Parents' Goals and Practices: To What Extent do Parental Goals for Socialization Relate to Their Practices?

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between a parents' goals for their children and their parenting behaviors. An ecological framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1990) provides the primary theoretical basis for the study, locating the relationship between parent goals and parent practices within a network of other influences on parenting practices, such as family income, ethnicity, parent educational level, and the degree of similarity in temperament between parent and child. Three different types of parental goals were investigated, using the Parenting Goals Questionnaire (Martin, Halverson, & Hollett-Wright, 1991); achievement, independence, and respect for parents. These goals were relevant to subscales of the Child Rearing Practices Questionnaire (Block, 1986). Results indicated partial support for a relationship between parenting goals and parenting practices. The hypothesized link was found for independence-oriented goals and practices, and for traditional goals and authoritarian behavior, but not for traditional goals and parental encouragement of emotional expression.

DEDICATION

This project, and my Ph.D., are dedicated to my Dad (1936-1998). His was the example that showed me the joy of learning, and he taught me the stubbornness I needed to make this work happen. I wish he could have been here to share this with me.

It's a bit later than we wanted, but I did it, Dad, and it's all for you!

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Chapter I: Introduction

Teaching without goals is "like taking a trip without knowing where you are headed" (Fields & Boesser, 1994). Parenting, like teaching, requires goals. Once a parent decides on a destination, or goal, he or she can then figure out the route, or parent practice, that will lead the child to that destination. If, however, the goal is implicit, the parent's practices may not lead to the desired destination, but will lead to a destination.

Research indicates that parental goals will play a role in the way in which a parent acts toward his or her children (Ellis & Petersen, 1992; Kohn, 1977). In other words, the destination does affect the route chosen. Parents act within a multitude of influences, which, can affect themselves, their children, and the relationships between themselves and between themselves and their children (Bronfenbrenner, 1990). For instance, the presence of a second adult who can assist the primary caregiver is associated with a considerable benefit to the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1990).

The above view of parenting describes parents as active constructors of their environment. Few models of parenting take the parent's perspective into account (LeVine, 1988). Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework (1979, 1986, 1990), however, posits as a central tenet that parents actively operate to create the environment that will allow for the best outcomes, using the benefits and constraints of their ecological niche.

The form that optimal environment takes is chosen by the parent(s). Differing parental perspectives and differences in the family ecology make it likely that parents' will choose different "best" outcomes for their children, and those different outcomes are likely to require different environments. For instance, parents who live in agrarian societies may define their children's "best" outcome as staying at home and working on the farm (LeVine & LeVine, 1988). These parents are likely to socialize their children to be obedient and compliant, in order to ensure that they remain (Ellis & Petersen, 1992). In similar fashion, parents whose economic success depends on initiative and independence see these characteristics as optimal, and tend to use socialization techniques they believe will inculcate these characteristics (Petersen, Godfrey, & Ellis, 1982). Examining parenting goals is a means of bringing parental priorities into models of parenting.

An ecological perspective provides a reasonable framework for parenting research. First, a basic tenet of an ecological perspective is that people are active agents in their environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Second, it emphasizes the multidetermined nature of phenomena such as parenting (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Lerner, 1995). Third, it allows parenting to be situated amid the many contexts that may influence it (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Many factors may influence parenting behavior other than parental goals. These influences include some of the following: the family's income, the levels of parental education, the kind of jobs the parents hold, the "goodness-of-fit" between the

personalities of parents and child, and the family's cultural or ethnic background. These factors must be taken into account in selecting relevant variables.

To further complicate matters, the above factors may also influence the formation of parenting goals themselves. Robert and Sarah LeVine's (1988) work among the Gusii of Kenya indicates how changing social contexts can influence parents' goals. As the Gusii moved from an agrarian society to a more urbanized one, parents began sending their children to school more often and for longer periods of time in order to take advantage of what were seen as the best economic opportunities available. While sending children to school reduced both parent's traditional control over their children and child labor availability, Gusii parents preferred the perceived long-term benefits of better jobs and higher income.

Parenting Practices Research

Few, if any, studies of parenting practices have considered parent goals when designing outcome measures (e.g. Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992; Steinberg et al. 1994). However, if parents' goals are important influences on their practices, then those goals should be taken into account when designing measures of outcomes. Taking into account the parents' goals for socialization of the child is necessary in order to understand how certain parenting practices are used and would allow for greater understanding of parental perceptions of child outcomes.

Theoretical Basis

Many factors external to the family influence parenting, so investigation of parenting must take these factors into account. Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1986) ecological framework of human development provides a model to help identify and explain the factors that may influence parenting, from society's rules and laws to parental characteristics. Within this framework, the various influences are modeled into four overall systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). These four systems are termed the macrosystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and microsystem. In later work, a fifth system, the chronosystem, was added (e.g. Bronfenbrenner, 1986) These systems are nested, interconnected, and influence each other in a transactional fashion. Changes in one system can have far reaching changes in another system or systems, which then can have an effect on the original system, thus changing it again. This effect can be seen in the changes in the family system when the couple has a child, and the marital dyad becomes only one system within the family (Russell & Russell, 1994).

Within the five systems researchers have investigated a number of influences on parenting goals and practices including ethnicity, family income, parental education, and the temperamental goodness-of-fit between parent and child (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Chao, 1994; Goldsmith, Bradshaw, & Rieser-Danner, 1986; Hashima & Amato, 1994; Kelley, Power, & Wimbush, 1992; McAdoo, 1985-86). One factor that has been given little attention, however, is the degree to which parenting goals for

socialization influence parenting practices. In terms of Bronfenbrenner's model, this would be a microsystem effect, though influences within all of the systems may have effects on parenting goals.

Practicality requires that a researcher choose among the possible influences on goals and practices. In this research, the influences to be investigated are the following: ethnicity, family income, parental education, and the temperamental goodness-of-fit between parent and child. The latter influence will be represented by an index of temperamental difficulty between parent and child.

A parent's goals for socialization may also influence whether or not a parent will accept a parenting program or intervention. If the parenting program is designed to teach the value of the autonomy and independence of children, it would likely be ineffective among those who value familial interdependence, such as the Chinese (Stevenson, Chen, & Lee, 1992), the Japanese (Fogel, Stevenson, & Messinger, 1992), and at least in certain cases, Italians and Italian-Americans (Rubin, 1994). Those promoting parenting programs and interventions will need to spend more time convincing parents of the value of those programs in order to be accepted. In addition, the construct of goals could be used to explore cultural differences in parenting practices without invoking cultural deficit models. In other words, differences in practices would be attributable to differences in goals rather than "deficits" in the cultural context of child-rearing.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this research is to: 1) examine the relationship, if any, between parenting goals and parenting practices, and 2) describe the nature of the above relationship. If there is a relationship between goals and practices, then studies of parenting outcomes will need to take into account parental goals. Further, designers of programs to teach parenting skills will need to take goals into account so that they can connect with parents. This study will investigate the relationship between parental goals and parental practices, taking into account some of the many other factors that can affect parental practices. Figure 1 describes the conceptual organization of relationships that will be used in this research.

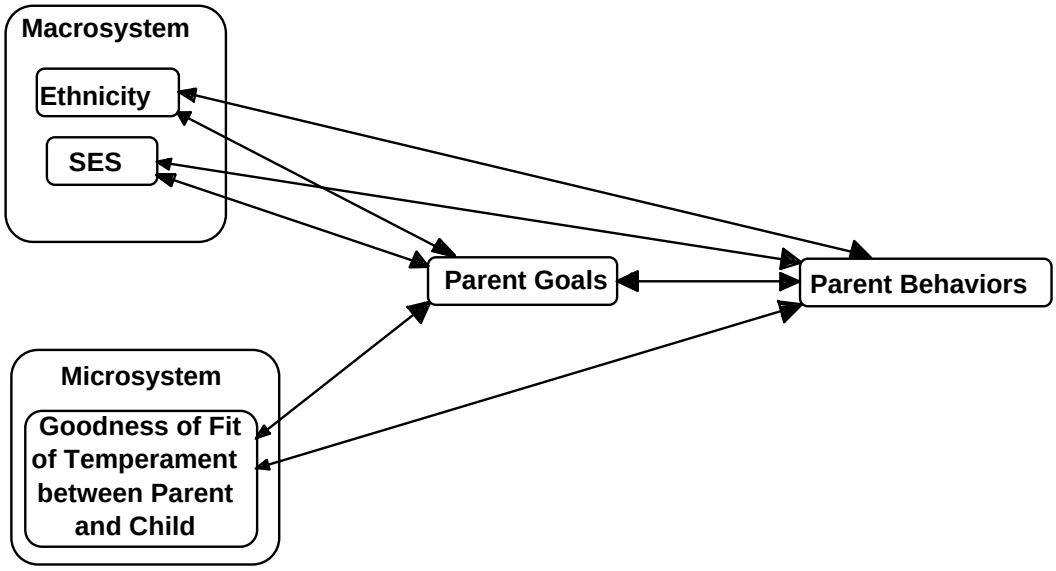

Figure 1: Relationships between background variables, parenting goals, and parenting behaviors.

Research Questions

The specific research questions are the following:

1. Is there a relationship between parenting goals for socialization and socialization practices, after controlling for other possible effects as described in the model?

2. What is the relationship between parenting goals for socialization and socialization practices within each domain of parenting goals?

Operational Definitions

Ethnicity is extremely difficult to define. Many researchers define ethnicity in terms of familial origins (e.g., Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990; Kohn, 1977; Santrock, 1995; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1992;

Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). This definition is too simple to be fully comprehensive, but since it is a widely used operational definition, it is useful for the present study.

Parenting behaviors, or practices, are defined as any behavior in which parents engage in order to socialize their child. For example, using the discipline technique of "logical consequences" (Bavolek, 1988) is a parenting practice.

Parenting goals are defined as the characteristics parents' desire to inculcate in their children (Kohn, 1977).

Socio-Economic Status (SES) is defined as "the position, or level of an individual or group on the socioeconomic scale" (Goldenson, 1984, p. 351). Two components of SES will be measured in this study: family income, and parent's education. Family income is defined as the total yearly income of the family, including wages, interest, government benefits such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children, and investments (Hashima & Amato, 1994). Parent's education is defined as the highest level of education, in years, attained by each parent.

Temperament is defined as "constitutionally based individual differences in emotional, motor, and attentional reactivity and self regulation" (Rothbart & Bates, 1998, p. 109) For the purposes of this research, temperament will be represented by scores on the Dimensions of Temperament Survey- Revised (DOTS-R; Windle & Lerner, 1986). The adult version of the DOTS-R will be used for parents, and the child self-report version will be used for the children.

Chapter II: Review of Literature

Theoretical Overview

Melvin Kohn (1977,1986) has been one of the seminal researchers in the area of parenting goals. He has investigated the role of specific aspects of social class on the formation of parental goals. In a study that examined the relationship between parental goals and parental responses to child misbehavior, Kohn (1977) posited a direct relationship from parental goals to parental behaviors. In an extension of Kohn's work, Petersen, Lee, and Ellis (1982) theorized that parents who held a particular goal for their child used particular techniques because they believed the technique would inculcate the desired goal in the child. Parents who valued obedience used coercive controls instead of induction because they believed that coercion was better in inculcating obedience. The findings of the Petersen et al. (1982) study supported these hypotheses. The present study will follow these researchers and posit a direct relationship between goals and behavior. In terms of an ecological perspective, this relationship occurs within the microsystem.

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological framework will now be described, as it is to provide the primary theoretical framework in which the present study will be located.

There are four systems in Bronfenbrenner's (1979) conceptualization of the ecological framework. These systems are the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. In his later work, a new system, the chronosystem, has been added (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). This later conceptualization will be used

hereafter.

The chronosystem takes into account changes that occur over time within the person and within the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). This system examines the effects on the family of both changes over time within the members, such as aging, and changes in the environment that affect the family system as a whole, e.g. job loss.

The macrosystem refers to broad consistencies in ideology and belief systems across a given culture or subculture, as well as consistencies among the microsystems and exosystems that make up the macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Beliefs in democracy, and the value of individuality would be considered elements of the macrosystem in the United States, and these beliefs have an impact on the structure and practices of the family. For instance, it could be said that the great value placed on individuality by the macrosystem leads parents to raise their children to be more focused on the individual than otherwise would be the case. This is the level of public policy, and the national government (Peters & Kontos, 1988). Changes at the level of the macrosystem can provide energy for change in the lower-order systems.

The next system in Bronfenbrenner's model deals with issues that are, in a sense, closer to the family. This system, the exosystem, includes the most immediate social settings in which each family member participates (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). A qualification to that definition is that a setting must have only one family member participating primarily. Examples of the

exosystem are the following: work, church/synagogue/mosque, school, day care, and the Boy Scouts. Each of these settings can and does interact with each other, as well as with systems in both the macro- and microsystems.

The mesosystem consists in those interactions between systems in which the focal person, in this case the child, actively participates (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The interrelations between school or preschool and home are a prototypical example. The mesosystem is a "system of microsystems" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.25).

The innermost level of the framework is the microsystem, which is defined as, "the pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations expressed by the developing person in a given setting..." (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.22). This is the level of the family, from the perspective of the members of the family. Based on the definition, however, all of the above mentioned mesosystems are also microsystems from the perspective of the family members who participate in those systems. For instance, the Boy Scouts are a mesosystem for the family, but are a microsystem from the perspective of the participating child.

Richard Lerner and his colleagues (Lerner, Castellino, Terry, Villarruel, & McKinney; 1995) have elaborated further on the parent-child relationship within the microsystem, as well as on the relationship between external systems and the family. According to Lerner and colleagues, parent and child have a bi-directional relationship in which various aspects of both parent and child may influence the course of development. Lerner et al.

list the following characteristics of each individual: cognition, personality, temperament, behavior, values, attitudes, expectations, health, developmental level, biology, and "etc." The "etc." category is intended as an indicator that other characteristics are also involved. Lerner's model shows some of the major influences to be taken into account if the relationship between parenting goals and parenting behaviors is to be examined.

Two of the five systems are most relevant to the present study, the macrosystem and the microsystem. These systems contain the influences that will be examined in this research. The other systems do influence parenting, but in a different fashion than the issues examined in this study. For instance, the chronosystem locates this study in these particular times, and restricts the degree to which it may be valid for other time periods, but does not have an influence on validity in this time period. The two systems most relevant to this research will be presented in turn along with findings on their relative influences on parenting.

Empirical Evidence

Parenting Goals

There is little research on the relationship between parenting goals and parenting practices. Further, parenting goals tend to not be defined well, perhaps because some authors look at goals in terms of long-term objectives, while others look at goals in terms of short-term objectives. For instance, Kelley and Tseng (1992) used a measure of parenting goals as part of their study, and reported their results, but the construct of "goals"

was never defined in their study. Their results, that Chinese-American and Caucasian-American mothers had similar goals, are given two sentences in the discussion section. Martin, Halverson, Wampler, and Hollett-Wright (1991) informally defined a goal as a short term objective; goals, for them, change over the development of the child.

Other issues to be considered are the degree of implicitness or explicitness of parenting goals and the question of whose goals are being examined. The degree of implicitness refers to the degree to which parents have discussed or elaborated their goals. Goals may be elaborated to different degrees, both for a given parent and between the two parents, and between parent and child. Different parents may also have different goals. The typical- at least in popular myth (see Coontz, 1992)- American family structure, in which the mother is primary caregiver, dictates a different relationship between the child and each parent (Mebert, 1991). As a result of this different relationship this research will investigate maternal and paternal goals separately. The issue of implicitness will be assessed by means of open-ended questions.

Research on parent goals comes from anthropological studies and sociology. In the former area of research, Robert A. LeVine (1974; 1988) has constructed a model of parenting goals. The latter thread of research is that conducted by Melvin Kohn (1963; 1977). Kohn has investigated the role of social class in the formation of parenting goals. Each of these research programs will be discussed in turn.

LeVine (1974; 1988) made the point that existing models of child rearing excluded the parents perspectives on child rearing behavior. He asked, "What do parents want?" with regard to their children, and indicated that survival, health and success could be considered universal desires on the part of parents.

"Success," however is culturally defined, and would vary based on two factors- the local cultural definition, and parents' perspectives of the risks and benefits of the environment. The parent evaluates the current environment and modifies traditional methods of child rearing as needed. For instance, LeVine and LeVine (1988) describe how, by 1974, the Gusii of Kenya were sending their children to school and to the university instead of keeping them to work the family land. Gusii parents, according to LeVine and LeVine, saw education as the means to economic success and were willing to sacrifice the loss of labor and control over their children in order for them to become better educated.

Melvin Kohn (1963; 1977) has investigated the role of social class in the formation of parenting goals. Using national samples, he found that parent's values closely paralleled characteristics of the father's work environment. Fathers who worked in white-collar occupations, where independence and initiative were valued, valued independence and initiative in their children. Working-class fathers valued conformity and obedience in their children, and again, these were the characteristics valued in their work.

Four studies have also examined the relationship between parents' goals and their behaviors toward their children. The

first study, Kohn (1977), is a small part of a larger study of the formation of values. The next two studies (Ellis & Petersen, 1992; Petersen et al. 1982) extend Kohn's work and will be discussed together. The last study, Luster, Rhoades, and Haas (1989) is a test of the Kohn hypothesis. Each will be described in turn.

Kohn's (1977) work indicated that, as goals differed, so did behavior, at least for mothers. There were too few fathers in the sample to allow for confident analysis, so Kohn focused on mothers. The sample consisted of 339 mothers and 82 fathers from Washington, DC. Mothers who valued self-control highly were more likely to punish children for loss of temper, while mothers who valued "consideration" were more likely to punish children for fighting with peers.

Both Petersen et al. (1982) and Ellis and Petersen (1992) used pre-existing cross-national samples to investigate the relationship between parenting goals and parenting control practices. Petersen et al. (1982) used the Standard Cross-Cultural Sample (SCS), which contains data on 186 societies at "all levels of economic development and from all the geographical and cultural regions of the world (Ellis & Petersen, 1992)." Ellis and Petersen (1992) used the SCS, and drew one "independent variable" from the Human Relations Area Files (HRAF) and four variables from a "new data set coded for the SCS" (p.44).

Both studies (Ellis & Petersen, 1992; Petersen et al. 1982) found a link between parental goals and parent behaviors, though the results must be interpreted as general trends, since the data

were collected at the level of the culture. Petersen et al. (1982) found that the behaviors that were successful for parents in their roles were also valued by parents in children, with regard to conforming to external rules or exercising autonomy. Depending on the valuation of conformity versus autonomy, parental discipline techniques inculcated one value over the other. Ellis and Petersen (1992) replicated the earlier study, and found that valuation of conformity was positively related to greater use of corporal punishment. Quoss (1988), however, did not find a relationship between parental values and discipline method; rather, parents who valued conformity made more attempts at controlling their children, and moved more quickly from more inductive methods (discussion, reasoning) to more coercive ones (shaming, love withdrawal). However, the design of the above study focused on the progression of attempts at control. The measure used in the Quoss (1988) study used a "steps" model, asking parents how quickly they moved from one response to child behavior to another, which would tend to shape responses toward the above trend and away from the kind of "typical" response given in other studies. Overall, these studies support the hypothesis that parent goals influence their practices.

Luster and his colleagues (1989) followed up on Kohn's hypothesis with 65 mother-infant pairs in upstate New York. Their results supported the Kohn hypothesis; mothers who valued child conformity tended to use more physical punishment, and they restrained their child's actions more often during the interview period. They also tended to put greater emphasis on enforcing

rules as a means of controlling child behaviors than did mothers who valued self-direction. Mothers who valued self-direction used more supportive behavior to facilitate desired behaviors.

There are some limitations to the previous research, however. Kohn (1977), and Ellis and Petersen (1992) and Petersen et al. (1982), studied only responses to misbehavior, which is only a part of parental behavior toward the child. Also, Ellis and Petersen (1992), in a review of the literature, found that " most of the intra-societal studies mentioned ... have found that any class differences in the use of specific control methods are modest" (p. 43). This review indicates the need for a broader look at the relationship between goals and behavior. The Luster et al. (1989) study had problems in two areas: sampling, and measurement. The sample was small (n=65) and homogeneous. Ninety-five percent of participants were white, 60% were not employed outside the home, and median income was in the $11,001 to $14,000 category. Mean occupation prestige ratings indicated that the average father had a blue-collar job, such as automobile mechanic. Mean prestige scores indicated that the mothers who worked, or reported their occupation before having the child, (n=42) had occupations such as receptionist. The primary measurement problem was the use of a rank-order measure in statistical testing. Kerlinger (1986) indicates that rank-order measures are inappropriate for use with statistical testing, as the ranking procedure violates the assumption of independence. These limitations indicate the need for further research in this area.

Research on the Level of the Macrosystem

The macrosystem refers to broad consistencies in ideology and belief systems across the societal level (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Beliefs in democracy, and the value of individuality would be considered elements of the macrosystem in the United States, and have an impact on the structure and practices of the family. Parenting research on the level of the macrosystem has focused on ethnic and SES differences. First, research on ethnicity and parenting, and then research on SES and parenting will be presented.

Ethnicity and Parenting

Hashima and Amato (1994), using data from the National Survey of Families and Households (NSF&H), found two effects regarding ethnicity. First, Hispanic parents were less likely than Caucasian or African-American parents to report being punitive. Second, African-American and Hispanic parents were more likely than Caucasian parents to report being unsupportive of their children. The authors of this study suggested that these differences may have come as a result of either their status as ethnic minorities or ethnic differences in child rearing. In either case, the causal factor can be seen as ethnicity, since ethnicity and minority status are inextricably linked.

African-American mothers, in a different sample from the National Survey of Families and Households (NSF&H) and controlling for SES differences, placed greater emphasis on

independence and temper control than Hispanic-American, Asian-American, or Caucasian-American parents (Julian, McKenry, & McKelvey, 1994). This study also found that African-American parents also place greater importance on obedience and getting along with others than the Asian- or Caucasian-American parents (Julian et al. 1994).

There are some differences between Hispanic-Americans and other ethnic groups on parenting, as well. Hispanic-American parents, like African-American parents, stress getting along with others more than Asian- or Caucasian-American parents (Julian et al. 1994). Hispanic fathers considered "controlling temper" to be more important than did Caucasian fathers or mothers.

There is an extensive literature on the differences between Asian-American parenting and that of other ethnic groups. According to research, Asian-American parents place greater emphasis on self-control and school achievement than other groups (Julian et al. 1994). Also, Chinese-American mothers tend to score higher on measures of physical punishment and yelling at the child than do Caucasian-American parents (Kelley & Tseng, 1992). However, there is also evidence that Chinese-American parents and other Asian-American parents perceive child-rearing as more of a process of "training children in the appropriate behaviors" (Chao, 1994, p. 1113) as defined by the culture. An essential part of this idea is children doing well in school and adhering to socially desirable behavior (Chao, 1994; Kelley & Tseng, 1992). In other words, Asian-American parents follow a style of parenting that differs in basic philosophy from any of

the other groups. The greater emphasis on punishment is an expression of that philosophy, and does not appear to have the deleterious effects that punishment has on the school performance of children in other ethnic groups.

SES and Parenting

Socioeconomic Status (SES), or social class as it is often termed, is another important area of research at the level of the macrosystem. Following Kohn, Slomcyznski, and Schoenbach (1986) and Luster et al. (1989), two components of SES will be described and used as the index of SES for this study. The two aspects of SES are the following: family income, and parents' education. Further, some of the issues surrounding SES will be briefly discussed, such as the definition of SES as opposed to social class, and the measurement of SES. These issues will be discussed, and research relevant to the two aspects will then be discussed.

Issues of SES and Social Class

Social class and SES are often used interchangeably (Hoff-Ginsberg & Tardif, 1995). The two constructs are not precisely alike however. "Social class" implies "discreet categories of people who are similar in their levels of income, education, occupational status, housing, and lineage" (Hoff-Ginsberg & Tardif, 1995, p. 166). SES, on the other hand, implies a more continuous variable which does not include data on housing, ethnicity, or religious membership. Given this description, the

variable in question in the parenting goals literature is SES (e.g.: Kohn et al. 1986; Luster et al., 1989) and the term "SES" will be used hereafter.

The parenting literature has used many different methods of measuring SES. This multiplicity of measures has hampered the progress of understanding the relation between SES and parenting (Hoff-Ginsberg & Tardif, 1995). Research on parenting goals has found different utility among the indicators of SES. Kohn (1969, 1977) found that education and occupational prestige were the best indicators of SES, while Wright and Wright (1976), using the 1973 NORC dataset, found the SES effect to be explained primarily by education. A study of the parents of 100 children in Australia also found education to have the primary effect on parent goals, rather than occupational status (Cashmore & Goodnow, 1986). Alwin (1984), in a study of changes in parenting goals from 1958 to 1983, indicated that "the socioeconomic factors- education, occupation, and income- are on the whole more strongly related to parental values than are factors describing family structure and composition" (p. 370), occupation appeared to decline in relative importance over time. Schaefer and Edgerton (1985), in a series of three large-scale studies involving mothers of kindergartners, found significant relationships between both education and income and parental values. No measure of occupational status was included, so no comparisons are possible. Luster et al. (1989), in a study of 65 mothers and their infants, found a stronger relationship for occupational status than for education or income, but only for mothers. Father's occupational status was

virtually unrelated to maternal goals. In contrast, Kohn (1977) found that father's occupational status was the strongest predictor of parental goals for both parents. However, the measure of mother's occupational status in the Luster et al. study was biased, because only 40% (26) of the mothers were working outside the home at the time of the study, and work inside the home was not considered an occupation for this analysis. However, there are occupational status data for 65% (42) of the mothers. The authors of the study offer no comment on this discrepancy; one can only surmise that most of the mothers reported their occupation prior to having the child. The explanation for the effect of occupational status has to do with the degree of supervision and routinization of the job; it is unclear how values shaped in a job would carry over into the job of raising a child. This change makes the Luster et al. data very difficult to interpret, at least without more information on those mothers who reported an occupational status. The general consensus of the above studies is that the effect of SES is carried by education and income. Therefore, these two indicators will be used in this study.

Family Income and Parenting

The general consensus of the research on family income is that low income families are subject to greater stresses that result in less effective parenting and poor outcomes for children (Garbarino, 1995). Hashima and Amato (1994), using a sample based on the National Survey of Families and Households, found that low

income, particularly with low perceived social support, is associated with more punitive and unsupportive behavior.

Parental Education and Parenting

Education can change a person's outlook on life, and it is no surprise that education would change one's parenting as well. A study of the 1973 National Opinion Research Center(NORC) General Social Survey (n = 1504) found that educational attainment accounted for the majority of the roughly 26% of the variance explained by "social class;" in this case "social class" is occupational prestige and education (Wright & Wright, 1976). Borduin and Henggeler (1981) found that differences in mothers' use of commands and questions were better predicted by their scores on the Weschler Adult Intelligence Scale and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test than by SES. Their argument was that maternal education was the "real" variable explaining SES differences in parenting. These data indicate that education needs to be taken into account when determining influences on parenting behavior.

Parental Occupation and Parenting

Kohn (1969, 1977) has found that parental occupation, specifically the degree to which a worker is self-directed at work has a powerful effect on parenting goals, and that this influence extended to parental responses to children's misbehavior (1977). Similarly, Greenberger, O'Neil, and Nagel (1994) found that as parents' work became more complex and

challenging, their disciplinary practices became less harsh, even after controlling for education.

Research on the Level of the Microsystem

The innermost level of Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework is the microsystem, which is defined as, "the pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations expressed by the developing person in a given setting..." (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.22). The important microsystem, from a parenting perspective, is the home. Investigators have examined three relevant aspects of parenting from within the microsystem, temperament, parenting practices, and parenting goals. A sample of research in each of these areas will be presented.

Temperament

Temperament is generally considered to refer to biologically based individual differences in personality (Rothbart & Bates, 1998). Temperament traits are assumed to be fairly stable influences on behavior (Goldsmith, Bradshaw, & Rieser-Danner, 1986). In terms of parenting, the constellation Chess and Thomas termed "difficult" is likely to provoke the greatest difficulty, as these individuals do not adapt to new situations very well, have negative responses to new events, are irregular in biological rhythms, and are emotionally intense. On the other hand, the temperament cluster labeled "easy" refers to children who are "easy" to take care of; they adapt to change easily, have positive responses to novel events, are regular in their rhythms,

and tend to be more calm. Given that temperament is a persistent characteristic, it refers to both parents and children.

Temperamental behaviors do not occur in isolation, however, and the concept of "goodness of fit" (Chess & Thomas, 1996) is one means of accounting for the external environment. "Goodness of fit" refers to the degree to which the capacities of the organism are in accord with the demands of the environment. In the case of parenting one can see that the parent; or from the other perspective, the child; as forming part of those demands. In other words, the parent's need for the child to be quiet is part of the demands made by the child's environment on him or her, just as the child's need for activity is a demand made on the parent. If neither partner has a difficult temperament, the probability of conflict seems to be minimized. If one partner has an easy temperament and the other partner a difficult temperament, the adaptability and relative calm of the person with the easy temperament may mollify the situation somewhat, however, if both parent and child have difficult temperaments, the greatest chance of conflict occurs (C.S. Rogers, personal communication, June 15, 1998). Both Jay Belsky's (1984) model of parenting and Richard Lerner's (1995) Developmental Contextualism posit a linkage between temperamental goodness-of-fit and parenting, but there is, as yet, no empirical corroboration of this idea. Given the theoretical strength of the idea, however, a measure of the similarity of parent and child temperament will be used in this study.

Parenting practices are complex. Darling and Steinberg

(1993) have advanced a conceptualization that practices, or specific parenting behaviors, are independent of parenting style. They propose that parenting style is a context that moderates the effects of practices. These practices can best be seen as operating in short-term, more focused areas of socialization, such as cooperation with parents, academic performance and acceptance by peers (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). To test this perspective, parenting practices should be assessed in tandem with measures of parenting style. The measures of style should not operationalize parenting style in terms of constellations of parenting practices, in order to avoid confounding the two constructs. In accordance with Darling and Steinberg (1993), and the criticisms of parenting style from the perspectives of other cultures, this research will not utilize the construct of parenting style. Rather, the project will focus on parenting behaviors.

Summary

Parenting goals can be seen as the cognitive component of the process of parenting. Examining goals in this fashion would provide information about the choices that parents make, rather than just describing more about the factors that determine parenting behavior. This perspective incorporates parents as active participants in the process of parenting, an important aspect of systems theory that has not been discussed previously in parenting research. A study of the congruence of parenting goals with parenting behaviors would also provide a more

culturally sensitive means of examining the process of parenting, because the analysis can then operate only at the level of the individual. Comparisons of goals within cultural groups may also provide information about the relative importance of certain outcomes for each group; "deficits" in school performance for one group could then be seen as an expression of the relative lack of importance assigned to that outcome. Finally, comparisons of goals across ethnic groups may provide information about the prevalence of certain outcomes across those same ethnic groups.

Hypotheses

1. The background variables, education, ethnicity, income, and temperament, will have stronger relationships with parenting goals than with parenting behaviors, as in Ellis and Petersen (1992).
2. Parental valuation of achievement-oriented goals will predict achievement-oriented parenting behavior.
3. Parental valuation of child independence will predict parental behavior fostering independence.
4. Parental valuation of traditional goals, such as respect for parents, will be positively related to a high degree of controlling behavior.
5. Parental valuation of traditional goals will be negatively related to openness of emotional expression.
6. The above hypotheses are expected to hold for both mothers and for fathers.

Chapter III: Method

This study will investigate the degree of congruence between a parent's goals for his or her children and his or her parenting behaviors. Each parent's goals and behaviors will be analyzed separately.

Participants

The participants were the parents of 448 fifth-grade school students gathered from the Pittsylvania County, Virginia school system. This number represents all of the fifth-grade students in this school system. Their participation was requested through an introductory letter explaining the study and a questionnaire packet sent home with each child. A copy of the introductory letter can be found in Appendix A.

Ninety-three families gave complete, usable responses to the questionnaire; a response rate of approximately 21%. This response rate was much lower than desired, but sufficient.

Procedure

Questionnaire packets were presented to the children and distributed at a time convenient to the teachers. This writer gave instructions to the children for them to take the packet home to their parents, and requested their assistance in the project. The introductory letter explained the study and request parental assistance. Informed consent forms, for both parent and child, were included in the packet. Copies of the informed consent forms can be found in Appendix B.

Instructions for completing the survey were provided in the

packet. A copy of the instructions can be found in Appendix C. Parents were requested to complete the questionnaires separately, and return the packet to the child's teacher. If more than one child resided in the home, parents were asked to confine their responses to the focal fifth-grader. One follow-up letter was sent to all participants, via the fifth-grader, requesting the return of the packet and providing an incentive; a random drawing for one of three United States Savings Bonds. Two $50 and one $100 Savings Bonds were awarded. The drawing was open to all participants. Registration sheets for the drawing were included in the follow-up letter, and did not require any information which could connect the registration with participant data. This letter garnered approximately 10 responses. New packets were made available at the schools for those who had lost their packet since the initial distribution. One possible reason for the low response rate was that the schools had a week-long break between the initial distribution of packets and the distribution of the follow-up letter. This time lag may have resulted in parent's losing interest in the project.

All Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Human Subjects Committee guidelines were upheld in this research.

Measures

Child Rearing Practices Report

The measure assessing parenting behaviors was the Child Rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1965, 1986). This measure

uses separate forms for each parent utilizing a Q-sort methodology. The CRPR was derived from empirical observation of mothers' interactions with their children in structured experimental settings, a review of the socialization literature, and from a series of discussions with professionals in psychology in several European countries (Block, 1986). The CRPR has been used for more than 30 years, and was updated in 1986. A copy of this measure can be found in Appendix D.

Factor analysis was used to derive 21 subscales (Block, 1986). These subscales are the following: encouraging openness of expression, suppression of sex, emphasis on achievement, parental worry about child, parental inconsistency, authoritarian control, supervision of child, negative affect toward child, open expression of affect, encouraging independence, enjoyment of parental role, rational guiding of child, control by anxiety induction, control by guilt induction, health orientation, emphasis on early training, over-investment in child, parental maintenance of separate lives, protectiveness of child, orientation to non-punitive punishment, and suppression of aggression. Four subscales of the CRPR will be used in this research- parental control, emphasis on achievement, encouraging openness of expression, and encouragement of independence. These subscales were chosen based on their similarity to subscales of the Parenting Goals Questionnaire (Nickel & Ungulenck, 1982).

The CRPR has appropriate reliability. Test-retest reliability has been fairly strong; Block (1975) reports an average correlation of 0.707 over an eight-month period with 90

"young people" in a child development course. Two studies of test-retest reliability with parents report reliabilities of .64 and .65, based on the combined scores of both parents (Block, 1986). Construct validity was assessed by observing the relationship between self-reported behaviors on the CRPR and behaviors in a structured laboratory setting with 76 mothers. A significant relationship was found between self-report data and observed behavior (Block, 1986).

For this study, however, a Likert methodology was used. According to Kerlinger (1986), Q methods have four primary disadvantages. First, it is inappropriate for use with cross-sectional designs or large samples. Second, and more serious, is that Q methods violate the independence assumption necessary for statistical testing. The placement of each Q card affects the placement of each other Q card, which means that the Q cards are not independent of each other. Forced-choice is the third disadvantage of Q-sorts. Kerlinger indicates that the forced-choice nature of Q-sorts is unnatural and makes participants conform to "an unreasonable requirement" (p.519). Fourth, information on the elevation and scatter of respondents' data can be lost. For example, two respondents may correlate highly on a Q-sort because their profiles are similar, but one may be high on a scale and the other low on the scale. Further, Rickel and Biasatti (1982) found that reliability of the CRPR was not hindered by the use of a six-point Likert scale rather than the Q methodology.

Parenting Goals Questionnaire

The Parenting Goals Questionnaire (Nickel & Ungulenck, 1982) assessed parenting goals. The measure includes three subscales: "Social Adjustment," "Traditional Values," and "Personal Success." Scores on the Social Adjustment subscales reflect either a desire for the child to be obedient and orderly or a desire for the child to ask questions and use his or her own judgment (Martin, Halverson, Wampler, & Hollett-Wright, 1991). The Traditional Values subscale reflects parental goals such as "keeping family values" and respect for parents (Martin et al. 1991). The Personal Success subscale indicates the importance accorded to the child's assertiveness and competitiveness (Martin et al. 1991). Chronbach's Alpha for the scales ranged from .51 to .87 (Martin et al. 1991). The PGQ was developed in Germany, and translated and validated for use in the United States by Peter Martin and his colleagues (1991). First, the measure was translated from German to English and then re-translated from English to German. Then raters compared the congruence between the original items and the items after the back-translation. Raters found very high "semantic congruence," with one rater finding 100 percent congruence and the other finding 96% congruence. This procedure is essentially similar to the re-translation procedure endorsed by Brislin (1980) for cross-national research. A copy of this measure can be found in Appendix D.

Confirmatory factor analysis was also used to confirm the factor structure of the PGQ for U.S. samples (Martin et al.

1991). Martin and his colleagues used a factor loading of .3 or above was used as the cutoff. Eight out of eleven items on the Social Adjustment subscale replicated the original German data, while all items on the other two subscales replicated.

This researcher believes that the Social Adjustment subscale is really measuring two constructs. This conclusion is based on the relatively low Chronbach's Alpha (.51) of the subscale, and on an analysis of the items making up the scale. For instance, the scale includes items that indicate that a child should obey her or his parents, and that a child should question rules. It appears that the scale is attempting to measure values of conformity and independence. The entire subscale was used in data gathering. The subscale was revised based on factor analysis of the data.

A question assessing the degree to which parents had articulated their goals was also used. This question asked parents to indicate the degree to which they had thought about their goals for their children prior to this research. This question was analyzed qualitatively. These data were used to inform interpretations of the findings.

Dimensions of Temperament Survey- Revised

Both parent and child temperament will be assessed using the Dimensions of Temperament Survey- Revised (DOTS-R; Windle & Lerner, 1986). This questionnaire has 54 items. The DOTS-R was selected for three reasons. First, it is designed for use with people across the lifespan, so the measure is equivalent for both

the children and their parents. Second, the measure has adequate reliability and validity. Third, it is a short measure, and will minimize the demand on parents' time. Copies of both versions can be found in Appendix D.

There are three versions of the DOTS-R; one for adults, one for parents or other caregivers to complete about children, and one for children to complete by themselves (Windle & Lerner, 1986). The latter form, the DOTS-R Child (Self), is designed for use by children ranging in age "from the late elementary school age level through the high school years" (Windle & Lerner, 1985, p.1). Items on both versions used in this research, the DOTS-R Adult and DOTS-R Child (Self), are the same and there are "minor variations" in the instructions (p.1). Nine subscales are used in the DOTS-R Child (Self), while the Adult version has ten. One subscale on the child version, Task Orientation, differentiates into two subscales on the adult version, Distractibility and Persistence. The Task Orientation attribute includes both Distractibility and Persistence for the child version. No explanation is given for this division. The subscales common to both versions are the following: Activity-General, Activity-Sleep, Approach/Withdrawal, Flexibility/Rigidity, Mood, Rhythmicity-Sleep, Rhythmicity-Eating, and Rhythmicity-Daily Habits.

Reliabilities for each subscale are adequate. For the adult version, the authors report Chronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients from .62 to .89 with an n of 300 (Windle & Lerner, 1986). The authors report reliabilities ranging from .54 to .81

for the self-administered child version, with an n of 224.

Validity of the DOTS-R is also appropriate. In a study of early and late adolescents (141 sixth-graders and 240 college undergraduates), the DOTS-R was found to correlate in predicted ways with the Perceived Competence Scale (PCS) and Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D) (Windle, Hooker, Lenerz, East, Lerner, & Lerner, 1986). The PCS is a measure constructed by Susan Harter (1982) to assess competence, a construct indicating the degree of child belief that he or she can be successful in different domains, such as sports and academics. The authors report that 15 of the 28 (54%) correlations for the sixth-graders and 23 of the 40 (58%) correlations for the undergraduates were significant and in the expected directions. The other correlations were non significant. These correlations represent "much better than a chance level" of association between the DOTS-R and the two indices of psychological functioning (p.387). Windle (1985), with a college student sample, found appropriate convergent and discriminant relations between the DOTS-R and two other measures of temperament, the Emotionality, Activity, Sociability, and Impulsivity-II (EASI-II) (Buss & Plomin, 1975) and Eysenck's Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968). Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis with 975 high school sophomores and juniors supported the factor structure of the DOTS-R (Windle, 1986). This structure is the same as that reported for other age groups, and indicates the validity of the DOTS-R across age groups (Windle, 1986). In summary, research indicates that the

DOTS-R is a valid measure of temperament, demonstrating the following aspects of validity: predictive, convergent, discriminant, and construct validity.

The questions assessing ethnicity, race, income, and education, will be based upon three sources: the General Social Surveys (GSS) (Davis & Smith, 1996), 1990 U.S. Census data for Virginia, and the work of Melvin Kohn (1977). The GSS, conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC), has been given to a representative sample of non-institutionalized Americans every year since 1972, except for 1979, 1981, and 1992. Data from this survey has been used widely in social science research (e.g. Wright & Wright, 1976). The GSS provided the basic forms of the questions, while Census data were used in constructing the response choices. Kohn's (1977) method of dealing with multiple ethnic backgrounds was used to simplify the data. His method was to ask each respondent which ethnicity had the greatest influence upon him- or herself. Copies of the demographic questions can be found in Appendix D.

Analyses

Pearson product moment correlations were used to investigate the research questions. This method allowed for investigation of a number of other relationships relevant to parenting goals and behaviors. Bringing those variables into the model allows the measurement of the magnitude of those other influences and provides a certain amount of context for the relationship between goals and behaviors. See Figure 1 for the model.

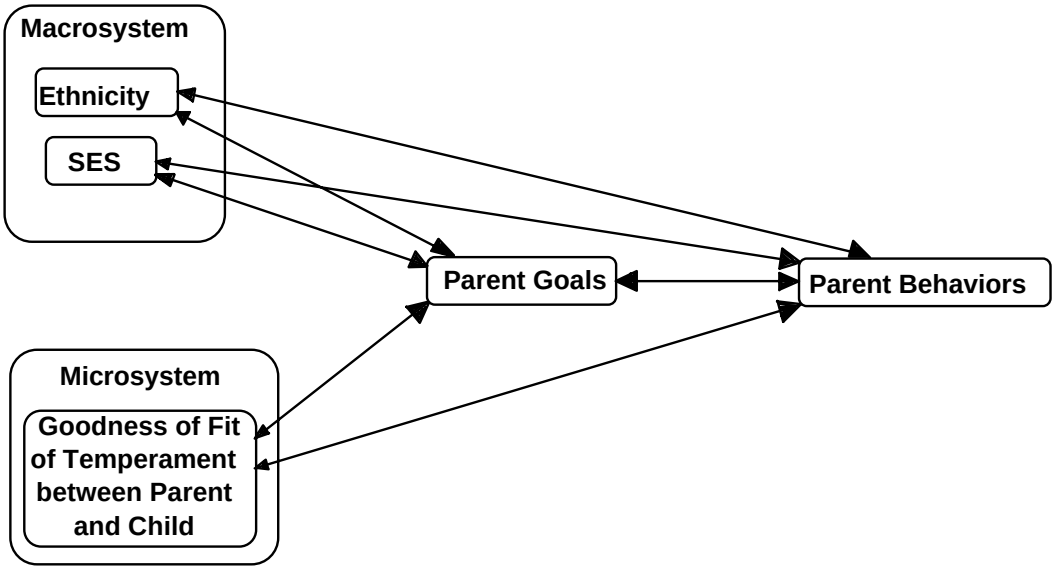

Figure 1: Relationships between background variables, parenting goals, and parenting behaviors.

The degree to which a parent's goals account for the variance in their parenting behaviors determined the congruence between goals and behavior. All correlations were the zero-order correlations. The significance of each correlation was assessed by means of statistical significance. While $p < .05$ is typically standard, the relatively low sample size in this study would require correlations of a fairly high magnitude in order to meet the criterion for significance. Accordingly, this study used $p < 0.1$ as the criterion for statistical significance (M. Benson, personal communication, May, 1999). Where appropriate, $p < .05$ is indicated.

Each subscale of the parenting goals measure was used to predict scores on the relevant subscale of the parenting

behaviors measure. The background variables, such as income, goodness-of-fit of temperament, were included in each figure.

Following Windle (1992), DOTS-R scores were used to create an "index of difficulty." This index reflects the increasing potential for conflict if either parent or child, or both parent and child, have a difficult temperament. Higher scores on this index indicated less goodness of fit, and the greater potential for conflict.

Again, following Windle (1992), scores from all of the DOTS-R subscales, except Activity-Sleep will be used in this index. Scoring on all but one of the DOTS-R subscales involves summing up responses, with a higher score reflecting greater temperamental "difficulty" (Windle & Lerner, 1986). The other subscale had to be recoded, as higher scores reflected a greater tendency toward the "Easy" temperament category. Initially, scores were summed, but as a sum would, by definition, give lower scores to those who omitted questions, so the final score for each respondent will be averaged over the total number of responses given. These modified parent and child scores, weighted equally, were then be summed to provide the index score.

The analyses were performed by means of the Statistical Analysis Software (SAS) running on an IBM 9121 Model 480/VF mainframe computer. Since SAS does not have a procedure for the Chronbach's alpha, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, running on the same mainframe, was used for the reliability analyses.

Chapter IV: Results

This chapter consists of four major sections. First is the description of the characteristics of the respondents. Second is the description of the factor analysis and reliability testing of the measures of parenting goals and parenting practices. The third section describes the results, organized in the order of the hypotheses. The fourth section includes the results of the open-ended questions.

Respondent Demographic Characteristics

All parents were asked to complete the demographic items, and in order to capture subtle differences, data from mothers and fathers will be reported separately. Data on ethnicity, education, and income will be presented for both parents. The question regarding income requested total family income. Responses from both parents would seem redundant, but not if the household were headed by a single parent.

Ethnicity

The majority of parents who responded were Caucasian. Some parents listed their ethnicity as African-American, and a few listed their ethnicity as Native American. However, it is likely that those who listed their ethnicities as "Native American" misunderstood the question, thinking that since they were born in the U.S. they were natives. Given this problem, the data on ethnicity was not used for further analysis.

Education

Mothers and fathers both reported an average level of

education of "some college, but no degree." See Table one for further information on maternal and paternal educational level.

Table 1

Levels of Education for Mothers and Fathers

	Mothers (n =90)		Fathers (n=43)	
Educational Level	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq
Less than 9th Grade	1.1	1	0.0	0
9th-12th grade, no diploma	4.4	4	11.9	5
High School diploma or GED	36.7	33	21.4	9
Some college, but no degree	21.1	19	26.2	11
Associate's Degree	28.9	26	31.0	13
Bachelor's Degree	5.6	5	7.1	3
Masters Degree	2.2	2	2.4	1
Professional Degree (DVM,JD)	0.0	0	0.0	0
Doctorate Degree (PhD, EdD)	0.0	0	0.0	0

Income

Average family income, as reported by fathers and mothers, fell into the range of $35,000 to $49,999. However, the mean for fathers was slightly higher than the mean for mothers, perhaps as a result of one mother reporting an income of between $5,000 and $9,999, and the larger percentage of fathers reporting incomes above the mean. See table 2 for income data for fathers and mothers.

Table 2

Levels of Income reported by Mothers and Fathers

	Mothers (n =90)		Fathers (n=43)	
Income Level	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq
Less than $5,000	0.0	0	0.0	0
$5,000 - $9,999	1.1	1	0.0	0
$10,000 - $14,999	6.8	6	2.4	1
$15,000 - $24,999	4.5	4	12.2	5
$25,000 - $34,999	17.0	15	7.3	3
$35,000 - $49,999	31.8	28	31.7	13
$50,000 - $64,999	17.0	15	22.0	9
$65,000 - $74,999	12.5	11	7.3	3
$75,000 - $99,999	5.7	5	14.6	6
$100,000 and above	3.4	3	2.4	1

Analysis of the Parenting Goals Questionnaire

The PGQ was factor analyzed, using a Varimax rotation, to examine the structure of the subscales. Factors derived from the analysis were then analyzed for reliability using Chronbach's

alpha, a conservative estimate of a test's internal consistency reliability (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Results of the two analyses are described below.

The unrotated solution indicated that there was one factor, on which all of the items loaded. This factor accounted for 24% of the variance. The rotated solution gave six factors; the three factors most closely resembling the original three subscales were chosen for use in this research.

The sixth factor may have been an anomaly. It consisted of a single item; number 21. This item states, "I want my child to be critical." This factor probably reflected parents' views of the term "critical." In colloquial use, "critical" is associated with a negative outlook, nagging, and similar unpleasant behaviors. Looking at the item from this perspective, it stands out from the other items which do not carry such a negative connotation. This one-item factor was not used.

The original subscale structure partially was replicated in this analysis. A factor akin to the original Personal Success subscale emerged, with items relating to a child succeeding in school, being ambitious, being responsible, and cooperating with others (Chronbach's α=.50). Neither the Social Adjustment subscale nor the Traditional Values subscales replicated clearly. A factor reflecting a certain subset of the traditional expectations of children did emerge, with items indicating that a child should have good manners, be obedient, and be neat and clean (Chronbach's α=.69). Valuing these items seem to reflect the traditional belief that a child should be "seen and not

heard." An independence or inner strength factor also emerged (Chronbach's α=.81). Loading on this factor were items relating to the child being self-sufficient, articulating his or her interests, asserting him- or herself, being ambitious, having contacts with others, having a sense of solidarity, and understanding the "societal context of things." This researcher understands the last item to mean that a child should understand the larger consequences of his or her actions.[1] A kindness to others factor also emerged from the analyses (Chronbach's α =.70). Items loading on this factor reflected parental valuing of the child being helpful, considerate, caring, and respecting parents. A kind of pacifism factor also emerged. This factor consisted in the following items: avoid conflicts, ability to take disappointments, and cooperation with others (Chronbach's α =.50).

Analysis of the Child Rearing Practices Report

Despite adequate reliability data given in the literature and testing manual, the subscales of the CRPR used in this study were found to be unreliable for this sample. Reliability data given in the testing manual and literature used test-retest reliability. This form of reliability was impossible to assess due to the design of this study; however, internal consistency (Chronbach's Alpha) reliability analysis was employed.

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1 Unfortunately, the translator of the scale was on sabbatical at the time of this writing and was unavailable regarding his interpretation of this item.

Correlations

Tables three and four, respectively, give descriptive statistics and the Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix for the variables used in the analyses:

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Range for All Variables

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Income	70	5.3714	1.5712	2.0000	9.0000
Education	71	3.0000	1.2306	0	6.0000
EncIndep	71	1.0426	0.3746	0.2857	1.8571
EmpAch	71	0.6817	0.4162	0	2.0000
AuthCon	71	1.6671	0.3241	0.8889	2.5556
EncOpen	71	0.7124	0.4807	0	2.0000
TempIdx	66	1.6897	0.2114	1.1667	2.2150
AchVal	71	0.3310	0.3156	0	1.2500
Author	71	0.2770	0.3821	0	1.3333
Auton	71	0.6997	0.4435	0	1.8571

Note. Below is the key to the variable names used:
Income- total family annual income (0 = below $5000, 9 = $100,000 and above)
Education- Education of parent (0 = less than 9th grade, 8 = Doctoral degree, like Ph.D.)
EncIndep- CRPR subscale- Encouragement of Independence. Higher numbers indicate greater encouragement.
EmpAch- CRPR subscale- Emphasis on Achievement. Higher values indicate greater parental encouragement of achievement.
AuthCon- CRPR subscale- Authoritarian Control. Higher values indicate greater use of authoritarian-type discipline.
EncOpen- CRPR subscale- Encouragement of Open Emotional Expression. Higher values indicate greater parental encouragement of expression of emotions.
TempIdx- Index of temperamental difficulty. Higher values indicate greater difficulty of temperament in parent-child relationship.
AchVal- PGQ subscale- Valuation of Achievement. Higher values indicate greater endorsement of achievement goals.
Author- PGQ subscale- Traditional, Authoritarian, Goals. Higher values indicate greater endorsement of authoritarian goals.
Auton- PGQ subscale- Autonomy. Higher values indicate greater endorsement of autonomy as a goal.

Table 4
Pearson Product Moment Correlation Matrix for All Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Ethnicity	--	-.26**	-.25**	.14	.21*	.04	.24**	-.17	-.04	-.16	.02
2. Income		--	.30**	-.13	-.11	.10	-.09	.04	-.06	.16	-.17
3. Education			--	-.17	-.36**	-.02	-.16	-.06	-.04	-.05	.08
4. EncIndep				--	.47**	.38**	.46**	-.01	.14	.25**	.28**
5. EmpAch					--	.41**	.32**	.21	.44**	.41**	.40**
6. AuthCon						--	.31**	-.01	.11	.21*	.09
7. EncOpen							--	-.10	.20*	.16	.18
8. TempIdx								--	.23*	.15	.15
9. AchVal									--	.35**	.60**
10. Author										--	.43**
11. Auton											--

Note. n for each correlation is the lesser of the values given for each variable in Table 3. Significant correlations involving Ethnicity and EmpAch not interpreted due to problems with data and scale reliability, respectively.
*p < .1 **p < .05

Hypothesis One: The background variables will have stronger relationships with the parenting goals measure than with the parenting behaviors measure.

This hypothesis was not supported with any of the variables. Further elaboration on each of the four background variables is below.

Contrary to previous research, (c.f. Kohn, 1977) parental education had no significant relationships with either parenting goals or parenting practices. Education was significantly related to total family income (r = .30, p < .05) as expected, however. Family income was not significantly related to any variable in the model, except for education.

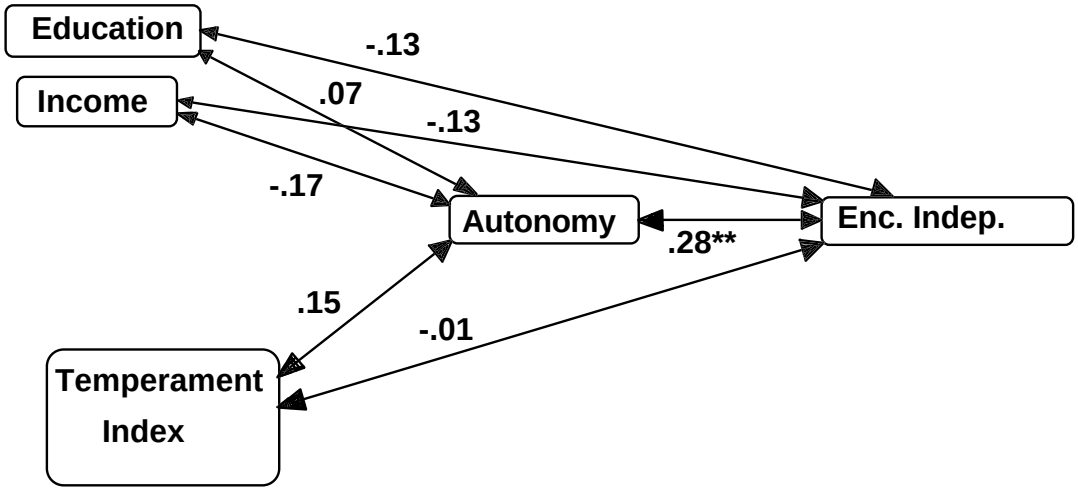
The index of temperament difficulty was not significantly related to either parenting goals or parenting behaviors. The relationship between the index of temperament difficulty and parenting behaviors was nearly zero. The largest coefficient, between temperament and the parenting behavior Encouraging Independence, was -0.1. Coefficients between the temperament index and parent goals were slightly greater (r = .15) and did not approach significance.

Hypothesis Two: Parental valuation of achievement-oriented goals will predict achievement-oriented parenting behavior.

This analysis was not performed due to a lack of reliability. Analyses of the subscale of the Parenting Goals Questionnaire regarding achievement goals revealed a Chronbach's Alpha of .50, too low for accurate measurement.

Hypothesis Three: Parental valuation of child independence will predict parental behavior fostering independence.

As expected, parenting goals of child independence had a significant positive relationship, albeit low (r = .28, p < .05) with parenting behaviors fostering independence. No other significant correlations were found. See figure 2.



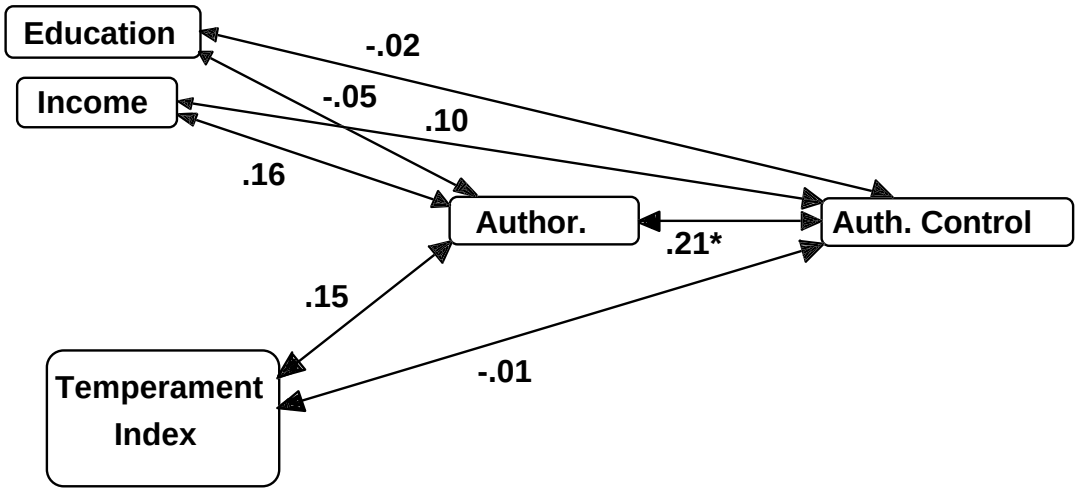
Note.**p < .05

Figure 2: Independence-Oriented Goals and Behaviors.

Hypothesis Four: Parental valuation of traditional goals, such as respect for parents, will be positively related to a high degree of controlling behavior.

This hypothesis was supported in these data. There was a significant relationship between parents endorsing traditional, authoritarian goals and the use of more authoritarian control (r = .21, p < .10). No other significant correlations were found,

however. See Figure 3.



Note. *p < .1 **p < .05

Figure 3: Traditional Goals and Authoritarian Control Practices.

Hypothesis Five: Parental valuation of traditional goals will be negatively related to openness of emotional expression.

There was no significant relationship between parents endorsing traditional, authoritarian, goals and parent report of encouraging open emotional expression. In fact, the direction of the relationship was not as expected. In other words, those parents most valuing traditional values were the most encouraging of open emotional expression in their children (See Figure 4).

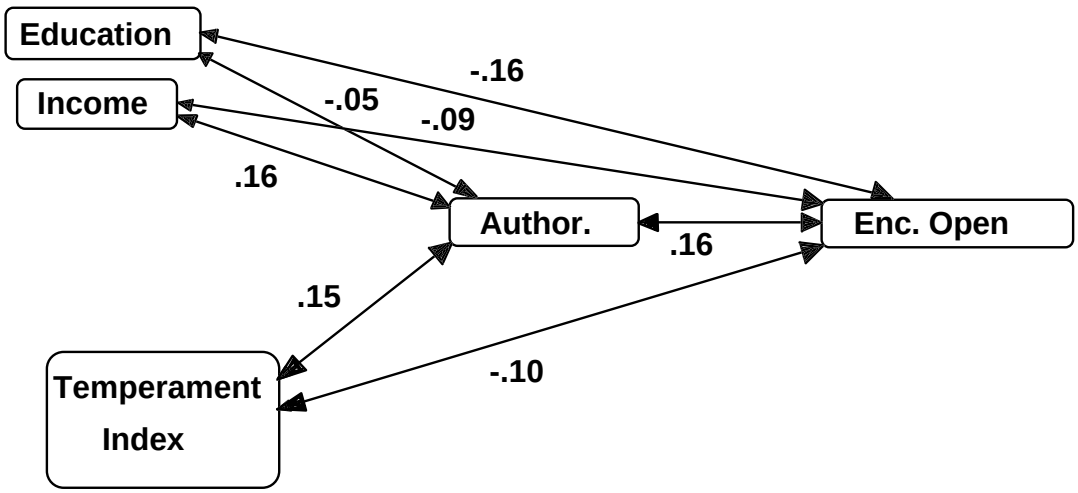


Figure 4: Traditional Goals and Encouragement of Emotional Expression.

Hypothesis Six: The above hypotheses are expected to hold for both mothers and for fathers.

This hypothesis could not be tested due to insufficient data from fathers.

Correlations Among Measures of Parent Goals and Parent Behaviors

The study had three unexpected outcomes, specifically significant positive correlations among seemingly unrelated measures of parent goals and parent behaviors. First, there was a significant relationship between the measures of Authoritarian Control (AuthCon) and Encouragement of Independence (EncIndep, $r = .38$, $p < .05$). Second, Traditional, Authoritarian, Goals (Author) were significantly related to the behavior measure

Encouragement of Child Independence (EncIndep, r = .25, p <.05). Third, the behavior measure Encourage Open Emotional Expression (EncOpen) and AuthCon were significantly related (r = .31, p <.05). These correlations are among the largest in magnitude of any examined in this research, and are all opposite in sign from what would have been expected from the literature (e.g. Kohn, 1977).

Open-Ended Questions

Two questions were asked of both parents. The questions requested information regarding the degree to which they had thought about parenting goals for this child, and the degree to which they had discussed their goals between themselves. Forty-eight families responded. The majority of families (62%) reported at least some thought about goals. Fewer parents mentioned discussing their goals than mentioned thinking about goals.

Questions were analyzed by two raters; the researcher and another graduate student familiar with the project. The analytic process went as follows: first, each response was literally transcribed onto index cards, and then the cards were placed in categories of similar responses. The above coding method is essentially the Strauss and Corbin (1990) open coding scheme. This use of note cards follows that of Susan Murphy and her colleagues (1997, February). Each rater worked independently, with disagreements and questions worked out by discussion.

There may have been a positive bias in the responses; families who had not thought about or discussed goals may simply

have not answered the questions. An admission that they had not thought about or discussed goals may have implied a deficiency in their parenting, so they chose not to respond. A thorough breakdown of responses to each question follows.

Question One: Thinking about Goals

This question related to thinking about goals; parents were asked to indicated to what extent they had thought about their goals for this child prior to this study. Of the thirty-nine responses to this question, most parents reported at least some amount of prior thought about their goals for their fifth-grade child. Responses suggested ten categories regarding the degree of thought given to goals: "Always/Daily (3 responses)," "Often/A Lot" (7 responses), "Thought about since [child] born" (5 responses), "Thought of goals, no amount specified" (6 responses), "Some thought" (2 responses), "Felt deeply about goals" (1 response), "No" (1 response), "Responded by listing goals" (8 responses), "Vague statements of goals" (3 responses), and "Goals based on child's desires" (2 responses).

Question Two: Discussion of Goals

This question related to discussion of goals; parents were asked to indicate whether or not they had discussed together their goals for the focal child.Thirty-four participants answered this question. Most indicated at least some discussion of goals between partners. Eight categories were derived from these responses. They are as follows: "Always/Regularly" (7 responses), "Discussed goals 'here and there'" (3 responses), "Discussed, but different goals between spouses" (2 responses), "Discussed goals

with previous spouse" (2 responses), "Discussed goals with children" (2 responses) "Discussed goals, but no amount specified" (7 responses), "No discussion of goals" (3 responses), and "Response did not mention discussion at all" (5 responses).

These responses clustered more tightly together than did the responses to the first question, with fewer categories needed to describe the data, and more categories with more than two responses.

Chapter V: Discussion

The key question in this study has been the following: to what extent do parental goals, chosen by parents as good outcomes for their children, predict their parenting practices? The first section of this chapter will attempt to answer the above question. The second section will describe the limitations of the present study, and the third section will indicate implications and suggestions for future research.

Findings

Background Variables

Based on their hypothetical ordering in time, it was expected that the background variables would have greater relation to practices rather than goals. This expectation did not hold for any of the variables, contrary to previous work (Borduin & Henggeler, 1981; Kohn, 1977; Wright & Wright, 1976).

Education is generally expected to increase valuation of self-directedness and result in parental disciplinary measures that are less punitive and authoritarian (Kohn, 1969, 1977). These results did not follow this pattern. While the directions of the relationships were in the expected direction, the relationships between education and the authoritarian values were nearly zero, with coefficients of -.08 and less. Education and encouragement of child independence were also negatively related (r = -.17). It is quite possible that these results are due to chance, as that is, after all, the reason why a criterion of statistical significance is used.

Ethnicity was not included in these analyses, because those

who listed their ethnicity as Native American are likely to have interpreted that item as indicating that they were born in the United States, rather than as having an ethnic identity belonging to one of the groups indigenous to the US. Supporting this idea, an unpublished study of college student views of their own hypothetical parenting goals indicated that a number of them saw their own ethnicity as native-born to the US (Fox, 1997). Given this problem, it was judged to be better to leave ethnicity out of the analyses.

Difficulty in parental and child temperament did not have a significant relationship with either goals or practices. One possible explanation is adaptation. These parent-child dyads already had at least ten years to adapt to each other's idiosyncrasies. Rather than being a persistent problem, influencing the entire parent-child relationship as would be suggested by clinical case study data (Carey & McDevitt, 1995) parents and children may find ways of getting around temperament issues. For instance, parents may, in a sense, habituate to a child whose response to new situations is negative. Another possible explanation is that there may have been insufficient numbers of respondents with difficult temperaments to be detected in the data. Only about 10% of the population are classified as difficult, so a maximum of about 9 parent-child dyads would likely have the most extreme difficult-difficult temperament combination. Their experience may have been lost in the rest of the mass of data.

Independence-Oriented Parenting

Parenting goals of child independence were significantly related to parental practices encouraging child independence. It seems that the parents who valued independent children used practices that encouraged independence, such as respecting the child's opinions and allowing the child to make decisions for himself as predicted by Petersen and colleagues (1982).

Traditional Parenting Goals and Control

Parents who endorsed more traditional, authoritarian, goals for their children did seem to engage in significantly more authoritarian control practices as expected. This finding supports previous research, particularly Kohn (1977) and the work of Petersen et al. (1982) that parents engage in those practices expected to inculcate in their children the goals that parents desire.

Traditional Parenting Goals and Emotional Expression

There was no significant relationship between traditional, authoritarian goals and emotional expression, contrary to what was expected. Assuming that Petersen and colleagues (1982) are correct, parents may not have seen a contradiction in having goals that favor the parent's perspective while still encouraging the child to be emotionally expressive. It may also be that the context is a factor; parents may want a compliant, quiet child in some circumstances but want an open relationship with the child in other circumstances. The data collected does not allow for the differentiation of such nuances.

Parenting Goals and Behaviors Across Gender

It was expected that the previous hypotheses would hold for both mothers and fathers. Insufficient data from fathers prevented testing, however. A lack of response from fathers is typical in child development research. Obviously a different approach is necessary in order to elicit fathers' participation.

Correlations Among Measures of Parent Goals and Practices

The three significant correlations between various of the measures of parent goals and parent behaviors were not expected. Each of these correlations is interpreted below.

On the surface, the significant positive correlation between the parent practices measures of Authoritarian Control (AuthCon) and Encouragement of Child Independence (EncIndep) seem contradictory, as do the positive correlation between the parent goals measure Traditional, Authoritarian, Goals (Author) and the parent practices measure EncIndep. After all, how can one exert firm, strict, control on children and encourage them to be independent at the same time? Research indicates distinctly different outcomes for children based on whether or not they are encouraged to be independent, as in authoritative parenting, or are strictly controlled, as in authoritarian parenting (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, et al., 1992). However, these are not the only categories available to parents. For instance, Chao (1994) indicates that the Asian-American parents in her sample held to a different philosophy of parenting, which tends to bring

about beneficial outcomes from behaviors that would be termed "authoritarian" and seen as detrimental from a mainstream western perspective. Chao (1994) describes this view of parenting as "training children in the appropriate behaviors" (p. 1113). Perhaps the parents in this sample viewed parenting in a similar fashion, believing that a parent's task is to provide well-defined boundaries and strict rules within which a child may be independent. The majority of items from both scales can be interpreted in this fashion. For instance, one of the EncIndep items assesses parental encouragement of independence, and one of the AuthCon items assesses the parental belief that physical punishment is best. These two items can easily be seen in this fashion- a child is encouraged to be independent, but only in some areas; if the child exceeds those bounds, physical punishment is considered to be the best corrective method. The area in which this study was conducted has a strong rural, agricultural tradition, which would tend toward such strict parenting.

The interpretation of the correlation between the behavior measures Encourage Open Emotional Expression (EncOpen) and Authoritarian Control is more complex. One would expect that those who endorse strict control would not condone open emotional expression. Expression of negative emotions in particular would seem to be seen as resistance to parental control. However, the items on this scale do not refer specifically to emotional expression, despite the title of the measure. Instead, they describe parental encouragement of children's curiosity,

exploration, daydreaming, and thinking about life. These traits may be considered part of childhood, and more desirable than open expression of emotion.

Both of these interpretations are only one possibility, however, others are possible.

Open-Ended Questions

Lack of response hampered interpretation of the open-ended questions. Only 39 parents answered the first question, and 34 the second, for a total of 48 families answering at least one question. Only 25 families answered both questions. Of those parents who did answer, the majority do seem to be thinking about and using goals as a part of their childrearing, and discussing them with their spouse or partner. These data provide some tentative support to the idea that at least some parents do use and discuss goals for children.

However, these families are about one-quarter to about one-half of the sample. No information is available on the rest of the families. Perhaps the above families are the only ones who articulate and use goals as a construct. Possibly the parents who did not respond were embarrassed to say that they had not thought about goals. Certainly the lack of negative responses may suggest that possibility. These families may have been fatigued after answering the survey questions, or had other commitments, or just chose not to answer. Whatever reason prevented a response, it is difficult to use these data to assist in interpretation of the quantitative results without a larger portion of the sample

responding.

One conclusion can be drawn from these data without regard to the response rate; the term "parenting goals" can have a variety of meanings for different people. The variety of responses, and particularly the variety of different goals mentioned by those parents who listed their goals, indicates a number of different interpretations of goals. Some parents mentioned goals such as college, a long-term goal, while others mentioned that they want "the best" for their child, and one wrote of goals in terms of nurturing their child's growth. Others wrote that they supported their child in creating goals for her- or himself. These latter parents would tend to be focused on shorter-term goals than other parents, as a fifth-grader may well not be thinking about college yet. Perhaps their child might have a goal of doing better in English class this year, or making the soccer team. Understanding this variety would be invaluable in understanding how parents view their goals, and in understanding how parents may view goals on structured questionnaires, such as the PGQ.

Limitations

Making choices on a research design necessarily adds and removes limitations from any study. In this study, the survey methodology allowed for the sampling of a much larger group than any other method, but did not allow for in-depth data to be gathered. It also introduced a bias; those who responded to the survey are by definition different than those who did not. An

important limitation is that the cross sectional nature of the research does not allow for confident prediction of cause and effect; while it seems that parenting goals influence practices, only longitudinal designs would truly allow for causal interpretation.

The research is also limited in ways specific to this study. First, the sample used was from a specific county, and locates the study in that context. Findings about these families may not generalize to other families in other contexts. Second, the response rate was relatively low; 21%, including only completed, usable responses. Third, there was not as great a diversity in families as had been desired, which may contribute to the non-significant results. Fourth, while the measures were the best available, they were not designed specifically for this study and may have introduced unforeseen errors and complications, such as the "Native American" ethnicity issue, and the "societal context of things" issue.

Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

This study does indicate that, to an extent, parental goals are related to their practices. Future research is needed to more fully illustrate this relationship. Longitudinal designs are particularly needed to illustrate the causal relationship between the two. Discussing implications without further data can be only tentative, but this study does suggest, as does Bronfenbrenner (1979), Lerner (1995), and others that parents are active agents in their own and their children's lives. Research needs to take

this factor into account when designing research; parents who do not value the outcome measure on which a particular study is based will not encourage their children to focus on the behaviors indexed by the measure. In such ways are cultural deficit models born. For instance, if school is not seen as a means for the child to succeed, parents will tend not to value it, and not encourage their children to do well in it. If one wants to encourage these children to succeed in school, the starting point for change is to engage the parents and convince them of the value of school, or whatever other change is desired. Otherwise, parents may become an obstacle.

Similarly, this research indicates, in a tentative way, that those who would create parenting programs need to convince parents of the value and validity of the goals they wish parents to adopt. Do all parents really want a democratic household as espoused by various parenting programs (Bavolek, 1989; Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1989)? If they do not, then the program and the facilitator automatically have a problem. Including discussion of parenting goals as part of a parenting skills program can help alleviate this problem.

Mzore research is needed in the area most directly addressed by this research; the relationship between parental goals and practices. The current study needs to be expanded, with a larger, more diverse sample. Finally, we need to better understand what parents mean by "goals," or at least make clearer the meanings of goals in more structured measures. Even with the Parenting Goals Questionnaire as a stimulus, parents varied widely in the kinds

of goals they described in the open-ended questions.

Summary

This project partially supports the hypothesis that parental goals for child socialization are related to parental practices. Further research is needed to replicate and elaborate upon this study. However, this research does suggest that parental goals and perceptions need to be taken into account when studying parenting and working with parents. If parental goals are, as it seems, important, then parents should be seen as partners with teachers and other professionals rather than as simply recipients of professional advice.

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Appendix A: Introductory Letter to Parents

Dear Parent(s)

I am a doctoral student in Child Development at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (VA Tech). My dissertation research is looking at a parent's goals for their children and how they act toward that child. This information will increase our understanding of parenting and may help in developing better programs to teach parenting for those parents who want or need help.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study. Each of you will complete a questionnaire about yourself and your interaction with your fifth-grade child. In addition, I would like you to ask your fifth-grader to complete a questionnaire about himself or herself. All information gathered in this study will be held in the strictest confidence. When I write up the study, only group results will be presented; no names will be released.

The success of my dissertation depends on your help. I would very much appreciate your participation. If you have any concerns or questions, please feel free to contact me or my advisor at the numbers listed below.

Sincerely,

Glenn E. Fox
Graduate Student
(540)552-0326

Andrew J. Stremmel
Associate Professor
and Director of the Child
Development Laboratories
(540)231-4671

Appendix B: Informed Consent Forms

Informed Consent Form (Child)

I agree to participate in the parenting project. I know that no one will know the answers I give, and that I do not have to put my name on the questionnaire I complete. I understand that my parents have given permission for me to participate in I understand that I do not have to answer any question that I do not want to answer, and that I may stop participating at any time.

_____

(Please sign your name above this line)

Today's date is:_____

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
College of Human Resources and Education

Department of Family and
Child Development
(540)231-4794

Informed Consent Form

Principal Investigator: Glenn E. Fox, Jr.

Faculty Advisor: Andrew J. Stremmel, Ph.D.

I. THE PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH

You are invited to participate in a study about parenting. The results of this study will enhance our knowledge about parenting.

II. PROCEDURES

The procedures involved in this research involve the completion and return of a packet of questionnaires.

As the child's parent(s)/guardian(s), you will be asked to complete the questionnaires, and to make sure that your child returns them to his or her homeroom teacher. I also ask that your child complete a questionnaire.

III. RISKS

There are no known risks associated with participation in this project. If for some reason, you find yourself uncomfortable answering a question or questions, please feel free to omit those questions.

IV. BENEFITS OF THIS PROJECT

The results of this project will help increase our understanding of parenting. No direct benefits are offered to you to participate. You may receive a summary of the results of the whole project when it is completed. If you are interested in a summary of the results, please include a self-addressed stamped envelope with the questionnaire packet when your child returns it.

V. EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY

The results of this study will be kept strictly

confidential. When the packets are returned, the informed consent forms and questionnaires will be separated. The only connection between your responses and your names will be a number. When the data are analyzed, only the number will be included, so no names will be associated with the data.

At no time will the researcher release any data to anyone not working on the project without your written consent.

VI. COMPENSATION

No monetary compensation is offered for participation in this project.

VII. FREEDOM TO WITHDRAW

You and your child are free to withdraw from this study at any point, or to refrain from answering any particular questions. If you choose not to participate, please return the packet with nothing written on it to your child's homeroom teacher.

VIII. APPROVAL OF RESEARCH

This research has been approved, as required, by the Institutional Review Board for Research Involving Human Subjects at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, by the Department of Family and Child Development, by the Superintendent of the Lynchburg Public Schools, and by the Principal of your child's elementary school.

IX. PARTICIPANT'S RESPONSIBILITIES

I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have the following responsibilities:

1. To complete the questionnaire packet.
2. To send the packet with my child to his or her homeroom teacher.

X. PARTICIPANT'S PERMISSION

We have read and understand the Informed Consent and conditions of this project. We have had all our questions answered. We hereby acknowledge the above and give our voluntary consent for ourselves and our child to participate in this project.

If we participate, either of us may withdraw at any time without penalty.

_____
Signature of Parent/Guardian

_____
Signature of Parent/Guardian
If you are a single parent,
please write "NA" on this line.

_____
Date

Appendix C: Instructions

Questionnaire Packet

Instructions:

Parents:

Please fill out each questionnaire alone. I would like each of your perspectives on the questions. There is only one copy of the questionnaires, so when you are done, please put your OPSCAN form (the one with all the little circles on it) back into the envelope and give the second OPSCAN to your spouse or partner to fill out.

Please answer all questions, except the one that asks for you to write a response, on the OPSCAN sheet. Please use the OPSCAN labeled for you (Father, Mother, Child). If you are a step-parent, use the OPSCAN labeled "Father" or "Mother" as appropriate, but in the space marked "Group" at the top of the OPSCAN, fill in the number 1 if you are a step-mother, and 2 if you are a step-father.

Your fifth-grader should only fill out the questionnaire labeled "REVISED DIMENSIONS OF TEMPERAMENT SURVEY-- CHILD (SELF)." You may help him or her if needed, but please do not suggest answers. It is very important that he or she give his or her own answers on the survey.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!

Appendix D: Questionnaire Packet

START of QUESTIONS

1. What is your ethnic background? If you consider yourself to be of more than one ethnicity, please indicate the one that has had the most influence on you.

    1. Caucasian
    2. African
    3. Asian
    4. Latin American
    5. Native American
    6. Other (please specify:_____)

2. What is your race?
    1. Caucasian
    2. Black
    3. Asian
    4. Native American
    5. Other (please specify:_____)

3. Which range best describes your total family income?

    1. less than $5,000
    2. $5,000 to $9,999
    3. $10,000 to $14,999
    4. $15,000 to $24,999
    5. $25,000 to $34,999
    6. $35,000 to $49,999
    7. $50,000 to $64,999
    8. $65,000 to $74,999
    9. $75,000 to $99,999
    10. $100,000 and above

4. What was the highest level of education you achieved?

    1. Less than 9th grade
    2. 9th-12th grade, but I didn't get a diploma
    3. High school diploma, or GED
    4. Some college, but no degree
    5. Associate's degree
    5. Bachelor's degree
    6. Master's degree
    7. Professional degree, like DVM, JD, MD
    8. Doctorate degree, like PhD or EdD

Child Rearing Practices Report

Jeanne H. Block
University of California, Berkeley

Instructions

In trying to gain more understanding of young children, we would like to know what was important to you as a parent and what kinds of methods you used in raising your child who is now a fifth-grader. Please indicate your opinions about the statements about bringing up children that are below.
You have four choices for your answer:

1. This statement is most descriptive of how I raise my child.
2. This statement is quite descriptive of how I raise my child.
3. This statement is quite undescriptive of how I raise my child.
4. This statement is most undescriptive of how I raise my child.

For example, if the statement, "I expect a great deal of my child" is "quite undescriptive" of how you raise your child, then please fill in the bubble marked "3" for that item on the OPSCAN.

5. I encourage my child always to do his best.
6. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him to express them.
7. I believe physical punishment to be the best way of disciplining.
8. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.
9. I think it is good practice for a child to perform in front of others.
10. If my child gets into trouble, I expect him to handle the problem mostly by himself.
11. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.
12. I feel a child should have time to think, daydream, and even loaf sometimes.
13. I expect a great deal of my child.
14. I usually take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.
15. I do not allow my child to say bad things about his teacher.
16. I let my child make many decisions for himself.
17. I feel that it is good for a child to play competitive games.
18. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.
19. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, and to question things.
20. I want my child to make a good impression on others.
21. I have strict, well-established rules for my child.
22. I encourage my child to think about his troubles.

23. I give my child a good many duties and family responsibilities.
24. I believe children should not have secrets from their parents.
25. I teach my child that he is responsible for what happens to him.
26. I teach my child to have control of his feelings at all times.
27. I encourage my child to be independent of me.
28. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve.
29. I do not allow my child to question my decisions.

Parenting Goals Questionnaire

On the following pages you will find a number of statements regarding parenting goals. You will find some of these goals quite important, while others will seem less so. Please indicate for each statement how important or desirable each behavior is for your fifth-grade child. You have four choices for your answer:

1. I BELIEVE THIS IS VERY IMPORTANT
2. I BELIEVE THIS IS QUITE IMPORTANT
3. I DON'T THINK THIS IS SO IMPORTANT
4. I DON'T THINK THIS IS IMPORTANT AT ALL

If you think the statement "My child should be considerate" is "quite important," then fill in the bubble marked "2" for that item on the OPSCAN. Please choose the response which most closely responds to your opinion.

30. My child should have a sense of responsibility
31. My child should avoid conflicts.
32. My child should be able to take disappointments.
33. My child should learn to question rules and norms.
34. My child should be helpful.
35. My child should be tolerant.
36. My child should be considerate.
37. My child should do well in school.
38. My child should be caring.
39. My child should learn to deal with conflicts verbally.
40. My child should be self sufficient.
41. My child should have good manners.
42. My child should be able to articulate his/her interests, and give reasons for them.
43. My child should respect his/her parents.
44. My child should be able to develop contacts with others.
45. My child should learn to behave with a sense of solidarity.
46. My child should be ambitious.
47. My child should learn to recognize the societal context of things.
48. My child should learn to be cooperative with others.
49. My child should learn to assert himself/herself.
50. My child should be critical.
51. My child should look neat and clean.
52. My child should obey.
53. My child should have a sense of family.

REVISED DIMENSIONS OF TEMPERAMENT SURVEY -- Adult

HOW TO ANSWER: In the following pages are some statements about how people like you may behave. Some of the statements may be true of your own behavior and others may not apply to you. For each statement we would like you to indicate if the statement is usually true of you, is more true than false for you, is more false than true of your, or is usually false of you. there are no "right" or "wrong" answers because all people behave in different ways. All you have to do is answer what is true for you.

Here is an example of how to fill out this questionnaire. Suppose a statement said:

"I eat about the same things for breakfast every day."

If the statement were usually false for you, you would respond:

"A," usually false.

If the statement were more false than true for you, you would respond:

"B," more false than true.

If the statement were more true than false for you, you would respond:

"C," more true than false.

If the statement were usually true for you, you would respond:

"D," usually true.

On the OPSCAN sheet, fill in the bubble for an A if the statement is usually false for you, write a B if the statement is more false than true for you, write a C if the statement is more true than false for you, or write a D if the statement is usually true for you.

PLEASE KEEP THESE FOUR THINGS IN MIND AS YOU ANSWER:

1. Give only answers that are true or false for you. It is best to say what you really think.

2. Don't spend too much time thinking about each question. Give the first, natural answer as it comes to you. Of course, the statements are too short to give all the information you might like, but give the best answer you can under the circumstances.

Some statements may seem similar to each other because they ask about the same situation. However, each one looks at a different area of your behavior. Therefore, your answers may be different in each case.

3. Answer every question one way or another. Don't skip any.

4. Remember, A = usually FALSE
B = more FALSE THAN TRUE
C = more TRUE THAN FALSE
D = usually TRUE

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

54. It takes me a long time to get used to a new thing in the home.
55. I can't stay still for very long.
56. I laugh and smile at a lot of things.
57. I wake up at different times.
58. Once I am involved in a task, nothing can distract me from it.
59. I persist at a task until it's finished.
60. I move around a lot.
61. I can make myself at home anywhere.
62. I can always be distracted by something else, no matter what I may be doing.
63. I stay with an activity for a long time.
64. If I have to stay in one place for a long time, I get very restless.
65. I usually move towards new objects shown to me.
66. It takes me a long time to adjust to new schedules.
67. I do not laugh or smile at many things.
68. If I am doing one thing, something else occurring won't get me to stop.
69. I eat about the same amount for dinner whether I am home, visiting someone, or traveling.
70. My first reaction is to reject something new or unfamiliar to me.
71. Changes in plans make me restless.
72. I often stay still for long periods of time.
73. Things going on around me can not take me away from what I am doing.
74. I take a nap, rest, or break at the same time each day.
75. Once I take something up, I stay with it.
76. Even when I am supposed to be still, I get fidgety after a few minutes.
77. I am hard to distract.
78. I usually get the same amount of sleep each night.

79. On meeting a new person I tend to move towards him or her.
80. I get hungry about the same time each day.
81. I smile often.
82. I never seem to stop moving.
83. It takes me no time at all to get used to new people.
84. I usually eat the same amount each day.
85. I move a great deal in my sleep.
86. I seem to get sleepy just about the same time every night.
87. I do not find that I laugh often.
88. I move towards new situations.
89. when I am away from home, I still wake up at the same time each morning.
90. I eat about the same amount at breakfast from day to day.
91. I move a lot in bed.
92. I feel full of pep and energy at the same time each day.
93. I have bowel movements at about the same time each day.
94. No matter when I go to sleep. I wake up at the same time the next morning.
95. In the morning, I am still in the same place as I was when I fell asleep.
96. I eat about the same amount at supper from day to day.
97. When things are out of place, it takes me a long time to get used to it.
98. I wake up at the same time on weekends and holidays as on other days of the week.
99. I don't move around much at all in my sleep.
100. My appetite seems to stay the same from day to day.
101. My mood is generally cheerful.
102. I resist changes in routine.
103. I laugh several times a day.
104. My first response to anything new is to move my head toward it.
105. Generally, I am happy.
106. The number of times I have a bowel movement on any day varies from day to day.
107. I never seem to be in the same place for long.

Dear Parents:

Now that you have completed the survey, I would like to ask you one last question. To what degree had you thought about your goals for this child before I asked about them? Have you and your spouse (or partner) discussed these goals before I asked about them? Please use the rest of this sheet (and the back if needed) to answer these questions.

I very much appreciate you taking time to answer all these questions. If you have any questions, or would like a summary of the results, please contact me.

Thank you !

DOTS-R: Child (Self)

REVISED DIMENSIONS OF TEMPERAMENT SURVEY -- Child (Self)

HOW TO ANSWER: In the following pages are some sentences. Some of the sentences may be true of how you behave and others may not be true for you. For each sentence we would like you to say if the sentence is usually true of you, is more true than false for you, is more false than true of your, or is usually false of you. there are no "right" or "wrong" answers because all children behave in different ways. All you have to do is answer what is true for you.

Here is an example of how to fill out this questionnaire. Suppose a statement said:

"I eat about the same things for breakfast every day."

If the statement were usually false for you, you would respond:

"A," usually false.

If the statement were more false than true for you, you would respond:

"B," more false than true.

If the statement were more true than false for you, you would respond:

"C," more true than false.

If the statement were usually true for you, you would respond:

"D," usually true.

On the OPSCAN sheet, fill in the bubble for an A if the statement is usually false for you, write a B if the statement is more false than true for you, write a C if the statement is more true than false for you, or write a D if the statement is usually true for you.

PLEASE REMEMBER THESE FOUR THINGS AS YOU ANSWER:

1. Give only answers that really tell about you. It is best to say what you really think.

2. Don't spend too much time thinking about each question. Give the first answer as it comes to you. Of course, the sentences are too short to say everything you might like. But give the best answer you can. Some sentences may seem just like others because

they ask about the same things. But, each sentence asks about a different part of the way you behave. Therefore, your answers may be different.

3. Answer every question one way or another. Don't skip any.

4. Remember, A = usually FALSE
B = more FALSE THAN TRUE
C = more TRUE THAN FALSE
D = usually TRUE

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

1. It takes me a long time to get used to a new thing in the home.
2. I can't stay still for very long.
3. I laugh and smile at a lot of things.
4. I wake up at different times.
5. Once I am involved in a task, nothing can distract me from it.
6. I persist at a task until it's finished.
7. I move around a lot.
8. I can make myself at home anywhere.
9. I can always be distracted by something else, no matter what I may be doing.
10. I stay with an activity for a long time.
11. If I have to stay in one place for a long time, I get very restless.
12. I usually move towards new objects shown to me.
13. It takes me a long time to adjust to new schedules.
14. I do not laugh or smile at many things.
15. If I am doing one thing, something else occurring won't get me to stop.
16. I eat about the same amount for dinner whether I am home, visiting someone, or traveling.
17. My first reaction is to reject something new or unfamiliar to me.
18. Changes in plans make me restless.
19. I often stay still for long periods of time.
20. Things going on around me can not take me away from what I am doing.
21. I take a nap, rest, or break at the same time each day.
22. Once I take something up, I stay with it.
23. Even when I am supposed to be still, I get fidgety after a few minutes.
24. I am hard to distract.
25. I usually get the same amount of sleep each night.
26. On meeting a new person I tend to move towards him or her.
27. I get hungry about the same time each day.

28. I smile often.
29. I never seem to stop moving.
30. It takes me no time at all to get used to new people.
31. I usually eat the same amount each day.
32. I move a great deal in my sleep.
33. I seem to get sleepy just about the same time every night.
34. I do not find that I laugh often.
35. I move towards new situations.
36. when I am away from home, I still wake up at the same time each morning.
37. I eat about the same amount at breakfast from day to day.
38. I move a lot in bed.
39. I feel full of pep and energy at the same time each day.
40. I have bowel movements at about the same time each day.
41. No matter when I go to sleep. I wake up at the same time the next morning.
42. In the morning, I am still in the same place as I was when I fell asleep.
43. I eat about the same amount at supper from day to day.
44. When things are out of place, it takes me a long time to get used to it.
45. I wake up at the same time on weekends and holidays as on other days of the week.
46. I don't move around much at all in my sleep.
47. My appetite seems to stay the same from day to day.
48. My mood is generally cheerful.
49. I resist changes in routine.
50. I laugh several times a day.
51. My first response to anything new is to move my head toward it.
52. Generally, I am happy.
53. The number of times I have a bowel movement on any day varies from day to day.
54. I never seem to be in the same place for long.

Appendix E: Item Frequencies for CRPR and PGQ

Child-Rearing Practices Report

Note. CRPR listed as PPQ. Numbers correspond to ordering of items in questionnaire labeled, "Parenting Practices Questionnaire." Item responses on the questionnaire were numbered from 1 to 4, while responses range from 0 to 3. This change was made necessary by computer scanning, and had no effect on results.

PPQ1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	81	90.0	81	90.0
1	9	10.0	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	51	56.7	51	56.7
1	38	42.2	89	98.9
2	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	1.1	1	1.1
1	10	11.2	11	12.4
2	36	40.4	47	52.8
3	42	47.2	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PPQ4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	45	50.0	45	50.0
1	37	41.1	82	91.1
2	5	5.6	87	96.7
3	3	3.3	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	22	24.4	22	24.4
1	47	52.2	69	76.7
2	14	15.6	83	92.2
3	7	7.8	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	4	4.4	4	4.4
1	22	24.4	26	28.9
2	40	44.4	66	73.3
3	24	26.7	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	5	5.6	5	5.6
1	4	4.4	9	10.0
2	19	21.1	28	31.1
3	62	68.9	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	43	48.3	43	48.3
1	35	39.3	78	87.6
2	7	7.9	85	95.5
3	4	4.5	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PPQ9	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	38	42.2	38	42.2
1	41	45.6	79	87.8
2	7	7.8	86	95.6
3	4	4.4	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ10	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	33	37.1	33	37.1
1	50	56.2	83	93.3
2	5	5.6	88	98.9
3	1	1.1	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PPQ11	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	30	33.3	30	33.3
1	41	45.6	71	78.9
2	13	14.4	84	93.3
3	6	6.7	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ12	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	23	25.6	23	25.6
1	53	58.9	76	84.4
2	13	14.4	89	98.9
3	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	32	35.6	32	35.6
1	43	47.8	75	83.3
2	15	16.7	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	5	5.6	5	5.6
1	19	21.1	24	26.7

2	49	54.4	73	81.1
3	17	18.9	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	62	68.9	62	68.9
1	26	28.9	88	97.8
2	1	1.1	89	98.9
3	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ16	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	54	60.0	54	60.0
1	28	31.1	82	91.1
2	8	8.9	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ17	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	27	30.0	27	30.0
1	58	64.4	85	94.4
2	3	3.3	88	97.8
3	2	2.2	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ18	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	25	28.1	25	28.1
1	42	47.2	67	75.3
2	13	14.6	80	89.9
3	9	10.1	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PPQ19	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent

0	17	18.9	17	18.9
1	49	54.4	66	73.3
2	23	25.6	89	98.9
3	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ20	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	16	17.8	16	17.8
1	41	45.6	57	63.3
2	26	28.9	83	92.2
3	7	7.8	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ21	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	27	30.0	27	30.0
1	45	50.0	72	80.0
2	16	17.8	88	97.8
3	2	2.2	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ22	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	14	15.6	14	15.6
1	41	45.6	55	61.1
2	31	34.4	86	95.6
3	4	4.4	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ23	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	22	25.3	22	25.3
1	50	57.5	72	82.8
2	10	11.5	82	94.3
3	5	5.7	87	100.0

Frequency Missing = 7

PPQ24	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	2.2	2	2.2
1	16	17.8	18	20.0
2	36	40.0	54	60.0
3	36	40.0	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PPQ25	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	10	11.4	10	11.4
1	34	38.6	44	50.0
2	32	36.4	76	86.4
3	12	13.6	88	100.0

Frequency Missing = 6

PGQ1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	83	92.2	83	92.2
1	7	7.8	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	12	13.3	12	13.3
1	54	60.0	66	73.3
2	23	25.6	89	98.9
3	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent

0	38	42.2	38	42.2
1	48	53.3	86	95.6
2	4	4.4	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	11	12.6	11	12.6
1	26	29.9	37	42.5
2	41	47.1	78	89.7
3	9	10.3	87	100.0

Frequency Missing = 7

PGQ5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	74	82.2	74	82.2
1	16	17.8	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	59	65.6	59	65.6
1	31	34.4	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	76	84.4	76	84.4
1	14	15.6	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	62	68.9	62	68.9
1	27	30.0	89	98.9
2	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ9	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	73	81.1	73	81.1
1	16	17.8	89	98.9
2	1	1.1	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ10	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	38	42.2	38	42.2
1	37	41.1	75	83.3
2	13	14.4	88	97.8
3	2	2.2	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ11	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	43	47.8	43	47.8
1	39	43.3	82	91.1
2	8	8.9	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ12	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	77	85.6	77	85.6
1	13	14.4	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	41	45.6	41	45.6
1	42	46.7	83	92.2
2	7	7.8	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	82	91.1	82	91.1
1	8	8.9	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	45	50.0	45	50.0
1	42	46.7	87	96.7
2	3	3.3	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ16	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	33	37.1	33	37.1
1	41	46.1	74	83.1
2	14	15.7	88	98.9
3	1	1.1	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PGQ17	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	43	47.8	43	47.8
1	40	44.4	83	92.2
2	7	7.8	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ18	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	24	27.6	24	27.6
1	44	50.6	68	78.2
2	18	20.7	86	98.9
3	1	1.1	87	100.0

Frequency Missing = 7

PGQ19	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	69	76.7	69	76.7
1	21	23.3	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

			Cumulative	Cumulative

PGQ20	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	43	48.3	43	48.3
1	44	49.4	87	97.8
2	2	2.2	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PGQ21	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	3	3.4	3	3.4
1	14	15.7	17	19.1
2	44	49.4	61	68.5
3	28	31.5	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

PGQ22	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	65	72.2	65	72.2
1	21	23.3	86	95.6
2	4	4.4	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ23	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	67	74.4	67	74.4
1	21	23.3	88	97.8
2	2	2.2	90	100.0

Frequency Missing = 4

PGQ24	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent

0	79	88.8	79	88.8
1	10	11.2	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 5

Parenting Goals Questionnaire (PGQ)

Note. Items are in the same order as items on the questionnaire labeled, "Parenting Goals Questionnaire," listed in Appendix D. Item responses on the questionnaire were numbered from 1 to 4, while responses range from 0 to 3. This change was made necessary by computer scanning, and had no effect on results.

PGQ1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	83	92.2	83	92.2
1	7	7.8	90	100.0

PGQ2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	12	13.3	12	13.3
1	53	58.9	65	72.2
2	24	26.7	89	98.9
3	1	1.1	90	100.0

PGQ3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	37	41.1	37	41.1
1	49	54.4	86	95.6
2	4	4.4	90	100.0

PGQ4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	10	11.5	10	11.5
1	26	29.9	36	41.4
2	42	48.3	78	89.7
3	9	10.3	87	100.0

Frequency Missing = 3

PGQ5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	74	82.2	74	82.2
1	16	17.8	90	100.0

PGQ6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	58	64.4	58	64.4
1	32	35.6	90	100.0

PGQ7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	75	83.3	75	83.3
1	15	16.7	90	100.0

PGQ8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	61	67.8	61	67.8
1	28	31.1	89	98.9
2	1	1.1	90	100.0

PGQ9	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	73	81.1	73	81.1
1	16	17.8	89	98.9
2	1	1.1	90	100.0

PGQ10	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	38	42.2	38	42.2
1	36	40.0	74	82.2
2	14	15.6	88	97.8
3	2	2.2	90	100.0

PGQ11	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	43	47.8	43	47.8
1	39	43.3	82	91.1

2	8	8.9	90	100.0

PGQ12	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	77	85.6	77	85.6
1	13	14.4	90	100.0

PGQ13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	39	43.8	39	43.8
1	43	48.3	82	92.1
2	7	7.9	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	81	91.0	81	91.0
1	8	9.0	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	45	50.0	45	50.0
1	42	46.7	87	96.7
2	3	3.3	90	100.0

PGQ16	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	34	38.2	34	38.2
1	40	44.9	74	83.1
2	14	15.7	88	98.9
3	1	1.1	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ17	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	42	46.7	42	46.7
1	41	45.6	83	92.2
2	7	7.8	90	100.0

PGQ18	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	23	26.4	23	26.4
1	45	51.7	68	78.2
2	18	20.7	86	98.9
3	1	1.1	87	100.0

Frequency Missing = 3

PGQ19	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	69	76.7	69	76.7
1	21	23.3	90	100.0

PGQ20	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	42	47.2	42	47.2
1	44	49.4	86	96.6
2	3	3.4	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ21	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	3	3.4	3	3.4
1	13	14.6	16	18.0
2	45	50.6	61	68.5
3	28	31.5	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ22	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	64	71.9	64	71.9
1	21	23.6	85	95.5
2	4	4.5	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ23	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	66	74.2	66	74.2
1	21	23.6	87	97.8

2	2	2.2	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

PGQ24	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	79	88.8	79	88.8
1	10	11.2	89	100.0

Frequency Missing = 1

Vita

CURRICULUM VITA

Glenn Elbert "Bert" Fox, Jr.

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Blacksburg, Virginia 24060

Phone: (540) 552-0326
Email: foxb@vt.edu

EDUCATION:

Doctor of Philosophy in Family and Child Development
Child Development Option
Virginia Tech (V.P.I. & S.U.), Blacksburg, VA
August 1994 - May 1999

Master of Arts in Psychology
Counseling Option
Radford University, Radford, VA
August 1992 - May 1994

Bachelor of Science in Psychology
Minors: Spanish and Philosophy
Virginia Tech (V.P.I. & S.U.), Blacksburg, VA
August 1988 - May 1992

COURSES TAUGHT:

Principles of Psychology (January 1999-present)
Psychology of Human Sexuality (Fall 1998)
Introduction to Human Development: Infancy to Adolescence (1995-98)

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

Adjunct Faculty: Psychology, Dr. Charles White, Division Chair, New River Community College, Dublin, VA.

Taught classes, constructed syllabi, conducted assessments, wrote tests, counseled students. Overall student evaluation score- 4.5 out of 5. August 1998-Present.

Graduate Teaching Assistant: Associate Professor Cosby S. Rogers, PhD/ Patti Kelly-Harrison, PhD, Department of Family and Child Development, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA.

Assist with class of approximately 300 students per semester. Maintained website, assisted with listserv operation. Gave lectures, wrote exams, proctored exams, answered student questions, counseled students, conducted study sessions, assisted with research. August 1995-May 1996; August 1996-May 1998.

Research Assistant: The VA Tech Story Reading Project, Associate Professor Andrew J. Stremmel, PhD. Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA. Project supported by a grant from The Spencer Foundation.

Tested 86 children, conducted classroom observations (2 classrooms per week for 8 weeks), liaison with teachers implementing project, supervised undergraduate research assistants, conducted data

entry, data rechecking, and data analysis using SPSS, co-lead training session, co-authored and presented presentations. August, 1996 - May 1997.

Research Specialist: The VA Tech Story Reading Project, Andrew J. Stremmel, PhD. Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA.

Assisted with operations of pilot study, which included classroom observations, liaison with teachers implementing treatments, conducted tests of children, videotaped treatment sessions. Revised research procedures, such as the kinds of questions asked to children, and the ethics of videotaping. Collected baseline data on procedures at project implementation sites. April 1996- June 1996.

Administrative Assistant/Head Teacher: Andrew J. Stremmel, PhD, Director; Child Development Laboratory School, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA.

Teaching duties: supervised Assistant Teachers, created developmentally appropriate environment for seven toddlers, planned activities for those children, adhered to daily plan and routine.

Administrative duties: maintained filing systems, provided first aid to children, substituted for other administrative, teaching, or other staff as necessary, maintained supply cabinets, cleaned and maintained equipment, provided information about the Lab School to prospective clients, conducted tours, attended staff meetings, developed job description. August 1995-May 1996.

Graduate Teaching Assistant: Associate Dean Roberta Minish, PhD, College of Human Resources, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA.

Counseled approximately 100 students per semester regarding class assignments, job search strategies, and class progress . Organized professional development seminars, carried out by faculty and graduate students, for class members. Maintained records of student grades and participation. Created a system for the check-out and check-in of professional seminar video tape. Instructed students taking the course as an independent study. August 1994 - May 1995.

Individual, Marriage, and Family Counselor: Family Service of Roanoke Valley, Roanoke, VA.

Co-lead educational and support group: "Parenting Special Needs Children" for one and one-half hours per week. Also maintained clinical files, scheduled group meeting space, and contacted prospective clients. April 1994 - July 1994.

Assistant Day Care Provider: The Growing Tree, Blacksburg, VA

Assisted with and provided substitute child care for ages six weeks to eight years in a home day care setting. Carried out developmentally appropriate activities. Provided written and oral feedback to parents. Assisted in maintenance of records. June 1989 - May 1990.

Practicum Placement:

Individual, Marriage, and Family Counselor: Family Service of Roanoke Valley, Roanoke, VA.

Fifteen hours per week. Provided counseling services with a primary focus on adolescents, children, and parenting. Conducted Initial Interviews and prepared written summaries including clinical assessment and treatment plan. Organized and conducted an educational group focused on parenting skills and prepared session on developmentally appropriate discipline. Co-led two six-week Filial Play Therapy groups and developed a handout for parents regarding developmental stages and age-appropriate play. Participated in staff meetings and presented client information to supervising psychiatrist. Participated in peer supervision. June 1993 - July 1994

RESEARCH:

Publications

Abraham, J., Dolittle, P., Campbell, W. G., Fox, G. E., & Campbell, M. S. Dynamic Systems

Theory: Applications for Education. Paper in preparation.

Murphy, S. B., Fox, B., Stremmel, A. J., Singh, K., Schetz, K. F., and Tentor, M. Whistling for Willie: An Examination of Preschool Literacy Comprehension. Paper in preparation. Research supported by a grant from the Spencer Foundation.

Schetz, K. F., Murphy, S. B., Stremmel, A. J., Singh, K., and Fox, G. E.. Language and Early Literacy Skills: Effects of Storybook Reading in Preschool. Paper submitted for publication. Research supported by a grant from the Spencer Foundation.

Dissertation

Fox, G.E. (1999). Parents' Goals and Practices: To What Extent do Parental Goals for Socialization Influence their Practices?

Thesis

Fox, G.E. (1994). A Cross-Cultural Study of College Students' Dependence on Their Parent(s). Unpublished Master's Thesis, Radford University, Radford, Virginia.

Footnote: Harrison, D.W., Alden, J. D., Lanter, J.J., & Zicafoose, B.F. (1990). Sensory modification of nonpropositional speech: Excessive emotional vocalization disorder with dementia. Neuropsychology, 4, 215-221.

National Conference Presentations

November, 1997	"Child-Centered and Teacher-Directed Book Reading Experiences: Effects on Emerging Literacy," Katherine Schetz, Susie Murphy, Andrew Stremmel, Kusum Singh, and Bert Fox. Paper presented at the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association National Convention, Boston, Massachusetts.
July, 1995	"A Cross-Cultural Study of College Students' Reliance on their Parent(s)," Poster Session, American Psychological Society Conference, New York, New York.

Regional Conference Presentations

February, 1997	"Whistling for Willie: An Examination of Preschool Literacy Comprehension," Susan Murphy, Bert Fox, Miche' Tentor, Andy Stremmel, Kusum Singh, and Katherine Schetz, Eastern Educational Research Association Conference, Hilton Head, South Carolina.
February, 1996	"Applications of the Developmental Systems Approach to Parenting," Southeastern Council on Family Relations Conference, Atlanta, Georgia.
April, 1995	"Counseling Issues of Bisexual Clients and Their Counselor," Twentieth Annual Symposium on Child and Family Development, Athens, Georgia.

State Conference Presentations

March, 1997	"Using Story Reading to Enhance Literacy Skills in Preschool Children," Bert Fox, Andy Stremmel, Susie Murphy, Kusum Singh, and Katherine Schetz, Virginia Educational Research Association, Richmond, Virginia.
February, 1997	"Electronic Resources for Early Childhood Teacher Education," a break-out group in seminar: "Ideas and Dialogue to Enhance Teacher Education," Virginia Association for the Education of Young Children Conference, Norfolk, Virginia.

Local Conference Presentations

March, 1998	"Parent Goals: How do Goals Relate to Parenting?" Roundtable presentation, First Annual College of Human Resources and Education Graduate Student Research Conference, Blacksburg, Virginia.
October, 1995	"Play Matters: Construction of Knowledge Through Play," Dr. Cosby Rogers, Bert Fox, Cindy Clemons, and Teresa Whitt, New River Valley Association for the Education of Young Children Conference, Blacksburg, Virginia.

Workshops

December, 1997	"Preschool Behavior: What to Expect." Presented for Virginia Tech Resource and Referral; one of an outreach series of parenting seminars, Pearisburg, VA.
April, 1996	"Sexual Harassment in the Workplace." Presented to students in HR 4004, one of a series of seminars providing career information. Also presented in the fall of 1995, spring of 1995, and fall of 1994.
April, 1995	"Getting into Graduate School and Surviving. Presented to students in HR 4004, one of a series of seminars providing career information. Also presented in the fall of 1994.
November, 1993	"Discipline: The Six C's that Make an 'A'." Presented to parents for Family Service of Roanoke Valley.

ACTIVITIES/SERVICE:

Representative: College of Human Resources and Education Graduate Student Council, August 1997- May 1998.

- Represented concerns of graduate students to the Dean of the College.
- Assisted with creation of Council Mission Statement.
- Assisted with initial organization of the Council.

Delegate: Graduate Student Assembly of Virginia Tech, August 1997-May 1998.

- Represented concerns of graduate students in my department.
- Passed information regarding GSA activities to my department, including funding opportunities, GSA activities, and other relevant information.

Member: Cabinet of the Graduate Student Assembly, October 1997- May 1998.
- Communicated relevant information from University Library Committee to the rest of the GSA.

Representative: University Library Committee of Virginia Tech, October, 1997-May 1998.
- Represented Graduate Student Assembly.
- Attended every meeting since appointment..
- Communicated graduate student concerns to the Committee, especially regarding issues of photocopying and renewal policy.
- Communicated with Graduate Student Representative to the University Board of Visitors on concerns of graduate students regarding Library funding.

Student Representative: Graduate Policies and Procedures Committee, Department of Family and Child Development, Virginia Tech, September 1995-May 1998.
- Attended all meetings since appointment.
- Polled graduate students regarding proposed exit interview-type of evaluation of the graduate program.
- Polled graduate students regarding experiences with Preliminary Examinations.
- Proposed and engineered creation of a student liaison between faculty and staff and students for the utilization of graduate student office space.

Organizer: The Annual Symposium of the Southeastern Council on Child and Family Studies, 1997.
- Organized accommodations for symposium participants, both in hotels and in residences of faculty and graduate students in the department.
- Operated registration desk
- Ensured that attendees met their hosts.
- Assisted with planning and implementation of other aspects of the symposium.

Family and Child Development Graduate Student Association 1994-Present
- Graduate Student Office Manager 1995-May 1998

Teen Parent Support Program: 1990-1991
- Trained in empathy, conflict management, child development, utilization of local resources and child nutritional needs.
- Worked one-on-one with a teen parent and assisted with another.

Professional Affiliations:

American Psychological Association
Society for Research in Child Development
National Association for the Education of Young Children
Virginia Educational Research Association

Honor Societies:

Kappa Omicron Nu
Phi Kappa Phi
Psi Chi