

**AN ANALYSIS OF PREDICTORS OF CHILD REARING
STRATEGIES FOR LOW INCOME MOTHERS**

by

Audrey S. Pitcher

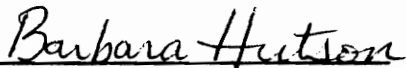
Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

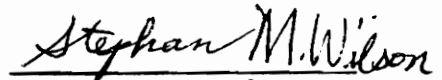
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Curriculum and Instruction

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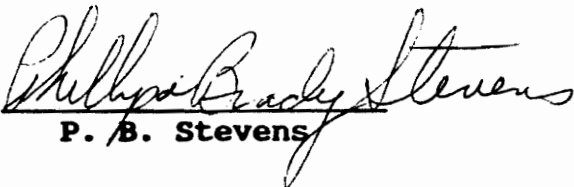


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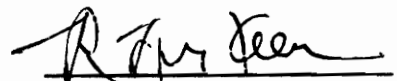

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(ABSTRACT)

Identifying family factors that influence parental choice of discipline has been a continuing topic of interest to researchers. The purpose of this study was to examine factors that predict child rearing strategies in a survey population of 330 mothers enrolled in the federal Women, Infant, and Children (WIC) program in rural Montana and urban Los Angeles, and to answer the following questions: (1) What are the descriptive characteristics of the population under study? (2) What are the descriptive characteristics of the reported child rearing strategies? (3) Which combinations of individual parental characteristics best predict each self-reported child rearing strategy? (4) Which blocks of parental characteristics (i.e., demographic, psychological, situational) as adapted from Belsky's Multiple Determinants of Parenting Model, best predict reported use of each child rearing strategy? To answer the first two questions, means

analysis and cross-tabulation analysis were used. The third question was answered by stepwise multiple regression analysis, and the fourth question by hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

The Parenting Project survey questionnaire used in the research consisted of five self-reporting instruments: Demographic Information, sections of the Child Abuse Potential Inventory, Parental Satisfaction Scale, Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire, and Maternal Reactions to a Child's Deviant Behavior Scale (MRCDB).

There was a series of dependent variables for reported child rearing strategies from the MRCDB scale (i.e., spank, praise, reason, allow, and consequences). Independent variables were mother's age, educational attainment, race-ethnicity, level of parent satisfaction, level of parental acceptance, level of flexibility in child behavior expectations, level of personal adjustment, marital status, occupational prestige, and region of residence.

Analysis revealed that race-ethnicity, educational attainment, level of acceptance, level of flexibility, and region of residence were consistent predictors of child rearing strategies. Predictors came from all three blocks, which confirmed Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting, and extended it to apply to child rearing strategies. No one block was identified as a stronger predictor than the others.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many persons whose help and support have enabled me to reach this milestone.

First, I thank my family for their faith in me, their support, and their patience. Without the tremendous support, and technical assistance from my husband, Chuck, I would not have been able to complete this study. My children, Cara, Mark, Joy, and Wendy have been constant in their encouragement and confidence that "mom could do it".

I wish to thank my committee. My committee co-chair Dr. Barbara Hutson has guided, challenged, and supported me throughout this entire journey. I am extremely indebted to her. I thank committee co-chair, Dr. Stephan Wilson, who initiated this study and provided expertise, support, and guidance. Dr. Larry Weber has provided support, critique, and feedback along the way. My thanks to Dr. Jan Nespor and to Dr. Ron McKeen for their interest and their willingness to serve on my committee. Particular thanks to Dr. Phillipa Stevens from Marymount University, who has supported and believed in me all along the way. I would like to acknowledge Judy Barokas for her assistance with the data and analyses. Her computer knowledge and statistical expertise were invaluable.

I would like to thank the administration of Marymount University for encouraging and supporting doctoral study. I thank Dr. Martha John and Dr. Alice Mandanis for their continuing support. I also thank my colleagues for their interest, encouragement, and advice throughout this project.

Finally, I thank all the WIC mothers who took the time to participate in the survey which provided the data for this study.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Researchers agree that parents and other primary caregivers play a determining role in the way their child develops (e.g., Baumrind, 1980; Belsky, 1984, 1990; Kuczynski, Kochanska, & Radke-Yarrow, 1987; Peterson & Rollins, 1987; Pettit & Bates, 1989; Pettit, Dodge, & Brown, 1988; Radke-Yarrow, 1977). Parents reflect the macro culture of society, which influences the micro culture of the family environment. This environment, in turn, molds the child physically, socially, emotionally, and educationally (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1985). Child rearing strategies used by those in a parental role reflect this environment or culture. Parental choices of child rearing strategies used for managing children reflect moral standards, values, psychological conditions, environmental factors, parent-child relationships, and educational expectations (Paguio, Robinson, & Skeen, 1985; Phillips, 1987; Soto, 1990; Swick, 1983, 1989).

Parenting strategies are often de facto reactions to children's behavior (Rickard, Graziano, & Forehand, 1984). Parents vary greatly in their child rearing practices. For example, some parents, or persons assuming the parental role, may punish a child's misbehavior that would be openly

tolerated by other families (Belsky, 1984, 1990; Peterson & Rollins, 1987).

Factors that contribute to individual child rearing strategies of primary caregivers and the influence of these practices on children's general development, social adjustment, and school success have been continuing topics of study for researchers in education and the social sciences (e.g., Lenton, 1990; Paguio et al., 1985). Parenting styles and expectations are related to child school behavior and achievement (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Phillips, 1987; Soto, 1990; Thompson, Alexander, & Entwisle, 1988). Bronfenbrenner (1985) maintains that successful child rearing must have shared agreement among all the different settings in which the child resides: home, child care setting, school, peer group, and neighborhood.

Rationale

Identifying family factors that influence parental choice of discipline is valuable for researchers and child development practitioners and for professionals from family social sciences, psychology, medicine, and education. Educators need to understand the home environment of each child in order to meet the child's needs and to enhance learning. Such information eases understanding and communication between parents and schools. Parent education programs, whether through the schools, child care

facilities, counseling centers, social service agencies, or medical facilities can be enhanced by a better understanding of these determinants of parental child rearing strategies.

Parents use a wide range of child rearing strategies. When these differ greatly from those of schools and child care facilities, transitions may be more difficult for children; in a similar manner communication between parents and schools is made more difficult when expectations about children differ. To ease these difficulties, more understanding is needed about child rearing strategies and their relation to other parental characteristics.

The central issues of this document involve relations between parental characteristics and the child rearing strategies that parents with varying characteristics prefer. Attention is given to (a) specific parental characteristics and their relationship to (b) specific child rearing strategies. Selection of child rearing strategies is guided by the research of Hoffman (1970), Baumrind (1978), and Maccoby and Martin (1983).

The field of parental characteristics may be organized, as the work of Belsky (1984), Belsky, Hertzog, and Rovine (1986) and Abidin (1989) suggest, in terms of demographic, psychological, and situational factors. Another way to characterize unique parental attributes is in terms of their

use of child rearing strategies. Each of these sets can be indexed in terms of more specific variables.

While a number of studies have examined relations of one or two parental characteristics with one or more child rearing strategies, none have systematically examined the relationship of these three sets of parental characteristics to reported child rearing strategies. Further, there is little information about these relationships in parents who are economically at risk but reaching out for support.

Objectives

The objectives here are to examine in a sample of mothers enrolled in the Women, Infants and Children program (WIC) the (1) parental characteristics, (2) reported child rearing strategies, (3) relationships of sets of parental characteristics (and individual variables in those sets) to individual child rearing strategies, and (4) predictors of the reported child rearing strategies.

Child Rearing Strategies

Research describes different parental child rearing patterns. Hoffman (1960, 1970) identified three parental discipline strategies. These were power assertion, psychological discipline (also named love withdrawal), and induction (often called reasoning). Baumrind (1978) outlined three discipline approaches, authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles. Maccoby and

Martin (1983) identified an additional strategy, indifferent or uninvolved, which they define as "the degree to which a parent is committed to his or her role as a parent, and to the fostering of 'optimal child development'" (p. 48).

What is considered acceptable child rearing strategies changes with societal mores (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). In the past, an authoritarian style was considered appropriate at home and at school. Currently, the authoritative method is favored by many experts as the accepted child rearing method for both home and school (Baumrind, 1978; The National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1986; The Virginia Association for Early Childhood Education, 1989). The authoritative parenting style has been associated with the fostering of children's prosocial behavior interactions (Honig, 1993; Honig & Wittmer, 1992).

Family structures influence preferences for individual styles of discipline (Greenberg, 1991). Today families use a fairly wide array of methods of child rearing patterns. To understand the different types of strategies parents may use to manage children's behavior, and ultimately to increase communication between home and school, it is important to examine what parental characteristics predict the use of each type of strategy.

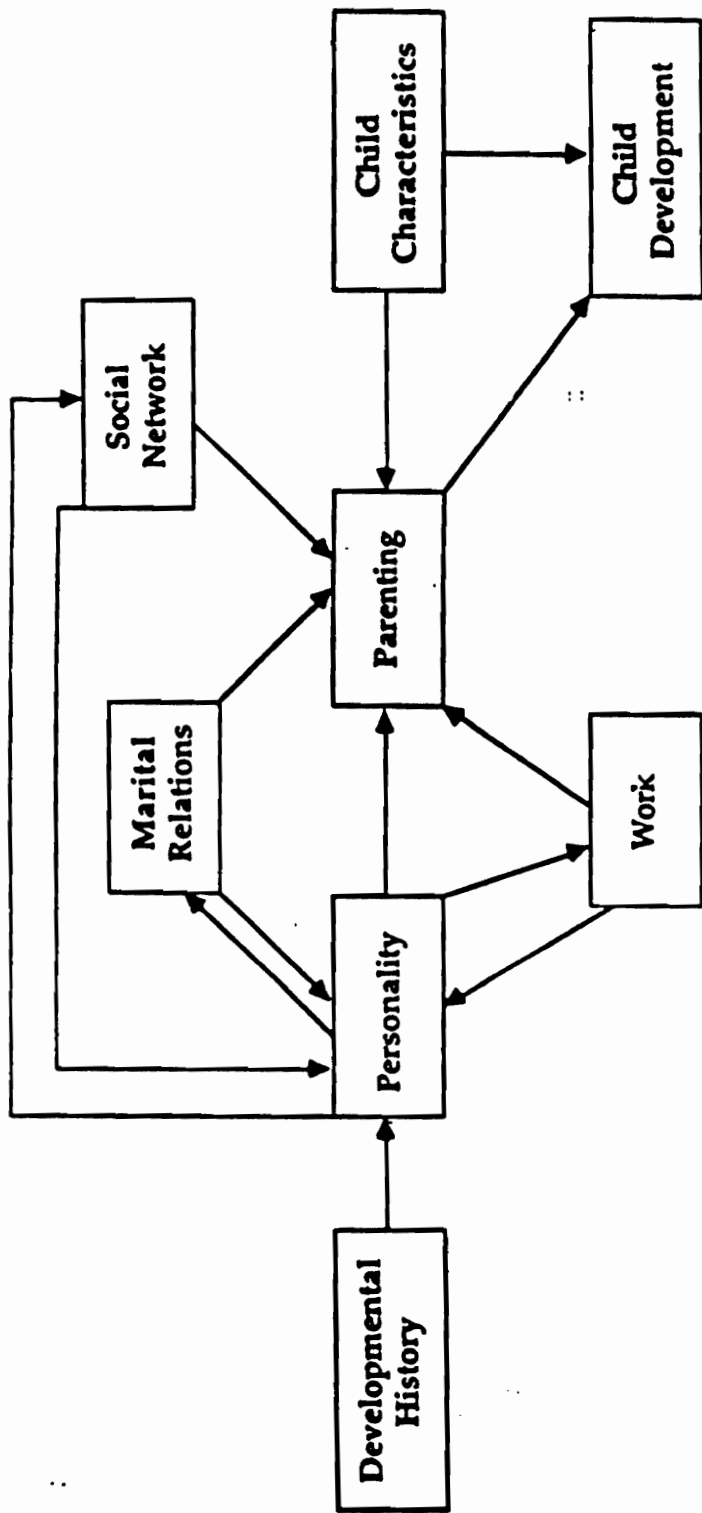
Parenting Research Models

Two prior parenting research models have important implications for this study of child rearing strategies. The first is Belsky's (1984; Belsky, Hertzog, & Rovine, 1986) Multiple Determinants of Parenting that defines a continuum of parental functioning ranging from normal parenting processes to dysfunctional practices. His model ranks three sources of parental functioning. Belsky argues that the most important influence on parenting behaviors is the ontogenic source. He describes this source as having biological origins and psychological resources. The second most important influence on parenting behavior consists of environmental sources of stress and support, (e.g., marital relationship, social network, and employment). The third most important influence on parenting behavior is the child's individual characteristics, such as temperament. Of these domains, Belsky identifies the first two areas of parental factors as more influential in buffering the parent-child relationship from undue stress and threats to it's well-being. Parent developmental history affects parenting indirectly through its influence on psychological resources and contextual (e.g., environmental) sources of stress and support. Both personality (e.g., psychological resources) and contextual sources of stress and support may exert direct or indirect influence on parenting.

Abidin's (1989) Parenting Stress and Parenting Behavior model emphasizes parental belief and motivational systems as key variables. Abidin proposed that Belsky's model focuses on the interior of the parent, but "does not...fully capture the parent as a thinking, planning goal-oriented person" (p. 7). Abidin emphasizes the importance of commitment to the parental role as a motivational system. It is through the parental belief system and the self-perception of the parental role that the sociological, environmental, behavioral, and developmental variables influence parental behavior.

Belsky's emphasis on multiple determinants of parenting and Abidin's expansion of Belsky's theory to include a parental motivation and belief system make important contributions to research on parenting behaviors. They vary, however, in the way they operationalize the parenting models (see Figures 1 & 2). Although they agree that the child's influence on parenting is widely recognized by developmentalists, neither Belsky nor Abidin focus upon the child's contribution to the process. At this point in the development of theory it seems important first to clarify what is understood about parental perceptions of the parent-child relationship.

In addition, Abidin (1989) provides a basis for the credibility of self-report measures of parenting beliefs and

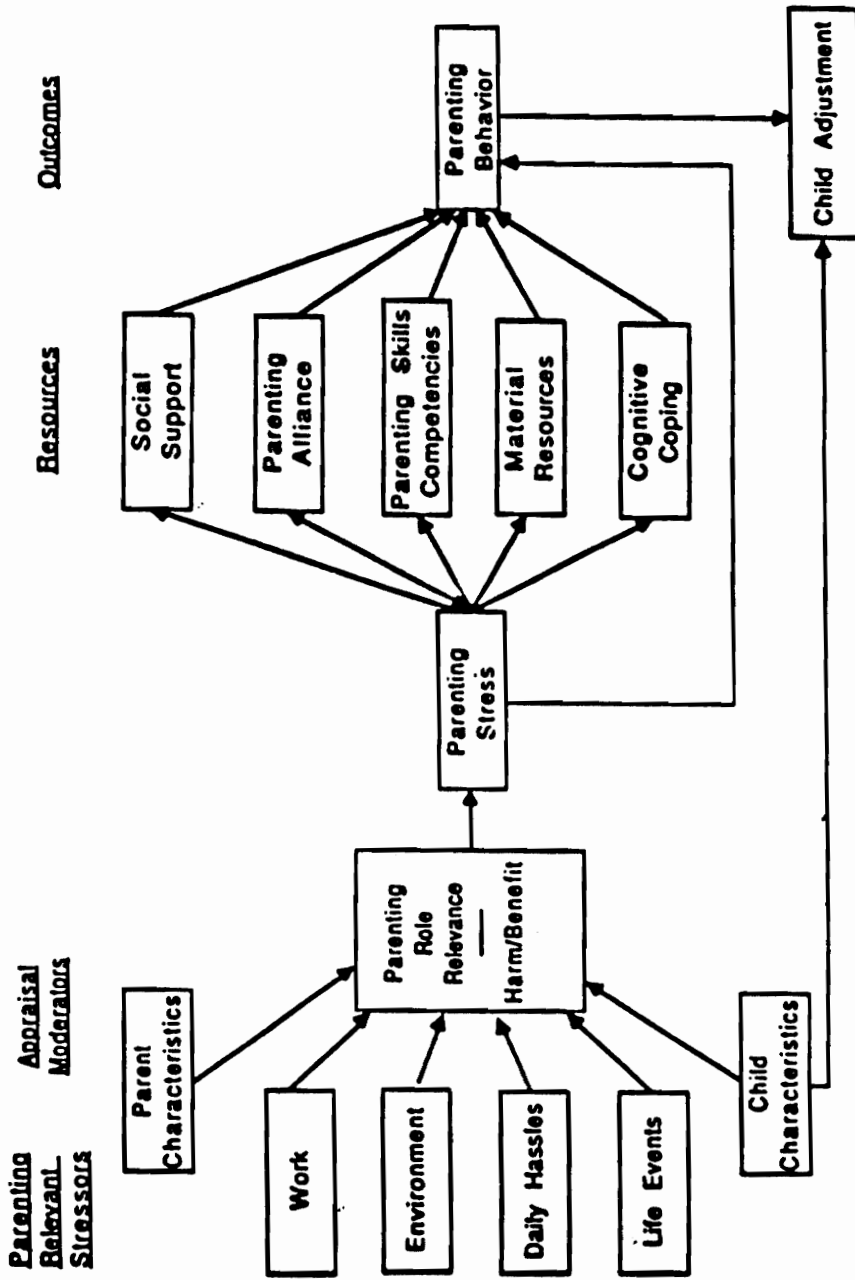


A Process Model of the Determinants of Parenting

Note. From "The Determinants of Parenting: A Process Model" by J. Belsky, 1984, *Child Development*, 55, p. 84. Copyright 1984 by J. Belsky. Reprinted by permission.

Figure 1

PARENTING STRESS & PARENTING BEHAVIOR -- 11/28/88
R.R. Abidin - University of Virginia



Note. From "The Determinants of Parenting: What variables do we need to look at?" by R. R. Abidin, 1989, Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, p. 22. Copyright by R. R. Abidin. Reprinted by permission.

behaviors, which is the type of instrumentation used in the current study. Citing the work of Sigel (1985), he states that research has shown that personality measures that consist of questions directly tied to a specific belief system can predict and define parenting behavior determinants. In this context, the self-report method is most appropriate. Further, Abidin proposes that behavioral observations are an ineffective method for assessment of parental belief systems that reflect a long history of interactions between parent and child in a variety of circumstances. Direct assessment of parental beliefs by self-report, he states, is an effective methodology.

Framework for the Present Study

While both Belsky and Abidin refer to parental characteristics and behaviors and to child outcomes, neither focus on specific strategies parents may use, (e.g., spank, reason, praise, allow, consequences) to manage child behavior and/or to accomplish desired child outcomes. Parental strategies may be viewed as the interface between parental characteristics and child outcomes. Research on specific child rearing strategies has included some variables incorporated in the models of Belsky and Abidin, such as marital satisfaction, parental depression, and parental stress (Holden & Ritchie, 1991; Stoneman, Brody, & Burke, 1989). There is, however, need to examine and

operationalize more systematically determinants of parenting similar to those proposed by Belsky and Abidin to predict preferred parental child rearing strategies. This would provide more information about specified parental characteristics that may predict parental behaviors.

The present study shows three main classifications of parental characteristics; demographic, psychological, and situational, which serve as possible predictors of individual child rearing strategies in a specific population of mothers enrolled in the WIC program (see Figure 3). Within each classification one or more of the individual variables may exert more influence in predicting a particular parenting strategy than other variables. Similarly, one set of characteristics may predict a specific child rearing strategy more strongly than others. Thus, each set of predictors may be specific to a particular strategy. For example, characteristics that predict spank may not predict the strategies of reason or allow.

Parental Characteristics

Parental characteristics that may predict particular child rearing strategies are considered under three categories. Drawing from classification categories of Belsky's and Abidin's models, variables are classified as demographic characteristics, psychological characteristics, and situational characteristics.

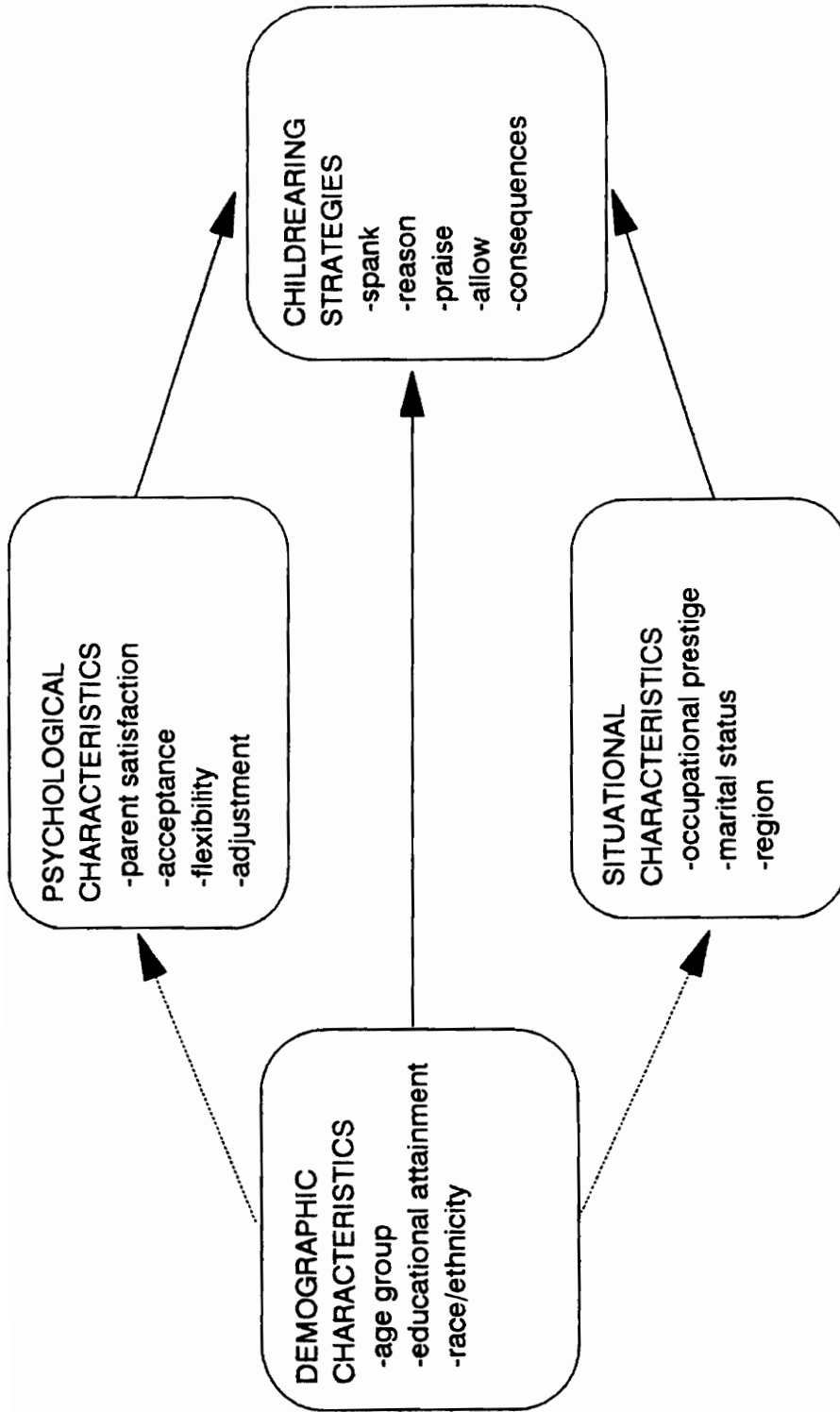


Figure 3
Model of Predictors of Child Rearing Strategies

Demographic Characteristics

Maternal age. The age of the mother has been considered as a factor in parental functioning. Mature mothers have been found to have more realistic expectations, to interact more positively and affectionately with their infants, and to gain child development knowledge from a variety of sources (e.g., books and professionals). Teenage mothers are more likely to have inflated expectations for their infant's performance, to gain child development knowledge from family and friends (Vukelich & Kliman, 1985), to provide less intellectual encouragement (Levine, Coll, & Oh, 1985), to have less well-developed support systems when problems arise and to be less responsive and sensitive in mother/infant interactions (Passino, Whitman, Borkowski, Schellenbach, Maxwell, Keogh, & Rellinger, 1993).

Maternal level of education. Education of the mother is related to parenting strategies. For example, Vukelich and Kliman (1985) found that mother's educational level related positively to realistic child expectations. McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982) concluded that maternal beliefs about child rearing practices appear to relate to the individual's personal history, such as educational level or age rather than stemming from the parenting experience.

Race-Ethnicity. Race-ethnicity has been documented to be related to child rearing goals. An ecological study of

ethnic minority families by Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, and Buriel (1990) revealed that adaptive strategies, such as extendedness of families, role flexibility, biculturalism, and an ancestral worldview foster child rearing goals that emphasized collectivism and group loyalty.

Psychological Characteristics

Parent satisfaction. Parent satisfaction has been related to maternal age, amount of time committed to the parenting role, and more optimal observed parental behavior (Meredith, Abbott, & Wikoff, 1984; Mullis & Mullis, 1982; Ragozin, Basham, Crnic, Greenberg, & Robinson, 1982). Lerner and Galambos (1985) reported a relation between maternal role satisfaction and child adjustment.

Level of parental acceptance or rejection. Acceptance or rejection of the child(ren) influences the type of strategy used to manage child behavior. Crockenberg (1987) found that parents who experienced rejection during their own childhood are more likely to display angry and punitive control over their child. Children who experience rejection are more likely to develop a wide range of psychiatric and behavioral disorders including delinquency and conduct problems, poor concept formations, and academic problems. Accepting parents show their love or affection toward children physically and/or verbally. These behaviors

include hugging, kissing, complimenting, or praising which lead children to feel loved and accepted (Rohner, 1984).

Parental expectations for child behavior. Expectations are linked directly to strategies used for managing children. Rigid and/or unrealistic parental expectations are related to child maltreatment, neglect, and abuse (Azar, Robinson, Hekimian, & Twentyman, 1984; Azar & Rohrbeck, 1986; Robitaille, Jones, Gold, Robertson, & Milner, 1985; Twentyman & Plotkin, 1982). Bavolek (1984) states that abusing parents tend to perceive inaccurately the skills and abilities beginning when their children are infants.

Level of parental personal distress or adjustment. Higher level of parental personal distress has also been linked to potential for child abuse. Individual parental personality characteristics, lack of response from others regarding parenting behavior, and parental loneliness predicted perceived decrease in control and increased depression among parents. Perceived lack of parental control increases the risk of using physical punishment to control or correct child behavior (Milner, 1986).

Situational Characteristics

Parental functioning can be supported or undermined by environmental factors. The marital status and quality, occupational prestige, and social network are three distinct

areas of influence on parental functioning (Belsky, 1984, 1990). Single parents tend to be more socially isolated than married parents. They often work longer hours and receive less emotional and family support. They may have less stable social networks and experience more potentially stressful life changes (Weinraub & Wolf, 1983).

Vukelich and Klimen (1985) found that mothers who were employed in positions where training was required had more realistic expectations for their children than those who had jobs that did not require training. Research has linked style of parental discipline to social class as defined by occupational status (Gecas & Nye, 1974; Luster, 1986a; Luster & Rhoades, 1987; Luster, Rhoades, & Haas, 1989; Morrow, 1989; Williamson, 1984).

The well-developed social network of significant others may be beneficial to the parent-child relationship. Colletta (1979) reported that mothers receiving the least amount of social support tended to use more authoritarian and restrictive punishment.

The Problem

The federal Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) program provides vouchers for supplemental food, nutrition education, and health services to low income pregnant, breastfeeding, and postpartum women, infants, and preschool children who are at nutritional risk. The program is

designed to counter the health risk caused by inadequate nutrition during critical periods of growth and development. Deficient nutrition and health care place mothers and children at risk for other physical and emotional problems (Children's Defense Fund, 1991; Chafel, 1990).

Most child rearing strategies research has been with middle class parents (Dix, Ruble, & Zambarano, 1989; Grusec & Kucsynski, 1980; Holden & West, 1989; Kelley, Sanchez-Hucles, & Walker, 1993; Stoneman, Brody, & Burke, 1989), low income African American mothers (Stevens, 1984a), or abusive families (Trickett & Kuczynski, 1986). Mothers who enroll in the WIC program represent a different and unique population. There has been little research on parenting and child rearing among parents enrolled in WIC. Identifying preferred child rearing strategies increases the potential for professionals to structure successful education programs for these mothers in areas of parenting, child development, and other family topics. Defining predictors of child rearing strategies for this population provides useful information for the researchers and practitioners who work with these mothers and children. This study also contributes to the research on child rearing predictors and parenting behaviors of families whose incomes are at poverty level.

The present research examines factors that may predict the child rearing strategies of a survey population of mothers enrolled in the federal Women, Infant, and Children program in rural Montana and urban Los Angeles, California.

Research Questions

The following research questions will be addressed:

1. What are the descriptive characteristics of the population under study?
2. What are the descriptive characteristics of the reported child rearing strategies?
3. Which combinations of individual parental characteristics (i.e., age, educational attainment, race-ethnicity, parent satisfaction, parental acceptance, flexibility, adjustment, marital status, living arrangements, mother's occupational prestige, and region of residence) best predict each of the five self-reported child rearing strategies?
4. Which blocks (i.e., classifications) of parental characteristics (i.e., demographic, psychological, situational) defined in Belsky's model best predict each of the five child rearing strategies?

Summary

This study focuses on factors that predict child rearing strategies used by mothers. Three categories (i.e., demographic characteristics, psychological characteristics,

and situational characteristics) are assessed as factors that may determine choices of child rearing strategies among 330 mothers enrolled in the WIC program. Independent variables are mother's demographic characteristics (i.e., age category, level of education, race-ethnicity), mother's psychological characteristics (i.e., level of parent satisfaction, level of parental acceptance, level of personal adjustment, and level of flexibility in child behavior expectations), and mother's situational characteristics (i.e., mother's employment prestige level, marital status, living arrangements, and region of residence). These variables are examined as factors that may predict parental choice of child rearing strategies (i.e., spank, praise, reason, allow, consequences).

Limitations of the Study

There are two areas that may limit the generalizability of this study. Data for this study came from data collected in Montana and California as part of a larger study on parenting. As in cases where secondary sources are used, it is necessary to work with the existing information. The size of the sample and the appropriateness of the instruments used for a child rearing strategies study are advantages. However, the questionnaires from Montana and from California are not identical:

1. The data for age was collected with different levels of measurement. Age of mother in California was ordinal. In Montana, age was interval level. In this study, therefore, age was recoded to ordinal data. While trends may be detected, the information gained may not be as definitive due to the loss of variance over the crucial age range of 15 to 25 years.

2. The Montana survey did not request ethnic identity. The primary researchers reported all Montana respondents were Caucasian. The respondents were coded accordingly in the data set. Only the California survey contained self-reported ethnic identity.

3. The instrument is a self-reporting questionnaire. Respondents' self-perception and desire to provide socially acceptable answers may weaken the predictability of the instrument. However, as mentioned previously, parent belief systems relate directly to the environment the parent creates or in which the parent involves the child. Therefore the self-report method is considered effective and efficient when assessing parent behaviors (Abidin, 1989; Sigel, 1985).

A second area that may affect generalization is that women who elect voluntarily to take advantage of WIC may be different from the larger group of eligible mothers who do not use these services. Users of WIC services have

recognized a need for themselves and their children and have sought assistance. They may, however, represent other women who have also sought assistance from some source beyond their immediate family.

Definitions

The sample in this research is limited to mothers. The literature often uses the general term parental, rather than the more specific maternal or paternal descriptive. Therefore, the terms parent satisfaction, parental acceptance-rejection, parenting strategies, parental expectations, and parent-child interaction are used throughout the study. The term "primary caregiver" may also be used to denote persons other than, or including, the parents who assume the parental child rearing role.

Parent Satisfaction

Parent satisfaction is defined as one's sense of well-being or degree of happiness with the parenting role. Parent satisfaction can vary from low satisfaction, where parents find more negative than positive aspects in being a parent to high satisfaction where parents feel they are good parents and find many pleasures in being a parent.

Level of Parental Acceptance or Rejection

Conceptually, parental acceptance and rejection together form the warmth dimension of parenting. Accepting parents are defined as those who show their love or

affection toward children physically or verbally. Rejecting parents are defined as those who dislike, disapprove of, or resent their children. Rejection is displayed in two main ways; parental hostility and aggression or indifference and neglect (Rohner, 1984).

Parental Expectations for Child Behavior

Parental expectations are defined as ways a parent expects the child to behave or act at a certain stage of development. Expectations may be realistic according to the child's stage of development, or unrealistic, where the child's capabilities are overestimated or underestimated.

Level of Rigidity or Flexibility

Rigidity-flexibility represents an individual's attitude toward the appearance and behavior of children. Rigidity can be interpreted in terms of expectations of a child's behavior. High emphasis on orderliness, neatness, obedience, and cleanliness is characteristic of rigid parent attitudes. An associated concept is the sense of need for strict rules for children (Milner, 1986). Flexibility is associated with responsiveness to the child's needs and desires and adaptability in rules and expectations according to the current situation (Honig, 1986a).

Level of Parental Personal Distress-Adjustment

This general theme represents feelings such as frustration, sadness, loneliness, depression, worry, lack of

control, confusion, and anger. The opposite of distress is personal adjustment, indicating feelings of competence, control, and satisfaction with one's situation.

Parenting Strategies

Parenting, or child rearing, strategies are those methods primary caregivers use to manage children's behavior. These include such techniques as control, teach, reason, punish, nurture, threaten, praise, distract, spank, use consequences, and allow. Consequences may be physical as in spanking, verbal, restrictive as in sending a child to his/her room, or natural, where the results of the child's behavior is the consequence. Allow means to allow a child's behavior. It may range from merely allowing a child to interrupt an adult conversation, for example, to the extreme situation of indifferent or uninvolved parenting, where the parent distances him/herself from the child and does not respond to child behaviors or demands (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the study of parenting behaviors. Following a general introduction on the nature of the parental role in child rearing, two parenting research models are discussed: Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting and Abidin's Model of Parenting Determinants. A review of research on differing approaches to child rearing strategies, research on parental characteristics as predictors of child rearing behaviors, and studies of WIC program participants will conclude the chapter.

Nature of the Parental Role in Child Rearing

Parents have the primary responsibility for socializing their children. Through the socialization process children acquire the habits and values of their parents and the culture of their parents. Parents have a determining effect on children's intelligence, character, and competencies (Baumrind, 1978, 1980; Belsky, 1984; Bronfenbrenner, 1985; Cohen & Comisky, 1977).

The family is the child's society; the family environment provides the vehicle by which the child learns how to survive and how to deal with the larger community. The family, however, is a complex, dynamic institution with

many responsibilities besides rearing children. As society and families change, the process of parenthood becomes more difficult and involves more risks of failure. Today, children are to be brought up as personal successes in a mobile, individualistic society, rather than in a conventional, continuous repetitive community (Alwin, 1986). Child rearing becomes less of a matter of custom and tradition and more of a process guided by experts (Cohen & Comisky, 1977) of child development, education, psychology, and sociology. The result is a myriad of child rearing beliefs that reflect culture, social status, economic status, and educational levels.

Parenting Research Models

Historically, studies on parent-child relations, and child rearing practices have emphasized parent effects on children and focused on the influence of specific variables, such as family socioeconomic status on child rearing strategies (Gecas & Nye, 1974; Kohn, 1963, 1979; Williamson, 1984). Bell (1979), emphasizing the bidirectionality or reciprocity of parent-child relations, initiated a large body of research on child influences as a major contributor to the parent-child interaction process. More recently, questions involving individual differences in child rearing practices, and theories concerning multiple determinants of parenting strategies have initiated research in those areas.

What follows are two of the more recent parenting research models. These are relevant to this study and are described in detail.

Belsky's 1984 model, "The Determinants of Parenting: A Process Model," provides one framework for a study of parental characteristics as they relate to parenting functioning. He views parental functioning as a continuum ranging from normal to dysfunctional behaviors.

Belsky states that parents developmental history influences parenting indirectly by first influencing personality. This is also referred to as personal psychological resources. Contextual sources of stress and support (e.g., marital relationship, social network, employment) and personality are bi-directional (i.e., they influence and interact with each other). As shown in the model (see Figure 1) marital relations, work, and social network may influence parenting directly or indirectly through the personality component. Personality may influence parenting directly or indirectly through one or more of the contextual sources of stress and support.

Belsky concludes that, in this model, the individual developmental history and personal psychological resources together are the first and most influential determinants of parenting. These resources affect the selection of a spouse, the formation of friendships and the type of

employment obtained. In addition, they affect the quality of relationships with a spouse, with friends, and with co-workers.

The contextual sources of stress and support, which could be called situational or environmental conditions, provide the second source of influence. They have the potential either to promote or to undermine parental capability. The quality of the marital relationship may influence parenting behaviors (Belsky, 1981; Crouter, Belsky, & Spanier, 1984). Social networks may also provide support or stress. The importance of the match between support received and support wanted is emphasized (French, Rodgers, & Cobb, 1974). Employment prestige level and extent of employment satisfaction may impact parenting behaviors positively or negatively (Farel, 1980; Hock, 1980).

Child characteristics are the third set of determinants in Belsky's model. While it is commonly acknowledged that the child plays an influential role in the parental functioning position, Belsky cites examples in the literature where this is not the case. In homes where personal resources and support systems function well, the presence of high-risk and difficult infants is not necessarily problematic. In homes where support systems and/or personal resources are compromised, difficult infants

are more likely to influence negatively parental functioning and parental attitudes toward the child. However, the present study does not look at child characteristics.

Abidin's (1989) model of parenting behavior goes beyond the observable behavioral viewpoint to include sociological, behavioral, and personality characteristics of the parent. Citing the work of Belsky (1984; Belsky et al., 1986), Abidin acknowledges the importance of the parental developmental history in the model. He sees one contribution of Belsky's work as directing the focus more on the interior of the parent (i.e., thought and feeling rather than behavior) than had previous models.

Recognizing the sociological, environmental, behavioral, and developmental variables considered in other research, Abidin proposes a model that suggests that the influence of the above variables be realized through a variable that represents the component of parents personality that relates to their parenting role (see Figure 2). He explains that each parent has an internal working model of him/herself as a parent. Referred to as a commitment to the parental role, this component represents a set of beliefs and goals for the self as parent, for self-expectations, and for internalized expectations of others.

Abidin specifically associates his model with parenting stress. He states that through this commitment to the

parenting role variable, each parent assesses the benefits or costs which face him/her as a parent. The outcome of this estimation produces some level of stress for the parent. This stress may affect parenting behaviors positively or negatively, depending upon the quantity and quality of support resources available to the parent (e.g., social support, parenting alliance, material resources, cognitive coping, parenting skills, competencies).

Both Belsky and Abidin emphasize parental development history, personality, and sources of stress and support in the determination of parenting behaviors. Belsky does not focus upon parental beliefs and motivation specifically in his model, while Abidin places these areas in a key position. The models also differ as to direct and indirect influences on parenting functioning. Belsky sees parental development history as an indirect influence. Personality and contextual sources of stress and support may exert either direct or indirect influences. Abidin sees the influence of these factors indirectly through the commitment to parental role and the parenting stress variables. Neither Belsky nor Abidin focus upon specific child rearing strategies, the focus of the present study.

Child Rearing Strategies

Families vary immensely in the ways they rear their children. A behavior that would be tolerated in one

household would be punished in another. Families may approach child rearing from the view of discipline to train and guide the child in learning correct behaviors. In contrast, families may use punishment for misbehavior as the chief parenting strategy. Punishment may also vary from scolding to denial of privileges to spanking to severe physical beatings.

Baumrind (1978), in tracing the historical patterns of child rearing strategies, states that until the 1940's in America, the authoritarian approach to discipline was considered optimal, and necessary. Parents who employ this approach believe that keeping order within the family is of utmost importance. All family members submit to a higher order that may be religious in nature and culturally dictated. This strategy is characterized by parents' word as law. Parents are not to be questioned, and misbehavior is punished. Authoritarian parents may seem aloof from their children and reticent to give praise or show affection. They may appear unconcerned or neglectful. This type of discipline is most often connected with physical methods of control, such as spanking.

Historically, in contraposition to authoritarianism, the permissive view of discipline, which had its roots in the teachings of Rousseau came into focus in the 1950's. In this approach, the child is considered to have a natural

tendency toward self-actualization. If left alone, the child will learn what he/she needs to know, and may or may not adopt conventional behavior. If parents oppose natural tendencies, they are preventing the child's natural expression, and thus, making him/her less of a person. As one would imagine, in this method, parents make few demands upon the children. Discipline is lax and a sense of order is usually absent (Baumrind, 1978).

The authoritative approach to discipline was identified in the 1960's. In this approach, the parent attempts to direct the child's activities rationally. Verbal discourse is encouraged. Reasons are given for parental policies. Parents who use this form of strategy have set limits and do enforce rules, as in the authoritarian approach; however, the child's individuality is acknowledged, and even encouraged. Family rule is more democratic in nature (Baumrind, 1977, 1978). Baumrind (1980) states that this type of discipline tends to promote the kind of social competence identified with success in Western society, particularly in the American mainstream. "Children must first become socialized into their society so that with maturity they may innovate and dominate their environment" (p. 247). The schools reflect the values and expectations of the mainstream culture. There may be important middle social economic status biases built into research and theory

which favors an authoritative approach. Schools, and most other formal institutions, are run by and reflect mainstream middle social economic status values and ideas.

Family discipline preferences were surveyed by the National Committee to Prevent Child Abuse. Results of the 474 respondents with children under 18 living at home indicated that 79% use denial of privileges as the main form of discipline while 21% did not use that strategy. Confining in a room was preferred by 59% of those who responded and not used by 41%. Spanking or hitting was used by 49% of respondents, with 51% reporting that they did not use this strategy. Insulting or swearing at the child was used by 45% and not used by 55% of those who responded to the survey. According to the survey, the present results reflects the first time more parents have reported not using physical discipline with their children, although the percentages are close (49% spank and 51% do not). In 1988, 64% preferred to spank children as a discipline method (Brown, 1994).

However, with the cultural diversity that is present in the United States, the society in which children have been socialized by the family may be still quite different from that of the public schools.

Other classifications of parental discipline patterns have been identified in the literature. Hoffman's (1960,

1970) categories of discipline have been used in research on child rearing concepts. Hoffman defines three discipline strategies; power assertion, love-withdrawal, and induction. Acknowledging that there may be combinations of categories, he states that "it is usually possible to classify a technique as predominantly power assertion, love withdrawal, or induction" (1970, p. 286).

In practice, few parents use just one disciplinary strategy with their children. Parents will prefer one method generally, yet use another if the immediate situation appears to require a different technique. Shaffer and Brody (1981) in a discussion of Hoffman's categories, state that the classification of a parent as power-assertive, love-oriented, or inductive is built upon the types of strategies that predominate over time and across settings and situations.

Gerris and Janssens (1987) included Hoffman's discipline classifications in a study involving parental discipline behaviors from an interactionist point of view. Four parental discipline reactions were selected: power assertion, induction, responsiveness, and rejecting and denying. Using data obtained from 300 families on social demographic variables, parental structure and climate, parental reactions, feeling, and cognition in discipline situations, and parental child rearing values, the

researchers found two main patterns of discipline reactions. Power assertion was associated with the situational circumstance of having to deal with two competing cognitive activities simultaneously. Anger and an apparent lack of understanding of the child's behavior were the parental feelings most strongly associated with this strategy. Induction and rejecting techniques were also associated with objective situational circumstances. For both behavior patterns it was found that personal, rather than material consequences, and the parent as the victim of the child's transgression were most strongly related to the use of these techniques.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) have identified another style of parenting which they call the indifferent or uninvolved classification of parenting. The low level of commitment to the parental role is likely to be demonstrated by doing whatever is necessary to minimize time and effort in interacting with the child. These low levels of involvement indicate a wish to distance oneself from the child and to respond to child demands in a way that stops further interaction.

Praise is considered essential in the fostering of prosocial skills. Praise is an integral part of the authoritative approach, which is concerned with fostering

positive self-concept and feelings of competence in the child (Honig, 1982, 1986b, 1993; Honig & Whittmer, 1992).

Research has shown that parental endorsement of particular practices during infancy and the first two years of life have predicted child behaviors and levels of confidence during the preschool years. Pettit and Bates (1989) found that high levels of maternal positive involvement from birth to two years predicted low levels of mother-reported behavior problems at age four. Kuczynski et al. (1987) reported that mothers who used more control strategies and reprimanded frequently, had preschoolers who were more likely to defy them directly. Pettit et al. (1988), in an examination of mothers' preference for physical discipline and child use of aggression in solving peer problems, found that an emphasis on physical discipline strategies predicted increased aggression as a method of solving disputes among peers. Kuhns and Marcus (1992) described similar results in a study of children's social problem skills. Children whose mothers were protective exhibited attention seeking goals. Children whose mothers were negative used stop action goals. Similar results were reported by Hart, DeWolf, Wozniak, and Burts (1992). Kahen (1993) reported that children of mothers who were more interfering and dominating showed less positive emotions during peer play.

Young children begin to enter group settings during infancy and the early preschool years. As children interact in groups, the importance of family child rearing patterns and expectations, as cited in the above research, becomes even more apparent in understanding and educating the child.

Parental Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics

Maternal age. The age of the mother has been investigated as a predictor of parental functioning. Vukelich and Kliman (1985) compared expectations about infant growth and of older mothers and teenage mothers. Results showed that older mothers had more realistic expectations about their infants, exhibited more positive interactions, and showed more affection than did teenage mothers. The mature mothers gained child development knowledge from a variety of sources, including books, magazines, and professionals, (e.g., pediatricians and nurses). Teenage mothers expected infants to perform behaviors earlier than child development experts indicate is typical. Young mothers gained most of their child development knowledge from family, friends, and neighbors.

Ragozin et al. (1982) found that maternal age influenced parental role satisfaction and performance. Increased maternal age was related significantly to greater

time commitment to the motherhood role and to more optimal observed behavior when interacting with their infant.

In a study of parenting attitudes of adolescent and older mothers Baranowski, Schilmoeller, and Higgins (1990) reported that adolescent mothers had less empathy for their children and children's needs. It was suggested that these findings were a result of the mother's lack of maturity, which did not necessarily indicate a risk situation. Despite differences in age, income, education, marital status, and childbirth preparation these researchers found a general absence of differences in parenting attitudes on the measures used. Analyses of scores that measured inappropriate developmental expectations of children, belief in the use of corporal punishment, and parent-child role reversal were not significant.

Other studies of adolescent mothers have indicated that most teenage mothers expressed positive attitudes toward their infants (Camp & Morgan, 1984). Young mothers have different needs and problems based upon marital status, living patterns (e.g., with parents or with partner), and level of career and educational aspirations (Klein & Cordell, 1987). Further, it has been found that not all teenagers are at risk for parenting problems. Some adjust well and provide the proper nurturing for their child to develop. Family support and involvement has been considered

a key factor in bringing about positive outcomes for teenage mothers in interacting with their children (Hanson, 1992). When compared to adult mothers, children of adolescents are at slightly increased risk for child abuse, but not for less than optimal cognitive development (Elster, McAnarney, & Lamb, 1983).

Maternal level of education. Education has been found to relate to parenting strategies. Vukelich and Kliman (1985) found that mother's educational level was significantly related to child development knowledge and to realistic child behavior expectations. McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982) found that personal characteristics that were not related to parenthood, such as age and education, contributed to maternal beliefs.

Studies involving Kohn's theory of socioeconomic status as predictor of parental values and parenting behaviors have indicated that educational attainment as well as occupational prestige is significant in determining type of parental discipline preferred (Gecas & Nye, 1974; Luster, 1986a; Luster & Rhodes, 1987; Luster, Rhodes, & Haas, 1989; Williamson, 1984). Results suggested that white collar (i.e., middle socioeconomic status) parents preferred psychologically oriented techniques and valued development of internal standards. Blue collar parents were more likely to value conformity to external standards and to react on

the basis of the consequences of the child's behavior rather than to the child's intentions or motivations.

Morrow (1989), in a California study of the child rearing practices of approximately 200 Caucasian families with pre school age children, found that parents on the lower socioeconomic scale, which was calculated by a weighted score combination of both occupation and education of the parent with the highest social position, were more punitive in regard to dependent behaviors and fears than those in the middle class. Punishment was more severe for aggressive behaviors. As socioeconomic levels decreased, the amount of physical punishment used increased. The majority of parents in the study reported corporal punishment as the strategy used in rearing their children.

Race-Ethnicity. Studies of race-ethnicity have been varied in focus. There have been a number of studies involving race; these studies either compared African American and Caucasian families, African American, Caucasian, and Hispanic families, or focused on just African American families (Stevens, 1984a, 1984b; Wilson, 1986, 1989). McLoyd (1990), in research on the impact of economic adversity on African American families and children from the viewpoint of psychological distress, parenting, and socioemotional development, found that major factors were the different kinds of poverty associated with race.

Poverty for many African American children is persistent and noticeable for its geographical concentration. Poverty for Caucasian children may be more temporary and more geographically diverse. Regardless of race, McLoyd reported that economically deprived parents are more likely to be distressed, depressed, irritable, and explosive. They exhibit higher usage of physical punishment and less frequent use of reasoning and negotiation. Marital conflict may increase harsh, punitive parenting. The existence of social networks helps to buffer the family and provides support. Single mothers are at risk for a variety of mental health and financial problems. Of chief concern in the study is the disproportionate number of female headed households among African Americans and the resulting environmental factors that place many African American children at greater risk for falling into poverty. These conditions increase the likelihood of the parental characteristics and behaviors described.

McLeod and Shanahan (1993) report that with persistent poverty, frequency of spanking does not increase, and may even decrease. However, other forms of severe discipline, including abuse from fathers may be more common. These results were consistent over racial-ethnic differences.

A study of ethnic minority families (i.e., African American, American Indian-Alaskan Native, Asian Pacific

Americans, and Hispanics) provided viewpoints on ethnic minorities, adaptive strategies, and child outcomes (Harrison et al., 1990). Using an ecological perspective, the researchers examined how the cultural patterns of ethnic minority families interact with the larger social system. They maintain that for these families compromises are necessary which are not needed by majority families. Ethnic minority families are concerned with biculturalism, which involves preparing children to function both in the ethnic and nonethnic communities. These compromises, or adaptations, alter expectations and outcomes in the development of ethnic minority children and result in greater cognitive and social flexibility than needed by children of majority families.

The attempt to coexist with the European American culture resulted in adaptive strategies for all groups studied. These strategies ensured the survival and well being of community members, while maintaining cultural patterns. Family extendedness, role flexibility (e.g., parenting responsibilities, alternative family arrangements), biculturalism, and ancestral worldviews (i.e., collectivism or group loyalty) were all part of these adaptations (Harrison et al., 1990).

All these strategies have implications for parenting values and behaviors. Using family extendedness as an

example, Langston (1980) reported that 85% of African American elderly shared their home with someone who was either a spouse, adult child, or a grandchild.

Harrison et al. (1990) reports that Hispanic families have strong feelings of identification, loyalty, and unity with parents and the extended family. Children are oriented toward the family group as a source of information concerning their ethnic identity and culture.

Interdependence is considered a goal. Parents reinforce children's traits that are consistent with this goal. Cooperation, obligation, sharing, and reciprocity are valued. Cognitive and social flexibility is prized (MacPhee, Fritz, & Miller-Heyl, 1993; Marin, 1986; Martinez, 1988; Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, Marin, & Perez-Stable, 1987). A study of Mexican American mothers found that mothers with more education held less traditional beliefs and values. They were more authoritarian and directive in managing their children (Cousins, Power, & Olvera-Ezzell, 1993).

Researchers state that ethnic minority children are at risk for discontinuity between home environments and expectations of the school and general society. Ethnic minority families vary in the extent to which they are sensitive to the discrepancy between home and school expectations and social role assignments. Harrison et al.

(1990) call for further research and for assistance from educators, social scientists, and families in decreasing the negative impact of this discontinuity upon ethnic minority children.

Psychological Characteristics

Parent satisfaction. Parental feelings of satisfaction or efficacy, have been linked to parenting behaviors (Luster, 1986b). Ragozin et al. (1982), found that parent satisfaction was related to maternal age, greater time commitment to the role of parent, and to more optimal behavior and attitudes toward children. Lerner and Galambos (1985) studied the relationship between maternal role satisfaction and child adjustment. Dissatisfied mothers displayed more rejection of their children. Burman and Erel (1993) found that overt marital conflict was more strongly related to the parent child relationship than overall marital satisfaction. Meredith et al. (1984) and Meredith, Cacioppo, and Stinnett, (1984) found that perceived child temperament predicted parent satisfaction. Those parents who perceived their child as having a pleasant disposition, were more satisfied. Satisfied parents were also less aggressive about anger and hostility.

Goetting (1986), in a review of parent satisfaction literature, indicated that self-report measures of parent satisfaction are subject to social desirability bias and

cultural expectations, that satisfaction is affected by marital status and the age of the mother when the first child is born. In addition, parent satisfaction is part of a larger system of personal adjustment and general well-being.

Level of parental acceptance or rejection. Parental acceptance or rejection of the child has been linked to parenting strategies. Crockenberg (1987), in a study of adolescent mothers with toddlers, found that mothers who had experienced rejection during childhood and had little support from a partner after childbirth were more likely to engage in angry and punitive parenting strategies. In turn, these children were angry and noncompliant and distanced themselves from their mothers.

Rohner (1984) defines parental rejection as dislike for, disapproval of, or resentment of children. Parental rejection is displayed by parental hostility and aggression and by parental indifference and neglect. In referring to parental acceptance or rejection and child effects, Rohner states that children who experience rejection are more likely to develop a wide range of psychiatric and behavioral disorders. They may become aggressive and hostile or unresponsive and emotionally detached. The potential exists for social problems and academic difficulties as the child matures. In contrast, accepting parents are described as

those who show their love and affection toward their children, physically and verbally. These types of behaviors make the children feel loved and accepted. They develop a positive self-concept and confidence which leads to success at home, at school, and in social relationships (Berger, 1980; Hoffman & Hoffman, 1964; Rohner, 1984).

Parental expectations for child behavior. Expectations that are rigid or unrealistic may lead to anger and frustration for parents and children. Examples of rigid expectations include believing a child should always be neat, should never disobey, should be seen and not heard, and must be punished to be controlled (Milner, 1986). Rigid or unrealistic expectations, which could be classified as too high or too low for a child, have been documented in child abuse and maltreatment research (Abidin, 1986; Azar et al., 1984; Twentyman & Plotkin, 1982). Whether these unrealistic expectations are too high or too low for the developmental level of the child, the outcome for the child is similar, resultant feelings of low self-esteem and frustration. In addition, parental appraisals of children's ability have been cited as asserting a powerful influence over children's self-perceived academic competence (Phillips, 1987).

A study by Bradley and Peters in 1991, comparing parenting and child behavior perceptions of abusive and non-

abusive mothers, revealed that the abusive and clinically involved mothers reported their children had a much higher rate of problem behavior than did mothers from the non-abusive groups. They were less likely to hold themselves responsible for conflict with their children. They also gave very little credit to their children for positive encounters.

Children who experience different expectations at home from those at school may also be at greater risk for educational failure. The skills and strategies these children have acquired to get along in their own communities are often ineffective in the school setting and conversely, preferred school behaviors may not be compatible with home and community expectations (Comer, 1988). These children are challenged by the fact that they must learn the school culture and expectations while attempting to learn the educational tasks presented (Knapp & Shields, 1990; Knapp, Turnbull, & Shields, 1990).

Level of parental personal distress or adjustment.

Personal distress may include feelings of sadness, loneliness, frustration, worry, fear, confusion, lack of control, worthlessness, rejection, and anger. The presence of a high level of distress is indicative of many personal adjustment problems and considered one of the factors related to child abuse. Perceived lack of control increases

the risk of using physical punishment to control or correct behavior (Milner, 1986). Some parents are extremely restrictive in managing their children. Maternal depression has been associated with negative perceptions of children, non-emotional responses, and inappropriate discipline (Gelfand & Teti, 1990; Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington, & Clingempiel, 1993).

A series of studies comparing clinic-referred and non-clinic young children investigated parental factors as determinants of clinic referrals for child deviant behavior (Forehand, King, Peed, & Yoder, 1975; Green, Forehand, & McMahon, 1979; Griest, Forehand, Wells, & McMahon, 1980; Griest, Wells, & Forehand, 1979; Rickard, Forehand, Wells, Griest, & McMahon, 1981). It was reported that in general, parental characteristics as well as parental perceptions of their children were significant in referrals. Mothers of clinic-referred deviants, clinic-referred non-deviants, and non-clinic children were used as the subjects for these studies. Findings suggested that mothers in the clinic-deviant group issued more vague, interruptive commands to their children than did the clinic-non-deviant group. In addition, parental depression appeared to play a role in clinic referrals. Results indicated that factors other than child behavior appeared to lead to referrals in the clinic non-deviant group.

A study by Simons, Beaman, Conger, and Chao (1993a) reported that emotional well being impacts parenting indirectly. Satisfaction with the parent/child relationship is a reflection of the parent's general emotional state.

Situational Characteristics

Research indicates that marital status can be a source of support or of stress. Single parent working women typically have the sole responsibility of rearing the children and supporting the family financially. They deal with shortages of time, energy, and money. Traditionally they have had to make compromises in jobs, child care arrangements, and social life (Quinn & Allen, 1989). Single parents tend to be more socially isolated, often work longer hours, and receive less emotional and family support than married parents. They may experience more potentially stressful life changes (Simons et al., 1993a; Weinraub & Wolf, 1983). A study by Webster-Stratton (1989) reported that single mothers, compared to married mothers, tended to use more critical statements, questions, and commands when engaging with their children.

The influence of the quality of the marital relationship has revealed mixed results. Belsky, Youngblade Rovine and Volling(1991) reported that women may be able to "maintain boundaries between their relationships with their spouses and their children" (p. 496). Conversely,

Webster-Stratton (1989) found that low marital satisfaction was correlated significantly "with more negative mother perceptions of child adjustment, increased mother and father reports of parenting stress, increased mother commands and increased child noncompliance" (p.426).

Living arrangements. Living arrangements refers to the number of adults living in the home, and their relationship to the mother and child. Family and social support have been associated with greater life satisfaction in adolescent mothers (Unger & Wandersman, 1988). Research has reported positive effects of the presence of a partner or spouse in the home (Belsky, Lerner, & Spanier, 1984). Conversely, it is also reported that too many adults in the household, especially where there are questions of ownership of authority, or where there is discord among the occupants, results in general stress and frustration (Goldsteen & Ross, 1989).

Occupational prestige. Occupational prestige of the family has been considered important in studies of parental values and parenting choices of discipline. As mentioned in the discussion of educational level, occupational prestige is a major component in Kohn's theory of socioeconomic influences on parenting styles. As in education, Kohn's theory suggests that higher occupational status is related to middle class or white collar values of psychologically

oriented discipline, which favors reasoning and praise. Research, in general, has supported Kohn's hypothesis (Gecas & Nye, 1974; Luster, 1986a; Luster & Rhodes, 1987; Luster et al., 1989; Peterson, Lee, & Ellis, 1982; Williamson, 1984).

Characteristics of WIC Participants

The purpose of the Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) program, the source of data for this study, is to provide nutritional and medical assistance to low income pregnant and postpartum women and to their infants and young children. Most of the studies on this federally funded program have been of a medical, nutritional, or evaluative nature. It has been shown that the WIC program contributes to improvement in pregnancy outcomes. Length of time in the program has been positively correlated with enhanced pregnancy outcomes (Kotelchuck, Schwartz, Anderka, & Finison, 1984; Ku, 1989). Measuring the effect of WIC intervention on infant and child cognitive development has produced mixed results (Hick, Langham, & Takenaka, 1982; Mays-Scott, 1991; Pollitt & Lorimor, 1983). The effectiveness of nutrition education for pregnant women enrolled in WIC, the mode of education, the frequency of contact, and the presence of multi-language materials were considered key in providing maximum benefits to these mothers (Jonsson, 1990; Taren, Clark, Chernesky, & Quirk, 1990). Most of these evaluative studies have been those

conducted by individual states and the federal government to assess the effectiveness of the program (Chelimsky, 1984; Congress of the United States, 1985, 1986, 1988; Federal Register, 1988).

An extensive study of WIC participant and program participants was published in 1990. Prepared under the auspices of the United States Department of Agriculture, this document provides extensive descriptive and summary data on state and local agency characteristics for such areas as participant characteristics by category, age, migrant status, demographics, health services, and prior WIC participation. Other measures include income, nutritional risk characteristics, food package contents, and patterns of participation. The study provides a valuable basis for studies of specific WIC populations (Williams, Lessler, Wheelless, & Wildfire, 1990). Few parenting studies involving WIC mothers have been published. Luster (1986a, 1987) included WIC mothers as part of the sample in a study of parental functioning and parental feelings of efficacy. This was a regional study limited to a small region in upstate New York. Using the same data set as the present study, Brewer (1991) studied factors effecting parent satisfaction and acceptance or rejection in mothers participating in the WIC program. Variables which were predictive of parent satisfaction were marital status (i.e.,

being unmarried), the age of the oldest child, parental acceptance, and use of reasoning as a child rearing strategy. Vasquez (1992), also using this data set, compared parenting strategies of African American, Caucasian, and Hispanic WIC participants in Los Angeles, California in relation to parent satisfaction. The Hispanic group reported lower use of physical punishment than the other two groups. All three racial-ethnic groups reasoned with their children. Most of the respondents used praise. Regression analysis results indicated that ethnic group memberships and the use of reason as a child rearing strategy were the best predictors of maternal satisfaction. These parenting studies have provided valuable information for the more comprehensive study of determinants of child rearing strategies in WIC participants in this research.

Summary

Although much is known about child rearing strategies, it is important to clarify and identify predictors of child rearing strategies in specific populations of parents. The results of these child rearing studies provide useful information to researchers and practitioners as they work with children and families. Models by Belsky and Abidin provide a broad foundation on which to base these particular investigations. Investigating parental characteristics and contributors to child rearing strategies in parents of

children who are at-risk nutritionally, medically, educationally, and economically will provide essential information in assisting these families.

Chapter three will present the research design, sample, data collection procedures, instrumentation, and analysis techniques used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design and Method

This study is designed to identify factors that predict child rearing strategies used by mothers or primary caregivers and to test relationships of theoretically relevant blocks of variables to these strategies.

In this study, the independent variables are parental demographic characteristics (i.e., age group, highest level of education, and race-ethnicity), psychological characteristics (i.e., level of parent satisfaction, level of parental acceptance, level of flexibility in child behavior expectations, and level of personal adjustment), and situational characteristics (i.e., marital status, living arrangements, mother's occupational prestige, and whether residence is in urban California or rural Montana).

The dependent variable is the type of child rearing strategies reported preferred by mothers in reaction to children's behaviors. Maternal responses are: (a) spank; (b) praise; (c) reason; (d) allow, and (e) consequences.

Sample

Data for this study come from 330 self-reporting questionnaires distributed to WIC participants in Montana in 1988 and in Los Angeles, California in 1989. All mothers attending the WIC program in three counties in southwest

Montana during July, 1988 and all those at the Long Beach WIC office of Los Angeles County, California in February and March 1989, received the surveys and were encouraged to complete the materials.

The initial study goals were (1) to investigate the relationship between parent knowledge of child development and expectations concerning appropriate parenting behavior, and (2) to study the relationship of child development knowledge to parental satisfaction and child discipline strategies. The two surveys were identical with several exceptions: (1) in the Montana research, ethnic origin was not requested and (2) in the California study, age and the knowledge of child development assessment were not included.

Goals of the current study differ from those of the original investigation. The present study is examining maternal demographic characteristics, psychological characteristics, and situational characteristics as predictors of child rearing strategies.

The WIC program is designed to improve the health of persons who are at risk nutritionally through education and provision of supplementary foods (Farrior & Ruwe, 1987; Williams et al., 1990). Those who participate in the program attend the clinic approximately once a month. Health and nutritional assessments and counseling are provided. Vouchers are given for specific food purchases.

Three criteria determine eligibility for the WIC program. First, participants must either be pregnant and/or have one or more children below the age of five (in many instances budget constraints have reduced the age to below three) (Weisberg, 1991). Second, they must be at risk nutritionally. Third, they must meet the criteria for eligibility as determined by family size and income under the guidelines established by the United States Department of Agriculture (Health Services Division, 1987; Code of Federal Regulations, 1990).

Data from WIC Participant and Program Characteristics Report indicate that approximately 56% of these mothers have not completed high school, 45% are married, 84% are between ages eighteen and thirty-four, and approximately 11% are seventeen years of age and younger (Williams, et al., 1990). These conditions, collectively, place mothers and children at risk for other physical and emotional problems (Childrens Defense Fund, 1991; Chafel, 1990). Many eligible WIC mothers may not have the education or skills necessary for successful employment. They may lack family and social network supports. Further, children may be at risk educationally (Elders & Wohlleb, 1991; Halpern, 1987).

Data Collection Procedures

Permission was obtained from the county Health Departments to conduct the research. Fliers were posted in

WIC offices informing the clients of the questionnaire prior to the distribution. During the following month, WIC personnel gave a research packet to each client on her regular monthly visit. The packet contained a letter of instruction, a self-report questionnaire, a consent form of a pre-addressed, stamped postcard, and a complimentary brochure about children (see Appendices B through E). Mothers were given the choice of completing the questionnaire in the office, taking it home to complete, or not participating in the study. Questionnaires and consent cards could be placed in a box provided at the WIC office or mailed back in a pre-addressed, stamped envelope. Follow-up fliers reminding mothers to return their questionnaires were also used (see Appendix F) (Brewer, 1991).

Data from Montana and California were coded, entered into the microcomputer using the PC File + software for data management, and uploaded to the mainframe at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in Blacksburg, Virginia. All data analysis was run using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Norusis, 1990a; Norusis, 1990b).

Instrumentation

The Parenting Project questionnaire consists of five self-reporting instruments and twelve demographic questions.

Four of the instruments and seven of the demographic items are considered in this study.

Demographic Information

The following information was requested concerning the respondent (see Appendix G):

Maternal age. This item is assessed by asking the respondents to check the appropriate age category, (i.e., 15 to 25, 26 to 35, 36 to 45, 46 to 55, 55 and over).

Race-ethnicity. Race-ethnicity is determined by a single item self-report of (a) White, (b) Black (c) Hispanic, (d) Asian, (e) American Indian, or (f) Other.

Educational level. The educational level is determined by the respondent's "drawing a circle around the number of years of schooling completed." Answers could range from one year of grade school to twenty years (i.e., four years or more post graduate). Three categories are used in this analysis; less than a high school diploma, high school diploma, high school diploma plus.

Occupational prestige. Two questions are used to measure occupational prestige: "What is your occupation? In a few words, please tell us what you do," and "What is your husband's or partner's occupation (if he or she has one)? In a few words tell us what he or she does." Occupations are rated on a scale of zero to six. High

prestige occupations, such as administrators or engineering are rated as a six. Lower prestige occupations, such as operators or laborers, are rated as one. Homemakers, mothers, students, or unemployed categories are listed as zero (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1983). Family prestige (i.e., whoever has the higher prestige occupation of the mother or the partner), the mother's occupation, and the spouse or partner's occupation were assessed by the survey. This study uses the mother's occupation as an independent variable.

Marital status. This item is determined by three questions: (a) "Are you now married?" (b) "What year were you married?" (c) "Was your previous marriage ended because of: divorce, desertion, never married, or death?" For analysis purposes, respondents are considered either married (yes) or not married (no).

Living arrangements. Living arrangements are assessed by asking "Who lives with you?" Respondents checked all that applied to their situation. Choices are spouse, brother or sister, male friend, parent(s), grandparent(s), female friend. Two categories are used; with spouse or partner and other.

Child Abuse Potential Inventory

This inventory, the Child Abuse Potential Inventory (CAPI), is used to assess potential for physical child abuse

(Appendix H). It consists of six factor scales: distress, rigidity, unhappiness, problems with self and child, problems with self, and problems with others, and three validity scales: the lie scale, the random response scale, and the inconsistency scale (Milner, 1986).

Discriminant analysis of the entire Inventory revealed that seventy-seven of the 160 items significantly ($p < .05$, two-tailed test) discriminated between abusers and comparison subjects. Internal consistency measured in the middle .90s across all groups (Milner, 1986).

Thirty-seven items from the original seventy-seven item primary clinic test were selected for the initial questionnaire in the original study. Two factors from these scales were selected for this research: distress and rigidity. The CAPI manual states that the three dimensions of distress, rigidity, and unhappiness made relatively important contributions to the prediction of child abuse. Unhappiness was not chosen for this study because it is represented by just two items in this questionnaire. Distress is better represented with thirteen items and rigidity with six. In addition, both dimensions (i.e., distress and rigidity), by definition, have more relevance to the questions posed in this study.

Reliability analysis for the present study for distress (i.e., the variable adjustment) revealed an alpha value of

.85. For rigidity (i.e., the variable flexibility), the alpha value was .74.

The respondent's potential for child abuse is assessed by marking "agree" or "disagree" for the 37 items selected from the six dimensions of child abuse. Items include statements such as "I often feel alone," "I have many personal problems," "I enjoy having pets," "Children should never disobey."

Parental Satisfaction Scale

Satisfaction with the role of parent is measured by a four-question scale (Appendix I). The respondent marks 1, 2, 3, or 4, with 1 meaning "strongly agree" and 4 meaning "strongly disagree." Overall satisfaction with being a parent is indicated by a score between 4 and 8. Analysis for this study indicated a reliability coefficient of .85. This result concurs with previous reliability tests (Brewer, 1991).

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire

The Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) measures a parent's perception of how he/she treats the child (Appendix J). It is in the form of a sixty-item self-report instrument that focuses on self-report of parental behavior rather than parental attitude. The respondent checks one of four statements for each item that ranges from "almost always true of me" to "never true." Items include

such statements as "I make fun of my child," "I praise my child to others," and " I let my child know he is not wanted" (Rohner, 1984).

The PARQ contains four subscales that deal with perceived parental warmth-affection, parental aggression-hostility, perceived neglect-indifference, and perceived undifferentiated rejection. Responses range from 1 to 4 for each item. Each subscale is divided by the number of questions in the subscale. Thus, a score from 1 to 4 is possible. The warmth-affection subscale items are reversed scored. The four subscales are added to obtain a total score range from 4 to 16. A low score indicates rejection and a high score indicates acceptance. Reliability coefficients for the four subscales have been reported to range from .86 to .90. Pretesting of the PARQ on undergraduate students found that all four subscales were significantly related ($p < .001$) to their validity scales (Rohner, 1984). Reliability analysis for this study showed an alpha value of .80.

Maternal Reactions to a Child's Deviant Behavior Scale

Parenting strategies are measured by a scale from the Maternal Expectations, Attitudes, and Behavior Inventory (MEABI), which assesses "parents' knowledge, beliefs, and expectations about children and child-rearing practices" (Rickard et al., 1984) (See Appendix K). Rickard et al.

(1984) reported two types of reliability for MEABI. A median Cronbach's alpha of .67 was reported for internal consistency. Median test-retest correlation was .70. The 23 Item scale used in this research is entitled Maternal Reactions to a Child's Deviant Behavior (MRCDB). Reliability analysis run on this scale indicated an alpha value of .71. Mothers are asked to respond to each statement on a 7-point scale, with 1 being "strongly agree" and 7 being "strongly disagree." Statements include items such as "If your child refused to apologize for taking a toy away from a friend, you would spank him/her", "If your child was jumping up and down on the furniture, you would try to reason with him/her about it" and "If you and your child were sitting in the den and you told him/her to get to bed and (s)he had a tantrum, would you let him/her stay up?" The MRCDB has five subscales of maternal reactions which are labelled as spank, reason, allow (give in), praise, and ignore or correct (consequences). Items are scored by giving each statement a response value from 1 to 7. The total is divided by the number of statements in that subscale. For example, the first subscale, spank, has five statements. A total score for each subscale could range from 1 to 7. Originally, a low score indicated that a mother uses that strategy. A high score indicated that a mother does not use that strategy. For the present study,

this instrument was recoded, so that the higher the score, the more likely a mother uses that strategy.

The CAPI was recoded so that the higher scores represented emotional adjustment and flexibility in expectations. For the other self-reporting instruments, higher scores showed high satisfaction with being a parent, and high acceptance of the child.

Analysis

Data analysis began with descriptive information on the population and child rearing strategies under consideration. Cross tabulation analysis was used to examine relationships between different combinations of independent and dependent variables.

Factor analysis was applied to the five child rearing variables used in the MRCDB (Maternal Reaction to a Child's Deviant Behavior) scale to determine if intercorrelation existed within the five different strategies (i.e., spank reason, praise, allow, and consequences). If interrelationships among items for variables were present, the categories would be reduced and adjusted accordingly.

Cross-tabulation analysis and Pearson Product Correlation analysis were used to examine whether relationships existed between strategies and between the parent characteristics and the various strategies.

The individual independent variables (i.e., age group, level of education, race-ethnicity, level of parent satisfaction, level of parental acceptance, level of flexibility in expectations, marital status, living arrangements, occupational prestige and region of residence) were assessed for their strength in predicting each child rearing strategy by using stepwise multiple regression analysis.

Hierarchical (i.e., blockwise) multiple regression analysis was used to test the predictive strength of the three categories of variables (i.e., demographic, psychological, and situational) and to assess Belsky's theory of Multiple Determinants of Parenting Strategies.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

This chapter provides the analytical procedures and the results of the statistical analyses used for examining the research questions: (1) What are the descriptive characteristics of the population under study; (2) what are the descriptive characteristics of the reported child rearing strategies; (3) which combinations of individual parental characteristics (i.e., age, educational attainment, race-ethnicity; parent satisfaction, parental acceptance, flexibility, adjustment; marital status, living arrangements, mother's occupational prestige, and region of residence) best predict each of the five self-reported child rearing strategies, (4) which blocks (i.e., classifications) of parental characteristics (i.e., demographic, psychological, and situational), defined in Belsky's model, best predict each of the child rearing strategies?.

The analyses included preliminary descriptive examination of the total population and the child rearing strategies. Factor analysis was applied to the child rearing strategies, to determine objectively if multicollinearity existed and to decide what factors (e.g., groupings of strategies) actually occurred.

Following these initial analyses, the data was recoded to include just the top third and the bottom third scores

for each strategy (see Table 1). In this way, the rest of the analyses pertained to parents who most used a strategy (i.e., the top third) and parents who least used the strategy (i.e., the bottom third). Eliminating the middle, no preference, category, resulted in clearer and more definitive findings for each strategy. There were great differences in the mean, median, and percentiles for the individual strategies. Spank and consequences were more normally distributed. Praise, reason, and allow showed very little variance. With a range of 1-7, the mean for praise was 6.14, and for reason was 5.82. Allow was low, with a mean of 2.21.

Cross tabulation analysis was used to examine relationships of parental characteristics to specific self-reported child rearing strategies. Relationships between the reported child rearing strategies were examined by Pearson correlation analysis. Stepwise multiple regression allowed individual variables to enter freely. Hierarchical (i.e., blockwise) multiple regression analyses, used to test predictions of Belsky's model, entered the variables into the equation as blocks (i.e., demographic, psychological, and situational).

Descriptive information for the sample of 330 respondents is presented first.

Table 1

Child Rearing Strategies - Summary of Descriptive Statistics *

Strategies	Mean	Median	SD	33rd percentile	67th percentile
Spank	4.00	4.20	1.60	3.20	4.80
Praise	6.14	6.67	1.21	6.00	7.00
Reason	5.82	6.00	1.08	5.60	6.40
Allow	2.21	2.00	1.29	1.25	2.50
Consequences	4.62	4.67	1.44	4.00	5.33

* Range = 1-7

Demographic Information

Table 2 provides descriptive summaries of the demographic and parental characteristic variables used in the study. These variables were examined in two ways: (1) by the number of respondents in each category from the total population (N=330); and (2) by a comparison between the two regions: Montana and California.

For the total population 137 of the respondents were in the youngest category, age 15 to 25, and 161 were in the age 25 to 35 category. Educationally, 73 had not completed high school, 110 had high school diplomas, and 147 had studied beyond high school. Slightly more than half of the respondents were married (n=177) compared to all other marital statuses. Respondents who reported living with a spouse or partner numbered 184, while 146 indicated other living arrangements, which included living with parents, siblings, friends, or alone.

Mother's occupational prestige was defined according to the seven occupational prestige classification levels, as listed in Appendix A. Family prestige referred to the partner who had the higher (i.e., more prestigious) occupational classification level. For the total population, the categories with the highest numbers for mother's occupation were: (1) level 0, student-homemaker-unemployed (n=129); (2) level 4, service occupations (n=42),

Table 2

Profile of Parental Characteristics - Comparison by Region

Descriptive Category	Population	Region			
		Montana		California	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	137	41	30%	96	70%
26 to 35	161	83	52%	78	48%
36 to 45	20	9	45%	11	55%
46 and Over	1			1	100%
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	73	14	19%	59	81%
H.S. Diploma	110	50	45%	60	55%
H.S. Diploma Plus	147	71	48%	76	52%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana	135	135	100%		
Urban - California	195			195	100%
<u>Race/Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian	174	135	78%	39	22%
African American	90			90	100%
Hispanic	47			47	100%
Other	19			19	100%
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	177	102	58%	75	42%
No	151	32	21%	119	79%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	184	107	58%	77	42%
Other	146	28	19%	118	81%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	129			129	100%
Operators	1	1	100%		
Precision, production	1			1	100%
Farming	2	2	100%		
Service occupations	42	17	41%	25	59%
Clerical	41	16	39%	25	61%
Administrative, professional	11	5	45%	6	55%
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	67			67	100%
Operator	24	6	25%	18	75%
Precision, production	30	17	57%	13	43%
Farming	11	10	91%	1	9%
Service occupations	68	23	34%	45	66%
Clerical	58	24	41%	34	59%
Administrative, professional	17	9	53%	8	47%

and (3) clerical (N=41). Family prestige showed 67 respondents at level 0, student-homemaker-unemployed; 68 at level 4, service occupations; and 58 at level 5, clerical.

The total population was divided racially-ethnically into 174 Caucasians, 90 African Americans, 47 Hispanics, and 19 Other, which included Asian and Native American. The two regions were racially and ethnically different. In Montana, the entire sample was reportedly Caucasian. Of the total Caucasian population, approximately 78% (n=135) were in Montana and 22% (n=39) lived in Los Angeles. All African Americans, Hispanics, and Others resided in California.

Further regional differences were noted. Forty one percent of the population resided in Montana, and 59% lived in California. The California sample had sixty more respondents. For the category of age, 70% of the mothers in the youngest category lived in California. The other age categories were more evenly distributed. Educationally, 81% of those who had not completed high school lived in California. Again, the other educational categories were fairly even in distribution for both regions.

Marital status and living arrangements showed regional differences. Seventy-nine percent of the unmarried respondents and 81% of those with "other" living arrangements lived in California. For the married and living with partner or spouse percentages, Montana had

slightly more in that category, with 58% reporting being married and 58% indicating living with a spouse or partner.

All persons in the student-homemaker-unemployed category lived in California. As coded, it was not possible to break down that category into the three components, which would have provided more definitive information. For mother's occupations, 59% in the service occupations category, 61% of those in the clerical category, and 55% in the administrative-professional category lived in California. Using family prestige as an indicator, 75% of the operators, 66% of service occupations, and 59% of clerical, lived in California. Montana had two areas with higher percentages, precision-production (57%) and administrative-professional (53%). There were 11 persons who reported being farmers, 10 in Montana and 1 in California.

Both mother's occupation and family prestige information was included in the descriptive analysis. The multiple regression analysis used just the mother's occupation as an independent variable. This is in keeping with the other demographic information in the analyses which pertains just to the mother. The fairly large percentage of mothers not married (46%) also contributed to the reasoning for using mother's occupation instead of family prestige.

In summary, the descriptive analysis revealed that the two regional populations were different in several areas. California residents tended to be younger, had slightly lower occupational prestige classifications, had more respondents who had not completed high school, were more likely to be unmarried and to have other types of living arrangements than with a spouse or partner, and were more racially and ethnically diverse.

Because of these regional differences, it was decided that the possibility of two different populations with different characteristics existed. Therefore, region was included as a variable and examined in the analysis of predictors of child rearing strategies.

Child Rearing Strategies

Individual items from the Maternal Reactions to Child's Deviant Behavior Questionnaire (MRCDB) were subjected to a five factor solution. Exploratory factor analysis was performed. Tabachnick and Fidell (1986) state that exploratory factor analysis is appropriate in early stages of research as a method of consolidating variables and is useful for grouping variables that are correlated. The analysis revealed the presence of five exclusive child rearing strategies as evidenced by five eigenvalues greater than one (see Table 3). Using a factor loading cutoff of .50, the rotated varimax report showed that there were five

Table 3

Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis of Child Rearing Strategies

Factors	Eigenvalue	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage of Variance
1 - Spank	3.38601	14.7	14.7
2 - Reason	2.96458	12.9	27.6
3 - Allow	2.43633	10.6	38.2
4 - Praise	1.92209	8.4	46.6
5 - Consequences	1.24912	5.4	52.0

distinct parenting style variables, with minimum interrelationship (see Table 4). These five categories were labeled as spank, praise, reason, allow, and consequences.

Pearson correlations of the strategies (see Table 5) showed that several reported child rearing strategies were significantly correlated, although overall correlations were not high: spank and consequences, with a correlation coefficient of .18 ($p < .01$), praise and reason (.15 correlation coefficient with $p < .01$), and reason and consequences (correlation coefficient of .31, $p < .001$). Pearson correlations by individual race or ethnicity had different findings. There was one significant correlation for the Caucasian population; reason and consequences, with a coefficient of .31 at the $p < .001$ level. For African American, three correlations were significant; praise and reason (.23, $p < .05$), praise and consequences (.27, $p < .05$), and reason and consequences (.34, $p < .01$). For Hispanic there were also three significant correlations; spank and consequences (.34, $p < .05$), praise and reason (.47, $p < .01$), and reason and consequences (.35, $p < .05$).

Cross Tabulation Analysis of Strategies

Cross tabulation analysis of parent characteristics and reported individual strategies provided descriptive information concerning relationships of parent characteristics to specific child rearing choices. Each

Table 4

**Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis of Child Rearing Strategies
Rotated Factor Matrix**

<u>Spank</u>			
Item	7	0.81609	
Numbers	11	0.77670	
	1	0.75884	
	19	0.68473	
	21	0.64494	
<u>Reason</u>			
Item	20	0.74634	
Numbers	15	0.67654	
	17	0.61638	
	3	0.56427	
	10	0.52224	
	4	0.35217	
<u>Allow</u>			
Item	9	0.81867	
Numbers	14	0.73339	
	22	0.71554	
	5	0.62976	
	8	0.38401	
<u>Praise</u>			
Item	6	0.81030	
Numbers	16	0.80006	
	2	0.71985	
	13	0.42417	
<u>Consequences</u>			
Item	12	0.63345	
Numbers	18	0.57912	
	23	0.53601	

Table 5

Pearson Correlations of Child Rearing Strategies

Total Population N = 330					
Strategy	Spank	Praise	Reason	Allow	Consequences
1 Spank	-	-0.07	-0.02	0.02	0.18 **
2 Praise		-	0.15 **	-0.05	0.11
3 Reason			-	0.09	0.31 ***
4 Allow				-	0.03
5 Consequences					-
Caucasian n = 174					
Strategy	Spank	Praise	Reason	Allow	Consequences
1 Spank	-	-0.03	-0.02	0.04	0.11
2 Praise		-	0.03	-0.11	-0.06
3 Reason			-	0.11	0.31 ***
4 Allow				-	0.09
5 Consequences					-
African American n = 90					
Strategy	Spank	Praise	Reason	Allow	Consequences
1 Spank	-	-0.08	0.02	-0.09	0.20
2 Praise		-	0.23 *	0.11	0.27 *
3 Reason			-	0.34	0.34 **
4 Allow				-	-0.006
5 Consequences					-
Hispanic n = 47					
Strategy	Spank	Praise	Reason	Allow	Consequences
1 Spank	-	0.04	0.13	0.14	0.34 *
2 Praise		-	0.47 **	0.06	0.16
3 Reason			-	-0.14	0.35 *
4 Allow				-	-0.13
5 Consequences					-
Other n = 19					
Strategy	Spank	Praise	Reason	Allow	Consequences
1 Spank	-	-0.28	-0.24	0.19	0.59 **
2 Praise		-	-0.12	0.08	-0.05
3 Reason			-	-0.34	0.11
4 Allow				-	0.19
5 Consequences					-

* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

strategy was analyzed using the low (i.e., most disagree with the use of this strategy) and high third (i.e., most agree with the use of the strategy) of the population. By including just those respondents who reported strong preference for using or not using a strategy differences among the independent variables could be seen more clearly. Cross tabulation analysis by individual race-ethnicity for the separate strategies was also performed, and yielded different results. Before interpreting this analysis the researcher had made an a priori decision that a 10% difference between two variables was significant for reporting. This was done because there were smaller population numbers when just the upper and lower third of the population was considered for each strategy. Dividing the selected population into individual ethnic-racial groups resulted in even smaller numbers. As small differences may be important when working with lower population numbers, the 10% difference was considered appropriate. In addition, in order to emphasize main trends, the low ends of the data were not considered for reporting the data. For the purposes of organizing the findings, strategy results are grouped first by general population and then by individual race-ethnicity.

General Population

For the general population (see Tables 6-10), spank is considered first. As years of education increased, preference for spanking decreased; 69% of those with less than a high school education reporting spanking, 54% of those with high school diplomas spanked and 43% of those with education beyond high school reporting that they spanked. California (56%) respondents spanked more than those in Montana (46%). Unmarried respondents tended to prefer spank (57%). For the category of prestige, those with occupations in the service occupations (level 4), operator (level 1), and student-homemaker-unemployed (level 0) spanked more than those in the highest category, administrative-professional which was evenly divided (i.e., 50% in each group).

For praise, there were age trends, with younger persons praising less (46%) than older mothers, ages 36 to 45, where 77% reported that they praise. Those in the 26 to 35 age group reported 62% praise. Educational attainment showed similar results. As amount of education increased, percentages for praise increased; 46% for less than high school, 54% for those with high school diplomas, and 63% for those with education beyond high school. Those in Montana praised more, as did married persons, and those who lived with a spouse or partner. Except for those identified as

Table 6

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Spank

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Spank		High Spank	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	92	43	47%	49	53%
26 to 35	118	56	47%	62	53%
36 to 45	12	6	50%	6	50%
46 and over	1	1	100%		
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	52	16	31%	36	69%
H.S. Diploma	68	31	46%	37	54%
H.S. Diploma Plus	110	63	57%	47	43%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana	97	52	54%	45	46%
Urban - California	133	58	44%	75	56%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian	122	63	52%	59	48%
African American	66	21	32%	45	68%
Hispanic	31	19	61%	12	39%
Other	11	7	64%	4	36%
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	123	63	51%	60	49%
No	106	46	43%	60	57%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	127	62	49%	65	51%
Other	103	48	47%	55	53%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	83	37	45%	46	55%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming	2	2	100%		
Service occupations	33	13	39%	20	61%
Clerical	26	18	69%	8	31%
Administrative, professional	11	6	55%	5	45%
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	43	17	40%	26	60%
Operator	16	3	19%	13	81%
Precision, production	22	12	55%	10	45%
Farming	8	4	50%	4	50%
Service occupations	50	22	44%	28	56%
Clerical	36	23	64%	13	36%
Administrative, professional	14	7	50%	7	50%

Table 7

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Praise

Descriptive Category	Population	Low		High	
		Do Not Praise		Praise	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	114	62	54%	52	46%
26 to 35	129	49	38%	80	62%
36 to 45	17	4	23%	13	77%
46 and over	1			1	100%
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	66	36	54%	30	46%
H.S. Diploma	84	39	46%	45	54%
H.S. Diploma Plus	120	44	37%	76	63%
Region					
Rural - Montana	106	27	25%	79	75%
Urban - California	164	92	56%	72	44%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian	138	42	30%	96	70%
African American	75	44	59%	31	41%
Hispanic	42	27	64%	15	36%
Other	15	6	40%	9	60%
Marital Status					
Yes	145	55	38%	90	62%
No	123	63	51%	60	49%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	144	56	39%	88	61%
Other	126	63	50%	63	50%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	109	67	61%	42	39%
Operators	1			1	100%
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming	2			2	100%
Service occupations	37	12	32%	25	68%
Clerical	29	13	45%	16	55%
Administrative, professional	10	1	10%	9	90%
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	59	37	63%	22	37%
Operator	19	13	68%	6	32%
Precision, production	24	11	46%	13	54%
Farming	10	3	30%	7	70%
Service occupations	60	19	32%	41	68%
Clerical	43	20	46%	23	54%
Administrative, professional	15	3	20%	12	80%

Table 8

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Reason

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Reason		High Reason	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	100	50	50%	50	50%
26 to 35	114	56	49%	58	51%
36 to 45	14	5	36%	9	64%
46 and over	1			1	100%
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	52	25	48%	27	52%
H.S. Diploma	79	41	52%	38	48%
H.S. Diploma Plus	106	49	46%	57	54%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana	101	60	59%	41	41%
Urban - California	136	55	40%	81	60%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian	127	70	55%	57	45%
African American	58	33	57%	25	43%
Hispanic	39	11	28%	28	72%
Other	13	1	8%	12	92%
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	131	67	51%	64	49%
No	104	47	45%	57	55%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	134	62	46%	72	54%
Other	103	53	51%	50	49%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	94	37	39%	57	61%
Operators	1			1	100%
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming	2			2	100%
Service occupations	30	16	53%	14	47%
Clerical	23	7	30%	16	70%
Administrative, professional	7	5	71%	2	29%
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	52	25	48%	27	52%
Operator	15	7	47%	8	53%
Precision, production	26	12	46%	14	54%
Farming	8	2	25%	6	75%
Service occupations	46	21	46%	25	54%
Clerical	37	14	38%	23	62%
Administrative, professional	12	9	75%	3	25%

Table 9

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Allow

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Allow		High Allow	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	94	44	47%	50	53%
26 to 35	115	61	53%	54	47%
36 to 45	13	6	46%	7	54%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	49	16	33%	33	67%
H.S. Diploma	76	36	47%	40	53%
H.S. Diploma Plus	106	63	59%	43	41%
Region					
Rural - Montana	84	56	67%	28	33%
Urban - California	147	59	40%	88	60%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian	107	70	65%	37	35%
African American	69	30	43%	39	57%
Hispanic	38	12	32%	26	68%
Other	17	3	18%	14	82%
Marital Status					
Yes	120	64	53%	56	47%
No	109	51	47%	58	53%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	124	62	50%	62	50%
Other	107	53	50%	54	50%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	94	35	37%	59	63%
Operators	1	1	100%		
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming	1	1	100%		
Service occupations	29	15	52%	14	48%
Clerical	30	13	43%	17	57%
Administrative, professional	8	5	62%	3	38%
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	48	22	46%	26	54%
Operator	18	6	33%	12	67%
Precision, production	25	12	48%	13	52%
Farming	8	7	87%	1	13%
Service occupations	45	20	44%	25	56%
Clerical	41	17	41%	24	59%
Administrative, professional	13	9	69%	4	31%

Table 10

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Consequences

Descriptive Category	Population	Low		High	
		No Consequences		Consequences	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	89	45	51%	44	49%
26 to 35	115	56	49%	59	51%
36 to 45	12	7	58%	5	42%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	47	22	47%	25	53%
H.S. Diploma	69	36	52%	33	48%
H.S. Diploma Plus	109	56	51%	53	49%
Region					
Rural - Montana	93	49	53%	44	47%
Urban - California	132	65	49%	67	51%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian	115	59	51%	56	49%
African American	64	34	53%	30	47%
Hispanic	35	16	46%	19	54%
Other	11	5	45%	6	55%
Marital Status					
Yes	118	67	57%	51	43%
No	105	46	44%	59	56%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	126	66	52%	60	48%
Other	99	48	48%	51	52%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	81	38	47%	43	53%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming	1			1	100%
Service occupations	33	17	52%	16	48%
Clerical	35	18	51%	17	49%
Administrative, professional	8	8	100%		
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	40	20	50%	20	50%
Operator	17	8	47%	9	53%
Precision, production	20	12	60%	8	40%
Farming	8	4	50%	4	50%
Service occupations	48	20	42%	28	58%
Clerical	44	25	57%	19	43%
Administrative, professional	13	10	77%	3	23%

student-homemaker-unemployed and operators, the two lowest categories, who reported low praise, all occupational classifications reported high use of praise.

For the strategy reason, there were few large differences in percentages. Neither age nor education were significant factors. More Californians reported high use of reason than those in Montana. Those who were married and persons who lived with a spouse or partner indicated slightly higher use of reason. For the occupational classifications, the highest category, administrative-professionals indicated much less use of reason (29% for mothers and 25% for family prestige reported using reason).

The strategy allow showed few differences in age categories. The more education obtained, however, the less mothers allowed. More persons in California allowed (60% of Californians and 33% of those in Montana). There was little difference between married persons (53%) and those who were not married (47%) who did not allow. Prestige occupational classifications indicated that 87% of farmers (level 3) and 69% of those in administrative or professional positions did not use allow. Operators (67%) and clerical positions (59%) had the highest percentages for using the strategy.

For consequences, most percentages were in the mid range. Mothers in the 26 to 35 age range used consequences slightly more than the other age categories. There was

little difference for educational status. Unmarried persons (56%) used consequences more than married (43%). For the occupational prestige classifications, most percentages were in mid range, except for administrative or professional, where 23% ($n=3$) indicated using consequences.

Cross Tabulation Analysis by Individual Racial-Ethnic Group

Analysis for individual racial-ethnic groups indicated differences in use of the strategies for the groups (see Table 11). Overall, Caucasians were evenly distributed for spanking (48%) and not spanking (52%). For the individual variables (see Tables 12-16), there was an age progression for spank. Younger persons spanked more than older mothers, ages 36 to 45. Education showed a definite trend; 78% of those with less than a high school education spanked, 62% of high school graduates reported spanking, and 31% of persons with education beyond high school spanked. Regional differences also were indicated. More persons in California (56%) preferred spank as a strategy. For the occupational classification, mother's occupations and family prestige ratings showed marked differences. For example, 84% of mothers in the service occupations category spanked. For this same category in family prestige, 47% reported use of spanking. Other similar differences were noted in the student-homemaker-unemployed and the clerical categories. Praise was high over all variables for Caucasians. Two

Table 11

**Cross Tabulation Summary
Strategy Percentages by Individual Racial-Ethnic Group**

Strategy	Caucasian		African American		Hispanic	
	% low	% high	% low	% high	% low	% high
Spank	52 N=63	48 N=59	32 N=21	68 N=45	61 N=19	39 N=12
Praise	30 N=42	70 N=96	59 N=44	41 N=31	64 N=27	36 N=15
Reason	55 N=70	45 N=57	57 N=33	43 N=25	28 N=11	72 N=28
Allow	65 N=70	35 N=37	44 N=30	56 N=39	32 N=12	68 N=26
Consequence	51 N=59	49 N=56	53 N=34	47 N=30	46 N=16	54 N=19

low = do not use strategy
high = use strategy

Table 12

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Spank - Caucasian

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Spank		High Spank	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	39	19	49%	20	51%
26 to 35	72	36	50%	36	50%
36 to 45	8	5	62%	3	38%
46 and over	1	1	100%		
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	18	4	22%	14	78%
H.S. Diploma	40	15	38%	25	62%
H.S. Diploma Plus	64	44	69%	20	31%
Region					
Rural - Montana	97	52	54%	45	46%
Urban - California	25	11	44%	14	56%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian	122	63	52%	59	48%
African American					
Hispanic					
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	85	42	49%	43	51%
No	36	20	56%	16	44%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	88	46	52%	42	48%
Other	34	17	50%	17	50%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	23	12	52%	11	48%
Operators	1			1	100%
Precision, production					
Farming	2			2	100%
Service occupations	19	3	16%	16	84%
Clerical	13	4	31%	9	69%
Administrative, professional	6			6	100%
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	7	2	29%	5	71%
Operator	7	2	29%	5	71%
Precision, production	11	3	27%	8	73%
Farming	7	4	57%	3	43%
Service occupations	30	16	53%	14	47%
Clerical	15	10	67%	5	33%
Administrative, professional	9	4	44%	5	56%

Table 13

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Praise - Caucasian

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Praise		High Praise	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	50	18	36%	32	64%
26 to 35	73	21	29%	52	71%
36 to 45	12	3	25%	9	75%
46 and over	1			1	100%
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	21	8	38%	13	62%
H.S. Diploma	50	12	24%	38	76%
H.S. Diploma Plus	67	22	33%	45	67%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana	106	27	26%	79	74%
Urban - California	32	15	47%	17	53%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian	138	42	30%	96	70%
African American					
Hispanic					
Other					
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	96	29	30%	67	70%
No	41	12	29%	29	71%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	100	30	30%	70	70%
Other	38	12	32%	26	68%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	23	12	52%	11	48%
Operators	1			1	100%
Precision, production					
Farming	2			2	100%
Service occupations	19	3	16%	16	84%
Clerical	13	4	31%	9	69%
Administrative, professional	6			6	100%
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	12	7	58%	5	42%
Operator	8	5	62%	3	38%
Precision, production	15	5	33%	10	67%
Farming	9	3	33%	6	67%
Service occupations	32	4	13%	28	87%
Clerical	20	7	35%	13	65%
Administrative, professional	9			9	100%

Table 14

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Reason - Caucasian

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Reason		High Reason	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	42	25	60%	17	40%
26 to 35	72	38	53%	34	47%
36 to 45	10	5	50%	5	50%
46 and over	1			1	100%
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	16	7	44%	9	56%
H.S. Diploma	46	29	63%	17	37%
H.S. Diploma Plus	65	34	52%	31	48%
Region					
Rural - Montana	101	60	59%	41	41%
Urban - California	26	10	38%	16	62%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian	127	70	55%	57	45%
African American					
Hispanic					
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	90	56	62%	34	38%
No	36	14	39%	22	61%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	95	54	57%	41	43%
Other	32	16	50%	16	50%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	19	7	37%	12	63%
Operators	1			1	100%
Precision, production					
Farming	2			2	100%
Service occupations	15	9	60%	6	40%
Clerical	14	7	50%	7	50%
Administrative, professional	3	1	33%	2	67%
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	10	4	40%	6	60%
Operator	8	5	62%	3	38%
Precision, production	16	9	56%	7	44%
Farming	7	2	29%	5	71%
Service occupations	24	12	50%	12	50%
Clerical	21	12	57%	9	43%
Administrative, professional	6	4	67%	2	33%

Table 15

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Allow - Caucasian

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Allow		High Allow	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	36	23	64%	13	36%
26 to 35	63	42	67%	21	33%
36 to 45	7	4	57%	3	43%
46 and over					
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	10	4	40%	6	60%
H.S. Diploma	44	27	61%	17	39%
H.S. Diploma Plus	53	39	74%	14	26%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana	84	56	67%	28	33%
Urban - California	23	14	61%	9	39%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian	107	70	65%	37	35%
African American					
Hispanic					
Other					
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	76	51	67%	25	33%
No	30	19	63%	11	37%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	76	49	65%	27	35%
Other	31	21	68%	10	32%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	15	9	60%	6	40%
Operators	1	1	100%		
Precision, production					
Farming	1	1	100%		
Service occupations	12	9	75%	3	25%
Clerical	12	6	50%	6	50%
Administrative, professional	4	4	100%		
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	10	6	60%	4	40%
Operator	6	3	50%	3	50%
Precision, production	14	8	57%	6	43%
Farming	7	6	86%	1	14%
Service occupations	20	14	70%	6	30%
Clerical	15	8	53%	7	47%
Administrative, professional	7	7	100%		

Table 16

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Consequences - Caucasian

Descriptive Category	Population	Low		High	
		No Consequences	Consequences	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	35	18	51%	17	49%
26 to 35	71	34	48%	37	52%
36 to 45	7	5	71%	2	29%
46 and over					
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	13	5	38%	8	62%
H.S. Diploma	40	19	48%	21	52%
H.S. Diploma Plus	62	35	56%	27	44%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana	93	49	53%	44	47%
Urban - California	22	10	45%	12	55%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian	115	59	51%	56	49%
African American					
Hispanic					
Other					
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	81	45	56%	36	44%
No	33	14	42%	19	58%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	86	46	53%	40	47%
Other	29	13	45%	16	55%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	14	5	36%	9	64%
Operators					
Precision, production					
Farming	1			1	100%
Service occupations	16	10	62%	6	38%
Clerical	18	9	50%	9	50%
Administrative, professional	5	5	100%		
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	7	1	14%	6	86%
Operator	8	5	62%	3	38%
Precision, production	12	7	58%	5	42%
Farming	7	4	57%	3	43%
Service occupations	24	13	54%	11	46%
Clerical	19	10	53%	9	47%
Administrative, professional	8	6	75%	2	25%

exceptions were the two lowest classifications, student-homemaker-unemployed (58%) and operators (62%) which had higher percentages in the low praise category for family prestige.

Reason, overall, demonstrated higher percentages of respondents who reported that they do not reason.

Exceptions included those with less than high school education (56%), those in California (62%), those not married (61%), student-homemaker-unemployed (60%), and farmers (71%), all who indicated higher use of reason.

The majority of categories were low for allow, indicating that respondents did not use that strategy. The one exception was those with less than a high school education, where 60% reported allowing (or giving in).

The consequences category revealed some differences. 71% of persons 36 to 45, 56% of those with higher education, 56% of those married, 53% of those living with a spouse or partner, and all family prestige categories except student-homemaker-unemployed indicated lower use of consequences. Persons aged from 26 to 35, those with less than a high school education, and unmarried respondents had the highest percentages for using consequences.

Results for the African American population (see Tables 17-21) showed spank as a preferred strategy for all variables, with the exception of clerical and

Table 17

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Spank - African American

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Spank		High Spank	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	30	9	30%	21	70%
26 to 35	33	12	36%	21	64%
36 to 45	1			1	100%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	18	4	22%	14	78%
H.S. Diploma	17	8	47%	9	53%
H.S. Diploma Plus	31	9	29%	22	71%
Region					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	66	21	32%	45	68%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American	66	21	32%	45	68%
Hispanic					
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	17	7	41%	10	59%
No	49	14	29%	35	71%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	19	4	21%	15	79%
Other	47	17	36%	30	64%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	32	10	31%	22	69%
Operators					
Precision, production					
Farming					
Service occupations	14	2	14%	12	86%
Clerical	10	6	60%	4	40%
Administrative, professional	5	3	60%	2	40%
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	23	7	30%	16	70%
Operator	3			3	100%
Precision, production	3	1	33%	2	67%
Farming	1			1	100%
Service occupations	13	2	15%	11	85%
Clerical	13	8	62%	5	38%
Administrative, professional	5	3	60%	2	40%

Table 18

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Praise - African American

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Praise		High Praise	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	31	21	68%	10	32%
26 to 35	39	21	54%	18	46%
36 to 45	1			1	100%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	21	12	57%	9	43%
H.S. Diploma	19	15	79%	4	21%
H.S. Diploma Plus	35	17	49%	18	51%
Region					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	75	44	59%	31	41%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American	75	44	59%	31	41%
Hispanic					
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	19	9	47%	10	53%
No	55	35	64%	20	36%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	19	10	53%	9	47%
Other	56	34	61%	22	39%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	40	28	70%	12	30%
Operators					
Precision, production					
Farming					
Service occupations	14	6	43%	8	57%
Clerical	10	7	70%	3	30%
Administrative, professional	4	1	25%	3	75%
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	31	22	71%	9	29%
Operator	3	3	100%		
Precision, production	3	2	67%	1	33%
Farming	1			1	100%
Service occupations	13	5	38%	8	62%
Clerical	13	9	69%	4	31%
Administrative, professional	4	1	25%	3	75%

Table 19

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Reason - African American

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Reason		High Reason	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	27	16	59%	11	41%
26 to 35	29	16	55%	13	45%
36 to 45					
46 and over					
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	17	11	65%	6	35%
H.S. Diploma	16	10	62%	6	38%
H.S. Diploma Plus	25	12	48%	13	52%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	58	33	57%	25	43%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian					
African American	58	33	57%	25	43%
Hispanic					
Other					
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	15	7	47%	8	53%
No	42	25	60%	17	40%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	17	6	35%	11	65%
Other	41	27	66%	14	34%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	33	20	61%	13	39%
Operators					
Precision, production					
Farming					
Service occupations	12	6	50%	6	50%
Clerical	3			3	100%
Administrative, professional	4	4	100%		
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	25	16	64%	9	36%
Operator	3	2	67%	1	33%
Precision, production	2			2	100%
Farming	1			1	100%
Service occupations	11	6	55%	5	45%
Clerical	6	2	33%	4	67%
Administrative, professional	4	4	100%		

Table 20

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Allow - African American

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Allow		High Allow	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	30	14	47%	16	53%
26 to 35	34	14	41%	20	59%
36 to 45	1			1	100%
46 and over					
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	20	8	40%	12	60%
H.S. Diploma	16	4	25%	12	75%
H.S. Diploma Plus	33	18	55%	15	45%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	69	30	43%	39	57%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian					
African American	69	30	43%	39	57%
Hispanic					
Other					
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	16	6	38%	10	62%
No	52	24	46%	28	54%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	19	7	37%	12	63%
Other	50	23	46%	27	54%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	35	15	43%	20	57%
Operators					
Precision, production					
Farming	15	5	33%	10	67%
Service occupations	10	5	50%	5	50%
Clerical	4	1	25%	3	75%
Administrative, professional					
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	26	12	46%	14	54%
Operator	3	2	67%	1	33%
Precision, production	3			3	100%
Farming	1	1	100%		
Service occupations	14	4	29%	10	71%
Clerical	13	6	46%	7	54%
Administrative, professional	4	1	25%	3	75%

Table 21

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Consequences - African American

Descriptive Category	Population	Low		High	
		No Consequences		Consequences	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	30	14	47%	16	53%
26 to 35	29	18	62%	11	38%
36 to 45	1			1	100%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	18	11	61%	7	39%
H.S. Diploma	15	11	73%	4	27%
H.S. Diploma Plus	31	12	39%	19	61%
Region					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	64	34	53%	30	47%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American	64	34	53%	30	47%
Hispanic					
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	14	10	71%	4	29%
No	49	23	47%	26	53%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	17	8	47%	9	53%
Other	47	26	55%	21	45%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	31	19	61%	12	39%
Operators					
Precision, production					
Farming					
Service occupations	14	5	36%	9	64%
Clerical	11	5	45%	6	55%
Administrative, professional	3	3	100%		
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	23	15	65%	8	35%
Operator	3	1	33%	2	67%
Precision, production	2	1	50%	1	50%
Farming	1			1	100%
Service occupations	12	3	25%	9	75%
Clerical	15	9	60%	6	40%
Administrative, professional	3	3	100%		

administrative-professional occupational prestige levels. Highest percentages for use of spanking as a strategy were in the 15 to 25 age range (70%), persons with less than high school education (78%), those with education beyond high school (71%), unmarried persons (71%), those living with a spouse of partner (79%), and service occupations (86%).

Praise, overall, was low for most variables. Exceptions were those with higher education (51% used praise), married persons (53%), those in the service occupations (62%), and those in the highest classification administrative-professional (75%) for the prestige category.

Percentages for reason, also, indicated low use for the majority of the variables. There were several exceptions; those with higher education (52%), married persons (53%), those living with a spouse or partner (65%), and family prestige-clerical (67%) all indicated some preference for using reason.

For allow, most percentages were in the high, or allow, category. The exception was those with higher education (55%), who indicated some preference for not allowing.

Consequences were more varied. Younger (53%) mothers used consequences. Those in the 26 to 35 age range indicated that just 38% used consequences. Those with higher education used more consequences than the other

educational categories. Unmarried persons (53%) used consequences more than those who were married (29%). For the occupational classifications, the service occupations (level 4) indicated high use of that strategy.

For Hispanics, the profiles were slightly different (see Tables 22-26). This population was younger and less educated. More were married and lived with a spouse or partner than in the African American population, however, both had a lower percentage of married persons than did Caucasians. On the basis on mother's occupation, most of the women were in the student-homemaker-unemployed category. Just six to eight, depending upon the strategy, indicated other occupations. Thus, family prestige, for Hispanics, is really the occupation of the husband or partner.

Overall, 61% of Hispanics reported that they did not spank. Those with less than a high school diploma were evenly distributed for the two categories. Those with a high school diploma (70%) and persons with higher education (71%) both reported not spanking. All family prestige classifications had greater percentages in the do not spank category.

For praise, 64% were in the do not praise category. Exceptions were mothers 36 to 45 (50%), those with education beyond high school (50%), and those in clerical occupations (60%).

Table 22

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Spank - Hispanic

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Spank		High Spank	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	20	13	65%	7	35%
26 to 35	6	4	67%	2	33%
36 to 45	2			2	100%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	14	7	50%	7	50%
H.S. Diploma	10	7	70%	3	30%
H.S. Diploma Plus	7	5	71%	2	29%
Region					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	31	19	61%	12	39%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American					
Hispanic	31	19	61%	12	39%
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	16	10	62%	6	38%
No	15	9	60%	6	40%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	15	8	53%	7	47%
Other	16	11	69%	5	31%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	26	16	62%	10	38%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming					
Service occupations	2	1	50%	1	50%
Clerical	2	1	50%	1	50%
Administrative, professional					
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	10	6	60%	4	40%
Operator	4			4	100%
Precision, production	7	7	100%		
Farming					
Service occupations	5	3	60%	2	40%
Clerical	5	3	60%	2	40%
Administrative, professional					

Table 23

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Praise - Hispanic

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Praise		High Praise	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	28	19	68%	9	32%
26 to 35	9	5	56%	4	44%
36 to 45	2	1	50%	1	50%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	20	13	65%	7	35%
H.S. Diploma	12	9	75%	3	25%
H.S. Diploma Plus	10	5	50%	5	50%
Region					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	42	27	64%	15	36%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American					
Hispanic	42	27	64%	15	36%
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	24	15	62%	9	38%
No	18	12	67%	6	33%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	20	14	70%	6	30%
Other	22	13	59%	9	41%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	34	22	65%	12	35%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming					
Service occupations	4	3	75%	1	25%
Clerical	3	1	33%	2	67%
Administrative, professional					
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	12	7	58%	5	42%
Operator	6	4	67%	2	33%
Precision, production	6	4	67%	2	33%
Farming	10	3	30%		
Service occupations	12	9	75%	3	25%
Clerical	5	2	40%	3	60%
Administrative, professional	1	1	100%		

Table 24

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Reason - Hispanic

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Reason		High Reason	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	26	9	35%	17	65%
26 to 35	7	1	14%	6	86%
36 to 45	2			2	100%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	17	7	41%	10	59%
H.S. Diploma	13	2	15%	11	85%
H.S. Diploma Plus	9	2	22%	7	78%
Region					
Rural - Montana	39	11	28%	28	72%
Urban - California					
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American					
Hispanic	39	11	28%	28	72%
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	20	4	20%	16	80%
No	19	7	37%	12	63%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	18	2	11%	16	89%
Other	21	9	43%	12	57%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	33	19	27%	24	73%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming					
Service occupations	3	1	33%	2	67%
Clerical	2			2	100%
Administrative, professional					
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	13	4	31%	9	69%
Operator	3			3	100%
Precision, production	7	3	43%	4	57%
Farming					
Service occupations	10	3	30%	7	70%
Clerical	5			5	100%
Administrative, professional	1	1	100%		

Table 25

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Allow - Hispanic

Descriptive Category	Population	Low Do Not Allow		High Allow	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age					
15 to 25	23	6	26%	17	74%
26 to 35	8	4	50%	4	50%
36 to 45	3	1	33%	2	67%
46 and over					
Educational Attainment					
Less than H.S. Diploma	16	4	25%	12	75%
H.S. Diploma	12	4	33%	8	67%
H.S. Diploma Plus	10	4	40%	6	60%
Region					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	38	12	32%	26	68%
Race-Ethnicity					
Caucasian					
African American					
Hispanic	38	12	32%	26	68%
Other					
Marital Status					
Yes	21	5	24%	16	76%
No	17	7	41%	10	59%
Living Arrangements					
Spouse or Partner	22	5	23%	17	77%
Other	16	7	44%	9	56%
Occupation - Female					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	32	9	28%	23	72%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming					
Service occupations	2	1	50%	1	50%
Clerical	3	1	33%	2	67%
Administrative, professional					
Prestige					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	9	4	44%	5	56%
Operator	7	1	14%	6	86%
Precision, production	7	4	57%	3	43%
Farming					
Service occupations	8	2	25%	6	75%
Clerical	6	1	17%	5	83%
Administrative, professional	1			1	100%

Table 26

Profile of Parental Characteristics by Child Rearing Strategy - Consequences - Hispanic

Descriptive Category	Number	Low		High	
		No Consequences		Consequences	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>					
15 to 25	21	11	52%	10	48%
26 to 35	8	1	13%	7	87%
36 to 45	3	2	67%	1	33%
46 and over					
<u>Educational Attainment</u>					
Less than H.S. Diploma	15	6	40%	9	60%
H.S. Diploma	11	4	36%	7	64%
H.S. Diploma Plus	9	6	67%	3	33%
<u>Region</u>					
Rural - Montana					
Urban - California	35	16	46%	19	54%
<u>Race-Ethnicity</u>					
Caucasian					
African American					
Hispanic	35	16	46%	19	54%
Other					
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Yes	18	10	56%	8	44%
No	17	6	35%	11	65%
<u>Living Arrangements</u>					
Spouse or Partner	18	9	50%	9	50%
Other	17	7	41%	10	59%
<u>Occupation - Female</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	29	12	41%	17	59%
Operators					
Precision, production	1	1	100%		
Farming					
Service occupations	3	2	67%	1	33%
Clerical	2	1	50%	1	50%
Administrative, professional					
<u>Prestige</u>					
Student, homemaker, unemployed	10	4	40%	6	60%
Operator	4	2	50%	2	50%
Precision, production	5	3	60%	2	40%
Farming					
Service occupations	10	4	40%	6	60%
Clerical	5	3	60%	2	40%
Administrative, professional	1			1	100%

For reason, 72% of the Hispanic population reported using that strategy. Every variable had a higher percentage in the use reason category.

Hispanics also reported higher percentages in the allow category (68%). Exceptions were in the 26 to 35 age category, which were evenly divided and the family prestige precision classification (level 2) which preferred not to allow.

Consequences was more evenly distributed; 54% used consequences, 46% did not use that strategy. However, numbers were small for most of the categories which had the larger percentages in the do not use consequences. The groups were younger mothers, ages 15 to 25 (52%, $n=21$), those with education beyond high school (67%, $n=9$), married persons (56%, $n=18$), and family prestige occupations of precision-production (60%, $n=5$), and clerical (60%, $n=5$).

In summary, for the individual racial-ethnic groups, trends can be noted. Caucasians are evenly distributed for spanking preference. Praise is definitely a preferred strategy. Reason is used, but to a lesser extent than praise. They tend not to allow, or give in, to children. Consequences are used, but are more evenly distributed over the population. African Americans report spanking as a preferred strategy. Overall, they show little use of praise

and reason. They prefer to allow. Consequences are evenly distributed.

Hispanics indicate preference for not spanking. They show low use of praise, but reason is a preferred strategy. They also allow, or give in. Preference for consequences, as with Caucasians and African Americans, is more evenly distributed.

Educational attainment is consistent as a factor in use of strategies. Race-ethnicity, age, region, marital status, and some occupations also contribute to reported use of a strategy.

Multiple Regression Analysis of Strategies

Individual child rearing strategies were regressed on a series of demographic, psychological, and situational variables. Demographic variables included age, educational attainment, and race-ethnicity. Psychological variables included parental satisfaction, parental acceptance, adjustment, and flexibility. Situational variables included marital status, mother's occupation and region (i.e., place of residence).

Using the SPSS REGRESSION, both stepwise and blockwise regression analyses were performed. The stepwise regression was employed to examine which combinations of parental characteristics best predict each self-reported child rearing strategy. Blockwise regression analysis was used to

assess Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting in relation to specific child rearing strategies. Various combinations of predictor variables were selected for a series of regressions to compare their strength in predicting the five child rearing strategies.

Preliminary crosstabular analysis had suggested that certain similar variables, although potentially intercorrelated, might, in fact, be measuring different elements in the prediction equations. For example, living arrangements and marital status were thought to be different predictors of child rearing strategies. Family prestige and mother's occupation were also related but interacted with the dependent variables differently. Mother's occupation tended to be more significant in predicting child rearing strategies than family prestige. Race-ethnicity measured as African American, Hispanic, Caucasian, and other also had shown preliminary evidence of being a predictor of parenting strategies. Therefore, these variables were entered into regression equations to test for comparative predictive strength. The situational variables of marital status, occupation of mother, and region were selected for the final stepwise regression.

Part of the problem in the analyses was that the instrument used in the study combined interval level variables with categorical level variables. Where it is

Table 27

Stepwise Multiple Regression Report By Individual Strategy
Demographic Characteristics

Variables	b	B	Prob. t	R Square	Adj. R. Square	Sig. F
<u>Spank</u>						
Age			0.6			
Educational Attainment	-0.35	-0.18	0.001	0.03	0.03	0.0012
Race-Ethnicity	-0.62	-0.17	0.002	0.06	0.06	0.0000
<u>Praise</u>						
Age	0.43	0.21	0.0001	0.05	0.05	0.0000
Educational Attainment			0.14			
Race-Ethnicity	0.46	0.17	0.002	0.08	0.07	0.0000
<u>Reason</u>						
Age			0.89			
Educational Attainment			0.41			
Race-Ethnicity	0.32	0.13	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.0200
<u>Allow</u>						
Age			0.74			
Educational Attainment	-0.24	-0.15	0.006	0.02	0.02	0.0060
Race-Ethnicity			0.44			
<u>Consequences</u>						
Age						
Educational Attainment	No	variables	entered	or	removed	
Race-Ethnicity						

Table 27 continued

**Stepwise Multiple Regression Report By Individual Strategy
Psychological Characteristics**

Variables	b	B	Prob. t	R Square	Adj. R. Square	Sig. F
<u>Spank</u>						
Flexibility	-1.03	-0.20	0.0003	0.04	0.04	0.0002
Acceptance	-0.09	-0.17	0.0022	0.07	0.07	0.0000
Parent Satisfaction			0.46			
Adjustment			0.98			
<u>Praise</u>						
Flexibility	0.69	0.19	0.0013	0.03	0.03	0.0013
Acceptance			0.78			
Parent Satisfaction			0.05			
Adjustment			0.48			
<u>Reason</u>						
Flexibility						
Acceptance	No	variables	entered	or	removed	
Parent Satisfaction						
Adjustment						
<u>Allow</u>						
Flexibility			0.39			
Acceptance	-0.07	-0.17	0.0031	0.03	0.02	0.0030
Parent Satisfaction			0.28			
Adjustment			0.11			
<u>Consequences</u>						
Flexibility			0.13			
Acceptance	-0.07	-0.16	0.007	0.02	0.02	0.0070
Parent Satisfaction			0.14			
Adjustment			0.38			

Table 27, continued

**Stepwise Multiple Regression Report By Individual Strategy
Situational Characteristics**

Variables	b	B	Prob. t	R Square	Adj. R. Square	Sig. F
<u>Spank</u>						
Marital Status			0.46			
Occupation - Mother			0.68			
Region	0.58	0.14	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.0300
<u>Praise</u>						
Marital Status			0.92			
Occupation - Mother			0.05			
Region	-0.99	-0.28	0.000	0.08	0.07	0.0000
<u>Reason</u>						
Marital Status						
Occupation - Mother	No	variables	entered	or	removed	
Region						
<u>Allow</u>						
Marital Status			0.79			
Occupation - Mother			0.92			
Region	0.78	0.23	0.0006	0.05	0.05	0.0060
<u>Consequences</u>						
Marital Status						
Occupation - Mother	No	variables	entered	or	removed	
Region						

possible to include one or two categorical variables in a multiple regression equation, it is not valid to include more than two, as this violates the underlying assumptions of normality in regression equations (Montgomery & Peck, 1982). Selection of variables in the different regression equations was limited by this situation. Thus, those with theoretical relevance were used.

Throughout the stepwise regression analyses, certain variables were consistent in predicting specific child rearing strategies (see Table 27). For the strategy spank, race-ethnicity and educational attainment were significant demographic predictors. Both were negative, which indicates that persons with less education spank more, and that, as coded in this equation, African Americans spank more than Caucasians or Hispanics. Acceptance and flexibility were significant psychological predictors. They were negative, indicating that less accepting and less flexible mothers used spanking as a parenting strategy. Region was a predictor from the situational category. It was positive, signifying that residing in California (as coded in the equation) predicted greater use of spanking as a strategy. It should be kept in mind that the California sample included more mothers from minority groups and with less education than the Montana group.

For praise, race-ethnicity and age were significant predictors in the demographic category. Flexibility was a significant predictor from the psychological category, and region (which was negative) entered as significant for the situational category. The significance of these predictors can be interpreted as follows: Caucasians and Hispanics praise more than African Americans, older mothers praise more than younger, flexible mothers are more likely to use praise, and regionally, those who live in Montana reported praise more than those who live in California.

Race-ethnicity was the only significant predictor for reason. It had a positive relationship, indicating that Caucasians and Hispanics agree with reason as a parenting strategy more than African Americans. There were no variables entered as significant from the other categories. Also to be noted, race-ethnicity, though significant, accounted for just 2% of the variance for this strategy.

Allow had three significant predictors: educational attainment in the demographic category, acceptance in the psychological category, and region in the situational category. Both educational attainment and acceptance were negative, indicating that younger parents and parents who are less accepting of their child allow more. Region, as a positive predictor, showed that more persons allowed in California than in Montana.

Consequences had just one significant predictor, acceptance, which was negative. As in the strategy allow, this indicates that parents who are less accepting of their child use consequences.

Although there were significant predictor variables for each strategy, the amount of variance accounted for in each equation was small. For spank, the demographic variables of race-ethnicity and educational attainment accounted for 6% of the variance, the psychological variables of acceptance and flexibility accounted for 8%, and the situational variable, region, accounted for 1%. For praise, age and race-ethnicity accounted for 8% of the variance, flexibility for 3%, and region for 8%. Reason had just one predictor, race-ethnicity, which accounted for 2% of the variance. For allow, educational attainment accounted for 2%, acceptance for 3%, and region for 2% of the variance. For consequences one predictor, acceptance, accounted for 2% of the variance.

The small amount of variance accounted for in all the strategies indicate that many variables, in addition to the ones used in this research, contribute to the prediction of parental reported use of a given strategy.

T tests for regional differences

The imbalance of the populations racially-ethnically raised questions throughout the analyses as to whether differences in strategy use was due to region or

race/ethnicity. In order to address these questions, t tests were run on independent variables for Caucasians by region, as they were the only group which was represented in both regions. The variables of educational attainment ($p=.000$), living arrangements ($p=.000$), marital status ($p=.001$), mother's occupation ($p=.000$), adjustment ($p=.01$), and flexibility ($p=.000$) showed significance for regional differences. This analysis supports the findings that regional as well as racial/ethnic differences exist.

Blockwise Regression Results

As a test of the application of Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting to child rearing strategies, blockwise regression analysis was performed to see which blocks, as defined in Belsky's model, best predict reported use of each strategy. In addition, this analysis was used to see if each block (i.e., demographic, psychological, and situational) entered as significant at least once in the strategies equations. Entering the categories of variables one at a time as blocks, a separate equation was run for each strategy. The demographic block was entered first, followed by the psychological characteristics block, and then the situational characteristics block. They all included the demographic variables of age and educational attainment; the psychological characteristics of acceptance, flexibility,

parent satisfaction, and adjustment; and the situational characteristics of marital status, mother's occupation, and region. As this analysis was based on Belsky, race-ethnicity was not included as a demographic variable since it does not appear in Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting. A blockwise regression including race-ethnicity was done to see if there were differences in results when that variable was included. Race-ethnicity entered as significant in the demographic block for predicting reason. Otherwise, the predictor variable blocks remained the same for both analyses (see Appendix L).

Results for the total population affirmed Belsky's theory in that each of the three blocks (demographic, psychological, and situational) did enter as a significant predictor for at least one of the strategies examined. There was not one block which was a stronger predictor than the others. Each block predicted a different strategy (with the exception of the situational block, which predicted praise and allow). The demographic block was significant in predicting praise. The psychological block was significant for spank. None of the blocks were significant for reason or consequences (see Table 28).

As a matter of interest, blockwise regression analysis was also done for the three individual racial-ethnic groups and by region since these variables are included in the

Table 28

Blockwise Multiple Regression Report - Total Population - Without Race Ethnicity

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
Spank						
Demographic	1	2.69	0.005	0.62	0.54	
Psychological	2	37.78	0.08	4.34	0.002 **	flexibility, acceptance
Situational	3	1.26	0.003	0.19	0.9	
Praise						
Demographic	1	18.98	0.06	6.32	0.002 **	age
Psychological	2	11.98	0.03	1.87	0.12	
Situational	3	20.78	0.06	4.62	0.004 **	region (neg.)
Reason						
Demographic	1	1.51	0.007	0.71	0.49	
Psychological	2	6.75	0.03	1.58	0.18	
Situational	3	1.82	0.009	0.57	0.64	
Allow						
Demographic	1	1.26	0.004	0.39	0.68	
Psychological	2	10.97	0.034	1.71	0.15	
Situational	3	14.6	0.05	3.04	0.03 *	region (neg.)
Consequences						
Demographic	1	1.32	0.003	0.32	0.73	
Psychological	2	13.67	0.03	1.64	0.17	
Situational	3	6.31	0.02	1.01	0.39	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

* Independent Variable Blocks:

Demographic - age, educational attainment

Psychological - acceptance, parent satisfaction, flexibility, adjustment

Situational - marital status, mothers occupation, region

present study (see Appendices M and N). However, the small numbers in the sub-groups affect the validity of the findings. Race-ethnicity (which was included in the individual racial-ethnic analyses) was significant in the demographic blocks. Caucasians just had significant demographic and psychological blocks. African-American and Hispanic results were very similar, with all blocks being significant at least once. Region showed few significant blocks. For California, the psychological block predicted spank and demographic predicted praise. For Montana, the demographic block predicted praise, and the psychological block predicted allow. Adjustment was the significant individual variable in this block, the only time that parent characteristic entered as significant in any of the analyses.

Summary

Certain patterns emerged from the stepwise regression equations. Age predicted only the parenting strategy of praise. There was a positive relationship, indicating that the use of praise increases with age. Educational attainment was a predictor for spank and for allow. The relationships were negative in both cases, indicating that as the amount parental education increased, use of spanking and allowing decreased. Race-ethnicity predicted spank, praise, and reason. There was a negative relationship with

spank. This variable had been coded as African American or other in the regression equation. The negative relationship of spank with African American is consistent with other findings in this study.

The psychological variable flexibility predicted spank and praise. There was a negative relationship with spank, indicating that the more flexible the parent, the less spank was used. The relationship with praise was positive. Acceptance was significant in predicting spank, allow, and consequences. All relationships were negative. This can be interpreted as the more the parent accepts the child, the less the parent spansks, allows the child to do as he/she pleases, and the less he/she depends upon consequences as a child rearing strategy.

Region predicted spank, praise and allow. Coding for this variable was urban or other. There was a positive relationship with spank, and allow, and a negative one with praise. Urban, Los Angeles parents spank and allow more. Montana parents praise more. In the stepwise multiple regression analysis, parent satisfaction, adjustment, marital status, and mother's occupation did not enter as significant predictors (see Table 29).

In the blockwise equations, age was significant in the demographic category for praise. Flexibility and acceptance were significant in the psychological category for spank.

Table 29
Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis Results
Significant Predictor Variables For Child Rearing Strategies

Strategies	Parent Characteristics										
	Demographic			Psychological				Situational			
	Age	Educational Attainment	Race - * Ethnicity	Flexibility	Acceptance	Parent Satisfaction	Adjustment	Marital Status	Occupation	Mother	Region**
Spank		educational attainment (neg.)	race - ethnicity (neg.)	flexibility (neg.)	acceptance (neg.)						region
Praise	age		race - ethnicity	flexibility							region (neg.)
Reason			race - ethnicity								
Allow		educational attainment (neg.)			acceptance (neg.)						region
Consequences					acceptance (neg.)						

Dummy Variables:

* African Americans=0 Others=1

** Urban=1 Rural=0

Region was significant for praise and for allow. Both had a negative relationship to the strategies. This would indicate that those who live in California praise and allow less than those in Montana.

The blockwise regression analysis results affirm Belsky's theory in its application to child rearing strategies. The analysis shows that all three blocks do contribute as predictors of child rearing strategies (see Table 30).

When comparing the stepwise and blockwise analyses, the same variables occur as significant predictors, with the exception of race-ethnicity, which was not in the blockwise regression, and educational attainment, which appeared twice in the stepwise regression and not at all in the blockwise results. Both the stepwise and blockwise were restrictive in the way variables entered the equation by categories of parental characteristics. The stepwise regression was more free, in that the individual variables from each block could enter one at a time. In the blockwise regression, the restriction of variables entering as significant only by blocks, decreased the number of significant variables which predicted the individual child rearing strategies.

Table 30
Summary of Blockwise Regression Analysis Results
Significant Predictor Variables For Child Rearing Strategies
as Defined by Belsky

Strategies	Parent Characteristics									
	Demographic Block		Psychological Block				Situational Block			
	Age	Educational Attainment	Flexibility	Acceptance	Parent Satisfaction	Adjustment	Marital Status	Occupation	Mother	Region**
Spank			flexibility (neg.)	acceptance (neg.)						
Praise	age									region (neg.)
Reason										
Allow										region
Consequences										

Dummy Variables:

* African Americans=0 Others=1

** Urban=1 Rural=0

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary and Conclusions

Chapter Five presents the summary and conclusions of the research study, recommendations for further research, theoretical implications, and recommendations for professionals in the field.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The general purpose of the study was to investigate predictors of child rearing strategies in a population of women enrolled in the federal assistance Women, Infants, and Children program (WIC). The primary goal was to determine if certain parental characteristics would predict use of particular child rearing strategies among mothers from this population.

The study also served as an assessment of Belsky's Process Model of the Determinants of Parenting as it relates to specific child rearing strategies. Belsky identifies three sources of parental functioning: ontogenic, which are biological origins and psychological resources; environmental, which include marital relationship, employment, and social network; and child individual characteristics, which are not detailed in his model, and not included in this study. He considers the first two areas (i.e., ontogenic and environmental) as more influential in the parent-child relationship. The

ontogenic, subdivided as developmental history and personality, and the contextual (i.e., environmental) sources of stress and support combine to influence parenting behaviors. This study divided ontogenic characteristics into two categories: demographic and psychological. The third category, situational, was equal to Belsky's environmental source of parental functioning. If the present study supports Belsky's theory, parent characteristic predictors for the group of child rearing strategies would come from all three blocks of categories: demographic, psychological, and situational.

The study posed four research questions. The first concerned the descriptive characteristics of the population under study. The second question was concerned with the descriptive characteristics of the child rearing strategies examined. The third question addressed combinations of individual parental characteristics that may best predict each of the five self-reported child rearing strategies. The fourth question was concerned with testing Belsky's process model (i.e., do all three blocks of characteristics contribute to predicting child rearing strategies, and, if so, which block is the strongest predictor?).

While there have been studies examining relationships of parental characteristics to specific child rearing strategies (e.g., Bradley & Peters, 1991; Barling et al.,

1993; Gerris & Janssens, 1987; Harrison et al., 1990; Lerner & Galombos, 1985; Miller et al., 1993; Simons, Beaman, Conger, & Chao, 1993; Vukilick & Kleman, 1985) and other studies reflecting Belsky's Process Model (Fox, 1989; Meredith, Abbott & Wycoff, 1984; Rubin, 1987), none have examined the relationship of the particular sets of parental characteristics to the range of reported child rearing strategies chosen here. In addition, other studies have not addressed Belsky's model in the format presented in this study.

Summary of Procedures

Self-reporting questionnaires from 330 WIC participants in three counties of southwest Montana and in Los Angeles County, California comprised the data for this study. All mothers attending the programs in those locations received the surveys and were encouraged to complete the materials, either in the office or at home. Stamped, preaddressed envelopes were provided and follow-up fliers were distributed. Percentage of survey samples returned for Montana was 92% and for California was 60%.

Data from Montana and California were coded and uploaded into the mainframe at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University for analysis.

Summary of the Analysis

To answer the first two questions regarding the descriptive characteristics of the population and the child rearing strategies, means analysis and cross-tabulation analysis were used. The third question, which addressed the parental characteristics that predict each child rearing strategy, involved stepwise multiple regression analysis on each individual strategy to determine the most powerful predictors. The fourth question was answered by hierarchical (i.e., blockwise) multiple regression analysis to determine which blocks of characteristics were predictors, and to assess Belsky's Process Model of Determinants of Parenting as it may relate to parental child rearing strategies.

Summary of Findings

Research question one: What are the descriptive characteristics of the population under study? Data analysis revealed that the populations of Montana and California were different in several ways. California residents tended to be younger, had less education, were less likely to be married, were more racially-ethnically diverse, and were more likely to have other types of living arrangements than residing with a spouse or partner. Overall, the mothers in both regions appeared to be better educated, had higher rates of marriage, had higher

occupational prestige classifications, and were less diverse racially-ethnically than the national population of WIC mothers (Williams et al., 1990).

As the California sample was more racially-ethnically diverse than the Montana population, which was reportedly Caucasian, the question arose as to whether some differences were due to region, to race-ethnicity, or to a combination of the two variables. The analyses suggested that race-ethnicity was a strong predictor of strategies, and that it accounted for a large portion of the variance in the regression equations. Region was also a strong predictor. Since there were Caucasian respondents in Montana and California, t tests were done on independent variables for these groups to see if there were significant regional differences. Six of the independent variables were significant for regional differences. This information changed some of the assumptions concerning the sole influence of race-ethnicity in this population in predicting regional differences.

The differences found in the two populations, as described above, led to further investigation on regional and racial-ethnic differences than had been planned originally. Analyses by individual race-ethnicity and by region were performed to examine more closely the influence of these variables as predictors of child rearing

strategies. Both regional and racial-ethnic influences were found. These differences are described under research questions two and three.

Research question two: What are the descriptive characteristics of the reported child rearing strategies?

Factor analysis affirmed the presence of five exclusive child rearing strategies for the whole group. Means analysis showed that, on a scale of 1 to 7, spank, with a mean of 4.00 (SD 1.60) and consequences (mean = 4.62, SD = 1.44) were more nearly normally distributed than the other strategies. Praise had very little variance, with a mean of 6.14 (SD = 1.21). Reason was also very high (mean = 5.82, SD = 1.08). Allow was very low, with a mean of 2.21 and a SD of 1.29.

Certain strategies were correlated. For the total population, praise and reason, spank and consequences, and reason and consequences were correlated significantly. When examined by individual race-ethnicity, some differences were found. For Caucasians, just reason and consequences were correlated. For African Americans, there were three significant correlations; praise and reason, praise and consequences, and reason and consequences. Hispanics also had three significant correlations; spank and consequences, praise and reason, and reason and consequences. It was interesting to note that allow did not correlate

significantly with any of the other strategies. Consistent correlations were seen throughout the analyses for praise and reason, spank and consequences, and for reason and consequences. Parents who praise are also likely to reason. Spanking is a physical consequence for unacceptable behavior. For parents who prefer reasoning, an explanation, verbal consequences, and perhaps denial of privileges would be characteristic.

Further cross tabulation analysis was performed on the parenting strategies by each demographic characteristic and by individual race-ethnicity. Table 11 summarizes the percentages of low and high use of each strategy for the racial-ethnic groups. These differences were more clearly defined and more varied than had been anticipated. Despite fairly small numbers for each group, preferences for certain patterns of child rearing strategies could be suggested from these findings. Caucasians were divided evenly for spank and for consequences. They were very high on praise, very low on allow, and slightly low for reason.

African Americans showed a definite preference for spanking as a strategy. They also indicated lower use of praise, reason, and consequences. They were high on allow.

Hispanics indicated low use of spank and praise. They were very high on reason and allow. They favored consequences.

The racial-ethnic differences in preferred strategies indicate the importance of culture on parenting behaviors and expectations. When interpreting these strategies, it is important not to judge them as positive or negative from a particular cultural view, but to recognize these strategies as different traditional ways of managing children.

Research question three: Which combinations of individual parental characteristics best predict each of the five self-reported child rearing strategies? Data analysis showed that there were consistent variables which predicted specific child rearing strategies. However, the percent of variance accounted for in most of cases was quite small. Significant variables for spank and praise accounted for the highest amount of variance for the strategies.

Spank, with five, and praise, with four, had more significant predictor variables than the other strategies. Allow had three significant predictors: educational attainment, acceptance, and region. Reason and consequences had one. Using the significant predictor variables for each strategy, it was possible to describe characteristics of mothers who prefer particular strategies. Those who prefer to spank were likely to be less educated, less flexible, less accepting of the child, most likely African American, and lived in an urban setting. Mothers who use praise were older, more flexible, Caucasian, and lived in a rural

setting. Mothers who allow were less educated, less accepting of the child, and lived in an urban area. Reason and consequences were less definitive. Those who reason were likely to be Caucasian or Hispanic. Those who use consequences were less accepting (see Appendix L).

The practical implications of the above profiles can be illustrated by the following example: in general mothers who allow, or give in, would have less education and less acceptance of the child. In this study, they would be more likely to live in an urban area. The extent of this allow continuum could range from giving in to typical child requests to not exercising supervision of the child to general disinterest, or neglect at the extreme range. For professionals working in a clinical or educational setting, profiles such as this would provide valuable information. Knowledge of general trends help practitioners in working with individual families and children.

The most consistent child rearing strategy predictors were race-ethnicity, region, and acceptance. Each was a significant predictor for three strategies. Flexibility and educational attainment were each significant for two strategies. The fact that age was significant only for praise was surprising. It was expected that this variable would be a stronger predictor, based upon the literature and the strategies examined. However, if age could have been

represented at the interval level rather than ordinal level, results may have been different. In addition, the strategies examined here, with the exception of praise, may not be influenced by age. If a parent believes in spanking, this could be a traditional belief, carried down through the family and not influenced by the age of the parent.

The cultural link to child rearing strategies should again be acknowledged (Swick, 1986). The findings of this study are consistent with the literature on cultural influences on family practices. Harrison et al. (1990) describes the strength of cultural family patterns, and the compromises made when the family attempts to adapt to the larger social system. Langston (1980) and MacPhee et al. (1993) describe specific African American family patterns. MacPhee et al. (1993), Martinez (1988), Sabogal et al. (1987) and Cousins et al. (1993) have researched Hispanic cultural parenting beliefs. Four of the five strategies researched in this study had race-ethnicity, region, or both variables as significant predictors. Thus, the findings of this study of WIC mothers support the literature and emphasize the importance of cultural and regional traditions.

There is a need to bring together three bodies of knowledge: parenting, cultural patterns, and child rearing strategies. These areas have tended to be studied

separately. The combining of the disciplines would form a comprehensive body of literature, which would assist professionals and practitioners in understanding and working with the diversity of families seen in schools and in family service settings.

Research question four: Which blocks of parental characteristics, as defined in Belsky's model, best predict each of the child rearing strategies?

Blockwise regression analyses was performed to answer this research question. Since this question was specifically concerned with Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting, the regression was limited to those independent variables contained in his model. Region was used because Belsky included environment. Race-ethnicity was not included since Belsky, even though he speaks of biological factors, does not refer to race, ethnicity, or culture. Considering the five child rearing strategies as a group, Belsky's theory was confirmed for this study. Each of the blocks (i.e., demographic, psychological, and situational) entered at least once.

It was not possible to assess the relative strength of the predictor blocks. The demographic and psychological blocks each entered once. The situational block was significant for two strategies, praise and allow. However, more study is needed before it is possible to suggest that

the situational block is the strongest predictor and that these results do not agree with Belsky's theory of the ontogenic (i.e., biological origins and psychological resources) as being the strongest influence in parenting. Other combinations of parent characteristic variables might yield different results.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study focused on reported use of child rearing strategies in a population of mothers enrolled in the WIC program. Suggestions for further research based upon this study are as follows:

1. Emphasize patterns of parent behavior as they pertain to choice of child rearing strategies. Use information on strategies and parental characteristics to obtain parental profiles which may predict use of particular strategies. Include the variable "live alone" in the situational category to see the impact of that living arrangement.

2. Initiate a study of racial-ethnic group differences as pertaining to child rearing strategies. The present study just touched upon the significance of race-ethnicity in child rearing strategies and in parenting in general. Further quantitative studies comparing patterns of strategies for two or more ethnic groups should follow.

3. Conduct qualitative research with families from different racial-ethnic groups which would compliment a quantitative study, as suggested above, and provide different types of information, valuable to researchers and practitioners, but which could not be gained from quantitative analyses.

4. Include child characteristics and effects as variables in a child rearing strategies study. There was a good bit of unaccounted for variability in this study. Perhaps the influence of the child and of child-parent interactions would provide answers in this area.

5. Explore changes in child rearing strategies when members of ethnic groups leave the traditional ways and adapt to mainstream culture mores. Some research on this topic has been done with Hispanic mothers (Cousins et al., 1993).

6. Initiate a study, similar to the present study, which uses fathers as the respondents. The results would provide interesting information and comparisons. There are an increasing number of fathers who are primary caretakers of young children. In other family units, fathers are taking a more active role in the care of the children.

7. This study did not address children's ages or gender. Studies of child rearing strategies which include these two variables would provide further information on the

entire topic. The relationship of child gender, race-ethnicity, and child rearing strategies would also gain insight into the area.

8. It would be useful to conduct further studies involving child rearing strategies with other organizations of the strategy categories. Using physical versus verbal strategies, or positive versus negative (as defined by the researcher) might complement the present findings.

9. A study of child rearing strategies from the perspective of the parent and of the child would lend further information. As the children in the WIC program are very young, research in this area would have to be in retrospect. Research in this area would relate to Kohn's research of the effects of social class on parental values and practices (1979).

10. A study of the connections between child rearing strategies and child behavior in the preschool years and later child school behavior would provide more long range information on family patterns and practices.

If this data set is used again for further study, limiting the group to just the Los Angeles population would provide more specific results for race and ethnicity, and would eliminate the question of region. If region were to be included in a study, two similar populations, one rural

and one urban, or two similar populations in varied geographic locations should be used.

Conclusions

Based upon the findings of this study, the following conclusions are offered:

Theoretical Conclusions

One of the purposes of this study was to test Belsky's Model of Multiple Determinants of Parenting (see Figure 1) as it may be applied to predicting child rearing strategies, recognizing that the application of his model to any specific study is a less global interpretation than Belsky originally intended. The fact that all three categories: demographic, psychological, and situational, entered at least once as significant in the blockwise regression equations, indicates that there is application of Belsky's model in this field. As mentioned previously, it is possible that with combinations of variables other than those selected here, variables from the three blocks would enter as significant for individual strategies.

The nature of Abidin's theory, designed to expand upon Belsky's Model, which includes parental belief systems suggests the relevance of cultural considerations, though it does not specifically mention race-ethnicity. The cultural beliefs which guide racial-ethnic groups may relate to parental beliefs, or model of self as parent outlined by

Abidin. This topic would be useful for further research on parenting. As mentioned previously, there is a need to link parenting practices and beliefs with cultural aspects of parenting and child rearing strategies to create a comprehensive body of literature.

Research Conclusions

There are several parent characteristic predictors of child rearing strategies which were determined by this analysis. Many of these predictors generalize over several strategies. For example acceptance predicts spank, allow and consequences (all negative). Flexibility predicts spank (negative) and praise. Only one characteristic, age, is specific to the single parenting strategy praise.

Race-ethnicity, which predicted spank, praise, reason, and allow, is a strong influence in determining child rearing strategies. Results of this research suggest further study is needed. Much of the research in this area deals with a particular cultural group, or groups, as the main focus of the study (Cousins et al., 1993; Harrison et al., 1990; MacPhee et al., 1993).

In this study, race-ethnicity was one of 10 independent variables being considered in predicting child rearing strategies in a population that had some racial-ethnic diversity. The inclusion of this variable in other studies which do not focus solely upon particular cultures is

suggested. Adding other demographic variables would provide additional information. Studies of strategies for a particular culture, but including variables such as range of ages, socioeconomic levels, or geographical regions would address the individual differences within cultures. For example, in this study, African Americans generally reported preference for spanking as a child rearing strategy. However, just 40% of the mothers in the highest occupational prestige category (i.e., administrative-professional) used spanking as a strategy, while 86% of mothers in service occupations, a lower occupational category, reported spanking. For praise, which was not a preferred strategy for the total population, 75% of the administrative-professional mothers and 57% of the mothers in service occupations reported they praised.

Even though this study represents a particular population of mothers who are enrolled in the WIC program, the structure of the study and the findings of the analysis show evidence of significant results for the research field.

Practical Conclusions

Professionals who work with children and families, whether in an educational, psychological, family services, or counseling setting are continually searching to broaden their knowledge base. They want to gain information and strategies which will help them understand and better serve

the families with whom they work. Programs, such as the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA), focus upon the linking of school, family, and community in the education of children. School-based-decision-making has increased the involvement and influence of parents in their child's schooling (Wilson & Wilson, 1994). This involvement has increased the responsibility of educators to know and understand the diversity in families, their beliefs and practices.

It is essential for the classroom teacher to understand the home environment and the family traditions of the children in the class in order to assist each child in learning and reaching full potential. If family child rearing strategies differ from school expectations, the teacher can help the child to adjust to other forms of behavior management, and to function successfully in the group school situation. The parents can also expand their options of child rearing strategies if there is a link between school, family, and community (Virginia Association for Early Childhood Education, 1991).

The strategies used to raise and to manage children are key elements in understanding the family, the interaction between parent and child, and the methods most familiar to the child. The identification of specific strategies in this WIC population could assist practitioners with

understanding the family child rearing strategies of similar populations. This type of study could be applied to other populations (e.g., regional, socioeconomic, other assistance recipients) in order to understand which child rearing strategies are used, and ideally, the meanings of those strategies to their users, and to better work with those parents. As Harrison et al. (1990) state, ethnic families vary in the extent to which they realize the potential discrepancy between home and school expectations, as well as social role assignments. They describe the need for researchers and practitioners in the field to understand this discontinuity, and to work toward decreasing the negative impact of this situation upon ethnic minority children. Understanding the child rearing strategies preferred by different racial-ethnic groups is a primary step in accomplishing this goal.

If the predictors of strategies found here hold for larger populations of the same race-ethnicity, the implications for practitioners could be very meaningful. The parent's perception of the strategy used is the key. For example, if spanking, as indicated in this research, is a preferred strategy for African Americans, it should not be viewed as a negative form of discipline, but as a cultural characteristic. Rather than focus upon the negative aspects of this strategy, the professional assists the parent in

adding other forms of strategies such as reason or praise which would increase the variety of ways to manage children.

This study investigated predictors of child rearing strategies in a population of mothers enrolled in the WIC program, using parental characteristics to predict the use of particular strategies. Results confirmed the applicability of these parental characteristics in predicting child rearing strategies. The models of Belsky and Abidin proved to have relevance in this study, particularly concerning the areas of parenting characteristics and parental beliefs. The strength of race-ethnicity as a predictor further emphasizes the importance of cultural group differences and differences within groups as pertains to child rearing practices.

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Appendix A

OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE CLASSIFICATIONS

- 0 = Student, unemployed
- 1= Operators, Fabricators, Laborers
Supervisors; production, occupation
Machine setup operators
Machine operators and tenders
Fabricators, assemblers, and hand workers
Production inspectors, testers, samplers, weighers
- 2= Precision Production, Craft, and Repair
Supervisors; mechanics and repairers
Mechanics and repairers
Supervisors; constructive and extractive occupations
Construction trades
Extractive occupations
Supervisors; precision production occupation
Precision production occupations
Plant and systemic operators
- 3= Farming, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting Occupations
Farm operators and managers
Farm occupations
Forestry and logging occupations
Fishers, hunters, and trappers
- 4= Service Occupations, including Military Occupations
Private household occupations
Protective service occupations
Service occupations, including
 food, beverage
 health
 cleaning and building service
 barbers, hairdressers
 childcare workers
Military occupations

5= Technical, Clerical, Sales, and Related Occupations

Health technologists and technicians
Engineering and related technologists
Scientists
Other technicians
 air traffic controllers
 programmers
Marketing and sales occupations
 insurance
 securities
 retail
 technical
Administrative support and clerical

6= Administrative, Engineering, Scientific and Related Occupations, Creative Artists

Executive, administrative, and managerial occupations
Engineers, surveyors, and mathematicians
Social scientists, social workers, religious workers,
lawyers
Teachers, librarians, counselors
Health diagnosing and treating practitioners
RN's, pharmacists, dietitians, therapists, PA's
Writers, artists, entertainers, and athletes

Appendix B

Flyer Informing Parents of Upcoming Questionnaire

BEING A PARENT CAN BE HARD. Sometimes it's hard to know just what to do. We are asking you to share your ideas with others. It won't take much of your time. Your answers will help us to help others. No one will know who answered the questions. We will not use information to identify anyone. You will continue to get WIC services whether or not you answer the questions. The form can be completed in your home and mailed to us postage free.

Thank you,

Nancy, Stephan and Sandy
from the
Parenting Project
at
Montana State University



"I said, DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN?"

COMING SOON!

We will be here beginning May 31st.
We look forward to seeing you then!



Appendix C
Letter of Instruction

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, LONG BEACH

February 10, 1989

Name Of Project: The Parenting Project

Principal Researcher: Dr. Nilufer Medora, Department of Home Economics, CSULB

Purpose: The purpose of this study is : (1) to determine how experiences and knowledge about children relate to parenting practices, and (2) to determine how the experience and knowledge about children are related to emotions, expectations, and satisfaction/dissatisfaction concerning parenting.

By participating in this study, you can learn more about yourself and your family life. We do not believe that there are any risks for you in answering the questionnaire. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you decide not to participate, please be aware that you may do so at any time. Completing this questionnaire is not a part of the requirement or a prerequisite to get aid from the WIC office.

Please answer each item honestly; there are no right or wrong answers to any questions. We are only interested in your parenting practices and beliefs about parenting. It should take you 15-25 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. Results of the questionnaires will be reported for groups only with all identifying information omitted. Your individual answers will not be reported to the WIC office or to others. After you have completed filling out the questionnaire, please hand the completed questionnaire to Amy. The results of this study will be available in early Fall, 1989. If you would like to read the report, copies will be made available in the WIC office.

If you have any questions about the questionnaire or the study, please call me at: (213) 985-4488. Thank you for participating. We sincerely appreciate your taking the time to help us with this study.

Nilufer P. Medora
~~Dr. Nilufer P. Medora~~
Assistant Professor
Department of Home Economics
California State University,
Long Beach

Amy Kuehn
Ms. Amy Kuehn
Research Technician
Dept. of Home Economics
California State University,
Long Beach

Appendix D

Consent Form and Pre-Addressed Post Card

MSU PARENTING STUDY, 1988

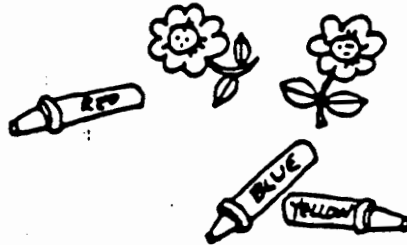
I am a willing participant in the MSU Parenting Study and have been informed of the following items: (1) I have been informed of the following description of the project, its purpose, and benefits; (2) I have been given an explanation as to why I have been asked to participate; (3) I have been given an explanation of my specific involvement and potential risks, if any; (4) I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time that I desire; and (5) I understand that my responses will be kept anonymous.

Signature

Montana State University
Parenting Project
Sherrick Hall
Bozeman, MT 59717

MSU Parenting Study
Sherrick Hall
College of Nursing
Montana State University
Bozeman, MT 59717

Appendix E
Complimentary Brochure



Children learn through play

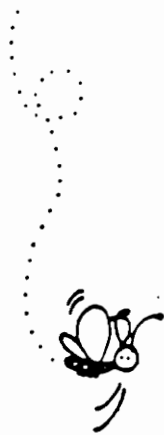
Play is essential for children to grow and learn. What do children learn while they play? Watch them concentrate as they

- figure out how things work
- pick up new words and ideas
- build strong muscles they can control
- use their imagination
- solve problems
- learn to cooperate with others

Children outgrow their clothes rapidly because their bodies are growing. In much the same way, children's play changes as their minds and bodies develop.



The Parenting Project
Herrick Hall
Montana State University

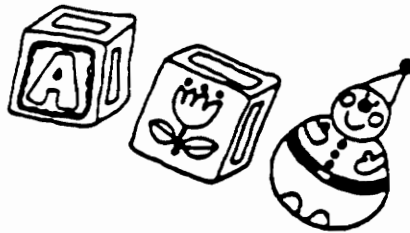


There are many types of play, all of which are valuable for growing children. Sometimes children (and adults) like to play alone. This is called **solitary play**. Children may work on puzzles, read books, draw pictures, ride bikes, or chew on teething rings.

Have you ever seen two children playing in the sandbox, one building tracks and the other baking birthday cakes? This is called **parallel play**.

Perhaps you have noticed a group of children playing house, or involved in a board game, or operating a lemonade stand. Children can spend hours in **cooperative play**, which frequently takes the form of pretend or dramatic play.

Play tends to become more sophisticated as children grow up, but adult play is amazingly similar to children's. Sometimes we play solitaire, or read a novel, or all join in for a rousing volleyball game, or play charades. For many adults, work and play are intertwined.



What rules do children need when they play? As few as possible to foster productive play. Most problems with play are covered by these three simple rules:

1. People are not for hurting.
2. Conflicts are resolved by talking.
3. Everything must be returned to its proper place.

Cooked Playdough

- 1 cup flour
- 1 cup water
- 1 tablespoon oil
- 1 tablespoon alum
- ½ cup salt
- 2 tablespoons vanilla

Mix and cook over medium heat stirring constantly until dough reaches the consistency of mashed potatoes. Remove from heat and add a few drops of food coloring - work in by kneading. Store in a plastic bag when cool.



Peanut Butter Fudge Dough

- 1 cup peanut butter
- 1 cup white corn syrup
- 1½ cups nonfat powdered milk
- 1¼ cups powdered sugar

Mix and knead - form into balls.
Give your child a ball to mold and set!



Gunk!

- 2 pounds cornstarch
- 3¼ cups water
- food coloring

Add a few drops of coloring to the water and stir it into the cornstarch. When the cornstarch is dissolved, drop the whole batch onto a table top for children to play with! Store leftovers in a jar - add water if it dries out.

Children Learn What They Play

If Children Play With Fragile Toys,
They Learn To Be Overly Cautious,
If Children Only Play Strongly Competitive Games,
They Learn Winning Is All That Counts,
If Children Read Books About Passive Girls,
They Learn Girls Are Weak,
If Children Grow Up With Narrow Role Models,
They Learn A Limited View Of Their Own Possibilities,
If Girls And Boys Play Active Games,
They Learn Their Bodies Are Strong,
If Girls And Boys Play With Dolls,
They Learn To Be Loving,
If Girls And Boys Play With Inventive Toys,
They Are Inspired To Create,
If Girls And Boys Share Chores At Home,
They Learn To Be Self-Sufficient,
If Girls And Boys Play With Building Toys,
They Learn To Reach Higher And Have Ambition,
If Girls And Boys Play Together,
They Learn To Be Friends As Adults.



Questions facing parents

As technology and society change parents face some tough decisions about their children's play. Your own observations of children's play, and the guidelines here may help you make good decisions about play choices for your children.

What toys are educational? The more the child can do with the toy, the more likely it is to be truly educational. Children need to learn a lot about people and how things work before they are ready to count and learn to read. Make sure you offer play materials that give children choices and room to explore. Even a good primary school program bases its curriculum on play, not paper and pencils.

Is superhero play good for children? A little of it probably is. It can give children a sense of power and strength, of doing good deeds. But it can also escalate into hurting and out-of-control violence. Some adult direction may be needed to help children maintain control.

How much television should children watch? How much and what children watch are equally important. Some shows such as nature specials or "Mister Rogers Neighborhood," can be positive learning experiences for children. Children learn best from testing out ideas and interacting with people and objects. Do the programs your children watch provide these opportunities?

Won't doll play make my son a sissy? We used to think that some play was just for boys and other kinds of play were just for girls. But the world doesn't work that way anymore. Fathers are finding out just how wonderful it can be to really be involved with their children. Practicing this in childhood is a good beginning for a lifetime of satisfaction in parenting.

Types of good toys and worthwhile activities

What Children are like

Approximate age

Rattle, large rings, squeeze or sucking toys
Lullabies, Nursery rhymes, poems
Bright pictures of faces hung so baby can see them
Bells firmly attached to baby's wrist, ankle, booties
Cardboard or vinyl books with high-contrast illustrations to stand in baby's view
Brightly patterned crib sheets

Begin to smile at people, coo
Follow moving person or object with eyes
Prefer faces and bright colors
Reach, discover hands, kick feet, lift head
Suck with pleasure
Cry, but often are soothed when held
Turn head toward sounds
Mobile with parts visible from baby's position

Soft doll, textured ball, socks with bright designs
Toys that make noise when batted, squeezed, or mouthed
Measuring spoons, teething toy
Cloth, soft vinyl books with bright pictures to grasp, chew, and shake
Pictures of faces covered in plastic hung at child's level; unbreakable mirror
Fingerplays, simple songs, peek-a-boo
Socks with bright designs or faces

Prefer parents & older siblings to other people
Repeat actions that have interesting results
Listen intently, respond when spoken to
Laugh, gurgle, imitate sounds
Explore hands and feet, put objects in mouth
Sit when propped, roll over, scoot, bounce
Grasp objects without using thumbs, bat at hanging objects
Smile often

All of the above plus
Rag and baby dolls, stuffed animals, puppets
Container for large beads, blocks, balls
Nesting toy or plastic containers
Board books to read, old magazines to tear
Recordings of voices, animal sounds, music
Wooden blocks, large soft blocks
Water toys that float
Rubber or large plastic bells
Soft plastic or wood vehicle with wheels
Games like peek-a-boo

Remember simple events, form simple concepts
Identify themselves, body parts, voices of familiar people
Understand own name, other common words
Say first meaningful words
Explore, bang, or shake objects with hands
Find hidden objects, put objects in and out of containers
Sit alone
Creep, pull themselves up to stand, walk
May seem shy or become upset with strangers

7 to 12 months

1 to 1 1/2 years	<p>Imitate adult actions Speak and understand more words and ideas Enjoy stories Experiment with objects Walk steadily, climb stairs Assert independence, but strongly prefer familiar people Recognize ownership of objects Develop friendships, but also play alone Are beginning to understand what adults want them to do, but do not yet have the ability to control themselves</p>	<p>All of the above plus Surprise or music box Puzzles, 2 to 6 large pieces with knobs Books/recordings with songs, rhymes, simple stories & pictures Wide watercolor markers, nontoxic fat crayons, large blank paper Geometric, unit, or cardboard blocks People and animals, vehicles; wood or rubber Pounding bench Sand & water play; plastic measuring cups boats, containers, washable doll Large cardboard box to crawl in Toys that jingle or move when used Kitchen cupboard of <u>safe</u> pots, pans, lids, & utensils</p>
1 1/2 to 2 years	<p>Solve problems Speak and understand even more Show pride in accomplishments, like to help with task Exhibit more body control, run Play more with others Begin pretend play</p>	<p>Self-help toys; sorting box, holes with pegs Large spools or beads to string Books with large colorful illustrations, short stories Soft dough, clay, bells, drum Small broom, sponge, camera, pots & pans Shopping cart, wagon, steerable riding toy; toy telephone, washable doll</p>
2 to 3 1/2 years	<p>Enjoy learning new skills Learn language rapidly Have some sense of danger Are always on the go Gain more control of hands and fingers Frustrated easily Act more independent, but are still dependent, too Act out familiar scenes</p>	<p>Wood puzzles with 4 to 20 pieces Pegboards, sewing cards, stacking toys, picture lotto, dominoes Picture/story books, poems about familiar things Classical, folk, children's music Finger or tempera paint, brushes, blunt scissors, white glue Unit blocks & accessories, wood train set with large pieces Hammer (13oz steel shanked), soft wood, roofing nails, nailing block</p>

Approximate age What Children are like

- 3 1/2 to 5 years**
- Have a longer attention span
 - Act silly, boisterous, may use shocking language
 - Talk a lot, ask many questions
 - Want real adult things, keep art project
 - Test physical skills and courage with caution
 - Reveal feelings in dramatic play
 - Like to play with friends, do not like to lose
 - Share and take turns sometimes

Types of good toys and worthwhile activities

- Puzzles with more pieces, simple card and board games
- Smaller beads, parquetry blocks, small objects to sort
- Flannel board with pictures, letters, sturdy numbers and letters
- More detailed books, simple science books
- Sturdy record, tape player, book and record sets
- Potter's clay, easel, narrower brushes, thick crayons, chalk, paste, tape and dispenser, collage materials
- More unit block shapes and accessories and realistic model vehicles
- Construction set with smaller pieces
- Woodworking bench, saw, sandpaper
- Sand and water play, egg beater, muffin tin, vehicles
- Xylophone, maracas, tambourine
- Roller skates, plastic bat and balls, balance board
- Bowling pins, ring toss, bean bags and target
- Planks, boxes, old tires
- Child-sized stove or sink, toy telephone, play food, cardboard cartons, more dress-up clothes, carriage and accessories
- Airport, doll house, other miniature settings, finger and stick puppets

Appendix F
Reminder Flyer

M O T H E R S : During your recent WIC appointment you received a yellow questionnaire from THE PARENTING PROJECT. We are hoping to hear from you as soon as possible. Please mail your questionnaire back to us or return it directly to the WIC office. We need YOUR information.

T H A N K Y O U ! ! !



Appendix G

Demographic and Family Status Questionnaire

The Parenting Project

1. Age : 1. 15 to 25 2. 26 to 35 3. 36 to 45
4. 46 to 55 5. 55 and Over.
2. What community/town do you live in? _____
3. Sex : Male Female.
4. Race : 1. White ; 2. Black ; 3. Hispanic ;
4. Asian ; 5. American Indian ;
6. Other ; _____ Please Specify
5. What is the birthday of each of your children? (month and year)
Boys _____
Girls _____
6. Are you now married? yes no
What year were you married? _____
7. Was your previous marriage ended because of: (check one)
 divorce never married
 desertion death
8. Who lives with you? (check those that apply)
 spouse parent(s)
 brother or sister grandparent(s)
 male friend female friend
9. To what church do you belong? _____
10. Draw a circle around the number of years of schooling you have completed.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Grade School								High School				College				Post Graduate			
11. What is your occupation (for example, full-time homemaker, secretary, drug store clerk, hairdresser, student)?
_____ In a few words, please tell us what you do

12. What is your husband or partner's occupation (if he or she has one)? _____ In a few words tell us what he or she does.

Appendix H

Child Abuse Potential Inventory

Circle One

1.	I often feel very alone	Agree	Disagree
2.	I am usually a quiet person	Agree	Disagree
3.	I often am lonely inside	Agree	Disagree
4.	Children should never be spoiled	Agree	Disagree
5.	Sometimes my behavior is childish	Agree	Disagree
6.	A good child keeps his toys and clothes neat and orderly	Agree	Disagree
7.	A five-year old who wets his bed is bad	Agree	Disagree
8.	I have headaches	Agree	Disagree
9.	I have several close friends in my neighborhood	Agree	Disagree
10.	I have many personal problems	Agree	Disagree
11.	I sometimes worry that I will not have enough to eat	Agree	Disagree
12.	Other people do not understand how I feel	Agree	Disagree
13.	Sometimes I feel all alone in the world	Agree	Disagree
14.	I often feel alone	Agree	Disagree
15.	My home must be spotless	Agree	Disagree
16.	Children should always be neat	Agree	Disagree
17.	Little boys should never learn sissy games	Agree	Disagree

C i r c l e O n e

18. I am often depressed	Agree	Disagree
19. Children should never disobey	Agree	Disagree
20. Things have usually gone against me in life	Agree	Disagree
21. Few people have as many problems as I do	Agree	Disagree
22. I sometimes wish that my mother would have loved me more	Agree	Disagree
23. Teenage girls need to be protected	Agree	Disagree
24. I sometimes fear that my children will not love me	Agree	Disagree
25. I often feel rejected	Agree	Disagree
26. A home should be spotless	Agree	Disagree
27. Everything in a home should always be in its place	Agree	Disagree
28. These days a person does not really know on whom one can count	Agree	Disagree
29. I sometimes fear that I may spoil my child	Agree	Disagree
30. I do not trust most people	Agree	Disagree
31. A parent must use punishment if he wants to control a child's behavior	Agree	Disagree
32. My family has many problems	Agree	Disagree
33. I enjoy having pets	Agree	Disagree
34. Sometimes I fear that I will lose control of myself	Agree	Disagree
35. I have a good sex life	Agree	Disagree
36. I am not very attractive	Agree	Disagree
37. People do not understand me	Agree	Disagree

Appendix I

Parent Satisfaction Questionnaire

There are good things and not so good things about the experience of parenting. Please circle how you feel about the following statements. (Circle one)

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>		<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	
1. Overall, I am satisfied being the parent of this child.	1	2	3	4
2. Generally speaking, being the parent of this child has been one of the best things in my life.	1	2	3	4
3. As a parent, I enjoy spending a great deal of time with this child.	1	2	3	4
4. As a parent, I enjoy participating in and sharing many activities with this child.	1	2	3	4

Appendix J

. Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire

Dealing with children day in and day out is a demanding job. Please rate yourself on the following items by putting a check mark in the blank.

	<u>TRUE OF ME</u>		<u>NOT TRUE OF ME</u>	
	<u>Almost Always True</u>	<u>Some- times True</u>	<u>Rarely True</u>	<u>Almost Never True</u>
1. I say nice things about my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. I nag or scold my child when he/she is bad	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. I ignore my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. I wonder if I really love my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. I discuss general daily routines with my child and listen to what he/she has to say	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. I complain about my child to others when he/she does not listen to me	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. I take an active interest in my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. I encourage my child to bring friends home, and I try to make things pleasant for them	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. I make fun of my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. I ignore my child as long as he/she does not do anything to disturb me	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. I yell at my child when I am angry	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. I make it easy for my child to confide in me	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. I am harsh with my child	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>TRUE OF ME</u>		<u>NOT TRUE OF ME</u>	
	<u>Almost Always True</u>	<u>Some- times True</u>	<u>Rarely True</u>	<u>Almost Never True</u>
14. I enjoy having my child around me	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. I make my child feel proud when he/she does well	_____	_____	_____	_____
16. I hit my child even when he/she may not deserve it	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. I forget things I am supposed to do for my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. My child is a burden for me	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. I praise my child to others	_____	_____	_____	_____
20. I punish my child when I am angry	_____	_____	_____	_____
21. I make sure my child has the right kind of food to eat	_____	_____	_____	_____
22. I talk to my child in a warm and affectionate way	_____	_____	_____	_____
23. I am impatient with my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
24. I am too busy to answer my child's questions	_____	_____	_____	_____
25. I resent my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
26. I praise my child when he/she deserves it	_____	_____	_____	_____
27. I am irritable with my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
28. I am concerned who my child's friends are	_____	_____	_____	_____
29. I take real interest in my child's affairs	_____	_____	_____	_____
30. I say unkind things to my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
31. I ignore my child when he/she asks for help	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>TRUE OF ME</u>		<u>NOT TRUE OF ME</u>	
	<u>Almost Always True</u>	<u>Some- times True</u>	<u>Rarely True</u>	<u>Almost Never True</u>
32. I am unsympathetic to my child when he/she is having trouble	_____	_____	_____	_____
33. I make my child feel wanted and needed	_____	_____	_____	_____
34. I tell my child that he/she gets on my nerves	_____	_____	_____	_____
35. I pay a lot of attention to my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
36. I tell my child how proud I am of him/her when he/she is good	_____	_____	_____	_____
37. I hurt my child's feelings	_____	_____	_____	_____
38. I forget events that my child thinks I should remember	_____	_____	_____	_____
39. When my child misbehaves, I make him/her feel I don't love him/her anymore	_____	_____	_____	_____
40. I make my child feel what he/she does is important	_____	_____	_____	_____
41. When my child does something wrong, I threaten or frighten him/her	_____	_____	_____	_____
42. I like to spend time with my child	_____	_____	_____	_____
43. I try to help my child when he/she is scared or upset	_____	_____	_____	_____
44. When my child misbehaves, I shame him/her in front of his/her playmates	_____	_____	_____	_____
45. I avoid my child's company	_____	_____	_____	_____
46. I complain about my child	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>TRUE OF ME</u>		<u>NOT TRUE OF ME</u>	
	<u>Almost Always True</u>	<u>Some- times True</u>	<u>Rarely True</u>	<u>Almost Never True</u>
47. I respect my child's point of view and encourage him/her to express it	_____	_____	_____	_____
48. I compare my child unfavorably with other children	_____	_____	_____	_____
49. When I make plans, I take my child into consideration	_____	_____	_____	_____
50. I let my child do things he/she thinks are important even if it is inconvenient for me	_____	_____	_____	_____
51. When my child misbehaves, I compare him/her unfavorably with other children	_____	_____	_____	_____
52. I leave my child to someone else's care (e.g., a neighbor or relative)	_____	_____	_____	_____
53. I let my child know he is not wanted	_____	_____	_____	_____
54. I am interested in the things my child does	_____	_____	_____	_____
55. I try to make my child feel better when he/she is hurt or sick	_____	_____	_____	_____
56. I tell my child I am ashamed of him/her when he/she misbehaves	_____	_____	_____	_____
57. I let my child know I love him/her	_____	_____	_____	_____
58. I treat my child gently and kindly	_____	_____	_____	_____
59. When my child misbehaves, I make him/her feel ashamed or guilty	_____	_____	_____	_____
60. I try to make my child happy	_____	_____	_____	_____

Appendix K

Maternal Reactions to Child's Deviant Behavior

Please circle the number that most closely approximates your answer to each question, recognizing that parents often respond differently to situations at different times. (Circle one)

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Slightly agree
- 3 Moderately agree
- 4 Neither agree or disagree
- 5 Moderately disagree
- 6 Slightly disagree
- 7 Strongly disagree

	<u>Strongly</u>	-			<u>Strongly</u>		
	<u>Agree</u>				<u>Disagree</u>		
1. If your child begins to whine and cry when you tell him/her she/he can't have a cookie, you would spank him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. If your child came in from playing the first time you call him/her, you would praise him/her for this.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. If your child was jumping up and down on the furniture, you would try to reason with him/her about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. If your child was "showing off" and embarrassing you in front of company, you would remove him/her from the room.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If your child interrupted your conversation with another person, you would go ahead and allow him/her to speak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. If your child was sharing his/her toys nicely with a friend, you would praise him/her for sharing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. If your child disobeyed your request that she/he apologize for hitting a friend, you would spank him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. If your child had just knocked over a large box of bobby-pins while bouncing a ball in the bathroom (an act she/he has been forbidden to do), you would make him/her clean up the mess and remove the ball for a specified period of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>				<u>Strongly Disagree</u>		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. If you and your child were sitting in the den and you told him/her to get into bed and she/he had a tantrum, you would let him/her stay up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. If your child crossed a street she/he was forbidden to cross, you would try to explain to him/her how dangerous that is.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. If your child refused to apologize for taking a toy away from a friend, you would spank him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. If your child continued to beg for a candy bar while you were at the grocery store, you would ignore his/her pleading.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. If your child cleaned his/her plate at supper, you would tell him/her what a good boy/girl she/he was.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. If your child continued to cry when you would not allow him/her to have a cookie before supper, you would go ahead and let him/her have one this time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. If your child was pushing or shoving one of his/her siblings or friends, you would try to explain to him/her how naughty that is.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. If your child thanked someone for giving him/her an ice cream cone, you would praise him/her for it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. If your child was sitting on the family pet or pulling its tail, you would try to reason with him/her about how cruel that was.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. If your child broke a toy that belonged to a friend, you would send him/her to his/her room.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>						<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. If your child had just pulled all the books off a shelf and left them on the floor after you asked him/her to pick them up, you would spank him/her.							
20. If your child kept sneaking candy after you asked him/her to stop, you would explain to him/her how sweets are bad for him/her and can cause cavities.							
21. If your child "talked back" to you when you corrected him/her for something, you would spank him/her.							
22. If your child continued to whine when you told him/her she/he could not go play with a friend, you would let him/him.							
23. If your child used an obscene word which you had told him/her to stop using, you would send him/her to his/her room when she/he used the word.							

Appendix L

Blockwise Multiple Regression Report - Total Population - With Race Ethnicity

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
<u>Spank</u>						
Demographic	1	15.61	0.03	2.45	0.06	
Psychological	2	37.0	0.08	4.36	0.002 **	flexibility, acceptance
Situational	3	3.0	0.006	0.47	0.71	
<u>Praise</u>						
Demographic	1	21.6	0.06	4.82	0.003 **	age
Psychological	2	10.9	0.03	1.82	0.13	
Situational	3	18.2	0.05	4.06	0.008 **	significant as block
<u>Reason</u>						
Demographic	1	20.15	0.1	6.92	0.0002 ***	race/ethnicity
Psychological	2	7.03	0.03	1.81	0.13	
Situational	3	4.85	0.02	1.67	0.18	
<u>Allow</u>						
Demographic	1	1.41	0.004	0.29	0.83	
Psychological	2	10.31	0.03	1.6	0.17	
Situational	3	13.98	0.04	2.9	0.04 *	region (neg.)
<u>Consequences</u>						
Demographic	1	2.43	0.006	0.39	0.76	
Psychological	2	13.64	0.03	1.63	0.17	
Situational	3	6.44	0.02	1.03	0.38	

* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

* Independent Variable Blocks:

Demographic - age, educational attainment, race-ethnicity

Psychological - acceptance, parent satisfaction, flexibility, adjustment

Situational - marital status, mother's occupation, region

Appendix M

Blockwise Multiple Regression Report - Region California

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
Spank						
Demographic	1	1.37	0.004	0.32	0.72	
Psychological	2	48.31	0.12	5.47	0.004 **	flex. (neg.), accept. (neg.)
Situational	3	2.50	0.007	0.59	0.56	
Praise						
Demographic	1	18.96	0.06	5.39	0.005 **	age
Psychological	2	13.91	0.05	1.98	0.10	
Situational	3	3.35	0.01	0.95	0.39	
Reason						
Demographic	1	1.36	0.008	0.63	0.53	
Psychological	2	9.34	0.05	2.18	0.07	
Situational	3	1.33	0.007	0.62	0.54	
Allow						
Demographic	1	0.84	0.003	0.22	0.80	
Psychological	2	9.42	0.03	1.26	0.29	
Situational	3	0.19	0.00	0.05	0.95	
Consequences						
Demographic	1	5.04	0.01	1.27	0.28	
Psychological	2	16.40	0.05	2.06	0.09	
Situational	3	9.50	0.03	2.39	0.09	

Montana

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
Spank						
Demographic	1	6.24	0.08	1.26	0.30	
Psychological	2	3.64	0.05	0.37	0.83	
Situational	3	2.28	0.03	0.46	0.64	
Praise						
Demographic	1	1.76	0.19	3.29	0.05 *	age
Psychological	2	0.48	0.05	0.45	0.77	
Situational	3	0.48	0.05	0.90	0.42	
Reason						
Demographic	1	1.23	0.04	0.56	0.58	
Psychological	2	0.83	0.03	0.19	0.94	
Situational	3	1.79	0.06	0.82	0.45	
Allow						
Demographic	1	0.42	0.03	0.60	0.56	
Psychological	2	5.32	0.34	3.78	0.01 *	adjustment (neg.)
Situational	3	1.35	0.09	1.92	0.17	
Consequences						
Demographic	1	10.29	0.13	2.11	0.14	
Psychological	2	7.88	0.10	0.81	0.53	
Situational	3	2.26	0.03	0.46	0.63	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

* Independent Variable Blocks:

Demographic - age, educational attainment

Psychological - acceptance, parent satisfaction, flexibility, adjustment

Situational - marital status, mothers occupation, region

Appendix N

**Blockwise Multiple Regression Report
Individual Race-Ethnicity - Caucasian**

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
<u>Spank</u>						
Demographic	1	2.84	0.006	0.43	0.73	
Psychological	2	37.15	0.08	4.24	0.003 **	flex.(neg.), accept.(neg.)
Situational	3	1.41	0.003	0.21	0.87	
<u>Praise</u>						
Demographic	1	22.48	0.06	5.03	0.002 **	age
Psychological	2	11.07	0.03	1.86	0.12	
Situational	3	11.03	0.03	2.47	0.06	
<u>Reason</u>						
Demographic	1	2.38	0.01	0.74	0.53	
Psychological	2	7.14	0.03	1.67	0.16	
Situational	3	2.52	0.01	0.79	0.79	
<u>Allow</u>						
Demographic	1	16.09	0.05	3.51	0.02 *	race-ethnicity
Psychological	2	15	0.05	2.45	0.05 *	flexibility
Situational	3	1.35	0.004	0.29	0.83	
<u>Consequences</u>						
Demographic	1	4.63	0.01	0.74	0.53	
Psychological	2	15.63	0.04	1.88	0.11	
Situational	3	7.33	0.02	1.17	0.32	

Individual Race-Ethnicity - African American

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
<u>Spank</u>						
Demographic	1	15.61	0.03	2.45	0.06	
Psychological	2	36.96	0.08	4.36	0.002 **	flex.(neg.), accept.(neg.)
Situational	3	2.96	0.006	0.47	0.71	
<u>Praise</u>						
Demographic	1	21.61	0.06	4.82	0.003 **	age
Psychological	2	10.9	0.03	1.82	0.13	
Situational	3	18.21	0.05	4.06	0.008 **	(significant as block only)
<u>Reason</u>						
Demographic	1	20.15	0.10	6.92	0.0002 ***	race-ethnicity
Psychological	2	7.03	0.03	1.81	0.13	
Situational	3	4.85	0.02	1.67	0.18	
<u>Allow</u>						
Demographic	1	1.41	0.004	0.29	0.83	
Psychological	2	10.31	0.03	1.60	0.18	
Situational	3	13.98	0.04	2.90	0.04 *	region
<u>Consequences</u>						
Demographic	1	2.43	0.006	0.39	0.76	
Psychological	2	16.64	0.03	1.63	0.17	
Situational	3	6.44	0.02	1.03	0.38	

Appendix N, (continued)

Individual Race-Ethnicity - Hispanic

Variables *	Block	Sum Squares	R Square Change	F	Sig F	Significant variables
Spank						
Demographic	1	8.32	0.02	1.28	0.28	
Psychological	2	40.1	0.09	4.64	0.001 **	flex.(neg.), accept.(neg.)
Situational	3	2.51	0.005	0.39	0.76	
Praise						
Demographic	1	19.97	0.06	4.43	0.005 **	age
Psychological	2	10.67	0.03	1.77	0.14	
Situational	3	17.66	0.05	3.91	0.01 *	region (neg.)
Reason						
Demographic	1	10.09	0.05	3.28	0.02 *	race-ethnicity (neg.)
Psychological	2	6.22	0.03	1.52	0.20	
Situational	3	0.42	0.002	0.14	0.94	
Allow						
Demographic	1	1.29	0.004	0.27	0.85	
Psychological	2	11.00	0.03	1.71	0.15	
Situational	3	14.45	0.04	2.99	0.03 *	region
Consequences						
Demographic	1	1.89	0.005	0.30	0.83	
Psychological	2	14.07	0.03	1.68	0.16	
Situational	3	6.42	0.01	1.02	0.38	

* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

* Independent Variable Blocks:

Demographic - age, educational attainment, race-ethnicity

Psychological - acceptance, parent satisfaction, flexibility, adjustment

Situational - marital status, mothers occupation, region

VITA

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Degrees Conferred

- 1994 Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Ed.D., Curriculum and Instruction
- 1982 Marymount College of Virginia M.Ed., Special Education
- 1958 Goucher College B.A., Education and Child Development

Professional Experience

- 1985-1994 Director of Gerard Majella Child Center Marymount University
- 1982-1994 Lecturer in Education Marymount University
- 1977-1985 Head Teacher and Kindergarten Teacher Gerard Majella Child Center Marymount University
- 1974-1978 Tutor and Tutor Coordinator Arlington County Public Schools, Arlington Virginia
- 1967-1976 Teacher, Christ United Methodist Preschool Arlington, Virginia
- 1958-1961 Teacher, grade 2, Alexandria Virginia, Public Schools

Professional Assignments

- 1982- 1994 Teacher Education Committee, Marymount University
- 1982-1994 Student Teacher Supervisor, Marymount University
- 1985-1994 Faculty Council, Marymount University
- 1993-1994 Safety Committee, Marymount University

- 1993 Producer of Training Video for graduate
Research Clinic/Practicum course
- 1993 Child Development Associate Representative,
Council for Early Childhood Professional
Recognition

Academic and Professional Organizations

- o Delta Epsilon Sigma Honorary Scholastic
Society
- o Phi Delta Kappa
- o National Association for the Education of
Young Children
- o Virginia Association for Early Childhood
Education
- o Northern Virginia Association for the
Education of Young Children
- o Learning Disabilities Association
- o Council for Exceptional Children
- o National Coalition for Campus Child Care
- o Association for Supervision and Curriculum
Development
- o Music Educators National Conference
- o National Council for the Social Studies
- o International Reading Association
- o Virginia State Reading Association
- o Greater Washington Reading Council

Presentations

- 1993 Workshop, How to Do Music and Not Know
Anything About It, Virginia Association for
Early Childhood Education Annual Conference

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July 29, 1994