

PARENTHOOD CONCEPTS OF ADULTS
REARED WITHOUT PARENTS,

by

Patricia Gail Martin,

Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Management, Housing and Family Development

APPROVED:

~~Dr. Joseph W. Maxwell~~, Chairman

~~Dr. Shirley Farrier~~

~~Dr. James E. Montgomery~~

~~Dr. Clyde Kramer~~

June, 1974

Blacksburg, Virginia

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express her sincere appreciation to Dr. Joseph Maxwell for his direction of the thesis and for the encouragement he gave during the course of work on the project. Additionally, special thanks are extended to Dr. Clyde Kramer for his cooperation and advice concerning the analysis of data. The writer also wishes to acknowledge Dr. Shirley Farrier and Dr. James E. Montgomery. Their constructive criticisms and intellectual guidance were greatly appreciated.

The cooperation of _____, is gratefully acknowledged. Through his personal interest and helpful suggestions, the writer was greatly assisted in the collection of the data.

Finally, gratitude goes to the parents of the researcher, as it is through their support, guidance and love that this educational opportunity was achieved.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii

LIST OF TABLES iv

CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION 1

II. LITERATURE REVIEW 4

III. PROCEDURE 13

 Subjects and Collection of Data 13

 Instrument 17

 Scoring 21

 Analysis of Data 22

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 23

 Results 23

 Discussion 33

V. SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 38

 Summary 38

 Limitations and Recommendations 39

REFERENCES 43

APPENDIX 46

VITA 64

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Description of Subjects	16
2. Mean PARI Subscale Scores of Males from Institutional and Nuclear Family Settings	26
3. Mean PARI Subscale Scores of Females from Institutional and Nuclear Family Settings	29
4. Mean PARI Subscale Scores of Males and Females	31
5. Differences Between Males and Females on PARI Subscales as Revealed by Analysis of Variance	32

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Child-rearing generally refers to the interactions between parents and children. These interactions include such things as the parents' expressions of attitudes, interests, values and beliefs, as well as the care-taking aspect of the developing child. Child-rearing beliefs and values are products of the mothers' and fathers' own upbringing (Sears, et al. 1957).

Harris, Gough and Martin (1950), in studying the relationship of children's ethnic attitudes to parental beliefs concerning child training, state that a number of studies which have shown a positive correlation between attitudes of children and parents imply that "The attitudes maintained by parents provide learning situations wherein children develop attitudes of their own which resemble the points of view expressed by parents." (p. 169). It may be that the type of atmosphere the parents provide induces their children to develop similar personality structures, including particular attitudes, biases and beliefs.

In a study dealing with the concept of identification, Stoke (1950), arrived at the following description: "A child gives its emotional allegiance to one of its parents and tries to duplicate in its own life the ideas, attitudes, and behavior of the parent with whom it is identifying." (p. 163).

Lazowick (1955) confirmed this idea when he stated that individuals behave more like their parents, particularly the same sexed parent, than other adults chosen at random.

Mussen and Distler (1960), explaining role theory, stated that individuals are most likely to play the role of, or identify with others whom they perceive as powerful. With the child this person would be the one who most effectively controls his rewards and punishments (p. 96).

It is through playing at a particular role that a child either rejects or appropriates various attitudes associated with that role. The child can only play at a role when he can imaginatively construct the attitudes of the person he is pretending to be and can anticipate and, therefore, imitate the appropriate behavior.

Horrocks and Jackson (1972) explain that an individual learns to expect and anticipate behaviors characteristic of certain role figures by "cognitively-affectively processing direct and vicarious experiences acquired through actual interactions, imitations, modeling, hearsay, imagination and reading." (p. 93).

Every person in society holds or occupies certain positions or statuses--public servant, educator, parent, etc. With every social position there are socially prescribed duties or functions to be performed. These functions are called "social roles" or "roles". We may define role as "A socially prescribed way of behaving in particular situations for any person occupying a given social position or status." (Coutu, 1951, p. 180).

Every role in the social system, like the mother-father role in the parent-child system, has some specific duties within the system.

The content of the role, that is, the behavior one should exhibit, is customarily prescribed by society's members for the incumbent of the role. Generally, persons have been equipped through prior "in-service-training" for the proper performance of their roles (Brim, 1957, p. 345).

Parent figures are an important set of social objects with whom the child constantly interacts. Parents, in their functions as the child's first reference group, attempt to transmit to their offspring, role patterns leading to receptive conformity toward adults and individual autonomy toward other children (Emmerich and Smoller, 1964).

It is the purpose of this study to investigate the parental attitudes a person develops who grows up in an institutional setting rather than a nuclear family setting.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Even though there may be a general feeling among middle- and upper-class parents that children should not be their parents' "creation", both research findings and common sense demonstrate that with varying degrees of consciousness and conscientiousness, parents do, in many ways, create their children psychologically as well as physically and that children commonly model themselves after their parents (Baumrind, 1965, p. 230).

In the study, "Child's Symbolic Conceptualization of Parents", Kagan et al. (1961) investigated the child's differential conceptualization of the concepts mother, father, and self. Subjects were 98 white children from intact families. Their median age was six and one-half years. Boys and girls agreed that father in relation to mother was stronger, larger, more dangerous, more dirty, darker, and more angular. Boys, in comparison to girls, labeled themselves as stronger, larger, more dangerous, darker, and more angular. Thus, the six-year-old child labels himself as more similar to the same than to the opposite sex parent on attributes that are highly symbolic of sex roles. The authors concluded from their data that some of the labels that are linked with the concepts male and female in the adult psyche have been acquired by the time the child is five or six years old (p. 633). Adequate sex-typing or acquisition of the personality characteristics,

behavior, and attitudes appropriate to the child's own sex, is generally considered to be a major consequence of strong identification with the like-sexed parent.

Mussen and Distler (1959) compared the responses of two groups of five-year-old boys--one group high and one group low in masculinity as measured by the It Scale for Children (ITSC), which is a projective test of sex-role preferences--to nine semistructured familial doll-play stories. They found that young boys who were strongly identified with the male role perceived their fathers as more nurturant and rewarding than did their weakly identified peers (p. 355).

In a later study by Mussen and Distler (1960), the mothers of nineteen boys, nine of them high and ten of them low in masculinity as measured by the ITSC, were interviewed about their own and their husbands' child-rearing practices. The interviews were recorded and rated on twenty-eight dimensions. The results showed that sex-typing of interests was more directly related to boys' interaction with their fathers than with their mothers. The highly masculine boys and their fathers were rated as "acting more affectionately toward each other", and the father-to-child affectional bonds were stronger in the case of the boys in this group. Compared with the fathers of the low masculine group, the fathers of highly masculine sons tended to take care of their sons more frequently and to have greater responsibility for the family's child-rearing policies (p. 93).

The authors interpreted these findings as evidence supportive of the role-taking hypothesis of identification. According to this hypothesis, a boy will be most strongly motivated to identify with

his father, or, in role theory terms, to imitate him or take on his role, if he has intensive interactions with that parent and regards him as having a great deal of power.

It is through identification with the important adults in his life that the child acquires much of his behavior repertoire. This process, which has been described as observational learning and role taking, appears to be more a result of active imitation by the child of attitudes and patterns of behavior that the parents have never directly attempted to teach than of direct reward and punishment of instrumental responses (Bandura and Houston, 1961, p. 311). During the parents' social training of a child, the range of cues employed by a child is likely to include both those that the parents consider immediately relevant and other cues of parental behavior which the child has had ample opportunities to observe and to learn, even though he has not been instructed to do so.

Bandura and Houston (1961), studying the concept of identification as a process of incidental learning, used forty-eight preschool children to test the hypothesis that children would learn to imitate behavior exhibited by an experimenter-model, and that a nurturant interaction between the model and the child would enhance the secondary reward properties of the model and thus facilitate such imitative learning. The subjects performed a two-choice discrimination problem with a model who displayed fairly explicit, although functionless, behaviors during the trials. Half the subjects in the experimental and control groups experienced a rewarding interaction with the model prior to the imitative learning, while the remaining subjects experienced

a cold and nonnurturant relationship. Both the experimental and control subjects reproduced behaviors resembling that of their model. Nurturance was not found to influence the rate of imitative discrimination. However, subjects in the nurturant condition exhibited significantly more predecision conflict behavior than did subjects in the nonnurturant group (p. 317).

Yando and Zigler (1971) measured the concept of outerdirectedness using eight groups of twenty-four children each, institutionalized and noninstitutionalized familiar and organic retarded and younger and older normal children. They defined outerdirectedness as "the degree to which the individual uses external cues in his problem solving rather than relying on his own cognitive resources" (p. 277). Two measures of outerdirectedness were given: a three-choice discrimination learning task in which a light was presented above one or two incorrect stimuli; a task in which the child could imitate designs made by an adult or presented by a machine.

It was discovered that the pattern of making more noncued than cued errors was more marked for the institutionalized than the noninstitutionalized normal children. In the experimental condition of the discrimination of learning task, the institutionalized normals often verbalized their feelings that the experimenter was trying to fool them. The authors concluded that the life experiences of institutionalized normal children gave rise to suspiciousness and wariness, which resulted in their learning very quickly to actively avoid an erroneous cue provided by an adult (p. 286).

It is interesting to note that this same tendency was not found in the institutionalized familial retarded subjects. It thus appears that if the child's intellect is adequate, he can choose not to use the cues provided by an adult. If his past interactions with adults have been negative, it is reasonable that he will often avoid adults and the cues they provide (p. 286).

In a later study of outerdirectedness, Yando and Zigler (1972) compared imitative behavior and outerdirectedness of 192 institutionalized and noninstitutionalized younger and older children of normal intelligence. The task, which was designed to elicit imitative behavior, allowed for the comparison of performance under conditions where the task was presented as a problem or no-problem and where cues were provided by an adult or by a machine. The results indicated that the amount of imitation in which a child engages is complexly determined by (a) the cognitive level of the child, (b) his attitude toward the adult who is providing the cues which may be imitated and (c) the nature of the task that confronts him (p. 423-4).

Younger noninstitutionalized children were found to be significantly more imitative than younger institutionalized children. The institutionalized subjects had all been removed from their families for such reasons as physical abuse and abandonment. It was assumed that the past experiences of the institutionalized children led them to view the examiner as a nonnurturant adult, whereas the past experiences of the noninstitutionalized children led them to view the examiner as a nurturant adult.

In attempting to explain why a model viewed as nurturant generates a higher frequency of imitation than does a model viewed as

nonnurturant, the authors concluded that the suspiciousness institutionalized children exhibit toward adults results in a reduction in reliance on cues provided by adults. In both the present and the earlier study (Yando and Zigler, 1971), a difference in imitation was found only between the younger institutionalized and noninstitutionalized children. The failure to find such a difference between the two older groups was probably due to the general tendency of all older children not to imitate.

The nature of the task that confronted the child was also an important determinant of imitation. The behavior of institutionalized and noninstitutionalized children was more similar in the problem condition. When children were presented with an insoluble problem-solving task, no institutional effect was found; the only significant effect was that all younger children imitated more than all older children. It appears that young institutionalized children overcome their reluctance to utilize adult cues when confronted with a problem that cannot be solved by employing their own intellectual resources (p. 424).

The growing child's ability to imitate is augmented by developing attention, memory and other cognitive processes. While the ability to assimilate and reproduce behaviors emitted by a model is an important factor in the imitative process, the child's desire and need to imitate are much more important determinants of the extent to which he will display imitative behavior (Britt, 1971).

After studying the child-care attitudes of two generations of mothers, Cohler, et al. (1971) felt that it was probable that

identification was an important determinant of intergenerational similarities in attitudes. The Maternal Attitude Scale was administered to ninety mother-grandmother pairs. Significant positive relationships between the child-care attitudes of mothers and their own mothers were found for three of the five factors: appropriate control, encouragement of reciprocity, and competence in meeting the baby's needs. A mother's feelings of being able to channel the child's expression of angry feelings, of being able to respond to the baby's demand for a social relationship, and of competence to interpret the baby's cues regarding his physical needs are all related to the attitudes her own mother had regarding these issues (p. 7). From their findings, the authors concluded that the child-care attitudes of mothers are related to, but different from those of their own mothers.

Woods et al. (1960) investigated the relationship between how a young woman intended to raise her children and how she herself was raised. Chi squares were computed on eighty-six mother-daughter pairs for each of the thirty-four items on the questionnaire. The only item that yielded a significant chi square ($p < .001$) was that concerning punishment for disobedience. The authors concluded that the failure to find any other significant relationships indicated that "other variables were more important in determining the daughters' intentions and expectations than their own experiences in each area" (p. 124).

In attempting to answer the question, "What is there in the background of either parent or in the relationships between the parents that can be related to the adoptions of a given form of parental behavior toward children?", Symonds (1939) was able to draw tentative

conclusions based on his study of twenty-eight pairs of children of dominating and submissive parents. He noted that dominant parents tend to have been dominated as children and submissive parents tend to have had parents who were submissive to them.

Itkin (1952), to test the hypothesis that pre-parental attitudes toward children are related to the individuals' attitudes toward their parents and to their parents' attitudes toward children in general and toward them in particular, sent attitude questionnaires to 400 college students and to their parents. His findings indicate that prior to becoming parents, the individuals have already developed favorable or unfavorable attitudes in regard to children and attitudes of strictness or laxness in regard to the control of children. The data suggested that for men students, the attitudes of their mothers toward children and toward them in particular have a more significant bearing upon the development of their pre-parental attitudes toward children than do the corresponding attitudes of their fathers. For women there was no significant difference between the influence of mothers or fathers upon their pre-parental attitudes toward children (p. 245). No significant relationships were found for either men or women students between their attitudes toward discipline of children and their attitudes toward the discipline exercised by either of their parents (p. 246). The low correlations obtained were interpreted as indicating that other factors in addition to intra-family factors studied must affect the development of attitudes toward children.

4

Tallman (1961), studying adaptability as an approach to assessing child-rearing practices, states:

A parent responding to a child in any situation would theoretically have an infinite number of behavioral acts to draw upon. That this is not the case is due to a number of factors which can best be summarized under the dual categories of personal experience and social structure. On the basis of past experience the parent has accepted some behavioral forms and discarded others. His life experiences have positively reinforced some forms of action and negatively reinforced others. (p. 652)

The previous studies have been concerned with the relation between the attitudes expressed by parents and those which their children develop while growing up in a nuclear family setting. These studies indicate that the child commonly models himself after his parents. It is through imitation of the important adults in the child's life that he learns the socially prescribed way of behaving in different situations. Several of the studies indicated that institutionalized "normal" children were less likely to imitate behavior provided by an adult than were their counterparts who were reared in a nuclear family setting.

Studies concerning child-rearing attitudes indicate that the attitudes a person develops are related to the attitudes expressed by his parents regarding child-rearing. There were no research oriented resources available which examined the type of attitudes developed by a person who has grown up in an institutional setting away from the influences of his natural parents. The present study sought to compare the parental attitudes of adults who grew up in an institutional setting and those of adults who grew up in a nuclear family setting.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Subjects and Collection of Data

The following criteria were set as prerequisites for the inclusion of subjects reared in a children's home: (1) must have lived in a children's home prior to age 18; (2) must be married; (3) must have at least one child. In order to implement this, fifty adults were chosen from the alumni of the Baptist Children's Home in Salem, Virginia. Mr. R. Franklin Hough, Jr., director of the children's home, selected twenty-nine males and twenty-one females to participate in the study.

Thirty of the subjects returned the questionnaires. Three of these could not be used in the sample because one respondent failed to return the background information sheet, one respondent failed to answer all questions on the questionnaire, and one respondent did not have any children. The sample included ten females and seventeen males from the children's home. All of the subjects except one had at least one parent living for the first eighteen years of the subject's life. Eleven subjects had both parents living for this period of time, but not necessarily living together.

Following the collection of data from the alumni of the children's home, individually matched subjects were drawn from a larger sample of persons who had completed the Parental Attitude Research

Instrument (PARI). These persons had been reared in a nuclear family setting in which both parents were living together for the first eighteen years of the child's life. They were married and had at least one child. The two groups were matched on the basis of sex, age, and educational level.

The persons who completed the PARI from which the control group was obtained included twenty-five adults, twelve males and thirteen females whose children were participating in a nutrition camp at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in the summer of 1973; fifteen adults, ten males and five females, who were residents of Blacksburg, and twenty-four adults, twelve males and twelve females, who were employed or related to someone employed at the Veterans Administration Hospital in Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

An adaptation of the PARI was mailed to the subjects. Also included were a questionnaire concerning backgrounds of the respondents, a letter from the researcher explaining the study and giving instructions for completing the questionnaire and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope. A letter from Mr. Hough was included in the information sent to the alumni of the children's home.

Subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire as quickly as possible upon receipt and not to confer with their spouses while answering questions. It was stressed that there were no right or wrong answers and that it was the subject's personal opinion that was important. All questionnaires were mailed in June, 1973. Twenty-seven useable questionnaires were selected from the thirty returned by adults reared in the children's home. A control sample of twenty-seven subjects

were drawn from the sixty-four respondents reared in a nuclear family who returned the questionnaires.

A description of subjects is provided in Table I. The age-range categories for females from the children's home fell between thirty to thirty-four on the lower end to forty-five or above on the higher end. Three females entered the children's home between the ages of one to four; three entered between the ages five to nine; four entered between the ages ten to fourteen. After entering the children's home the majority of the subjects saw their parents only once or twice a year. Only one subject reported seeing her parents as often as once a month. All subjects resided at the home until they were eighteen years of age.

The level of educational attainment of the females ranged from post-college work to less than four years of high school. The number of children in the household ranged from two to four children ranging in age from two to twenty-eight. Five of the females were employed outside the home.

The age-range categories for males were twenty-five to thirty on the lower end to forty-five or above on the higher end. Five males entered the children's home between the ages of one to four; nine entered between five to nine years of age and three entered between ten to fourteen years of age. After entering the children's home, four of the subjects reported that their parents came to visit once a month and the remaining subjects reported being visited once or twice a year. All subjects resided at the children's home until eighteen years of age.

TABLE 1

Description of Subjects

	Children's Home N	Nuclear Family N
Sex		
Male	17	17
Female	10	10
Age		
25 - 29	2	2
30 - 34	7	7
35 - 39	9	9
40 - 44	4	4
45 - over	5	5
Education		
High School or Less	8	8
College	14	14
Graduate Degree	5	5
Annual Income - Males		
Under \$7,000	1	2
\$7,000 - \$9,999	1	4
\$10,000 - \$14,999	8	6
\$15,000 - above	7	5
Age at Marriage		
Under 20	1	6
20 - 24	16	16
25 - older	10	10
Average Number of Children		
Males	2.4	2.3
Females	2.6	3.1
At Least One Parent Living Until Child Reached 18 Years Of Age		
Males	16	17
Females	10	10
Average Number of Siblings		
Males	3.9	2.8
Females	5.7	2.7

The level of educational attainment for the males ranged from post graduate work to less than four years of high school. Their annual incomes fell into the categories of \$5,000 to \$6,999 on the lower end to \$20,000 and over on the higher end. The subjects had one to five children ranging in age from six months to twenty-five years.

The age range and level of educational attainment for the females in the control group was the same as that of the females from the children's home. They had two to four children ranging in age from one to twenty-eight. Six of the females were employed outside the home.

The age range and level of educational attainment for the males in the control group was the same as that of the males from the children's home. The number of children in the household ranged from one to five with an age range of one to twenty-nine years. Their annual incomes ranged from \$5,000 to \$6,999 on the lower end to \$20,000 and over on the upper end.

Instrument

An adaptation of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) developed by Earl Schaefer and Richard Bell was used for this study. The PARI is an inventory consisting of thirty-two five-to-ten-item scales, designed in such a way as to allow other investigators to select sets of scales related to their theoretical interests. The thirty-two concepts were derived from previous studies of parental attitudes that yielded statistically significant results (Mark, 1953; Shoben, 1949).

The PARI was developed through the following sequence of events:

During two different two-month periods, women were tested within one to four days following delivery of their babies at a military hospital in Washington, D. C. There were 200 subjects with an age range of eighteen through thirty-seven. Fifty percent had completed high school, twelve percent had less than a high school education and thirty-seven percent had some college or had completed college.

Reliabilities were estimated with Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for the thirty-two scales included in Trial Form I and II for both multiparae and primiparae. In an attempt to develop a more efficient test, the five most reliable items for each scale were selected for Final Form IV which consists of twenty-three five-item scales. Internal consistency reliability coefficients were calculated for these five-item scales on new samples of sixty multiparae and sixty primiparae. In general, the reliabilities were again satisfactory for multivariate research on group differences. This form of the PARI yields a median scale reliability of .67 (Schaefer and Bell, 1958, p. 351).

Studies by Stogdill (1936), Anderson (1946), Shoben (1949), Radke (1946), Mark (1953), Harris, Gough, and Martin (1950), and Shapiro (1952), were cited as evidence supporting the concurrent validity of this general approach to the study of parent-child relationships.

Fifteen of the original twenty-three five-item scales made up the questionnaire for this study. Since the PARI measures attitudes toward child-rearing and family life, only scales pertaining to child-rearing were used.

The fifteen scales included were measures of parental attitudes on encouraging verbalization, fostering dependency, breaking the will, strictness, irritability, excluding outside influences, deification, suppression of aggression, equalitarianism, approval of activity, avoidance of communication, suppression of sex, intrusiveness, comradeship and sharing, and acceleration of development.

The scales "encouraging verbalization" and "avoidance of communication" were written to determine whether parents would permit or encourage the child to talk about his anxieties, conflicts, hostilities and disagreements with parental policies. Items in "comradeship and sharing" reflect approval of a close relationship which permits the child to express his views. The extent to which parents view their children as equals is expressed by the scale "equalitarianism".

"Exclusion of outside influences" reveals a wish for absolute control by the parents with the exclusion of others who might threaten the authority of the parent. The belief that the child should unreasonably revere the parent is expressed in the scale "deification". The "intrusiveness" scale reveals a belief that parents should know everything the child is thinking and doing.

The scale "strictness" reveals an opinion that rules and regulations should be rigidly enforced. The items in "breaking the will" reveal enforcement of absolute control through fear and forcing the child into submission. The scale "suppression of sexuality" indicates the need that parents feel to inhibit the sexual interests of the child.

"Fostering dependency" was designed to measure an aspect of over-protection of the child by the parent, while the scale "irritability" was included in an effort to determine if parents reject or ignore their children.

The items in the subscale "suppression of aggression" indicate a wish for a quiet child rather than an active, aggressive one who would be more independent and less easily controlled. The extent to which a parent feels the child should be kept busy and rushing at all times is measured by the subscale "approval of activity". The items in "acceleration of development" indicate a wish for the child to reach developmental goals at an accelerated pace.

Because the PARI was designed to be administered to females, some slight modifications were made in eleven of the items in order to make them applicable to males as well as females. For instance, item two was changed from, "A good mother should shelter her children from life's little difficulties." to, "Good parents should shelter their children from life's little difficulties." Items 5, 6, 13, 17, 20, 35, 58, 60, 66, and 73 were changed in such a manner.

In order to maintain the continuity of the statement, item 15 was changed from, "Most children are toilet trained by 15 months of age." to, "Children should be toilet trained by 15 months of age." It was assumed that adapting the items for this particular group of subjects did not change the reliability of the instrument.

The scores were ordered so that in an inventory of fifteen scales, the first fifteen items of the questionnaire consisted of one item from each of the fifteen scales. The next fifteen items consisted of a second

item from each of the fifteen subscales in the same order as the first fifteen items. This procedure was continued until all items in each scale were exhausted. All the items of the same scale can be located fifteen item spaces from each other in sequence.

Scale

Encouraging Verbalization	1,	16,	31,	46,	61
Fostering Dependency	2,	17,	32,	47,	62
Breaking the Will	3,	18,	33,	48,	63
Strictness	4,	19,	34,	49,	64
Irritability	5,	20,	35,	50,	65
Excluding Outside Influences	6,	21,	36,	51,	66
Deification	7,	22,	37,	52,	67
Suppression of Aggression	8,	23,	38,	53,	68
Equalitarianism	9,	24,	39,	54,	69
Approval of Activity	10,	25,	40,	55,	70
Avoidance of Communication	11,	26,	41,	56,	71
Suppression of Sex	12,	27,	42,	57,	72
Intrusiveness	13,	28,	43,	58,	73
Comradeship and Sharing	14,	29,	44,	59,	74
Acceleration of Development	15,	30,	45,	60,	75

Scoring

Weights of 4, 3, 2, 1 were assigned to the response categories of Strong Agreement, Mild Agreement, Mild Disagreement, and Strong Disagreement in that order. A scale score consists of the sum of the item weights. Because there are five items in each scale, the range of scores could vary as follows: a scale score of 16.3 - 20.0 would fall into the category "Strong Agreement"; a scale score of 12.5 - 16.2 would fall into the category "Mild Agreement"; a scale score of 8.7 - 12.4 would fall into the category "Mild Disagreement"; and a scale score below 8.6 would fall into the category of "Strong Disagreement".

Analysis of Data

The mean score was obtained for each individual item and for each scale for (a) women reared in the children's home; (b) men reared in the children's home; (c) women reared in a nuclear family setting; and (d) men reared in a nuclear family setting.

An analysis of variance was used to analyze the data in testing all hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Parental attitudes toward child-rearing were the subject of investigation in this study. Adults reared in a children's home and adults reared in a nuclear family setting rated their attitudes on fifteen aspects of child-rearing: encouraging verbalization, fostering dependency, breaking the will, strictness, irritability, excluding outside influences, deification, suppression of sex, equalitarianism, approval of activity, avoidance of communication, intrusiveness, comradeship and sharing, and acceleration of development. Comparisons were made between males of both groups, females of both groups, and males and females combined.

The first hypothesis tested was:

There will be no significant difference between male adults reared in an institutional setting and male adults reared in a nuclear family setting with regard to their perception of the appropriate parental behavior in:

- A. Encouraging verbalization of children
- B. Fostering dependency of children
- C. Breaking the will of children
- D. Exercising strictness with children
- E. Experiencing irritability with children
- F. Excluding outside influence on children
- G. Fostering deification of the parent by children
- H. Suppressing aggression of children
- I. Viewing children as equals
- J. Disapproval of inactivity of children
- K. Communication with children
- L. Acceptance of children's sexuality

- M. Intrusiveness into children's lives
- N. Comradship with children
- O. Accelerating development of children

The mean scores of the males on the fifteen subscales are presented in Table 1. No significant differences were found on any of the subscales between males reared in the institutional setting and those reared in a nuclear family setting, indicating that the attitudes of fathers in both groups are basically the same.

It should be noted that the scores of all subjects merely reflect stated attitudes. No assertion is being made that they do, in fact, behave in a one-to-one correspondence with their reported beliefs.

Fathers from both groups expressed approval of a close relationship between parent and child, which creates an atmosphere in which the child can more easily confide in his parents. The males felt that children should be allowed to talk about their anxieties, conflicts, hostilities, and disagreements with parental policies. They viewed the child as an individual whose opinions deserved consideration.

Both groups of fathers expressed the belief that the child can take care of himself and does not need to be protected from "life's difficulties". Neither group felt it was necessary for the child to revere his parents above all other adults nor did they feel threatened by outside influences on their child.

While all fathers agreed that rules and regulations should be enforced when dealing with children, they did not feel that a parent should force the child into submission by using absolute control.

Fathers expressed the belief that while rearing children was not necessarily a "nerve-wracking" job, there were times when children could be irritating.

Males from both groups agreed that sexual curiosity in children was natural and not something which has to be rigidly controlled. They did not express a need to intrude into their child's life, but rather indicated that they would allow him some privacy. Responses to the items in the subscale "acceleration of development" indicate the males' belief that children should reach developmental goals at an accelerated pace.

The second hypothesis tested was:

There will be no significant difference between female adults reared in an institutional setting and female adults reared in a nuclear family setting with regard to their perception of the appropriate parental behavior in:

- A. Encouraging verbalization of children
- B. Fostering dependency of children
- C. Breaking the will of children
- D. Exercising strictness with children
- E. Experiencing irritability with children
- F. Excluding outside influence on children
- G. Fostering deification of the parent by children
- H. Suppressing of aggression of children
- I. Viewing children as equals
- J. Disapproval of inactivity of children
- K. Communication with children
- L. Acceptance of children's sexuality
- M. Intrusiveness into children's lives
- N. Comradeship and sharing with children
- O. Accelerating development of children

The mean scores of the females on the fifteen subscales are presented in Table 2. No significant differences were found between females reared in the children's home and females reared in a nuclear family setting. Again no assertion is being made that the respondents behave in a one-to-one correspondence with their reported beliefs.

TABLE 2

Mean PARI Subscale Scores of Males from
Institutional and Nuclear Family Settings
(Range of Each Subscale Score 5 - 20)*

Subscale	Institu- tional Males		Nuclear Family Males	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Encourage verbalization	17.2	1.86	16.6	2.29
Fostering dependency	9.8	1.99	9.7	2.64
Breaking the will	9.2	3.31	9.9	2.59
Strictness	14.9	3.68	13.9	3.64
Irritability	13.5	2.48	12.9	2.33
Excluding outside influences	10.0	2.72	10.5	3.20
Deification	12.3	3.12	12.4	3.30
Suppression of aggression	11.1	2.03	10.8	1.82
Equalitarianism	15.2	3.21	14.2	1.98
Approval of activity	12.4	3.20	11.8	2.99
Avoidance of communication	9.4	2.42	9.3	2.57
Suppression of sex	8.5	2.35	8.8	2.61
Intrusiveness	9.8	3.09	10.7	4.13
Comradeship and sharing	17.8	1.20	17.6	1.91
Acceleration of development	12.2	3.82	12.0	3.10

*Scores below 12.5 show disapproval of items in the subscale
Scores above 12.5 show approval of items in the subscale

On four of the subscales, "encouraging verbalization", "excluding outside influences", "suppression of aggression", and "avoidance of communication", mean scores were the same for both groups or showed only a difference of .1. Both groups felt a child should be able to talk openly about his anxieties, conflicts and disagreements with parental policies and they were likely to create an atmosphere where the child would feel free to express these feelings.

The mothers did not feel threatened by the possibility that their children would be influenced by other adults. They agreed that children should not be expected to deify their parents and that parents should not force the child to revere them above other adults with whom they come in contact.

Both groups of mothers expressed a wish for an active, aggressive child rather than a quiet child who would be more dependent upon them. They disagreed with the items in "fostering dependency" revealing the belief that children should not be protected from the "everyday" problems which they are likely to encounter.

Mean scores for both groups fell into the category of "mildly agree" on the subscale "strictness". The items in this scale reveal a belief that children will be grateful later on for the enforcement of rules and regulations and that such enforcement will make better children of them. They did not, however, condone the use of force or fear as a means of achieving control over children.

Although mothers felt that children should be treated as equals and approved of a close relationship which would permit the child to

express his feelings on aspects of life which were important to him, there were still times when females experienced feelings of irritation with their children.

Females from both the institutional and nuclear family settings expressed the belief that children are entitled to privacy and parents should not intrude into this privacy. Mothers also expressed the belief that sexual curiosity is natural in children and they did not feel it was necessary for parents to inhibit such curiosity.

Both groups tended to agree that children should be allowed to develop at their own pace and there was no need to accelerate the developmental skills of their children. Females from the children's home did have a slightly higher mean score than females from the nuclear family setting.

The third hypothesis tested was:

There will be no significant difference between adult males and adult females with regard to their perception of the appropriate parental behavior in:

- A. Encouraging verbalization of children
- B. Fostering dependency of children
- C. Breaking the will of children
- D. Exercising strictness with children
- E. Experiencing irritability with children
- F. Excluding outside influence on children
- G. Fostering deification of the parent by children
- H. Suppressing aggression of children
- I. Viewing children as equals
- J. Disapproval of inactivity of children
- K. Communication with children
- L. Acceptance of children's sexuality
- M. Intrusiveness into children's lives
- N. Comradeship with children
- O. Accelerating development of children

The mean scores for males and females on the fifteen subscales are presented in Table 3. An analysis of variance (Table 4) yielded

TABLE 3

Mean PARI Subscale Scores of Females from
Institutional and Nuclear Family Settings
(Range of Each Subscale Score 5 - 20)*

Subscale	Institutional Females		Nuclear Family Females	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Encouraging verbalization	18.4	1.35	18.5	1.43
Fostering dependency	9.5	3.50	8.0	1.25
Breaking the will	10.2	2.86	9.7	3.02
Strictness	14.6	4.17	14.4	2.55
Irritability	14.5	2.02	13.9	2.73
Excluding outside influences	9.6	4.27	9.7	3.95
Deification	10.3	3.95	11.1	4.23
Suppression of aggression	10.7	2.21	10.7	1.64
Equalitarianism	16.1	2.13	16.6	2.12
Approval of activity	11.6	3.86	11.3	3.09
Avoidance of communication	9.4	3.10	9.4	2.73
Suppression of sex	6.4	1.65	6.7	1.95
Intrusiveness	9.3	4.69	8.1	2.23
Comradeship and sharing	18.2	1.48	18.6	1.58
Acceleration of development	9.6	3.75	8.7	2.71

*Scores below 12.5 show disapproval of items in the subscale
Scores above 12.5 show approval of items in the subscale

significant differences between males and females on four of the fifteen subscales. Thus, four of the sub-hypotheses were not accepted.

Females scored significantly higher ($p < .01$) on the subscale "encouraging verbalization" and ($p < .05$) on the subscale "equalitarianism". Items in these scales reflect the belief that children are individuals who should be allowed to express their anxieties and disagreements with parental policies and whose ideas should be considered when making decisions. It should be noted that the mean scores for males on both these subscales, while being lower than that of the females, still fell into the categories of "strongly agree" and "mildly agree", respectively, as did those of the females.

Males scored significantly higher ($p < .01$) than females on the subscales "suppression of sex" and "acceleration of development". Again it should be noted that while males scored significantly higher on the subscale "suppression of sex", both males and females agreed that it was not necessary to suppress sexual curiosity in children.

The items in the subscale "acceleration of development" reveal the belief that children should reach developmental goals at an accelerated pace. The mean score for males indicates that they are in agreement with the ideas expressed, while the mean score for females indicates that children should be allowed to develop at their own pace and they should not be pushed to reach these goals.

Both mothers and fathers felt that rules and regulations should be enforced when dealing with children. However, they did not condone the use of force or fear in order to gain absolute control over children.

TABLE 4

Mean PARI Subscale Scores
of Males and Females
(Range of Each Subscale Score 5 - 20)***

Subscale	Females Mean Score	Males Mean Score
Encouraging verbalization*	18.5	16.9
Fostering dependency	8.8	9.7
Breaking the will	9.95	9.59
Strictness	14.40	14.41
Irritability	14.2	13.21
Excluding outside influences	9.65	10.26
Deification	10.7	12.32
Suppression of aggression	10.7	10.94
Equalitarianism**	16.35	14.71
Approval of activity	11.45	12.09
Avoidance of communication	9.4	9.32
Suppression of sex*	6.55	8.62
Intrusiveness	8.7	10.26
Comradeship and sharing	18.4	17.68
Acceleration of development*	9.15	12.12

*Significant at .01 level of confidence

**Significant at .05 level of confidence

***Scores below 12.5 show disapproval of items in the subscale
Scores above 12.5 show approval of items in the subscale

TABLE 5

Differences Between Males and Females on PARI
Subscales as Revealed by Analysis of Variance

Subscale	F Value	Level of Significance
Encouraging verbalization	8.56	.01
Fostering dependency	2.04	
Breaking the will	.19	
Strictness	.008	
Irritability	2.16	
Excluding outside influences	.41	
Deification	2.63	
Suppression of aggression	.20	
Equalitarianism	5.51	.05
Approval of activity	.49	
Avoidance of communication	.01	
Suppression of sex	10.52	.01
Intrusiveness	2.30	
Comradeship and sharing	2.68	
Acceleration of development	9.57	.01

Neither males nor females perceived the child as a weak person who had to be protected from the difficulties of life. Men and women differed little in their preference for an active child rather than a quiet one. The mean scores indicate that parents felt the child should "stand up for himself" rather than expecting his parents to handle his problems for him.

The influence that other people might tend to have on the child's life did not seem to be a threat to males or females. However, while females disagreed with the items indicating that the child should deify his parents, males indicated that they believed the child should revere his parents above others with whom he comes into contact.

Both males and females agreed that children should be allowed a certain amount of privacy regarding their thoughts and activities. While not wanting to intrude into the child's life, the parents did express approval of a close relationship between parent and child which would permit the child to express his feelings openly.

Discussion

Although no significant differences were observed between individuals reared in nuclear families and those reared in an institutional setting, the tendency for one group to have higher mean scores on certain subscales indicates the possibility of their role-conceptions having been influenced by their childhood experiences. For example, males reared in a nuclear family setting were more likely to feel a need to intrude into the child's life and protect him from outside influences. Perhaps the situation present in an institutional

setting generates a current of feeling opposed to such behavior. Having lacked privacy, a father may be more inclined to give it. Having been more open to an abundance of outside influences, a father may be less fearful of them for his child.

The greater interest that males reared in the institution expressed concerning the child's feelings could have resulted from the lack of involvement the males experienced in determining the policies that governed their lives as they were growing up in the institution. In such a situation the main concern is for the well-being of the entire group rather than a particular individual. Rules and regulations are much more likely to be enforced in a group setting. Having themselves grown up under strict discipline, fathers may be more insistent that rules be obeyed by their own children.

The experiences of the institutionalized females seem to have influenced their attitudes regarding the parents' responsibility to protect their children from difficulties. Having been faced with many problems while growing up and not having a parent to depend on for support when problems had to be dealt with, a mother may tend to be more protective of her own children. However, having experienced a wide variety of relationships while growing up, these mothers expressed no need to limit the child's loyalty to themselves. It appears that the childhood experiences of adults reared in an institutionalized setting have positively reinforced some forms of behavior and negatively reinforced others.

On four of the fifteen subscales significant differences were found between the attitudes expressed by males and those expressed by

females. Females scored significantly higher on the subscales "encouraging verbalization" and "equalitarianism". Seeing themselves as "man of the house", males may be less inclined than females to give children an opportunity to express their feelings concerning policies that govern them. Fathers may see this as a threat to their power.

Both males and females disagreed with items in the subscale "suppression of sex", indicating they would not inhibit the sexual curiosity of their children. However, males scored significantly higher than females, indicating they would be more likely than females to inhibit such curiosity in their children. This is an experience regarding sexual behavior as they are growing up. It would seem that males, because of the fewer constraints they experienced, would express a greater understanding of such behavior in their own children. It may be that looking back on their own experiences, especially during their adolescent years, may produce guilt feelings which cause fathers to want to inhibit such behavior in their own children.

The significant differences found between males and females on the subscale "acceleration of development" could be attributed to the constant pressure a man feels to excel in whatever he is doing. This need to excel may affect his attitudes regarding child-rearing. Males are expected to be assertive and able to stand up for themselves, therefore they may be more demanding that their own children reach developmental goals at an accelerated pace. It is after they have been weaned from the bottle or breast, have been toilet trained and learn to walk that they become more self-sufficient and less dependent upon others.

There were no significant differences found between individuals reared in a children's home and individuals reared in a nuclear family setting with regard to their child-rearing attitudes. This indicates that children reared in an institutional setting have internalized the prescribed parental norms of the culture. It appears that the adults who were reared in the children's home were able to adjust to the environment in which they grew up, and were not handicapped by their background when they assumed the responsibility of parenthood.

The results of the present study indicate that there are factors other than intra-family factors which influence the development of acceptable attitudes toward children. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Itkin (1952), Woods et al. (1960), and Cohler (1971) regarding development of parental attitudes.

Attitudes regarding child-rearing do not materialize the instant one becomes a parent. Itkin (1952) has stated that prior to becoming parents, individuals have already developed favorable or unfavorable attitudes in regard to children and attitudes of strictness or laxness in regard to the control or discipline of children. The attitudes a person expresses concerning child-rearing have developed over a period of years. On the basis of past experiences the parent has accepted some behavioral forms and discarded others. The attitudes expressed by the adults who were reared in an institutional setting indicate that their past experiences did not have a detrimental effect on the attitudes they developed concerning child-rearing. It appears that children do not have to be reared in a nuclear family setting in order, as adults, to have developed

attitudes toward child-rearing similar to those held by adults reared in a nuclear family setting.

This leads to the conclusion that the structure of the environment in which the child is reared is not as important as are experiences in this environment. It is possible that we have been underestimating the ability of the child to adapt to changing situations. Goodman (1967) considers the Western concept of the child as a "creature of emotions, physically fragile and easily damaged" almost without parallel. She feels the child is a flexible person who is able to adjust to his environment. What might be considered under some circumstances as deprivation is likely to be accepted matter-of-factly by the child. As long as his needs for affection and concern are met, he can accept a wide range of conditions.

This should be of particular interest to persons who are responsible for the care-taking aspects of the institutionalized child. This child will be able to adapt to his environment if he is not handicapped by an inclination on the part of those who are caring for him to underestimate his social adaptability. He has the same need for love and attention as a child growing up in a nuclear family setting. If these needs are met, he should be able to meet the expectations of those around him.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the parental attitudes of adults who grew up in a children's home as compared to those who were reared in a nuclear family setting. Data were collected during July and August, 1973. Twenty-seven Caucasian adults were selected from former residents of Salem Baptist Children's Home and matched according to sex, age, and education with adults reared in a nuclear family setting.

The instrument used in the investigation was a modification of Schaefer and Bell's Parental Attitude Research Instrument. In order to elicit certain background variables a biographical data sheet was included with the questionnaire. The PARI consisted of fifteen subscales: encouraging verbalization, fostering dependency, breaking the will, strictness, irritability, excluding outside influences, deification, suppression of aggression, equalitarianism, approval of activity, avoidance of communication, suppression of sex, intrusiveness, comradeship and sharing, and acceleration of development.

No significant differences were found between parental attitudes expressed by adults who were reared in an institutional setting and those expressed by adults reared in a nuclear family setting. This finding indicates that the adults reared in the institutional setting had internalized the prescribed parental norms of society.

Significant differences were found between males and females on four of the fifteen subscales. Females were more likely to view their children as equals and to create an atmosphere where children would feel free to express their attitudes concerning policies that govern their behavior. Males were more likely than females to inhibit the sexual curiosity expressed by their children and to accelerate the general development of their children. There was little difference in the mean scores expressed by males and females on the remaining subscales.

The results of the present study indicate that the adults reared in the children's home were aware of the child-rearing attitudes of adults reared in a nuclear family setting. Because they grew up in an institutional setting and expressed attitudes similar to those of individuals reared in a nuclear family, it appears that there are factors other than intra-family ones which influence the development of appropriate child-rearing attitudes.

Limitations and Recommendations

The sample was not representative of adults who were reared in institutions. Because of the size of the sample and the fact that the subjects were personally selected, (the biases of the person who selected the subjects from the children's home may have prevented him from choosing subjects who might have exhibited negative attitudes toward child-rearing), the findings of this study cannot be generalized beyond the persons who participated in this study.

Since the researcher did not personally administer the test to each person in the sample, she had no means of knowing whether or not

instructions for the test were accurately followed. Subjects may have collaborated with their spouses in responding to the statements.

Another factor which needs to be taken into account is whether parents responded to the statements on the basis of how they perceived they should respond or according to their actual beliefs. Maxwell (1961) in "Family Member Perceptions of Parental Role Performance", stated, "It is evident that an individual's role performance as a father, for example, may be deficient (by a given culture's standards), and yet his perceptions of what a good father is like may actually reflect the cultural prescription" (p. 31).

When sending out questionnaires to a group of subjects it is possible that subjects whose attitudes and behavior deviate from the norm may feel threatened and will not return the questionnaire. Such a finding was reported by Zuckerman (1960) concerning an unpublished study conducted in 1959. After obtaining permission by telephone, copies of the PARI were sent to parents of twenty-six nursery school children. Two teachers rated the children's over-all adjustment to nursery school. Mothers of the most maladjusted children did not return the PARI forms and after repeated appeals all except three parents returned the forms. The children of these three parents were among the five most maladjusted in the group. The researchers concluded that the test was particularly threatening to parents whose children were most disturbed (p. 402).

Further research efforts should deal with the possible ways a "normal" child growing up in an institutional setting learns role prescriptions. Is he assimilating those of his peers or is he relying

on the attitudes of the adults who have replaced his parents in the care-taking role?

Gathering larger samples from a more extended area would be useful. Because of the importance which is placed on the early relationship between the mother and child, it would be of interest to ascertain if the age at which the child entered the institution is a factor in the type of child-rearing attitudes he expresses.

Examining the marital adjustment of adults who were reared in an institutional setting could provide additional information relevant to parent-child relationships. It was for this reason that Schaefer and Bell included scales on marital adjustment on the PARI. They believed that information on marital adjustment would assist in understanding the home environment of the child.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

- Bandura, A. and Houston, A. Identification as a process of incidental learning. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 63, 311-318.
- Baumrind, D. Parental control and parental love. Children, 1965, 12, 230-234.
- Brim, O. The parent-child relation as a social system: I. Parent and child roles. Child Development, 1957, 28, 343-364.
- Britt, D. Effects of probability of reinforcement and social stimulus consistency on imitation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1971, 18, 189-200.
- Cohler, B., Grunebaum, H., Weiss, J., and Moran, D. The child-care attitudes of two generations of mothers. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1971, 17, 3-17.
- Coutu, W. Role-playing vs. role-taking: an appeal for clarification. American Sociological Review, 1951, 16, 180-187.
- Emmerich, W. Variations in the parent role as a function of the parents' sex and the child's sex and age. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1962, 8, 3-11.
- Emmerich, W., and Smoller, F. The role patterning of parental norms. Sociometry, 1964, 27, 382-390.
- Goodman, G. E., The Individual and Culture. Illinois: Dorsey Press, 1968.
- Harris, D., Gough, H., and Martin, W. Children's ethnic attitudes: II. Relationship to parental beliefs concerning child training. Child Development, 1950, 21, 169-181.
- Horrocks, J., and Jackson, D. Role interactions of self and others. In Self and Role: A Theory of Self-Process and Role Behavior. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972, 93-104.
- Itkin, W. Some relationships between intra-family attitudes and pre-parental attitudes toward children. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1952, 80, 221-252.

- Kagan, J., Hosken, B., and Watson, S. Child's symbolic conceptualization of parents. Child Development, 1961, 625-636.
- Klebanoff, L. B. Attitudes of mothers of schizophrenic, brain injured and retarded and normal children. (Doctoral dissertation, Boston University), Boston, Mass.: 1957.
- Lazowick, L. On the nature of identification. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1955, 51, 175-183.
- Madoff, J. The attitudes of mothers of juvenile delinquents toward child-rearing. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1959, 23, 518-520.
- Mark, J. C. The attitudes of the mothers of male schizophrenics toward child behavior. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1953, 48, 185-189.
- Maxwell, P., Connor, R., and Walters, J. Family member perceptions of parental role performance. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1961, 7, 31-37.
- Mussen, P. and Distler, L. Masculinity, identification and father-son relationships. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 59, 350-356.
- Mussen, P., and Distler, L. Child-rearing antecedents of masculine identification in kindergarten boys. Child Development, 1960, 31, 89-100.
- Schaefer, E., and Bell, R. Development of a parental attitude research instrument. Child Development, 1958, 29, 339-361.
- Shoben, D. J. The assessment of parental attitudes in relation to child adjustment. Genetic Psychological Monographs, 1949, 39, 101-148.
- Stodgill, R. The measurement of attitudes toward parental control and the social adjustment of children. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1936, 20, 359-367.
- Stoke, S. M. An inquiry into the concept of identification. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1950, 76, 163-189.
- Symonds, P. M. The Psychology of Parent-Child Relationships. New York: Appleton-Century Press, 1939.
- Tallman, I. Adaptability: A problem solving approach to assessing child-rearing practices. Child Development, 1961, 32, 651-668.

- Woods, P., Glavin, K., and Kettle, C. A mother-daughter comparison on selected aspects of child-rearing in a high socioeconomic group. Child Development, 1960, 31, 121-128.
- Yando, R., and Zigler, E. Outerdirectedness in the problem-solving of institutionalized and noninstitutionalized normal and retarded children. Developmental Psychology, 1971, 4, 277-288.
- Yando, R., and Zigler, E. Outerdirectedness and imitative behavior of institutionalized and noninstitutionalized younger and older children. Child Development, 1972, 43, 413-425.

APPENDIX

VIRGINIA BAPTIST CHILDREN'S HOME

24153, Dial

June 22, 1973

R. Franklin Hough, Jr.
Executive Director

Martin E. Halstead
Business Manager

T. Ivey Adams, Jr.
Child Care Director

Dear Alumni:

In conjunction with Miss Patricia Martin, Master's Thesis Applicant at VPI&SU, we are attempting to do some research, which should be very valuable to us here at the Children's Home. As her letter, enclosed to you, explains, there is absolutely no way that anybody filling out the enclosed questionnaires can be identified. I will not know who fills out which questionnaire, neither will Miss Martin.

This material is going out to about fifty of our former children and I urge each of you to fill them out immediately (that means right now!), put them in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope and drop them in the mail to Miss Martin. I will get a copy of her final thesis, which I expect to be of real value in our work here with our children under care now and in the future.

Please follow her instructions and mark them as you feel you should. As she says, there are no "right" answers, but she wants your individual reaction and must have it that way in order for it to be really valid.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Most sincerely,

R. Franklin Hough, Jr.

R. Franklin Hough, Jr.
Executive Director

RFH/meg

Enc.

The following questionnaire is part of a research study being done for a master's thesis in Management, Housing and Family Development at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. It is important that you fill out the questionnaire within twenty-four hours after you receive it, if at all possible. You are among a limited number of people chosen to participate in this study and because there is a limited number, it is necessary that each of you cooperate in order for the results to be valid.

It is important that you fill out the questionnaire without the aid of your spouse. The answers must be your own and therefore the questions should not be discussed with your husband or wife while answering. Feel free to discuss the questions after you have answered them, but please do not change any answers. Let me stress that the answers must be your own. There are no right or wrong answers. Please feel free to write any additional information needed to explain your answers on the background information questions.

As Mr. Hough has told you, you will remain completely anonymous. At no time have I seen your name and there is no way you will be connected to the questionnaire.

I want to thank you very much for your cooperation. Because I do not have your name, I will not be able to contact you again. Therefore, I would appreciate it if you would fill out the questionnaire as soon as possible so that I will know you have not forgotten. Thank you again.

Patricia G. Martin

1. What is your age at present?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20-24 | <input type="checkbox"/> 35-39 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25-29 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40-44 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30-34 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 or above. |

2. Sex: Male; Female.

3. What was the highest grade you completed in school?

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7 | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 8 | <input type="checkbox"/> 12 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 9 | College _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 | Masters _____ |
| | Ph.D. _____ |

4. What is your present occupation?

5. What is your annual income?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Below 3,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 7,000-9,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3,000-4,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 10,000-14,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5,000-6,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15,000-19,999 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> 20,000 and above |

6. At what age did you marry?

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> 35-39 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20-24 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40-44 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25-29 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 or over |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30-34 | |

7. How many children do you have?

Boys _____; Girls _____.

8. What are their ages?

Boys _____; Girls _____.

9. At what age did you enter the children's home?

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 10-14 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5-9 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15 or over |

10. Were your parents living while you were in the children's home?

- Yes; No.

11. At the time you were in the children's home, were your parents
- Married One Parent Remarried Mother deceased
 Separated Both Parents Remarried Father deceased
 Divorced Do Not Know
12. How often did you see your mother?
- Weekly Twice a year
 Once a Month Never
 Twice a Month Other; Please Specify _____
 Once a Year
13. How often did you see your father?
- Weekly Twice a year
 Once a Month Never
 Twice a Month Other; Please Specify _____
 Once a year
14. Did you lose contact with your parents while in the children's home?
- Yes; No.
15. If the answer to the above question is yes, at about what age did this occur?
- 1-4 years of age 15-19 years of age
 5-9 years of age
 10-14 years of age
16. How long did you live with your parents before entering the children's home?
- 1-3 years 7-9 years 13 or above
 4-6 years 10-12 years Never lived with parents
17. Did you live in a foster home or homes before entering the children's home:
- Yes; no.
18. If yes, how many homes were you in? _____
19. At what ages were you in foster homes? _____
20. How many brothers and sisters did you have? Please specify ages.
- Brothers _____
- Sisters _____

21. Did your brothers live with you in the children's home?

Yes; No.

22. Did your sisters live with you in the children's home?

Yes; No.

23. At what age did you leave the children's home?

1-4 years

10-14 years

5-9 years

15-19 years

The following questionnaire is part of a research study being done for a master's thesis in Management, Housing, and Family Development at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

You are being considered as part of a sample of parents who were reared in an average family situation. Comparable information has already been obtained from parents who were themselves reared without a normal family relationship. The objective of the study is to discover how parents reared under different circumstances will feel about child-rearing in comparison to the group of which you are a part.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. It is important that you fill out the questionnaire as soon as possible. You are among a limited number of people chosen to participate in this study and because there is a limited number, it is desirable that each of you assist in order for the results to be valid.

It is important that you fill out the questionnaire without the aid of your spouse. The answers must be your own and therefore the questions should not be discussed with your husband or wife while answering. Feel free to discuss the questions after you have answered them but please do not change any answers. Let me stress that the answers must be your own. There are no right or wrong answers. Please feel free to write any additional information needed to explain your answers on the background information questions.

There is no way that your name will be connected to the questionnaire that you will fill out.

I want to thank you very much for your cooperation. If you have any questions concerning this questionnaire or my request for your help in the project, please call me at 951-1582.

Patricia G. Martin

1. What is your age at present?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20-24 | <input type="checkbox"/> 35-39 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25-29 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40-44 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30-34 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 or over |

2. Sex: Male; Female.

3. What was the highest grade you completed in school?

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7 | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 8 | <input type="checkbox"/> 12 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 9 | College _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 | Masters _____ |
| | Ph.D. _____ |

4. What is your present occupation?

5. What is your annual income?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Below 3,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 7,000-9,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3,000-4,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 10,000-14,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5,000-6,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15,000-19,999 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> 20,000 and above |

6. At what age did you marry?

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> 35-39 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20-24 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40-44 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25-29 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 or over |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30-34 | |

7. How many children do you have?

Boys _____; Girls _____.

8. What are their ages?

Boys _____; Girls _____.

9. Until the time you were 18 years of age, were your parents

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Married | <input type="checkbox"/> One parent remarried | <input type="checkbox"/> Mother deceased |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Separated | <input type="checkbox"/> Both parents remarried | <input type="checkbox"/> Father deceased |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced | <input type="checkbox"/> Do Not Know | |

10. If your parents were separated or divorced, which parent did you live with?

- Mother Father

11. What age were you when the divorce occurred?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15-18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5-9 | <input type="checkbox"/> over 18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10-14 | |

12. If the parent you lived with remarried, what was your age when this occurred?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15-18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5-9 | <input type="checkbox"/> over 18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10-14 | |

13. If either of your parents was widowed, what was your age when this occurred?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15-18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5-9 | <input type="checkbox"/> over 18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10-14 | |

14. If the widowed parent remarried, what age were you when this occurred?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 15-18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5-9 | <input type="checkbox"/> over 18 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10-14 | |

15. How many brothers and sisters did you have? Please specify ages.

Brothers _____.

Sisters _____.

16. Were you reared by someone other than your parents? If so, please specify who and the length of time you lived with them.

INVENTORY OF ATTITUDES ON PARENTHOOD

Read each of the statements below and then rate them as follows:

A	a	d	D
strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree

Indicate your opinion by drawing a circle around the "A" if you strongly agree, around the "a" if you mildly agree, around the "d" if you mildly disagree, and around the "D" if you strongly disagree.

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statements will seem alike but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

- | | A | a | d | D |
|---|-------|---|------|-------|
| | Agree | | Dis- | agree |
| 1. Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better. | A | a | d | D |
| 2. Good parents should shelter their children from life's little difficulties. | A | a | d | D |
| 3. Some children are just so bad they must be taught to fear adults for their own good. | A | a | d | D |
| 4. A child will be grateful later on for strict training. | A | a | d | D |
| 5. Children will get on anyone's nerves if they have to be with them all day. | A | a | d | D |
| 6. It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his parents' views are right. | A | a | d | D |
| 7. More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them. | A | a | d | D |
| 8. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens. | A | a | d | D |
| 9. Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 10. There are so many things a child has to learn in life there is no excuse for him sitting around with time on his hands. | A | a | d | D |

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. If you let children talk about their troubles they end up complaining even more. | A | a | d | D |
| 12. A young child should be protected from hearing about sex. | A | a | d | D |
| 13. Parents should make it their business to know everything their children are thinking. | A | a | d | D |
| 14. Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show an interest in their affairs. | A | a | d | D |
| 15. Children should be toilet trained by 15 months of age. | A | a | d | D |
| 16. Children should be encouraged to tell their parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable. | A | a | d | D |
| 17. Parents should do their best to avoid any disappointment for their children. | A | a | d | D |
| 18. It is frequently necessary to drive the mischief out of a child before he will behave. | A | a | d | D |
| 19. Strict discipline develops a fine strong character. | A | a | d | D |
| 20. Parents very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer. | A | a | d | D |
| 21. A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes. | A | a | d | D |
| 22. The child should be taught to revere his parents above all other grown-ups. | A | a | d | D |
| 23. A child should be taught to always come to his parents or teachers rather than fight when he is in trouble. | A | a | d | D |
| 24. Parents must earn the respect of their children by the way they act. | A | a | d | D |
| 25. Children who don't try hard for success will feel they have missed out on things later on. | A | a | d | D |
| 26. Parents who start a child talking about his worries don't realize that sometimes it's better to just leave well enough alone. | A | a | d | D |

27. It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed. A a d D
28. A child should never keep a secret from his parents. A a d D
29. Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes makes things go more smoothly. A a d D
30. The sooner a child learns to walk the better off he will be. A a d D
31. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it. A a d D
32. A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him. A a d D
33. A wise parent will teach a child early just who is boss. A a d D
34. Children who are held to firm rules grow up to be the best adults. A a d D
35. It's rare parents who can be sweet and even tempered with their children all the time. A a d D
36. Children should never learn things outside the home which make them doubt their parents' ideas. A a d D
37. A child soon learns that there is no greater wisdom than that of his parents. A a d D
38. There is no good excuse for a child hitting another child. A a d D
39. Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and that is not fair. A a d D
40. Parents should teach their children that the way to get ahead is to keep busy and not waste time. A a d D
41. Children pester you with all their little upsets if you aren't careful from the first. A a d D
42. Children who take part in sex play become sex criminals when they grow up. A a d D

43. An alert parent should try to learn all their children's thoughts. A a d D
44. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates and fun help them grow up right. A a d D
45. The earlier a child is weaned from its emotional ties to its parents the better it will handle its own problems. A a d D
46. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions. A a d D
47. Parents should know better than to allow their children to be exposed to difficult situations. A a d D
48. Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them. A a d D
49. Most children should have more discipline than they get. A a d D
50. Raising children is a nerve-wracking job. A a d D
51. The child should not question the thinking of his parents. A a d D
52. Parents deserve the highest esteem and regard of their children. A a d D
53. Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury. A a d D
54. As much as is reasonable a parent should try to treat a child as an equal. A a d D
55. A child who is "on the go" all the time will most likely be happy. A a d D
56. If a child has upset feelings it is best to leave him alone and not make it look serious. A a d D
57. Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children. A a d D
58. Parents have a right to know everything going on in their children's life because their children are part of them. A a d D

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 59. | If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice. | A | a | d | D |
| 60. | Parents should make an effort to get their children toilet trained at the earliest possible time. | A | a | d | D |
| 61. | When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 62. | Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging. | A | a | d | D |
| 63. | It is sometimes necessary for the parents to break the child's will. | A | a | d | D |
| 64. | Children are actually happier under strict training. | A | a | d | D |
| 65. | It's natural for a mother to "blow her top" when children are selfish and demanding. | A | a | d | D |
| 66. | There is nothing worse than letting a child hear criticisms of his parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 67. | Loyalty to parents comes before anything else. | A | a | d | D |
| 68. | Most parents prefer a quiet child to a "scrappy" one. | A | a | d | D |
| 69. | There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time, any more than that children should have their own way all the time. | A | a | d | D |
| 70. | The sooner a child learns that a wasted minute is lost forever the better off he will be. | A | a | d | D |
| 71. | The trouble with giving attention to children's problems they usually just make up a lot of stories to keep you interested. | A | a | d | D |
| 72. | There is usually something wrong with a child who asks a lot of questions about sex. | A | a | d | D |
| 73. | It is a parents' duty to make sure they know their children's innermost thoughts. | A | a | d | D |
| 74. | When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier. | A | a | d | D |
| 75. | A child should be weaned away from the bottle or breast as soon as possible. | A | a | d | D |

Item	Mean Scores			
	1-1	1-2	2-1	2-2*
1. Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better.	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.6
2. Good parents should shelter their children from life's little difficulties.	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.2
3. Some children are just so bad they must be taught to fear adults for their own good.	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4
4. A child will be grateful later on for strict training.	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.1
5. Children will get on anyone's nerves if they have to be with them all day.	2.6	2.4	2.9	2.3
6. It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his parents' views are right.	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.8
7. More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them.	2.4	2.5	1.8	2.0
8. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens.	1.8	1.5	1.3	1.5
9. Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to them.	3.3	3.4	2.9	3.9
10. There are so many things a child has to learn in life there is no excuse for him sitting around with time on his hands.	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.1
11. If you let children talk about their troubles they end up complaining even more.	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.2
12. A young child should be protected from hearing about sex.	1.6	1.8	1.2	1.3
13. Parents should make it their business to know everything their children are thinking.	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.5
14. Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show an interest in their affairs.	3.9	3.8	3.9	3.9
15. Children should be toilet trained by 15 months of age.	2.6	2.5	1.5	1.4
16. Children should be encouraged to tell their parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable.	3.8	3.5	3.9	3.7
17. Parents should do their best to avoid any disappointment for their children.	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.5
18. It is frequently necessary to drive the mischief out of a child before he will behave.	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.3
19. Strict discipline develops a fine strong character.	2.9	2.2	2.7	2.3
20. Parents very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer.	2.2	2.2	2.8	2.5
21. A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes.	2.2	2.6	2.1	1.9

22.	The child should be taught to revere his parents above all other grown-ups.	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.2
23.	A child should be taught to always come to his parents or teachers rather than fight when he is in trouble.	2.5	2.2	2.4	2.6
24.	Parents must earn the respect of their children by the way they act.	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.8
25.	Children who don't try hard for success will feel they have missed out on things later on.	2.8	2.7	2.3	2.6
26.	Parents who start a child talking about his worries don't realize that sometimes it's better to just leave well enough alone.	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.6
27.	It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed.	2.2	2.2	1.4	1.4
28.	A child should never keep a secret from his parents.	1.8	2.2	1.9	1.6
29.	Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes makes things go more smoothly.	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.5
30.	The sooner a child learns to walk the better off he will be.	2.2	2.4	1.7	1.7
31.	A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it.	3.9	3.5	3.8	3.7
32.	A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him.	2.6	2.2	2.6	2.3
33.	A wise parent will teach a child early just who is boss.	2.2	3.0	2.7	2.8
34.	Children who are held to firm rules grow up to be the best adults.	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.9
35.	It's rare parents who can be sweet and even tempered with their children all the time.	3.7	3.4	3.5	3.6
36.	Children should never learn things outside the home which make them doubt their parents' ideas.	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.9
37.	A child soon learns that there is no greater wisdom than that of his parents.	2.1	2.2	1.5	1.9
38.	There is no good excuse for a child hitting another child.	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.4
39.	Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and that is not fair.	3.1	2.6	3.6	3.2
40.	Parents should teach their children that the way to get ahead is to keep busy and not waste time.	2.8	2.6	2.8	2.4
41.	Children pester you with all their little upsets if you aren't careful from the first.	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.0
42.	Children who take part in sex play become sex criminals when they grow up.	1.5	1.4	1.0	1.2

43.	An alert parent should try to learn all their children's thoughts.	2.2	2.5	1.9	1.9
44.	Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates and fun help them grow up right.	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9
45.	The earlier a child is weaned from its emotional ties to its parents the better it will handle its own problems.	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.7
46.	A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.	3.5	3.2	3.6	3.7
47.	Parents should know better than to allow their children to be exposed to difficult situations.	1.8	2.2	1.8	1.5
48.	Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them.	1.8	2.2	1.9	1.7
49.	Most children should have more discipline than they get.	3.2	2.9	3.4	3.1
50.	Raising children is a nerve-wracking job.	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.3
51.	The child should not question the thinking of his parents.	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.7
52.	Parents deserve the highest esteem and regard of their children.	3.0	2.7	2.9	2.7
53.	Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury.	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.7
54.	As much as is reasonable a parent should try to treat a child as an equal.	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.5
55.	A child who is "on the go" all the time will most likely be happy.	1.9	1.7	2.4	1.9
56.	If a child has upset feelings it is best to leave him alone and not make it look serious.	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.3
57.	Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children.	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.4
58.	Parents have a right to know everything going on in their children's life because their children are part of them.	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.5
59.	If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice.	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.5
60.	Parents should make an effort to get their children toilet trained at the earliest possible time.	2.9	2.7	2.0	2.0
61.	When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents.	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8
62.	Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging.	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.5
63.	It is sometimes necessary for the parents to break the child's will.	2.1	2.0	2.4	2.5

64.	Children are actually happier under strict training.	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0
65.	It's natural for a mother to "blow her top" when children are selfish and demanding.	2.7	2.6	3.0	3.2
66.	There is nothing worse than letting a child hear criticisms of his parents.	2.2	2.4	2.8	2.4
67.	Loyalty to parents comes before anything else.	2.2	2.5	2.1	2.3
68.	Most parents prefer a quiet child to a "scrappy" one.	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3
69.	There is no reason parents should have their way all the time, any more than children should have their own way all the time.	3.4	2.9	3.8	3.4
70.	The sooner a child learns that a wasted minute is lost forever the better off he will be.	2.4	2.4	1.9	2.3
71.	The trouble with giving attention to children's problems they usually just make up a lot of stories to keep you interested.	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.3
72.	There is usually something wrong with a child who asks a lot of questions about sex.	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.4
73.	It is a parents' duty to make sure they know their children's innermost thoughts.	1.9	2.3	1.8	1.6
74.	When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier.	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.8
75.	A child should be weaned away from the bottle or breast as soon as possible.	2.4	2.5	2.1	1.9

- *1-1 Males from institution
- 1-2 Males from nuclear family setting
- 2-1 Females from institution
- 2-2 Females from nuclear family setting

**The vita has been removed from
the scanned document**

PARENTHOOD CONCEPTS OF ADULTS

REARED WITHOUT PARENTS

by

Patricia Gail Martin

(ABSTRACT)

The present study investigated the parental attitudes expressed by adults who were reared in an institutional setting and adults who were reared in a nuclear family setting. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument, developed by Schaefer and Bell (1958), was used to elicit parental attitudes of the adults regarding child-rearing practices.

The sample of the study consisted of fifty-four Caucasian adults, thirty-four males and twenty females. Of the total sample, twenty-seven adults, seventeen males and ten females, were reared in an institutional setting and twenty-seven adults, seventeen males and ten females were reared in a nuclear family setting. Subjects from the nuclear family setting were matched according to sex, age and level of educational attainment to subjects from the institutional setting.

The most important finding of the study was that the parental attitudes expressed by adults reared in the institutional setting did not differ significantly from the parental attitudes expressed by the adults reared in the nuclear family setting.

Females were more likely than males to view their children as equals and to express preference for an atmosphere where children would feel free to express their opinions concerning policies that governed their behavior. Males were more likely than females to exhibit attitudes favorable to inhibition of the sexual curiosity expressed by their children and to the acceleration of their children's development. There was little difference in the mean scores between males and females on the eleven remaining subscales.