived the child as being less emotional and who had higher levels of quality of life had higher scores on effective disciplinary practices.

3. Mothers who perceived the child as being less emotional, more soothable, and who had higher levels of marital satisfaction and job satisfaction engaged in more effective disciplinary practices.

4. Fathers who perceived the child as being less emotional, and who have boys provided more effective disciplinary practices.

5. For both mothers and fathers, parents with higher levels of quality life, social support, and family income exhibited more effective disciplinary practices.

6. Parents exposed to several risk factors were much more likely to exhibit ineffective disciplinary practices than parents exposed to no risk factors. The results indicate that exposure to each additional risk factor greatly

increases the probability of ineffective disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers.

Discussion of the Findings

The conceptual model utilized for this study is Belsky's determinants of parenting model. Belsky (1984) proposed that the factors affecting parental behavior could be grouped into three major categories: characteristics of the child, parent, and contextual factors. These categories and their interactions form the basis of his model. Researcher referred to the literature to determine which variables to examine.

Although characteristics of the child, such as gender or temperament, have been shown to influence parental disciplinary practices, the results of this study indicate that parental disciplinary practices are also influenced by a variety of factors indirectly related to the child. These factors include parental ethnicity, satisfaction with the marital relationship, job satisfaction, quality of life, social support, and household income. Obviously, the characteristics of the child, parent, and contextual factors all contributed to the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. Therefore, the results of this study provide support for Belsky's model that individual differences in parenting behavior are multiply determined. Other variables included in Belsky's model that were not examined within this

study are work-related stressors other than job satisfaction and maternal personality characteristics (e.g., psychological well-being).

Although the present research results revealed that fathers are more likely than mothers to utilize permissive disciplinary practices, mothers and fathers seem to discipline their children in more similar rather than dissimilar ways. This finding might be interpreted as indicating that fathers are as competent as mothers in parenting. A study by Parke and Sawin (1976), for instance, found that fathers were as sensitive and responsive as mothers to infant cues and signals in the context of feeding. Indeed, the conceptualization of paternal roles and responsibilities has changed dramatically over the last four decades. Instead of emphasizing the father's role as breadwinner and perhaps moral teacher for older children, his role today is expected to involve the direct care and rearing of young children (Lamb, 1987). Pleck (1993), for example, reported that fathers' involvement in all aspects of child care - not just during their wives' working hours - is almost a third of the total child care by U.S. dual -career couples in the 1990s. The trend that fathers are becoming more involved with their infants and children than in earlier eras is also evident in cross-cultural studies (Lamb, 1987).

It is worth watching, that there was a trend in the data at the .10 level of significance indicating that for fathers

the soothability of the child and their own job satisfaction predicted paternal disciplinary scores. For mothers, the age of the child was predictive of maternal disciplinary scores. This trend could be explored in larger, and more representative samples.

Some variables contributed to distinguishing ineffective and effective disciplinary practices in mothers, but not in fathers. Mothers who perceived the child as being more soothable, and who have satisfying, supportive marital relationships with their husbands, and who had higher levels of job satisfaction were found to utilize more effective disciplinary practices. The findings regarding the impact of marital satisfaction and job satisfaction upon maternal disciplinary practices are consistent with the results of several other studies (Cox et al., 1989; Greenberger et al., 1994). This study also found that fathers, but not mothers, utilized more effective disciplinary practices when the sex of the child was a boy. This finding is in contradiction to a study by Greenberger and his colleagues (1994), which found that parents reported disciplining their sons more harshly than their daughters. Determining why fathers exhibit more effective disciplinary practices toward sons rather than daughters is beyond the scope of this analysis. One possible explanation for this finding is that fathers might have different belief systems about parenting sons and daughters. Previous research suggests that fathers tend to spend more

time with sons than with daughters (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Cox et al., 1989) and be more involved in socializing their sons than their daughters (Lamb, 1986). Moreover, fathers are more likely to act differently toward sons and daughters than mothers do (Huston, 1983). Taken together, not all of the factors examined in this study are equally important for both mothers and fathers. These findings also suggest that the different factors may combine to affect the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers.

Contrary to previous studies (Zuravin, 1988; Wolfe, 1987), education had no effect upon the disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. The data in this study suggest that highly educated parents are no more likely than parents of lower education to engage in more effective disciplinary practices. In addition, the number of children in the household and parental age did not emerge as the significant predictors of parental disciplinary practices as has been reported in other research (Nye et al., 1970). Perhaps this discrepancy is due in part to the fact that this sample of mothers and fathers had higher educational attainment and household income than a more diverse sample would be.

The findings from this study are consistent with the findings from other studies showing that parents who report high levels of quality life and social support available to them may feel less parenting stress and exhibit more

effective disciplinary practices (Belsky & Isbella, 1988; Goldberg & Easterbrooks, 1984; Bristol et al., 1988). It clearly suggests that families do not exist in isolation, but are embedded in a variety of formal and informal support systems. Thus, it seems likely that the quality and quantity of support that the mother and the father receive from a variety of sources have an enormous impact on parental disciplinary practices.

In support of past research (Kelly & Tseng, 1992; Whiting & Edwards, 1988), the results of this study show significant racial/ethnic differences in parents' reports of disciplinary practices. There is no obvious explanation for these findings that Euro-American parents were less apt to report ineffective disciplinary practices than Asian parents. However, these findings could be interpreted in a number of ways. It seems reasonable to assume that the findings may reflect cultural differences in child-rearing styles and values (Garcia Coll, 1990). For instance, the characteristics of Asian parenting which set them apart from other ethnic groups have been attributed to traditional Confucian beliefs and practices such as filial piety (Ho & Kang, 1984). Consistent with this idea, the expected cultural differences were found in the study by Chiu (1987). He compared the child-rearing attitudes of Chinese, Chinese-American, and White-American mothers and found both Chinese mothers and Chinese-American mothers to be more

authoritarian, restrictive, and controlling of their children than White-American mothers. Furthermore, it seems probable that some of the research instruments standardized in the United States are not designed to be responsive to different cultural standards.

It is interesting, and contrary to previous research (Simons et al., 1992), to note that the quality of parenting that the parent experienced as a child had no effect upon his/her disciplinary practices toward his/her children. One possible reason for this finding is that mothers' and fathers' retrospective reports of the quality of parenting that they received as children may be influenced by their affective state at the time of data collection and the quality of their current relationships between the adult child and his or her parent (Berkowitz, 1989). It also depends on how those events have been processed cognitively (Main & Goldwyn, 1984).

Several features of the study help to offset some of its shortcomings. In an attempt to recognize the significance of the paternal role in parenting, this particular study includes both mothers and fathers. Most prior research regarding parenting has neglected fathers, focusing only upon mothers. It is unrealistic to assume that children are influenced by one parent to the exclusion of the other, nor do children only influence one parent. Findings from the present study indicate that consideration of both the

mother's and father's disciplinary practices may lead to better understanding of parental behavior because factors that predicted maternal disciplinary practices differed somewhat from those that predicted paternal disciplinary practices.

Finally, findings from the present study illustrate the importance of considering the broader ecology of the family in order to fully understand parenting behavior. It is thus critically important to recognize the value of examining multiple factors within one study and acknowledge the importance of the family's social context.

Limitations of the Research

This study is limited in a number of ways.

1. Sampling problems obviously constitute a limitation of the present study. The overall sample size is relatively small and the population sample is all two-parent families with mostly Caucasian, and overrepresents higher education and income levels. Furthermore, the majority of the subjects had some association with a major university. Therefore, this study cannot be generalized to the population at large.

2. In the present study, the data collected through the questionnaire were all self-reported. There is lack of observational data on parent-child interaction. How accurately these self-reports reflect actual disciplinary practices is unknown.

3. The interpretation of the scale by each respondent is not uniform. All scales are highly subject to individual perception and interpretation.

4. The data regarding the parents' recollected childhood experience might be biased, because memories of parental behavior that occurred 20 years earlier may not be accurate.

5. Mail questionnaires generally have low response rates. For this study, the rate of return was approximately thirty percent. This is below the rate of 50% considered adequate (Babbie, 1992). However, there were enough completed surveys returned to conduct the appropriate analyses. Due to lack of time and funds a second wave of surveys was not undertaken. In future research, greater efforts would have to be made to improve the return rate.

Suggestions for Future Research

Given the results of this study, there are six major recommendations for replications or extensions of the research.

1. The generalizability of the findings is limited due to imbalance of race, education, and income in the samples. The findings derived from this study thus must be considered tentative and any attempt to generalize them for application to a larger population is subject to further exploration and assessment. Further, future research needs to look at a much broader range of subjects, including different settings

(e.g., rural, urban). It may be, for example, that the ways in which rural and urban fathers and mothers discipline their children are influenced by inherent differences of rural and urban life.

2. The present study used only self-report measures to investigate variables associated with parental disciplinary practices. The combination of observation and self-report data may increase the ability to explain individual differences in disciplinary practices of mothers and fathers. Furthermore, in order to get a truer picture of parental disciplinary practices in real life situations, one must observe that behavior in settings that are as close to natural as possible. Therefore, future work should include validating measures of disciplinary style (e.g., observations) to assure the validity of the disciplinary style construct.

3. The current study could be replicated and extended by adding other predictor variables, for example, parental beliefs concerning discipline and the impact of discipline on child development, characteristics of the family of origin, the timing of entry into the parenting role, the amount of child-rearing knowledge and skills would permit investigating the extent to which such factors account for parental disciplinary practices.

4. Results of the present study show that significant differences among ethnic groups in disciplinary practices of

mothers and fathers. More research is needed to fully understand how parent's ethnicity influence on parental disciplinary practices. Such research will determine the extent to which characteristics of child, parent, and context relate to parental disciplinary practices of each ethnic group.

5. The present study were done separately for the group of mothers and group of fathers in order to explore the relationships between cumulative risk factors and ineffective parental disciplinary practices. It is suggested that future research include composite risk index scores of both parents to better understand how combined parents' risk scores influence the probability of using ineffective parental disciplinary practices.

6. A similar study to the one reported here could be made more longitudinal by investigating the same population in two or three year intervals over time. This would permit gathering of longitudinal data for more comprehensive and deeper insight as well as fuller understanding of the parenting processes, parental disciplinary practices, in response to changes in the characteristics of the child, parent, and contextual factors.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Please use the following scale to best describe how you handle discipline with your child. Read from left to right, circle the number that indicates how you usually respond in each circumstance. If your response most closely resembles the description on the left circle #1, #2 or #3, if it is closer to the description on the right, circle #5, #6, or #7. If your response is sometimes one way and sometimes another circle #4. Please complete all 21 items.

1. When I say my child can't do something, I let my child do it anyway. — I stick to what I said.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. If my child gets upset, I back down and give in. — I stick to what I said.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. When my child does something I don't like, I often let it go. — I do something about it everytime it I happens.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. When I give a fair threat warning, I often don't carry it out. — I always do what I said.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. When my child won't do what I ask, I often let it go or end up doing it myself. — I take additional action.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. If saying "no" doesn't work, I offer my child something nice so he/she will behave. — I take some other kind of action.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. I coax or beg my child to stop. — I firmly tell my child to stop.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. I let my child do whatever he or she wants. — I set limits on what my child can do.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. I threaten to do things that I know I won't actually do. — I only threaten things I am sure I can carry out.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. If my child misbehaves and then acts sorry, I let it go that time. — I handle the problem like I usually would.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. When we're not at home, I let my child get away with a lot more. — I handle my child the same way.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. I get so frustrated or angry that my child can see I'm upset. — I handle it without getting upset.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. Things build up and I do things I don't mean to. — Things don't get out of hand.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. I raise my voice or yell. — I speak to my child calmly.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. I spank, grab, slap, or hit my child most of the time. — Never or rarely.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. I often hold a grudge. — Things get back to normal quickly.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. When I'm upset or under stress, I'm on my child's back. — I am no more picky than usual.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. I insult my child, say mean things, or call my child names most of the time. — Never or rarely.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. I usually get into a long argument with my child. I don't get into an argument.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. I give my child a long lecture. I keep my talks short and to the point.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. I almost always use bad language or curse. I rarely use bad language.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX B

This section of the survey describes background information about you and your family. Please circle the appropriate number or fill in the blank for each question.(Choose a child who is in preschool or in toddlers' program right now. If you have two children in the program simultaneously answer questions regarding the older child.)

1. When was the child who is the subject of this questionnaire born?
   Month _____ Year _____

2. What is the sex of your child in this study?
   1) M 2) F

3. What is the position of this child among all other children in this 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

4. How many people are living with you at this time? (Please include spouse, children, relatives, and friends.)

5. How many daughters are living at home?

6. How many sons are living at home?

7. What is your relationship to the child of this marriage now?
   1. Father 2.Step-father 3. Mother 4.Step-mother
   5. Other (Please specify) _____

8. What is your spouse's relationship to the child of this marriage now?
   1. Father 2.Step-father 3. Mother 4.Step-mother
   5. Other (Please specify) _____

9. What is your present age? _____
   What's your spouse's age? _____

10. How many years of education have you completed?
    1. Elementary school 2. Some high school
    3. Completed high school 4. Some college
    5. Completed college 6. Some Master's work
    7. MA/MS 8. Some post master's work
    9. Post masters' degree

11. What is your current marital status?
    1. Never married 2. Married 3. Widowed
    4. Divorced 5. Separated

12. Are you an American citizen?
    Yes _____ No _____ Others _____

13. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification (circle all that apply)?
    1. Asian 2. Black/African american
    3. Hispanic/Chicano 4. White/European
    5. Native American
    6. Other _____ (Please specify)

14. Which of the following describe your employment status? (circle number of as many as apply)
    1. Employed full-time (35 + hours/week) or with a job but not at work now because of temporary illness, vacation, strike or personal leave time.
    2. Employed part-time (less than 35 hours/week)
    3. Homemaker
    4. Unemployed; laid off; or looking for work
    5. In school
    6. Other (please specify) _____

15. Please describe your primary occupation now. (for example: student, nurse, electrician, homemaker, accontant).
    Main occupation or job title
    _____

16. Do you have a secondary occupation?
    If yes, what is it? _____

17. What is your religious preference?
    1. Catholic 2. Protestant 3. Jewish 4. Buddism
    5. Hindu 6. Moslem 7. Other (please specify)

18. Which gross income bracket below most closely corresponds to your family's gross income in 1995? (Circle the correct number below)
    1= $ 0 -- $4,999 2= $5,000 -- $14,999
    3= $15,000 -- $24,999 4= $25,000 -- $49,000
    5= $50,000 -- $99,999 6= $100,000 -- $499,000
    7= $500,000 -- $999,999 8= $1,000,000 and above

APPENDIX C

Directions: Using the scale below, please circle the number that best indicates how well each of the 25 statements listed here describes your child.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all like the child	Somewhat unlike the child		Somewhat like the child	a lot like the child

Sociability

1. Child makes friend easily.
   1 2 3 4 5

2. Child is very friendly with strangers.
   1 2 3 4 5

3. Child is very sociable.
   1 2 3 4 5

4. Child takes a long time to warm up to strangers.
   1 2 3 4 5

5. Child tends to be shy.
   1 2 3 4 5

Soothability

6. Whenever child starts crying, he can be easily distracted.
   1 2 3 4 5

7. When upset by an unexpected situation, child quickly calms down.
   1 2 3 4 5

8. Child stopped fussing whenever someone talked to him/her or picked him/her up.
   1 2 3 4 5

9. If talked to, child stops crying.
   1 2 3 4 5

10. Child tolerates frustration well.
    1 2 3 4 5

Activity

11. Child is very energetic.
    1 2 3 4 5

12. Child is always on the go.
1 2 3 4 5

13 Child prefers quiet, inactive games to more active ones.
1 2 3 4 5

14. Child is off and running as soon as he/she wakes up in the morning.
1 2 3 4 5

15. When child moves about, he/she usually moves slowly.
1 2 3 4 5

Emotionality

16. Child gets upset easily.
1 2 3 4 5

17. Child tends to be somewhat emotional.
1 2 3 4 5

18. Child reacts intensely when upset.
1 2 3 4 5

19. Child cries easily.
1 2 3 4 5

20. Child often fusses and cries.
1 2 3 4 5

Attention span-persistence

21. Plays with a single toy for long periods of time.
1 2 3 4 5

22. Child persists at a task until successful.
1 2 3 4 5

23. Child goes from toy to toy quickly.
1 2 3 4 5

24. Child gives up easily when difficulties are encountered.
1 2 3 4 5

25. With a difficult toy, child gives up quite easily.
1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX D

Please use the following scale and circle the number you feel is true for you.

1	2	3	4
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it.
   1 2 3 4

2. I feel that I do not have close personal relationships with other people.
   1 2 3 4

3. There is no one I can turn to for guidance in times of stress.
   1 2 3 4

4. There are people who depend on me for help.
   1 2 3 4

5. There are people who enjoy the same social activities as I do.
   1 2 3 4

6. Other people do not view me as competent.
   1 2 3 4

7. I feel personally responsible for the well-being of another person.
   1 2 3 4

8. I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs.
   1 2 3 4

9. I do not think other people respect my skills and abilities.
   1 2 3 4

10. If something went wrong, no one would come to my assistance.
    1 2 3 4

11. I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being.
    1 2 3 4

12. There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my life.
1 2 3 4

13. I have relationships where my competence and skills are recognized.
1 2 3 4

14. There is no one who really relies on me for their well-being.
1 2 3 4

15. There is no one who shares my interests and concerns.
1 2 3 4

16. There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I were having problems.
1 2 3 4

17. I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other person.
1 2 3 4

18. There is no one I could depend on for aid if I really need it.
1 2 3 4

19. There is no one I feel comfortable talking about problems with.
1 2 3 4

20. There are people who admire my talents and abilities.
1 2 3 4

21. I lack a feeling of intimacy with another person.
1 2 3 4

22. There is no one who likes to do the things I do.
1 2 3 4

23. There are people I can count on in an emergency.
1 2 3 4

24. No one needs me to care for them.
1 2 3 4

APPENDIX E

Please use the following scale and circle the number you feel is true for you.

1	Terrible	2	Unhappy
3	Mostly dissatisfied	4	Mixed
5	Mostly satisfied	6	Pleased
7	Delighted		

1. How do you feel about your life as a whole?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. How do you feel about your marriage?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. How do you feel about your job (or school)?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. How do you feel about your safety?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. How do you feel about what you are accomplishing in your life?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. How do you feel about your particular neighborhood as a place to live?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. How do you feel about yourself?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. How do you feel about how secure you are financially?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. How do you feel about your own health?
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. How do you feel about your standard of living -- the things you have like housing, car, furniture, recreation, and the like?
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX F

Think about your relationship with your parents when you were in childhood. Please use the following scale and circle the number you feel is true for you.

1 Never 2 Almost never
3 About half of the time 4 Almost always 5 Always

1. How often did you talk with your parent about what was going on in your life?
   1 2 3 4 5

2. How often did you talk with your parent about things that bothered you?
   1 2 3 4 5

3. How often did your parent ask what you think before making decisions that affected you?
   1 2 3 4 5

4. How often did your parent ask what you think before deciding on family matters that involved you?
   1 2 3 4 5

5. How often did your parent give reasons to you for his/her decisions?
   1 2 3 4 5

6. When you did something your parent liked or approved of, how often did your parent let you know she/he is pleased about it? it?
   1 2 3 4 5

7. When you and your parent had a problem how often could the two of you figure out how to deal with it?
   1 2 3 4 5

8. When you did something wrong, how often did your parent lose her/his temper and yell at you?
   1 2 3 4 5

9. When you did something wrong, how often did your parent spank or slap you?
   1 2 3 4 5

10. When punishing you, did your parent ever hit you with a belt, paddle, or something else?
    1 2 3 4 5

11. When you did something wrong, how often did your parent tell you to get out or lock you out of the house?
    1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX G

COVER LETTER
(for families on the waiting list)

Dear Parent,

I am a student pursuing a Ph.D.in Family and Child Ecology at Michigan State University. I am interested in many different strategies parents use to teach their young children right from wrong and how to behave on a day to day basis. This is often referred to as parental discipline practices. Many factors seem to influence these practices including the child's personality, family traditions, and other family factors. This study is designed to explain the unique combination of factors that influences how parents go about the important task of teaching their children how to behave. In order to find out more, I need your help. You are one of many parents of children who are on the waiting list for the Child Development Laboratories. My hope is that your interest in a university laboratory school may mean you would also be interested in contributing to the development of new knowledge about children and families. With this in mind I am asking you to participate in a research study focused on parents and child behavior.

The enclosed questionnaire will take less than 30 minutes to complete. Please read the directions at the beginning of each section before answering the questions. It is very important that you answer each questions as carefully and as accurately as you can. Be sure to respond to all the questions on both front and back of each page. Both you and your spouse are asked to complete separate questionnaires. Please do not discuss your answers before both of you have finished the entire questionnaire. When you have completed the questionnaire, return it in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope by November 15, 1996. Your participation in the study is strictly on a volunteer basis and whether or not you participate will in no way affect your child's future involvement in the Child Development Laboratories. Enclosed you will find a consent form. Complete the agreement to participate and return it with the questionnaire regardless of whether or not you decide to participate. I will separate the consent form from the questionnaire to protect the confidentiality of your responses. You will not be referred to by name in any of my files and no one from the Child Development Laboratories will see your responses. General results from this research will be available to you upon request.

In appreciation of your participation and assistance with this project you will receive five children's books upon receipt of both you and your spouse's completed survey. Thank you for your kind attention to my request.

APPENDIX H

CONSENT FORM

I understand that the information I provide will be used for a research study as part of a Ph.D. program at Michigan State University. I know that my responses will be strictly confidential. I also understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time should I desire to do so.

I wish, do not wish to participate in this study.
(circle one)

_____
Signature of participant

_____
Date

If your family chooses to participate in this study, please select any five books from the list below. The books will be delivered to your family in a few weeks after I receive your completed questionnaire.

1. ( ) Alphabears by Kathleen Hague
2. ( ) Dinofours: I'm not your friend by Steve Metzger
3. ( ) Thanksgiving Day by Gail Gibbons
4. ( ) Chicken Soup with Rice by Maurice Sendak
5. ( ) Pretzel by Margret Rey
6. ( ) The Wild Toboggan Ride by Suzan Reid
7. ( ) Three Little Kittens by Jean Marzollo
8. ( ) The Bear Santa Claus Forgot by Diana Kimpton
9. ( ) Clifford's Sing Along by Norman Bridwell
10. ( ) Merry Christmas, Strega Nona by Tomie dePaola
11. ( ) Shoveling Snow by Pat Cummings
12. ( ) It's Christmas by Jack Prelutsky
13. ( ) Let's Go to the Gym
14. ( ) Noisy Nora by Rosemary Wells
15. ( ) 25 Thanksgiving Stickers

APPENDIX I

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

October 29,1996

Dear Parents,

The Child Development Laboratories of Michigan State University cooperates with researchers who are investigating questions of concern and interest to professionals and policy makers related to child development and child rearing. Mr. Hyuk Jun Moon is engaged in studying child rearing practices of fathers and mothers and would like to request your participation.

I have reviewed this study and given him permission to make this request of families currently enrolled in the Child Development Laboratories and those families who have shown interest in enrolling their children. Your participation is entirely voluntary. It will not affect your status on the waiting list or your child's participation in any way. You may respond to the request or not, based upon your own decision. Please give his request your serious consideration. Thank you.

Sincerely yours,

Alice Whiren

Alice Whiren, PhD.
Professor of Family and Child Ecology
Supervisor of the Child Development Laboratories

APPENDIX J

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

October 29, 1996

TO: Hyuk Jun Moon
2350 Club Meridian Drive, #B6
Okemos, MI 48864

RE:

IRB#:	96-668
TITLE:	AN ECOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH PARENTAL DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES
REVISION REQUESTED:	N/A
CATEGORY:	1-C, 2-I
APPROVAL DATE:	10/29/96

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project and any revisions listed above.

RENEWAL: UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

REVISIONS: UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are applicable.

PROBLEMS/ CHANGES: Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517)355-2180 or FAX (517)432-1171.

Sincerely,

David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:bed

cc: Marjorie Kostelnik

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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