

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

YOUNG ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR
AS A FUNCTION OF THE SEX OF THE PARENT, THE SEX OF
THE ADOLESCENT AND THE SEX OF THE ADOLESCENT

by

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ABSTRACT

The present study attempted to determine how adolescent perceptions of parental behavior vary across sex of the parent, sex of the adolescent, and socio-economic background of the adolescent. An attempt was also made to determine whether adolescent's responses varied across any combination of these variables.

The subjects consisted of 160 thirteen- and fifteen-year-old male and female adolescents in grades seven and nine. Their SES distribution, determined from their father's occupation, was considered representative for the province. The subjects were divided into four equivalent groups labelled high SES males, high SES females, low SES males, and low SES females.

Each subject completed two Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Forms. One was for mother and one for father. The subjects' responses were scored and his results were factor analyzed. Three factors were extracted. They were labelled "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control". Factor scores were computed for each subject and differences between factor score loadings for each of the four groups, for mothers and fathers behavior reports, were determined using a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ analysis of variance fixed model design with repeated measure over the sex of parent variables.

Ten hypotheses were proposed. The first three were concerned with differences in factor score loadings across the sex of the parent

on each of the three factors. These were accepted at the .05 level of significance and it was concluded that mothers were perceived as using more accepting and psychologically controlling and less firm controlling behavior than fathers. The next three hypotheses, concerned with differences in factor score loadings across the sex of the subject, and the seventh hypothesis, that proposed an interaction between sex of parent and sex of subject on the "firm control versus lax control" factor, were not accepted. These insignificant results were considered to be due to the age of the subjects and suggestions were made for further research on this variable. The first three hypotheses that dealt with differences in factor score loadings across the SES of the subject on each factor were not accepted. These insignificant results were considered to be due to the method of discriminating between SES groups. The finding that SES was significantly different in a direction contrary to that hypothesized on the "firm control versus lax control" factor, was considered to be due to a number of factors, one of which was the possible distinction between perceived parental behavior and actual parental behavior. Suggestions for further research in this area were made.

Finally, this study indicated that the sex of subjects and their SES could affect the results one would obtain when studying adolescents' perceptions of parental firm controlling behavior. Accordingly, it was suggested that future researchers should control and clearly state the sex and socio-economic status of his subjects.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Theories of Child Development

In the history of developmental psychology, the decade 1935-1945 was marked by a great deal of interest in the effects of childhood experience upon later behavior (Baldwin, 1960). Several reviews of these early studies on parent-child relations were available (e.g., Symonds, 1939; Radke, 1946; etc.). Most of the early studies were influenced by Freud's work and were concerned with the effects of specific infant care practices on later development but, eventually, the emphasis shifted towards the study of whole patterns of childhood experience.

Several psychological theoretical frameworks were used by different investigators to study parent-child relationships. The Psycho-Analytic theories were foremost in this field and contributed greatly to the development of hypotheses, besides offering models of parent-child interaction processes. However, there were other developmental theories that were also relevant to these studies, i.e., Lewin's and Piaget's theories, the social role theory of socialization proposed by Parson and the social learning theories proposed by Sears, Mowrer, Miller, Dollard and others. The following sections describe these developmental theories which have contributed to the study of molar as well as molecular aspects of the parent-child relationship.

Freud's Psycho-Analytic Theory

Freud (1949) proposed that the individual organism oriented itself towards the satisfaction of certain "innate drives". Of these drives, the drive to maintain the species, labelled libido, was of particular importance. Like all other drives, it was considered to reside in that part of the personality structure labelled the id. As the infant developed, it was conceptualized as transferring to different zones. This transfer was responsible for corresponding shifts in the child's primary source of libidinal gratification and for conflicts between various psychic forces.

The sequence of zones to which the libido transferred was considered to be innately predetermined and, therefore, the internal conflicts it produced were proposed to be universal. The cross cultural studies of Margret Mead (1950, 1953) gave evidence against such universality and later psychoanalysts such as Erikson (1950), Horney (1939) and Sullivan (1953) adjusted Freud's position to allow for the modification of development and the id impulses by social factors.

One conflict, particularly crucial, in Freud's theory of development was the oedipal conflict. This conflict was considered to be initiated when the libido was transferred to the phallic zone. The conflict was believed to be resolved when the child internalized the idealized standards or superegos of a parent. This process of resolution was labelled "identification" (Freud, 1924). A boy, perceiving himself in rivalry with the father for the mother and fearing castration by the father because of this rivalry, identified with the father to reduce this

castration anxiety. A girl, already perceiving of herself as castrated, had no need to fear castration, but did fear the loss of mother love and, accordingly, identified with the mother (Freud, 1933). Thus the child, in the Freudian model, developed sex appropriate behaviors and socially acceptable attitudes.

The Psycho-Analytic theory had to its credit the fact that it explained a large number of specific behaviors within a general set of postulates, assumptions and derivations. However, its language was not operational and its generality was such that there were few behaviors that it could not explain. Therefore, although the theory maintained a good balance between generality and specificity, it did not produce many hypotheses that were easily testable.

Social Learning Theory

Watson (1963), in his revolutionary book Behaviorism, stated that the subject matter of human psychology was behavior and postulated that all psychological problems and their solutions could be posed in terms of stimulus and response. He further argued that all behavior, excepting infant reflexes, could be explained in terms of learning. Learning in this instance referred to classical conditioning as studied by Pavlov (1927).

Skinner (1938) introduced another method by which a response could be conditioned to a stimulus. This method of learning was called instrumental or operant conditioning and relied on the occurrence of a reinforcer when a response was emitted in the presence of the relevant

stimulus. Hull (1943, 1952), a proponent of reinforcement theory proposed a peripheral theory of learning in which the habit strength of a specific learned response increased with reinforcement. A number of his students, notably O. H. Mowrer, R. R. Sears, N. Miller and J. Dollard, helped form the social learning theories of development. These theorists used Freudian findings as a source of hypotheses, the experimental method as a means of testing these hypotheses and stimulus-response terminology to explain their results (Baldwin, 1967). The constructs of dependency and dependency anxiety were crucial to many of their theories since the negative reinforcement value of withdrawal of love and some types of punishment were considered dependent upon these constructs and further the development of self-independence and sex role identification was considered to be dependent upon such reinforcement.

These constructs, although useful for explaining how certain parental behaviors could become reinforcing, were not defined in the objective way earlier S-R theorists would have liked. Their acquisition histories were largely hypothetical and their use as experimental variables largely depended on the assumption that certain behavioral patterns, although largely different in appearance, were somehow psychologically similar. The need to resort to the use of such constructs reflected the problems. Social-Learning theorists encountered difficulties when they tried to translate complex family relationships into S-R language. Appropriate stimuli, responses and reinforcers, easily defined in controlled experimental settings, were extremely difficult to extract from the complex family situation. Furthermore, reinforcement

histories, which could link certain behavior patterns to certain stimulus situations, were nonexistent. Nevertheless, the Social-Learning theories did prove useful in motivating a number of empirical studies that greatly added to the understanding of how parent behavior could affect child development.

Lewin's Field Theory

Kohler (1929) argued against Watson's premise that all psychological problems could be posed in terms of stimulus-response. He stated that the right psychological formula was pattern of stimulation-organization (according to innate perceptual laws) - response to the products of organization. This distinction between external stimulation and its internal representation was common among Gestalt theorists. They tended to view man as actively anticipating and coping with his environment (Deutch & Krauss, 1965).

Lewin, a student of the early Gestalt school, defined the "sum of facts that influence a person's behavior at any moment in time" as his life space (Muss, 1968). These facts consisted of environmental facts that had some degree of correspondence to the environment, person facts such as "need-states" and forces that acted upon the person to cause a change in his life space. All facts were considered interdependent and any change in the life space was considered to represent behavior regardless of whether it had any external correlates.

The life space was conceptually represented as being divided into a number of topological regions. Lewin (1946) proposed a number of

changes that would occur within this life space as the child matured. First, the number of regions representing need states within an individual increased. Thus, the individual became increasingly capable of differentiating between various feelings. This increase in the person's psychological field along with a corresponding increase in the time perspective as well as reality-irreality distinctions, produced an increase in the scope of the whole life space. This larger life space made increased organization necessary for one to reach goal regions. Finally, the boundaries between regions in the psychological field were considered to have become more rigid, thus increasing the independence of acts.

Lewin's theory, unlike the theories mentioned earlier, utilized phenomenological as well as existential facts to explain behavior. Changes in development were attributable to changes in perception which occurred along with innate changes in perceptual organization.

One of the basic problems with this theory was that it could not easily be extended to formulate concrete behavioral hypotheses. Accordingly, its assumptions and derivations were difficult to test. However, the theoretical approach postulated in this theory did prove useful for studying children in naturalistic settings (Barker, Dembo & Lewin, 1941) and the fact that children were looked upon as active organisms allowed for taking into account the changes that children go through.

Piaget's Cognitive Development

Bartlett (1932), like the gestalt psychologist, assumed that sensory information was systematically reorganized and that this reorganization

generally tended towards simplification. Unlike the Gestaltists, however, his rules of organization were assumed to be neither fixed nor innate. Bartlett suggested that schema, a generalized representation of what the organism had previously perceived, acted as a model upon which available information was constructed. The schema were subject to changes due to past experience, attitudes and the reconstruction process.

Piaget was concerned with the development of such central processes. He suggested that the human organism was adaptive and used the term schema to refer to the basic structures that changed and adapted as the organism matured. He further proposed an innate process that motivated this adaption and labelled it equilibration. Equilibration referred to a hypothesized "natural" tendency for the organism to change schema so that assimilated information could be accommodated (Muss, 1968).

Infantile schema were considered to be directly related to sensori-motor processes but, by the age of two, some of the schema were believed to be internalized and, therefore, somewhat independent of the external world (Baldwin, 1967). The child of two to four was considered to develop symbolic schema and, accordingly, could distinguish between internalized images of an action and the action itself. By the age of seven, Piaget concluded that the child could view a schema both individually and as a member of a class and could integrate temporally and spatially distinct information. In addition, the child was reported to have developed the ability to distinguish between the view of an object and its orientation in space. Therefore, one was conceptually capable of

taking into account another's point of view (Baldwin, 1967). This latter ability allowed the dissenting opinions of others to create disequilibrium. Piaget suggested that the child adapted to this disequilibrium by organizing his schemas within logical groupings. He proposed nine such groupings. By the age of eleven a child was considered to have developed the ability to place any of his schema into any of these groupings and was believed to begin a process of abstracting these logical operations from their concrete manipulation. When abstraction was complete, Piaget assumed that cognitive maturity had been reached (Baldwin, 1967).

The concept of differentiation was found in both Piaget's and Lewin's theory. In Lewin's theory, differentiation increased with maturation according to innate laws whereas, in Piaget's theory, its increase was brought about by experiential and social disequilibrium. Piaget's approach, did allow for the study of cognitive differentiation of the child in a variety of settings and from this point of view, Lewin's concept of "differentiation", though differently defined, had close affinity to Piaget's concept of cognitive "differentiation". In the broader context of parent-child relations, this concept had great relevance since knowledge of how the child differentiated parental behavior could increase one's understanding of the child's reactions to the parent.

Parson's Role Identification Theory

Cooley (1902) proposed that the solid facts of sociological study were to be found in the images that people had for one another. He

argued that these various ideas about a person were the things that directly affected one's life and, accordingly, the immediate social reality. Parsons also perceives development from a sociological point of view, suggesting that the main motivating force for developmental changes is the eventual integration of the individual into the social system.

During this time, the child, either male or female, is considered to identify with the mother but this identification does not mean that the mother's complete personality is internalized. Rather, Parsons proposes that the child internalizes only the reciprocal role relationships that are functional at that time. Therefore, since the mother in relation to the infant, primarily functions as a giver and withholder of love, the child internalizes the role of receiver of love.

At an age approximately corresponding to the age when Freud hypothesized that the child was beginning the oedipal conflict, Parsons hypothesizes that the child's social system is expanded so as to include the father and siblings. Parsons also proposes that the increased social system would bring about the necessity for the child to internalize new roles.

These new roles were described in terms of the functions and behavioral events that were complementary in the nuclear family. The male role was primarily described as "instrumental" or problem solving. The female role was looked upon as "expressive", i.e., oriented towards harmonious inter-personal relations. Further, the parental role was described as "superior" in power while the child role was described as

"inferior" or "lower" in power.

These aspects of Parson's role theory lent themselves particularly well to conceptualization of parental behavior as perceived and described by children and enabled one to develop and test hypotheses pertaining to children's description of parental behavior in a number of settings. Furthermore, since Parson allowed for developmental changes occurring within the nuclear family, appropriate hypotheses could also be generated that fit within the framework of the developmental approach in general.

Relevant Variables in the Parent-Child Interaction

Although the above theories were in agreement to the extent that they allowed for both maturational and experiential factors to affect development, they tended to vary with respect to their weightings on these two factors and the kinds of experiential variables that they considered relevant. The following subsections review the findings of instruments designed to measure parental behavior, parental attitudes and children's perceptions of parental behaviors and discuss two of the models that developed from studies of parent-child relations.

Parental Behavior Instruments

Champney (1941) developed 30 scales on which trained observers, after leaving or visiting a home, could quantitatively rate parent behavior. According to Roff (1949) this was the first attempt to establish any systematic description of family variables. Baldwin, Kalhorn and

Breese (1945) intercorrelated data obtained on these scales and found three clusters which they labelled "democracy in the home", "acceptance of the child" and "indulgence". Roff (1949) using Thurstone's multigroup method of factoring on the same data, obtained seven factors but Schaefer (1959) claimed that the first two factors "concern for the child" and "democratic guidance", accounted for most of the common variance of Baldwin et al's. (1945) data. Lorr and Jenkins (1953) subjected Roff's seven factors to a centroid analysis and reduced the number of factors to three. These factors were labelled "dependency-encouraging", "democracy of training" and the third factor was not labelled but was considered to represent organization and effectiveness in the home.

Schaefer, Bell, and Bayley (1958) constructed a maternal research instrument which was used to quantify notes on observations of 56 mothers seen at the Institute of Child Welfare, (Berkeley). Schaefer (1959) showed that the results obtained on this instrument could be placed into a circumplex structure whose two dimensions were defined as "autonomy versus control" and "love versus hostility".

Milton (1958), using data gathered on the forty-four scales of specific behavior developed by Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) obtained seven factors. His results were not amenable to Schaefer's two dimensional model.

Studies by Becker and Krug (1965), Frankiel (1959), Schaefer and Bell (1958) and Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) supported the contention that the variables being measured related to child development.

Parent Attitude Instruments

Stoghill (1936) was the first to attempt an objective measure of parent attitudes. Schoben (1949) found significant correlations between these parental attitude scales and child development. Mark (1953) developed an instrument which could differentiate between parents of schizophrenics and non-schizophrenics according to their scores on certain attitude scales. Schaefer and Bell (1958), using the significant scales developed by Mark (1953) and Shoben (1949) developed a parent attitude research instrument (PARI) which consisted of 23 scales, and a total of 115 items (5 items per scale). Schaefer and Bell (1957), gave form III of PARI (Mother's Form) to one hundred unmarried female students and obtained five factors using a centroid factor analysis. Schaefer (1957), using multiparae as subjects, derived only three factors and Zuckermann et al. (1958), also using multiparae, replicated this finding. Schludermann and Schludermann (1970a), using 293 female college students as subjects, derived 5 factors on the non-reversed and 6 factors on a reversed form similar to that developed by Zuckermann (1959). Their results indicated that three factors were highly replicable, these being labelled: "firm or hostile control", "hostility-rejection" and "punishment orientation". In agreement with Schaefer (1961), they found that the first two factors accounted for a large part of the variance on both analyses.

Nichol (1962) used the Father's Form of the PARI and obtained five factors. They were labelled "authoritarian control", "marital conflict", "democratic attitudes", "punishment orientation" and "firm

discipline". Cline et al. (1963) also used the Father's Form of PARI. He gave the form to sixty-nine males and, using a factor analytic procedure based upon eigenvalue analysis, derived seven factors. Schludermann and Schludermann (1970b) developed a twenty-scale, 100-item revised form of the father's PARI. Using two hundred and sixty-nine male college students as subjects and the principle axes method of factor analysis they derived five factors on the unreversed form of the PARI and six factors on a reversed form. The factors, labelled "authoritarian control", marital conflict", "democratic attitudes" and "punishment orientation" appeared common across all three studies.

Studies by Klebanoff (1957), Medinnus (1961) and Peterson et al. (1959) gave evidence that parent attitudes were related to certain child characteristics.

Child's Perception of Parent Behavior Instruments

Ausubel et al. (1954) suggested that parental behavior could only affect a child to the extent that he perceived it. This point of view was consistent with the suggestions of Brondt (1961), Cooley (1902), Dubin and Dubin (1963) and Lewin (1946). Studies by Berdie and Layton (1957), Serot and Teevan (1961) and Stott (1941) indicated that a child's perception of parental behavior could be related to adjustment. Morrow and Wilson (1961) related such perceptions to achievement and Gamezy et al. (1961), Greenfield (1959), Swanson (1950) and Williams (1958) used such perceptual reports to differentiate normal from psychiatric patients.

Although a large number of ad hoc instruments had been designed

to study child perceptions of parent behavior, Bronfenbrenner (Seigelman, 1965), Roe and Seigelman (1963) and Schaefer (1965a) designed the first instruments to attempt to measure specific components of parental behavior.

Seigelman (1965) gave Bronfenbrenner's Parent Behavior Questionnaire to 212 fourth, fifth and sixth grade students and obtained three factors which he labelled "loving", "demanding" and "punishment". Roe and Seigelman (1963), using Roe's (1957) theoretical model as a base, developed their Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire. They gave the test to 142 Harvard Seniors and forty-four adult subjects. A subsequent principal components factor analysis extracted three factors which they labelled "loving-rejecting", "casual-demanding" and "overt concern for the child".

Schaefer (1965) constructed his Children's Report on Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) using his two dimensional parent behavior model as a base. He then gave the test to 85 girls and 85 boys in the seventh grade of a parochial school as well as to two adult groups and a group of 81 delinquents aged 12 to 18. A factor analysis of the results of each group produced identical three factor structures. These structures were labelled "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control". Cross (1969), Renson et al. (1968), and Schludermann and Schludermann (1970c) replicated this factor structure.

Studies reported by Bronfenbrenner (1961), Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) and Seigelman (1965) indicated that the variables studied in

these tests were related to sex and socio-economic status differences.

Models of Parent-Child Interactions

Based upon his literature review, Symonds (1939) suggested that "acceptance-rejection" and "dominance-submission" might form two major dimensions of parent-child interactions. Freedman et al. (1951) developed a two dimensional model for interpersonal relations. The two dimensions suggested were "love-hate" and "dominance-submission". Chance (1959) adopted Freedman et al.'s (1951) model for parent-child interactions labelling the two behavioral dimensions "positive-negative" and "active-passive". Roe (1957) suggested that the universe of clinical analysis could be represented in a two dimensional circular continuum. Finally, Schaefer (1961) fitted the results of the maternal behavior and maternal attitude studies mentioned earlier into a two dimensional circumplex. An analysis of his own results (Schaefer, 1959), using Thurstone's centroid method of factoring, confirmed his choice of labelling the two dimensions representing this space "acceptance-rejection" and "autonomy-control".

It should be mentioned that Milton's (1958) and Sewell et al.'s (1955) results could not be placed into this model.

Slater (1962) also derived a two dimensional model using the retrospective reports of parents on their own behavior. His dimensions of "emotional support versus warmth" and "inhibitory demands and discipline" were seen as compatible with the Schaefer (1961) model.

Although the two dimensional model appeared adequate when one was objectively measuring parental behavior or reporting parental

attitudes, there was strong evidence to suggest that a three dimensional model was more appropriate when considering perceptions of parental behavior.

Schults (1960) gave the Perception of Parents instrument to 150 college students and derived three factors which he labelled "attention", "discipline" and "warmth". Becker (1964) factor analysed psychologists' ratings of parental behavior and obtained three factors which he labelled "warmth-hostility", "anxious-emotional attachment-calm detachment" and "restrictiveness-permissiveness". Schaefer (1965b) proposed a three dimensional spherical model that could handle not only the above results but also the results obtained by Roe and Seigelman (1963) and Seigelman (1965) as well. Both these later studies derived three factor solutions using instruments designed to measure children's perceptions of parental behavior. Goldin (1969) showed that the results of a large number of studies using ad hoc instruments to measure perceptions of parental behavior could be fitted into Schaefer's three dimensional configuration. Therefore, because of its inconclusiveness and replicability (Cross, 1969; Renson et al., 1968; Schaefer, 1965b; Schludermann and Schludermann, 1970c), Schaefer's spherical model with its dimensions of "Acceptance versus Rejection", "Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control" and "Firm Control versus Lax Control" was considered most suitable for explaining children's perceptions of parental behavior.

Hypotheses Concerning Sex and Socio-Economic Status Differences

Of the theories mentioned, Parson's theory of Role Identification

(Parsons & Bales, 1955) appeared most suitable for predicting sex differences in children's perceptions of parental behavior as well as differences dependent upon different social expectations. Since Schaefer's (1965b) three dimensional spherical model of parent-child interaction was considered the most appropriate model for representing the child's perceptual space, the hypotheses derived from Parson's theory were phrased in terms of the dimensions defining this space. These three dimensions were: "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control." Each of these dimensions was defined by a number of scales. Each scale was defined by ten behavioral descriptions obtained from the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (Schaefer, 1965a).

The "acceptance" pole of the "acceptance versus rejection" dimension was defined by the positive evaluation, sharing, expression of affection, emotional support and equalitarian treatment scales and the "rejection" pole was defined by the irritability and rejection scales. The intrusiveness, possessiveness, control through guilt, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relations scales defined the "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" dimension. The "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" dimension was defined by the control and enforcement scales. The "lax control" pole was defined by the non-enforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy scales.

The affection-nurturance of the parental role was conceptualized

in terms of the "acceptance versus rejection" dimension of Schaefer's (1965b) three dimensional model. The superior power role of parents was conceptualized through the "control" dimensions of Schaefer's model. In this model "control" was defined by basically two distinct dimensions. These were "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control". These two dimensions referred to different modes of exercising control. The first referred to covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and to behaviors that would not allow the child to develop as an individual apart from the parents. The second referred to the degree to which parents made and enforced rules and regulations (Schaefer, 1965b).

The following sections describes hypotheses and a number of studies on children's perceptions of parent behavior from which they were derived. The theoretical frame for these hypotheses was Parson's role theory and the conceptual model was the three dimensional model empirically derived from factor analysis of subjects' scale score responses on the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (Schaefer, 1965a) mentioned above.

Differences Between Reports on Maternal and Paternal Behavior

Maltzer (1943) found that mothers were rated as giving more blind love than fathers. Funkenstein, King, and Drolette (1955) reported that Harvard students perceived mothers as a major source of affection and fathers as a major source of authority. Kagan (1956) also found that a majority of girls perceived their mothers as friendlier, as less

punitive, less dominant and less threatening than their fathers.

Harris and Tseng (1957) found that mothers were perceived as more accepting and Emmerich (1956) found that facilitating behavior was allocated more to mothers; sex and interfering behavior more to fathers' sex. Kagan, Hoskin and Watson (1961) reported that fathers were deemed more powerful and punitive.

Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) found that mothers were rated as higher on expression of affection, emotional support and childcenteredness and lower than father on scales of rejection, neglect and ignoring behavior. Mothers were also rated higher on indirect methods of control such as possessiveness, protectiveness, intrusiveness and control by guilt feelings. Seigelman's (1965) results, in agreement with Droppleman and Schaefer (1963), indicated that mothers were rated higher on demanding scales as well as loving scales. Thus, in agreement with the above studies and Parson's theory, it was hypothesized that males' and females' factor score loadings for maternal and paternal behavior reports, derived from their subjects CRPBI scale scores and its three factors of "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control" which corresponded to Schaefer's (1965b) three dimensions, would differ at the .05 level of significance. The directions of these differences were hypothesized as follows:

1. Males' and females' factor scores for maternal behavior reports would load significantly higher than their factor scores for paternal behavioral reports on the "Acceptance" pole of the "Acceptance versus

Rejection" factor.

2. Males' and females' factor scores for maternal behavior reports would load significantly higher than their factor scores for paternal behavior reports on the "Psychological Control" pole of the "Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy" factor.
3. Males' and females' factor scores for paternal behavior reports would load significantly higher than their factor scores for maternal behavior reports on the "Firm Control" pole of the "Firm Control versus Lax Control" factor.

Differences Between Reports by Males and Females

Duvalle (1937) reported that girls perceived themselves as closer to their parents than did boys. Meltzer (1943) found that boys tended to free associate treatment and discipline words with both parents more than girls. Hawkes, Burchinal and Gardner (1957) found that male subjects considered their parents more strict than female subjects. Bronfenbrenner (1961) indicated that girls perceived themselves as receiving more affection, praise and companionship from parents than boys, while boys perceived themselves as subject to more punishment and achievement demands. Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) found that girls tended to report receiving love, affection and nurturance more than boys, whereas boys reported receiving more hostile, negative treatment and more covert indirect control as well as more overt direct control from both parents. Thus, in agreement with these studies and Parson's theory that boys consider themselves primarily objects of instrumental behavior while girls perceive themselves primarily as objects of

expressive behavior, it was hypothesized that males and females factor score loadings, derived from their CRPBI scale scores and its three factors of "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus "lax control", would differ at the .05 level of significance. The directions of these differences were hypothesized as follows:

4. Females' factor scores would load significantly higher than males' factor scores on the "Acceptance" pole of the "Acceptance versus Rejection" factor, for both maternal and paternal behavior reports.
5. Males' factor scores would load significantly higher than females' factor scores on the "Psychological Control" pole of the "Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy" factor for both maternal and paternal behavior reports.
6. Males' factor scores would load significantly higher than females' factor scores on the "Firm Control" pole of the "Firm Control versus Lax Control" factor for both maternal and paternal behavior reports.

Interaction Between Sex of Respondent and Sex of Parent Reported

The research literature also suggested that an interaction between sex of the child and sex of the parent might be expected on the "firm control versus lax control" dimension. Simpson (1935) reported that boys felt punished more by fathers and that girls reported mothers as more punishing. Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) found a clear tendency for the opposite sex parent to be reported as granting more autonomy and Brofenbrenner (1961) reported a tendency for each parent

to be seen as relatively more lenient with a child of the opposite sex and more reserved and strict with one of his own sex. Kagan (1956) found the interaction to be age-related. His results indicated that the same sex parent was reported as increasingly dominant during middle childhood. Hess and Torney (1962) who also found the interaction to be age related, found that the tendency to report the opposite-sex parent more autonomous and the same-sex parent more strict decrease as childhood progressed into adolescence.

In Parson's theory, mothers were expected to be nurturant to boys and girls and, therefore, it expected that they would perceive mother's behavior as basically accepting. Fathers, according to Parson's theory, were expected to encourage problem solving in boys and demand more from boys than girls although they were considered to exert control over both sexes. To the degree that fathers demanded discipline from boys rather than girls, boys were expected to perceive their fathers as more controlling than their mothers. No similar arguments, however, were given to explain how the girls might perceive their mother as more controlling than their fathers although the empirical findings stated above suggested that they did. Nevertheless, based on the above research, and partly in accordance with Parson's role theory, it was hypothesized that factor score loadings would interact at the .05 level of significance in the following manner:

7. Factor scores for the same sex parental behavior reports would load significantly higher than those for opposite sex parental behavior reports for both males and females on the "Firm Control" pole of

the "Firm Control versus Lax Control" factor.

Since neither Parson's theory nor the research on children's perceptions of parental behavior suggested any further interactions, none were predicted.

Differences Between Subjects from High and Low SES Background

Kohn (1963) suggested a number of differences between middle class and working class occupations and postulated that such occupations affected the parent's concepts of what was desirable behavior for adults and for children. He proposed that middle class occupations dealt with the manipulation of interpersonal relations, ideals and symbols; required self direction and were dependent on individual actions to achieve success. Working class occupations dealt with the manipulation of things, required direct supervision and depended on collective action in order to achieve success. Therefore, in agreement with the findings of Bronfenbrenner (1958) who reviewed a number of studies concerned with effects of social class on parent-child relations, middle class parents were found to be less restrictive than working class parents. Walters and Crandall (1964), using data gathered from a longitudinal study concerned with maternal behavior and dating from 1940 to 1960, concluded that socio-economic status varied directly with noncoercive maternal child-rearing practices. Becker et al. (1959) and Zuckermann et al. (1960) indicated that authoritarian control attitudes, measured by Schaefer's (1959) Parent Attitude Research Instrument, were negatively related to fathers' occupations.

Consistent with the above studies, Du Valle (1937) reported that underprivileged subjects evaluated parental discipline as too strict while average subjects considered their parents too lenient. Bronfenbrenner (1961), using fathers' education to determine socio-economic status, reported that middle class parents were perceived as more permissive of children's spontaneous desires, as more freely expressing affection and as preferring psychological methods of discipline more than lower class parents. Rosen (1964) using Hollingshead's Index of Social Position (Hollingshead & Redlick, 1953) as an index of socio-economic status found that middle class parents were reported as more accepting and interested in their child's performances, as more likely to use reasoning and appeals to guilt and as less likely to employ physical punishment than lower class parents.

Based on these few studies, it was predicted that factor score loadings of males and females from high socio-economic background would differ from the factor score loadings of males and females from low socio-economic background on both maternal and paternal behavior reports at the .05 level of significance. The direction of these differences were hypothesized as follows:

8. Factor scores for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from high SES background would load significantly higher than those for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from low SES background on the "Acceptance" pole of the "Acceptance versus Rejection" factor.
9. Factor scores for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males

and females from high SES background would load significantly higher than those for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from low SES background on the "Psychological Control" pole of the "Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy" factor.

10. Factor scores for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from low SES backgrounds would load significantly higher than those for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from high SES backgrounds on the "Firm Control" pole of the "Firm Control versus Lax Control" factor.

In this study, subjects from high SES background referred to subjects whose father's occupation ranked above the median for the Province of Manitoba on the Blissem Socio-Economic Index for Occupation in Canada (Blissem, 1967). Subjects from low SES backgrounds referred to those whose father's occupation ranked below the median for the Province. In general, the former group consisted of skilled labor, business and professional occupations while the latter consisted of unskilled labor, semi-skilled labor, lower ranking skilled labor and lower ranking business occupations.

Interactions Involving Socio-Economic Status

In addition to the above main effects, two studies (Kohn and Carroll, 1960; Schaefer, 1965) suggested that differences between ratings for mother and father were greater for low socio-economic status subjects than for high socio-economic status subjects. These results

were consistent with Kohn's (1963) conclusion that working class parents were more differentiated than middle class parents. Thus, it was predicted that an interaction might be expected between socio-economic status and sex of parent on each of the three factors.

It was difficult to propose any predictions as to possible interactions between socio-economic status and the sex of the child since Rosen (1964) and Schaefer (1965) used only male subjects in their analyses. Bronfenbrenner (1961) suggested that an interaction could be expected between socio-economic status, sex of parent, and sex of child on the acceptance dimension and firm control dimension but, due to the paucity of studies in this area, no further predictions could be empirically supported.

Nevertheless, it was partly the purpose of this study to determine whether two-way interactions did exist between sex of respondent and socio-economic status and whether three-way interactions existed between sex of respondent, sex of parent, and socio-economic status on any of the three factors, and therefore, the significance of these interactions was determined.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were thirteen-year-old (12.5-13.5 years) grade-seven students and fifteen-year-old (14.5-15.5 years) grade-nine students in attendance at either Crescentview Junior High School, Portage la Prairie or Pembina Crest Junior High, Winnipeg. The Ss lived at home with both parents. These schools were chosen because they served communities with widely different socio-economic backgrounds. Subjects from the Portage la Prairie school were labelled "rural" since Crescentview served the surrounding rural community as well as the city while subjects from Winnipeg were labelled "urban."

Instruments

Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)

Schaefer (1965a), motivated by a number of studies that indicated that children's perception of parent behavior was related to a number of child variables (Ausubel et al., 1954; Berdie & Layton, 1957; Serot & Teevan, 1961; Williams, 1958) as well as other inventory measures (Berdie & Layton, 1957; Bronson et al., 1959; Brown et al., 1957), constructed a self report inventory, in the form of a behavior check list, for systematically measuring a selected domain of perceived parent behavior. Originally, the domain of each parent behavior was represented by two hundred and sixty-items which described behavior that the parent

performed toward the child and to which the child could respond by circling "not like" (NL), "somewhat like" (SL), or "like" (L). A response of "like" was considered to mean that the child perceived the described behavior to be characteristic of his parent, either mother or father depending on which parent he was asked to report on, and was given a score of three. A "not like" response was considered to mean that the child perceived the described behavior as not characteristic of his parent and was scored one. A "somewhat like" response was considered to represent the response space between "like" and "not like" and was scored two. Items were divided into twenty-six ten-item scales, each scale proposing to measure the subjects positioning of his parent upon a linear continuum representing the general concept defined by the ten behavioral items. The positioning was quantitatively determined by summing the scores of the ten items. The content validity of the inventory and the internal consistency and construct validity of its scales were reported on the following pages.

Content validity (Lennon, 1956) was obtained by choosing concepts to define the universe of content represented by Schaefer's (1961) two-dimensional model of parent-child interactions presented in Figure 2.1. From this model Schaefer (1965a) derived eight molar concepts. Four were represented by the four poles of the model and four by their intersections. A number of more general concepts were then chosen to define these molar concepts as shown in Table 2.1. These more general concepts, in turn, were defined by the behavioral items mentioned earlier.

Originally, each concept was defined by approximately twenty items.

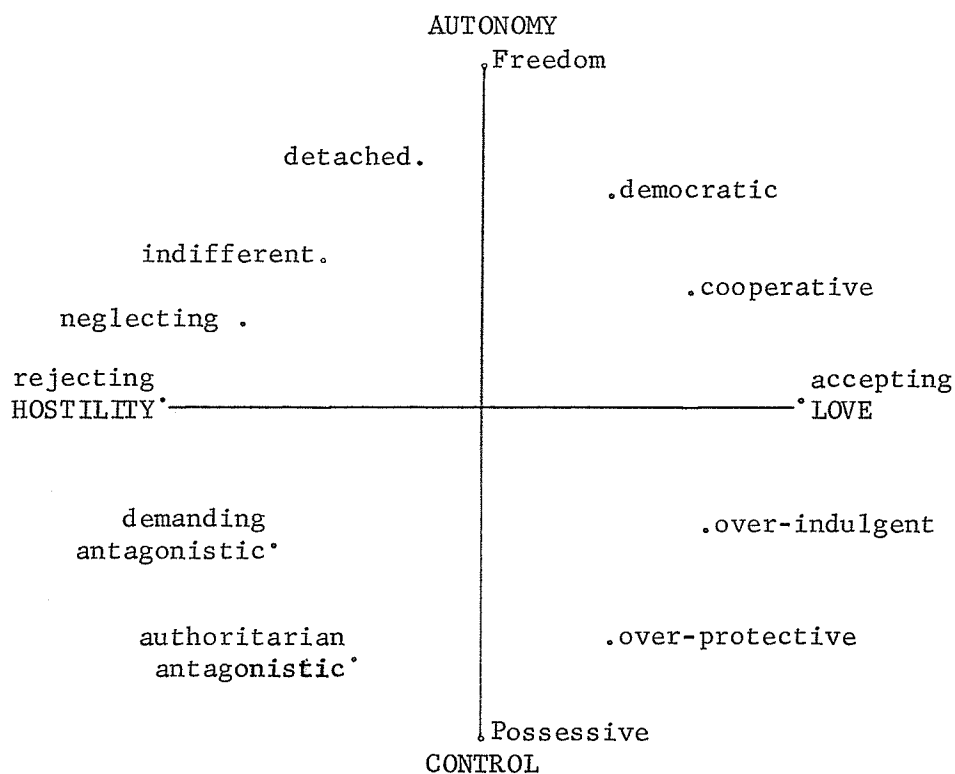


Fig. 2.1. Schaefer's two dimensional circumplex model for parent behavior.

Each of these items was independently rated on a three point scale by three psychologists according to the following criterion: clarity of behavioral description, relevance of the item to the concept, applicability of the item to both mother and father, and high predicted item variance. The ten most highly rated items for each concept were selected for the inventory.

Schaefer (1965a) also computed internal consistency reliability coefficients for each scale using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20. He administered the inventory, once for mother and once for father in

TABLE 2.1

HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIP OF THE CONCEPTS CHOSEN FOR
SCALE DEVELOPMENT TO THE MOLAR DIMENSIONS

Molar Dimensions	Concepts
Autonomy	Extreme autonomy, lax discipline
Autonomy and love	Moderate autonomy, encouraging sociability, encouraging independent thinking, equalitarian treatment
Love	Positive evaluation, sharing, expression of affection, emotional support
Love and control	Intellectual stimulation, childcenteredness, possessiveness, protectiveness
Control	Intrusiveness, suppression of aggression, control through guilt, parent direction
Control and hostility	Strictness, punishment, nagging,
Hostility	Irritability, negative evaluation, rejection
Hostility and autonomy	Neglect, ignoring

counterbalanced order, to two groups of normal subjects and one group of delinquent subjects. The normal groups were composed of a group of 85 boys and a group of 80 girls ranging in age from twelve to fourteen years and in the seventh grade of a suburban parochial school. The delinquent group consisted of 81 institutionalized delinquent boys of somewhat lower socio-economic status ranging in age from twelve to eighteen years whose parents lived at home. Coefficients of internal

consistency were calculated for mother's and father's reports separately for each of the three groups and were presented in Table 2.2. The coefficients ranged from .38 to .94 with a median of .76. The median reliabilities of groups of scales chosen to sample the molar dimensions were love, .84; hostility, .78; autonomy, .69; and control, .66. Although the coefficients of internal consistency appeared rather low, Cattell (1965) suggested that a scale need not be highly reliable in order to be highly valid and argued that high homogeneity was often obtained at the expense of transferrability and validity.

Cronbach and Meehl (1955) suggested that one way of determining a test's construct validity (or "concept validity" as labelled by Cattell, 1964) was to empirically determine whether the test correlated with other tests presumed to measure the same construct. Campbell and Fisk (1959) argued that, in order for a test to have construct validity, it should not only display convergent validity, as suggested above, but should also give low correlations with tests designed to measure different constructs. Schaefer (1965b) determined the factor structure of his inventory using data obtained from the two normal groups of children and one delinquent group mentioned earlier as well as data obtained from two adult groups. One adult group consisted of 154 personnel in an army hospital and the other consisted of 100 patients and eight personnel. The former adult group had a median age of 23.5 and the latter had a median age of 29.9 years. Schaefer (1965b) intercorrelated the scale scores of the five groups separately for mothers and for fathers forms using the cosine phi estimate of the

TABLE 2 .2

INTERNAL-CONSISTENCY RELIABILITIES FOR THE CHILD'S
REPORT OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY SCALES

Scale	Father			Mother		
	Del.	Nor.	Nor.	Del.	Nor.	Nor.
	Boys N=81	Boys N=85	Girls N=80	Boys N=81	Boys N=85	Girls N=80
Extreme autonomy	.81	.66	.71	.77	.66	.65
Lax disciplin	.73	.70	.76	.68	.68	.67
Moderate autonomy	.71	.70	.63	.72	.67	.56
Encouring sociability	.86	.77	.72	.85	.76	.77
Positive evaluation	.85	.76	.67	.80	.80	.76
Sharing	.93	.85	.81	.90	.86	.86
Expression of affection	.88	.81	.81	.85	.83	.81
Encouring independent thinking	.79	.72	.70	.75	.74	.68
Emotional support	.91	.83	.92	.93	.80	.94
Equalitarian treatment	.91	.84	.84	.85	.80	.82
Intellectual stimulatin	.91	.82	.84	.81	.82	.78
Child-centeredness	.87	.75	.77	.80	.78	.54
Possessiveness	.66	.58	.65	.50	.55	.55
Protectiveness	.64	.74	.63	.56	.64	.38
Intrusiveness	.77	.76	.57	.69	.72	.50
Suppression of aggression	.53	.62	.53	.56	.67	.40
Strictness	.80	.68	.74	.78	.73	.71
Punishment	.88	.76	.85	.86	.79	.86
Control through guilt	.46	.69	.70	.52	.77	.77
Parental direction	.70	.64	.54	.74	.67	.63
Nagging	.77	.75	.75	.78	.75	.76
Negative evaluation	.81	.73	.55	.82	.77	.70
Irritability	.83	.83	.84	.73	.83	.84
Rejection	.87	.66	.67	.78	.79	.58
Neglect	.84	.72	.86	.78	.60	.72
Ignoring	.89	.82	.84	.79	.82	.76

tetracholric correlation coefficient and collapsed the six resulting children's correlation matrices and four adult correlation matrices across groups by averaging corresponding correlation coefficients. The

resulting four correlation matrices; a matrix for reports on mother and one for reports on father for the pooled children's data and the pooled adults data, were then factor analyzed using a principal components solution. Three factors were extracted from each solution, accounting for an average of sixty-six percent of the total variance, and rotated to their orthogonal simple structure using a varimax criterion. The three factor structures were then compared using a method reported by Harman (1960, pp. 256-260) and found to be quite similar. A plot of the average factor loadings on the "acceptance versus rejection" and "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factors of scales that had high loadings on these factors was presented in Figure 2.2. A plot of the average factor loadings on the two control factors of scales that had high loadings on these factors was presented in Figure 2.3.

The following patterns of factor loadings of scales on the three dimensions were observed. The positive evaluation, sharing, expression of emotional support scales designed to define the molar concept of "love", as well as the equalitarian treatment, encouraging, and sociability scales partly defining the "autonomous versus love" molar dimension and the intellectual stimulation, child-centeredness, and to a lesser degree, possessiveness and protectiveness scales designed to define the molar concept "love versus control" all loaded positively on the first factor. The irritability, rejection, and for children's responses, negative evaluation scales, defining the molar concept "hostility" as well as the neglect and ignoring scales designed to

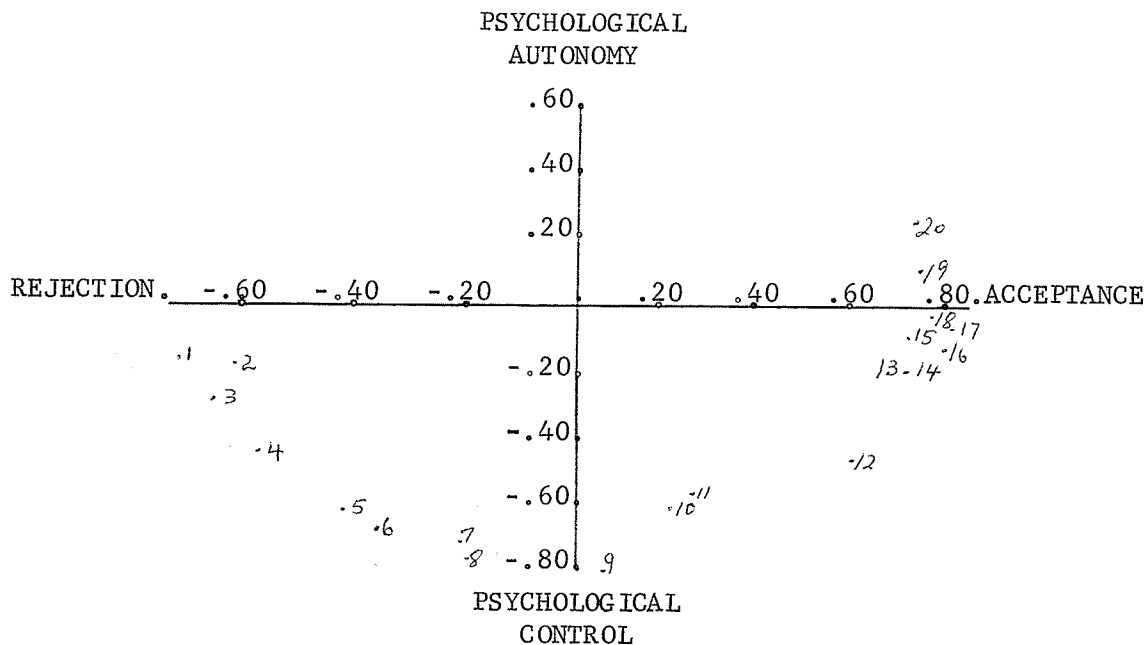


Fig. 2.2. A plot of the average factor loadings on the "Acceptance versus rejection" and "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factors of the following scales: 1. ignoring; 2. rejection; 3. neglect; 4. irritability; 5. negative evaluation; 6. nagging; 7. control through guilt; 8. parental direction; 9. intrusiveness; 10. possessiveness; 11. protectiveness; 12. childcenteredness; 13. positive evaluation; 14. expression of affection; 15. intellectual stimulation; 16. sharing; 17. emotional support; 18. equalitarian treatment; 19. encouraging independent thinking and 20. encouraging sociability.

define the "hostility and autonomy" molar concepts and, to a lesser degree, the nagging scale partly defining the "control and hostility" molar concept all loaded negatively on this factor. This scale was labelled "acceptance versus rejection".

The intrusiveness, control through guilt, parental direction and, to a lesser degree, suppression of aggression scales designed to define the molar concept "control" as well as the strictness, punishment and nagging scales designed to define the "control and hostility"

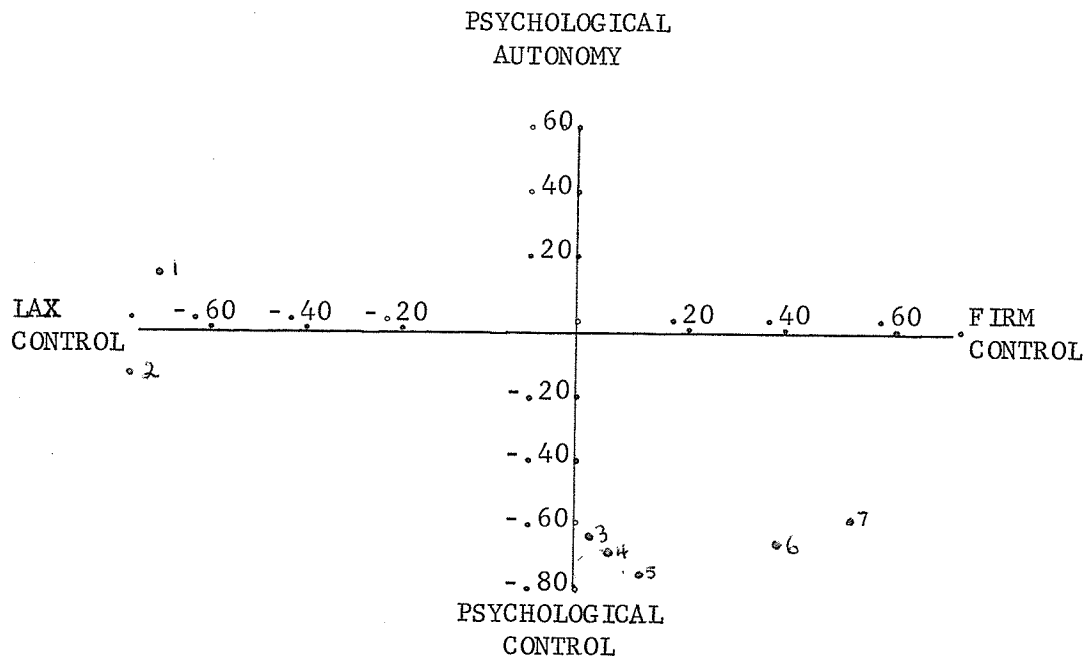


Fig. 2.3. A plot of the average factor loadings on the "firm control versus lax control" and "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factors of the following scales: 1. extreme autonomy; 2. lax discipline; 3. control through guilt; 4. parental direction; 5. intrusiveness; 6. strictness and 7. punishment.

molar concept; the possessiveness, protectiveness and, to a lesser degree, childcenteredness scales partly defining the "love and control" molar concept and the negative evaluation scale, to a small degree, partly defining the molar concept "hostility" loaded on this factor. Schaefer (1965b) labelled this factor "psychological autonomy versus psychological control".

Finally, the extreme autonomy and lax discipline scales designed to define the molar concept "autonomy" loaded positively on the third factor while the strictness and punishment scales partly defining the molar concept "control and hostility" loaded negatively on this factor.

This factor was labelled "firm control versus lax control".

A review of the above results suggested that, except the scales "encouraging independent thinking" and "moderate autonomy", all scales showed moderate correlations with other scales designed to measure the same molar concept. The scales defining the four molar concepts represented by the four poles of Schaefer's (1961) model, except the negative evaluation scale which had loadings on both the first and second factors, loaded highly on only one factor and low on the other two factors. The other scales, designed to define the molar concepts representing the intersection of two polar concepts only, loaded significantly on factors strongly determined by scales defining these concepts. Thus most scales tended to show a moderate degree of convergent and discriminant validity and, therefore, appeared to show construct validity.

An additional method for empirically determining a test's construct validity, according to Cronbach and Meehl (1955), was to determine whether two groups, expected to differ on a construct, were discriminated by the scales. Droppleman and Schaefer (1963), based on earlier empirical and theoretical suggestions that subjects' responses should differ with respect to the sex of the child and sex of the parent (Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Parsons & Bales, 1955; Sears, 1961; Terman & Tyler, 1954), compared the scale scores obtained by the two normal children's groups on mother's and father's reports. Using the Mann-Whitney U statistic to test for significant differences, the authors found that seven of the scales differentiated between girls' and

boys' responses on mother's forms and eleven of the scales differentiated between girls' and boys' responses on the father's form at the .05 level of significance. Eleven of the twenty-six scales differentiated between mothers and fathers for the girls' group and eight of the twenty-six scales differentiated between mothers and fathers for the boys' group at the .05 level of significance. Only three scales, namely the positive evaluation, encourages independence and strictness scales, did not discriminate between any of the groups.

Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) also gave a 128 item inventory to a somewhat older sample of subjects. Data gathered from this second group replicated the differences obtained previously with regards to the sex of the parents but only differentiated between boys' and girls' responses on scales measuring maternal covert and indirect control. The preceding tests of internal consistency and content validity were considered to have demonstrated that the CRPBI was a sufficiently reliable and valid behavior inventory.

In addition to the original twenty-six scale form of the CRPBI, two revised, 18-scale forms were independently developed. Renson, Schaefer, and Levy (1968) gave a french translation of the 182 item eighteen scale version of the CRPBI to 182 Belgium high school students. The revised form consisted of six scales of sixteen items per scale, and twelve scales of eight items per scale; these scales were developed from the item analyses and factor analysis (Schaefer, 1965b) of the original form. The subjects consisted of ninety-six males ranging in age from thirteen to eighteen, as well as eighty-six females ranging

from ages fourteen to eighteen in attendance at one of the four public high schools in Liege, Belgium. Both academic and vocational schools were chosen to insure a wide range of socio-economic status. Scale intercorrelations were calculated separately for males and females on mothers' and fathers' reports and each of the four resulting correlation matrices were factor analyzed using a principal components solution. Three factors were orthogonally rotated for each of the factor matrices by the varimax method, and resultant factor structures were compared according to the method reported by Harman (1960). Each of the factor structures appeared similar and the scales defining the three factors indicated that they were similar to the three factors derived by Schaefer (1965b) using the original version of the CRPBI. Accordingly, the factors were named "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control".

Cross (1969) used the same eighteen-scale version of the CRPBI in its untranslated form and factor analyzed the results obtained from 119 college females and 99 college males from general psychology classes at the University of Connecticut. His analyses and results were quite similar to those obtained by Renson et al. (1968).

The second revised form, the form that was used in this study, was developed by Schludermann and Schludermann (1970c). It consisted of six scales of eight items per scale, and twelve scales of five items per scale. The scales, which were the same as those independently selected by Renson et al. (1968), were selected on the basis of their

high reliability, variability and applicability to parental behavior. The items, chosen to measure these scales, were selected on the basis of their high item reliability. The 108 items that formed the shortened inventory were identical for maternal and paternal behavior forms. The authors, in an attempt to determine the new test's replicability and validity, gave the shortened form to a group of 149 males and 145 females and then, six months later, gave the form to another independent group of 168 males and 230 females. All subjects were enrolled in the introductory psychology course at the University of Manitoba and ranged in age from eighteen to twenty-two. Scale inter-correlations were determined separately for maternal and paternal behaviors for the males and females of each group by using the Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficient. Each of the resulting eight correlation matrices were factor analyzed using the principal components solution and three factors were extracted from each of the resulting factor matrices and rotated to their orthogonal simple solution according to the varimax criterion. The proportion of total variance accounted for by the three factors ranged from 66 to 72 percent. Rotated factor structures were compared within groups and between corresponding same-sex groups using Harman's (1960) coefficient of congruence and found to be similar. The factor loadings also suggested that the resultant factors were similar to those derived by Schaefer in previous studies.

Acceptance, child-centeredness, possessiveness, positive involvement, acceptance of individuation and hostile detachment loaded

significantly on the same factor which was labelled "acceptance versus rejection" and considered similar to Schaefer's (1965b) similarly defined factor.

Rejection, control, enforcement, intrusiveness, control through guilt, hostile control, inconsistent discipline, instilling persistent anxiety, hostile detachment and withdrawal of relations loaded significantly on the factor labelled "psychological autonomy versus psychological control". Hostile detachment also had loadings on the "acceptance versus rejection" factor, and control and enforcement scales loaded significantly on the remaining factor.

The five scales loading on the final factor were control, enforcement, nonenforcement, lax discipline and extreme autonomy. This factor was labelled "firm control versus lax control". All scales were considered to measure the factors similarly labelled by Schaefer (1965b) and, accordingly, the test was considered to have the same context and construct validity.

In addition to the above theoretical considerations a number of practical considerations supported the choice of the CRPBI as the measuring instrument for this study. Whereas many previous studies were limited by instruments that did not differentiate between parents (Ausubel et al., 1954; Cooper, 1960; Hawkes et al., 1957); or by instruments that obtained information about mother and father on different items (Anderson, 1940; Emmerich, 1959; Gardner, 1947; Hawkes et al., 1957; Stott, 1941) or by concepts that were measured by only a single item (Henry, 1957; Kagan, 1956; 1958), the present study was

not so limited since the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (Schaefer, 1965a) was capable of discriminating between responses with respect to the sex of the parent and sex of the respondent on a number of scales.

Research Design

The subjects were given a socio-economic status (SES) index based on father's occupation. Indices for each occupation were derived from a regression equation with an intercept of 24.62 and a weighting of +.202 for income and +.347 for education, these values being determined from the 1961 Census of Canada (Blissem, 1967). Subjects whose father's occupation was rated lower than 35.5 were labelled low SES and subjects whose father's occupation was rated 35.5 or greater were labelled high SES subjects.

The subjects were divided into four groups: high SES male subjects (HM), low SES male subjects (LM), high SES female subjects (HF), low SES female subjects (LF). Each group consisted of ten thirteen-year-old rural subjects, ten fifteen-year-old rural subjects, ten thirteen-year-old urban subjects and ten fifteen-year-old urban subjects. All groups had similar SES distributions with equal numbers of subjects in each SES interval. The distribution of subjects within each group, along with the SES distribution for the population of Manitoba, was presented in Table 2.3. The means, standard deviations and median were also presented in this table. When the first two SES intervals presented in Table 2.3 were pooled, the chi-square statistic for comparing the two distributions was not significant at the .05

level of significance suggesting that the two distributions were similar.

TABLE 2.3

GROUP AND PROVINCIAL SES INDEX DISTRIBUTION, MEDIAN,
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION (S.D.)

Interval	Percent of Subjects in Each Interval of Ten						Median	Mean	S.D.
	<30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	>70			
Group	17.5	42.5	22.5	7.5	5.0	5.0	35.7	38.3	15.1
Province	31.0	31.0	22.0	9.0	4.0	4.0	35.5	38.9	12.0

Procedure

All Ss were tested in their classrooms during regular classroom periods. Each class consisted of approximately thirty students and each period lasted about forty-five minutes. A total of 356 students were tested.

Upon entering the classroom, the investigator introduced himself and his two assistants who had begun distributing the inventory and pencils. The inventory consisted of two shortened versions of the CRPBI (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1970c) forms, "FOR MOTHER" written above the first set of items and "FOR FATHER" written above second set. After all inventories and pencils were distributed, the following instructions were given:

Please write your code number (supplied by the school), age, in years and months, date of birth, school and today's date. If you need any assistance in calculating your age, please raise your hand and one of the assistants will help you.

Pause to allow assistants to help Ss.

If you live at home with both your parents, place the word 'YES' at the top of your paper, otherwise place the word 'NO'.

A brief interval of time was allowed followed by the following instructions:

As children grow up to be teen-agers and young adults, they learn more and more about their parents and how their parents are bringing up their sons and daughters. Grown-up sons and daughters can well describe some of these different experiences. Please read each statement on the following pages and circle the answer that most closely describes the way each of your parents acts towards you. Be sure to mark each answer for each parent. If you think the statement is like your parent circle 'L'.

If you think the statement is somewhat like your parent circle 'SL'.

If you think the statement is not like your parent circle 'NL'. Are there any questions?

The investigator answered questions and proceeded as follows:

You have forty minutes to answer all questions for mothers and fathers.

When you have answered all questions, please place the completed form in the upper right hand corner of your desk and then sit quietly while the other students are busy. The assistants will collect the completed forms and pencils at the end of the class. Alright?

Begin.

Following the test, Ss from the Portage la Prairie school were asked to place their code number and father's occupation on sheets of paper that were distributed after the completed inventories had been collected. Similar SES information was obtained for Ss from the Winnipeg school from school records.

The investigator discarded any data that were incomplete or that

had been completed by students who did not live at home with both parents or who did not fall into the required age range for their grade. The remaining data were then divided into four groups: male rural, male urban, female rural, and female urban, which were further subdivided into the six SES intervals presented in Table 2.3. The number of Ss within each interval for each group was determined by the least number of Ss in a particular interval across all four groups. Additional data for the three groups that had greater numbers of Ss in that interval were discarded randomly although some attempt was made to equalize across age. Thus SES intervals were equally weighted across SES and school of testing and, therefore, confounding of the results due to systematic variation of these variables, considered extraneous to the present study, was considered to be reduced. Scale scores were then calculated for the selected data and punched on IBM cards. These scale scores were factor analyzed across all Ss using a principal components solution. Factors with eigenvalues greater than unity were orthogonally rotated by the varimax method and factor scores were computed for each S.

The factor scores were then divided into eight groups: LM, HM, LF, and HF responses on father's forms and LM, HM, LF, and HF responses on mother's forms. The factor scores were then compared separately across sex of the respondent, sex of the parent, reported and socioeconomic status using a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ analysis of variance, fixed model, design with repeated measures over the sex of the parent. Wherever statistically justifiable, simple effects were compared using the F-ratio for simple effects presented in Winer (1962).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The pooled data was factor analyzed using the principal components solution. Three factors had eigenvalues greater than unity, the first four eigenvalues being 6.55, 3.47, 2.07, and 0.74. The first three factors accounted for sixty-seven percent of the total variance while the fourth factor accounted for only four percent. The first three factors were then rotated to their orthogonal simple structure by the varimax method and factor scores on the resulting factor structure were computed. The scale loadings and the percent of total variance accounted for by each factor were presented in Table 3.1.

The first factor loaded highly (above $\pm .60$) and positively on the hostile detachment and rejection scales and lowly (between $\pm .40$ and $\pm .60$) and positively on the instilling persistent anxiety, hostile control and withdrawal of relations scales. It loaded highly and negatively on the acceptance, positive involvement, childcenteredness, and acceptance of individuation scales. This factor was considered to be similar to the factor labelled "acceptance versus rejection" reported in Cross's (1969), Renson et al.'s (1968), Schaefer's (1965b) and Schludermann and Schludermann's (1970c) studies with the positive pole defined as "rejection" and the negative pole defined as "acceptance". Accordingly, this factor was labelled "acceptance versus rejection".

The second factor loaded highly and positively on the control

TABLE 3.1

FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE EIGHTEEN SCALES ON THE THREE
 ROTATED FACTORS AND PERCENT OF THE TOTAL VARIANCE
 ACCOUNTED FOR BY EACH FACTOR

Scale Label	Factor		
	I	II	III
Acceptance	-.91	-.05	.04
Childcenteredness	-.83	.16	.00
Possessiveness	-.39	.66	-.13
Rejection	.75	.42	-.13
Control	.19	.46	-.64
Enforcement	.38	.46	-.58
Positive Involvement	-.90	.08	-.03
Intrusiveness	-.13	.64	-.38
Control Through Guilt	-.05	.77	-.08
Hostile Control	.44	.72	-.23
Inconsistent Discipline	.26	.45	.45
Nonenforcement	.12	-.07	.79
Acceptance of Individuation	-.81	-.12	.21
Lax Discipline	-.21	-.01	.81
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	.47	.67	-.22
Hostile Detachment	.80	.39	.05
Withdrawal of Relations	.42	.58	.08
Extreme Autonomy	-.02	-.15	.69
Percent of Total Variance	36	19	12

through guilt, hostile control, instilling persistent anxiety, possessiveness and intrusiveness scales and lowly and positively on the withdrawal of relations, enforcement, control and inconsistent discipline scales. It was considered similar to Cross's (1969), Renson et al.'s (1968), Schaefer's (1965b) and Schludermann and Schludermann's (1970c) "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factor with the positive pole defined as "psychological autonomy versus psychological control".

The third factor loaded highly and positively on the lax discipline, nonenforcement and extreme autonomy scales and lowly and positively on the inconsistent discipline scale. It loaded highly and negatively on the enforcement scale. This factor was considered similar to the 'firm control versus lax control' factor reported by Cross (1969), Renson et al. (1968), Schaefer (1965b), and Schludermann and Schludermann (1970c) with the positive pole defined as "lax control" and the negative pole defined as "firm control". This factor was labelled "lax control versus firm control".

The results of the three-way analysis of variance of factor scores loading on the "acceptance versus rejection" factor were presented in Table 3.2.

The results of the three-way analysis of variance of factor scores loading on the "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factor were presented in Table 3.3.

The results of the three-way analysis of variance of factor scores loading on the "firm control versus lax control" factor were presented in Table 3.4.

TABLE 3.2

SUMMARY TABLE OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF FACTOR
SCORE LOADINGS ON THE "ACCEPTANCE VERSUS REJECTION" FACTOR

Source	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Value
Between Subjects	257.46	159		
SES	0.30	1	0.30	0.18
Sex of Respondent (SR)	0.60	1	0.60	0.37
SES x SR	3.22	1	3.22	1.98
Error Between	253.34	156	1.62	
Within Subjects	61.51	160		
Sex of Parent (SP)	5.79	1	5.79	16.44*
SES x SP	0.43	1	0.43	1.23
SR x SP	0.12	1	0.12	0.33
SES x SP x SR	0.16	1	0.16	0.47
Error Within	55.00	156	0.35	
Total	318.97	319		

*This value is significant at the .01 level of significance.

TABLE 3.3

SUMMARY TABLE OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF FACTOR SCORE
LOADINGS ON THE "PSYCHOLOGICAL AUTONOMY VERSUS
PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTROL" FACTOR

Source	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Value
Between Subjects	257.50	159		
SES	3.95	1	3.95	2.44
Sex of Respondent (SR)	0.07	1	0.07	0.05
SES x SR	0.80	1	0.80	0.49
Error Between	252.68	156	1.62	
Within Subjects	61.48	160		
Sex of Parent (SP)	11.18	1	11.18	35.20*
SES x SP	0.00	1	0.00	0.00
SR x SP	0.32	1	0.32	1.00
SES x SP x SR	0.44	1	0.44	1.38
Error Within	49.82	156	0.32	
Total	318.98	319		

*This value is significant at the .01 level of significance.

TABLE 3.4

SUMMARY TABLE OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF FACTOR SCORE
LOADINGS ON THE "FIRM CONTROL VERSUS LAX CONTROL" FACTOR

Source	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Value
Between Subjects	264.79	159		
SES	7.21	1	7.21	4.49**
Sex of Respondent (SR)	2.09	1	2.09	1.30
SES x SR	5.05	1	5.05	3.16*
Error Between	250.45	156	1.61	
Within Subjects	54.19	160		
Sex of Parent (SP)	1.36	1	1.36	4.11**
SES x SP	0.47	1	0.47	1.41
SR x SP	0.55	1	0.55	1.66
SES x SP x SR	0.10	1	0.10	0.29
Error Within	51.71	156	0.33	
Total	318.98	319		

*This value is significant at the .10 level of significance.

**These values are significant at the .05 level of significance.

As indicated in Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4, the differences between factor score loadings for maternal and paternal behavior reports were significant at the .01 level of significance on all three factors. A review of the graphs of average factor score loadings on paternal and maternal behavioral reports by males and females on each of the factors, presented in Figure 3.1, indicated that these differences were in the predicted direction. Accordingly, the first three hypotheses were accepted and it was concluded that:

1. Males' and females' factor scores for maternal behavior reports loaded significantly higher than their factor scores for paternal behavior reports on the "acceptance" pole of the "acceptance versus rejection" factor.
2. Males' and females' factor scores for maternal behavior reports loaded significantly higher than their factor scores for paternal behavior reports on the "psychological control" pole of the "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factor.
3. Males' and females' factor scores for paternal behavior reports loaded significantly higher than their factor scores for maternal behavior reports on the "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" factor.

As indicated in Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4, the factor score loadings of males on the maternal and paternal behavior reports did not differ at the .05 level of significance from the factor score loadings of females on both parental reports for any of the factors. Therefore, the fourth, fifth, and sixth hypotheses, concerned with the difference

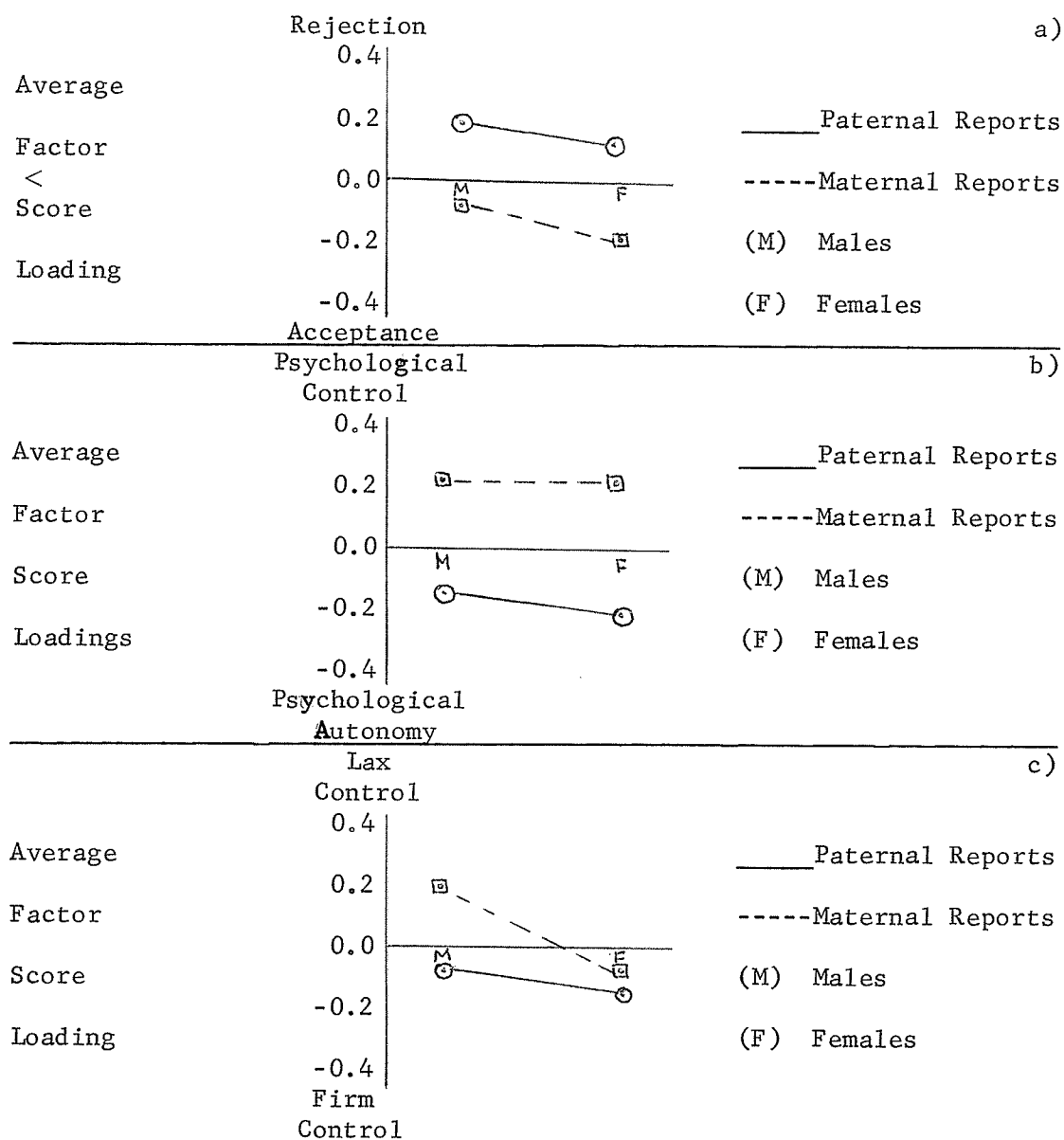


Fig. 3.1. Graphs of average factor score loadings on paternal and maternal behavioral reports by males and females on the (a) "acceptance versus rejection", (b) "Psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and (c) "firm control versus lax control" factors.

in factor score loadings of opposite sex respondents, were not accepted.

Since the sex of respondent by socio-economic status interaction on the "firm control versus lax control" factor approached significance, being significant at the .10 level of significance, the difference between males' and females' factor score loadings on this factor were tested separately for high and low SES subjects. Using the F-ratio for simple effects described by Winer (1962, p. 340), high SES males' and females' factor score loadings were found to differ at the .05 level of significance. Low SES males' and females' factor score loadings did not differ significantly. The F-ratio calculated for the high SES subjects was 4.92 and for low SES subjects it was 0.23. The critical value at the .05 level of significance was 3.93.

Graphs of the average factor score loadings for males and females on maternal and paternal behavior reports on the "firm control versus lax control" factors for overall and separate SES groups were presented in Figure 3.2. A review of the graph in Figure 3.2c indicated that the difference between males' and females' factor score loadings for high SES subjects was in a direction opposite to that proposed in hypothesis six which stated that males' factor scores would load higher on the "firm control" pole than females' factor scores. Therefore, hypothesis six could not be accepted for high or low SES subjects since factor score loadings for males and females in the former group differed in a direction contrary to that proposed in the hypothesis and, in the latter group, the difference was not significant.

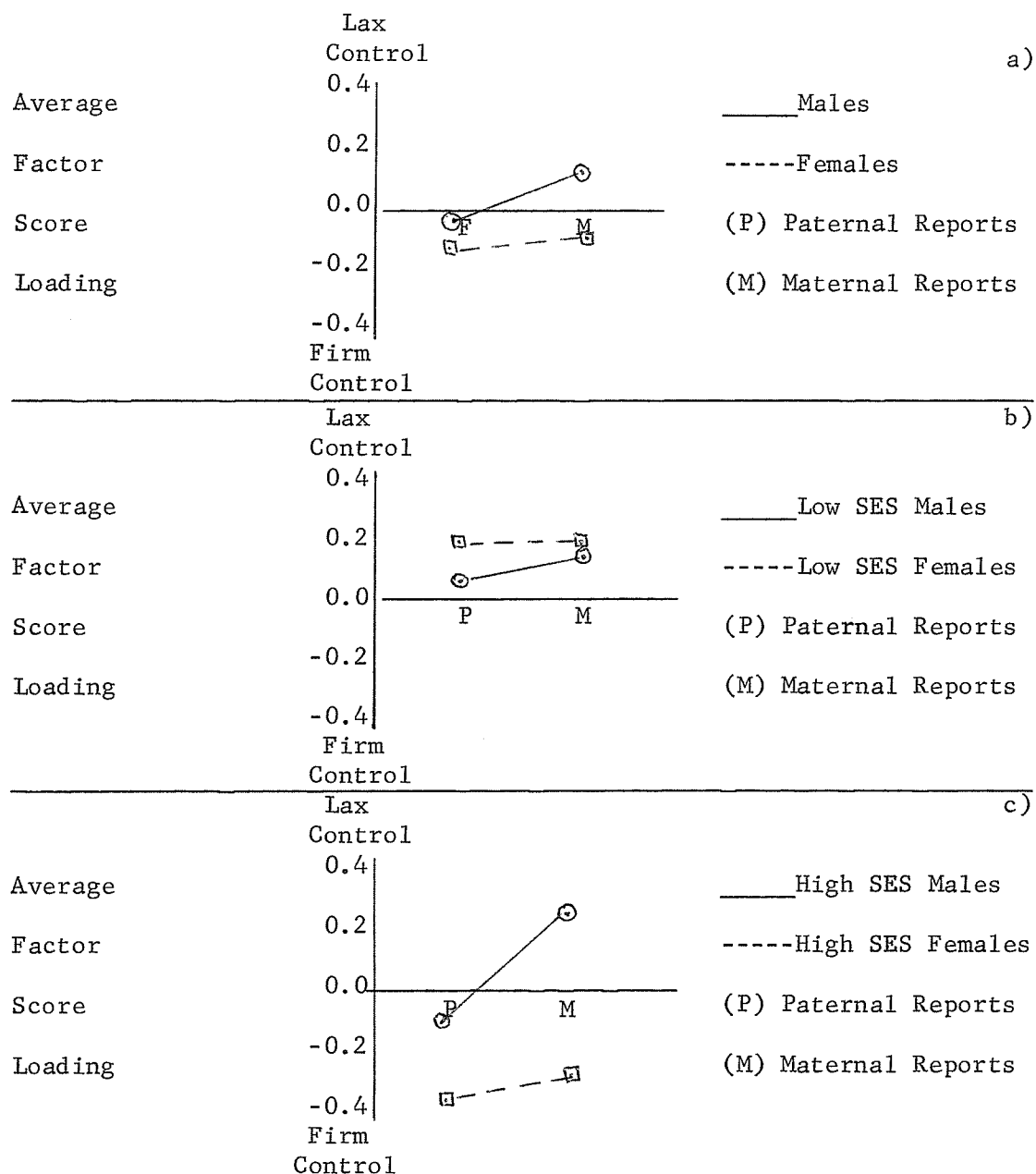


Fig. 3.2. Graphs of average factor score loadings for males and females on maternal and paternal behavior reports on the "firm control versus lax control" factor (a) pooled across SES and for (b) low SES and (c) high SES subjects separately.

The hypothesized interaction between sex of respondent and sex of parental behavior on the "firm control versus lax control" factor was not significant at the .05 level of significance, the F-value being 1.66 and the critical value being 3.92. Therefore, hypothesis seven, that predicted such an interaction, was not accepted.

As indicated in Table 3.2 and 3.3, the factor score loadings for males and females in the high socio-economic status group did not differ significantly from factor score loadings for males and females in the low socio-economic status group on the "acceptance versus rejection" and "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factor. Therefore, hypothesis eight and nine which predicted these differences were not accepted.

As indicated in Table 3.4, differences between factor score loadings for males and females in the high socio-economic status group did differ at the .05 level of significance from factor score loadings for males and females in the low socio-economic group on the "firm control versus lax control" factor. Since the sex of respondent by SES interaction approached significance and since SES differences were significantly different at the .05 level of significance, analysis of simple effects was considered justified. Using the F-ratio for simple effects described by Winer (1962, p. 340) to compare the factor score loadings of high and low SES male and female subjects, it was found that males' factor score loadings did not differ across SES but that the factor score loadings for high and low SES female subjects differed at the .01 level of significance. The F-ratio calculated for male

subjects was 0.07. It was 8.77 for female subjects. The critical value at the .01 level of significance was 6.85.

Graphs of the average factor score loadings on the "firm control versus lax control" factor for high and low maternal and paternal behavior reports for all subjects and for male and female subjects separately were presented in Figure 3.3. A review of Figure 3.3a and 3.3c indicated that the difference between high and low SES groups for all subjects and for females separately were in a direction opposite to that proposed in hypothesis ten which proposed that low SES subjects' factor scores would load higher on the "firm control" pole than high SES subjects. Therefore, hypothesis ten was not accepted.

A review of the F-values for two and three-way interactions on the "acceptance versus rejection", "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" and "firm control versus lax control" factors presented in Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4, indicated that none of the interactions were significant at the .05 level of significance. Only the sex of respondent by SES interaction on the "firm control versus lax control" factor, with an F-value of 3.15, reached significance at the .10 level of significance, the critical value being 2.75. All other interactions had F-values less than 2.00. A review of the graphs in Figures 3.2, 3.3, however, indicated that the analysis of simple effects of subjects' responses on maternal and paternal behavior reports on the "firm control versus lax control" factor might give valuable additional information. Using the F-ratio for simple effects discussed in Winer (1962), the differences between factor score load-

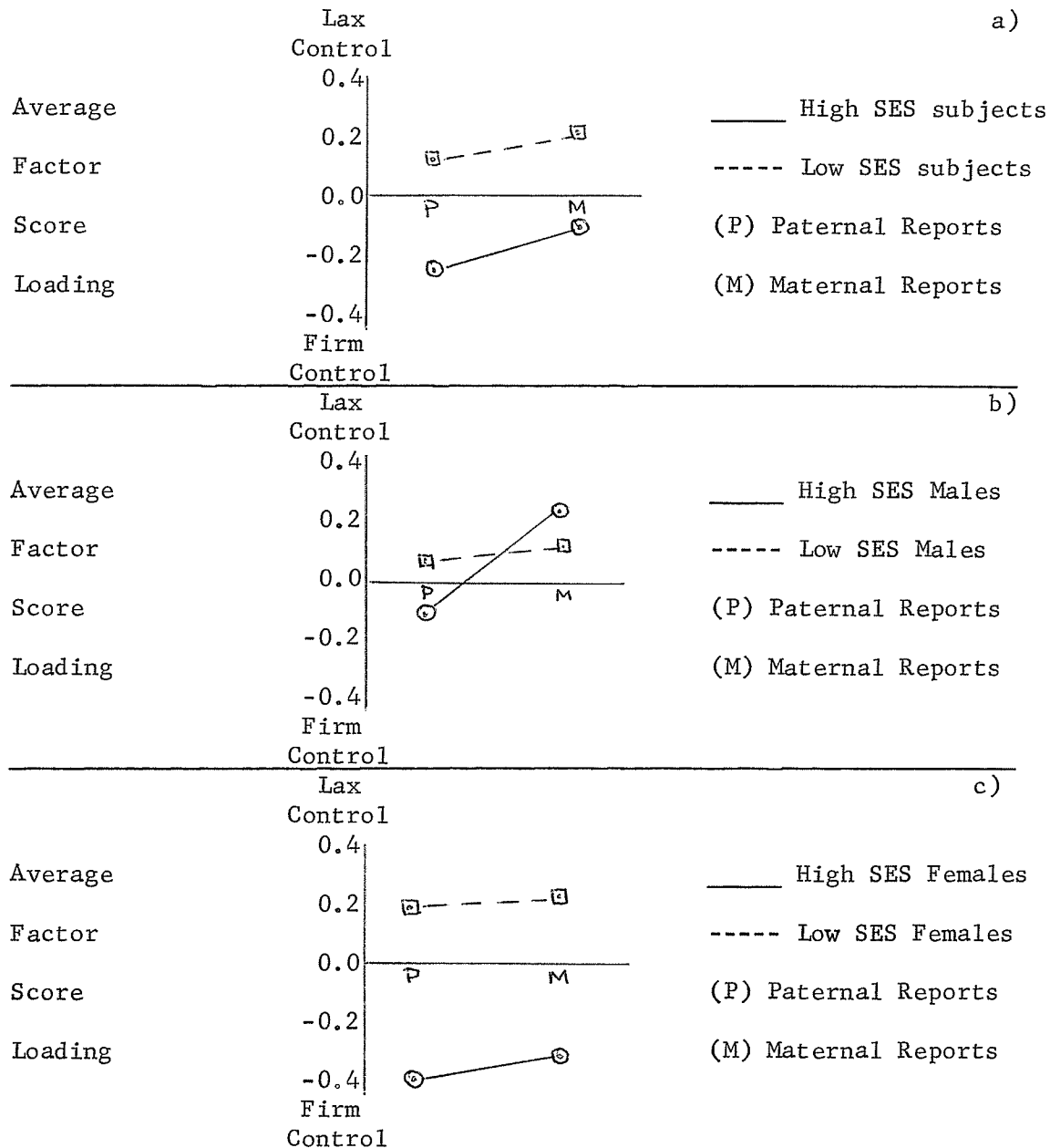


Fig. 3.3. Graphs of average factor score loadings for (a) high and low SES subjects pooled across sex and for (b) male and (c) female high and low SES subjects separately on maternal and paternal reports on the "firm control versus lax control" factor.

ings for maternal versus paternal behavior reports on the "firm control versus lax control" factor were compared for HM, LM, HF, and LF groups. The corresponding F-values were 6.43, 0.63, 0.50, and 0.00. Only the first value was significant at the .05 level of significance, the critical value being 3.92.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Interpretation of Results

Hypotheses Related to the Sex of the Parent

Based on a number of studies that differentiated children's responses on perceived maternal and paternal behavior, the following hypotheses were proposed:

1. Males' and females' factor scores for maternal behavior reports would load significantly higher than their factor scores for paternal behavior reports on the "acceptance" pole of the "acceptance versus rejection" factor.
2. Males' and females' factor scores for maternal behavior reports would load significantly higher than their factor scores for paternal behavior reports on the "psychological control" pole of the "psychological control versus psychological autonomy" factor.
3. Males' and females' factor scores for paternal behavior reports would load significantly higher than their factor scores for maternal behavior reports on the "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" factor.

These hypotheses were accepted at the .05 level of significance or greater (see Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4). The results were interpreted as supporting the conclusions that mothers' behavior was perceived of as more accepting and psychologically controlling than

fathers' behavior, and that fathers' behavior was perceived as more firm controlling than that of the mothers'. These conclusions were consistent with those of the earlier studies.

Hypotheses Related to the Sex of the Respondents

The next set of hypotheses were based on studies that differentiated males' and females' responses on perceived parental behavior.

They were stated as follows:

4. Females' factor scores would load significantly higher than males' factor scores on the "acceptance" pole of the "acceptance versus rejection" factor for both maternal and paternal behavior reports.
5. Males' factor scores would load significantly higher than females' factor scores on the "psychological control" pole of the "psychological control versus psychological autonomy" factor for both maternal and paternal behavior reports.
6. Males' factor scores would load significantly higher than females' factor scores on the "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" factor for both maternal and paternal behavior reports.

These hypotheses were not accepted since corresponding factor score loadings did not differ at the .05 level of significance. These results were interpreted as suggesting that males and females did not differ in their perceptions of their parents' behavior. Further analysis of these results revealed that this interpretation was adequate for the results obtained on low SES subjects but not high SES subjects.

For subjects belonging to the high SES groups, females' factor scores loaded significantly higher than males' factor score loadings on the "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" factor. These results were contrary to those proposed in hypothesis six and were discussed more thoroughly later in this chapter.

The CRPBI, according to Droppleman and Schaefer (1963), was capable of determining differences between scale scores of opposite sex subjects. Therefore, the lack of significance in the differences of factor score loadings between males and females was considered to be due to some systematic difference between the subjects sampled in this study and those sampled in the studies used to support these hypotheses. One such difference was age. Subjects in the previous studies tended to be either preschool or elementary school aged children whereas those in this study were early adolescents. Therefore, it was proposed that adolescents may not differ in their perceptions of parental behavior, particularly those from somewhat lower SES backgrounds, although preadolescents would. In support of this hypothesis, Droppleman and Schaefer (1963) compared the CRPBI scale scores of a number of early adolescents from generally low SES background and found no significant differences. Therefore, the effects of age on sex differences in children's perceptions of parental behavior were considered to warrant future investigation.

Hypotheses Related to the Interaction Effect Between Sex of Parent and Sex of Respondent

The interaction effect between sex of reported parent and sex

of respondent, which was based on a number of studies reported earlier, was stated as follows:

7. Factor scores for same sex parental behavior reports would load significantly higher than those for opposite sex parental behavior reports for both males and females on the "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" factor.

This interaction was not significant at the .05 level of significance. As indicated in the graph of average factor score loadings for males and females on maternal and paternal behavior reports on the "firm control versus lax control" factor presented in Figure 3.1c, males' factor scores for paternal behavior reports tended to load higher on the "firm control" pole than their factor scores for maternal behavior reports. The difference between males' factor score loadings on maternal and paternal behavior reports was significant at the .05 level of significance. Females' factor score loadings did not differ across sex of parent. In an attempt to account for the discrepancy between the findings of the present study and those upon which hypothesis seven was based, it was proposed that older female subjects may perceive of both parents as equally controlling whereas younger subjects perceive of same sex parents as more controlling. The results of Hess and Tourney (1962) were considered to support this proposition since they found that the hypothesized interaction tended to decrease as children approached adolescence.

Hypotheses Related to SES of the Respondents

Based on a few studies concerned with differences in perceived parental behavior between subjects from high and low SES background and supported by a number of observational and attitudinal studies, the following hypotheses were formulated:

8. Factor scores for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from high SES background would load significantly higher than those for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from low SES background on the "acceptance" pole of the "acceptance versus rejection" factor.
9. Factor scores for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from low SES background would load significantly higher than those for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from high SES background on the "psychological control" pole of the "psychological control versus psychological autonomy" factor.
10. Factor scores for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from low SES background would load significantly higher than those for maternal and paternal behavior reports for males and females from high SES background on the "firm control" pole of the "firm control versus lax control" factor.

These hypotheses were not accepted since the factor score loadings on the "acceptance versus rejection" and "psychological autonomy versus psychological control" factors did not differ significantly between the high and low SES subjects while the factor score loadings on

the "firm control versus lax control" factor differed significantly between SES subjects, at the .05 level of significance, in a direction contrary to that proposed in hypothesis ten. Analysis of the interaction between sex of respondent and SES on the "firm control versus lax control" factor indicated that factor score loadings for high SES male subjects were slightly higher on the "lax control" pole than factor score loadings for low SES male subjects, although their difference was not significant at the .05 level of significance. The factor score loadings for high SES female subjects were significantly higher than factor score loadings for low SES female subjects on the "firm control" pole. These results were interpreted as suggesting that high and low SES males did not differ in their perception of parent behavior whereas high SES females perceived their parents' behavior as more firm controlling than low SES females.

The insignificant findings could be explained if one accepted the hypothesis, proposed by Hess (1970) in his review of social class differences, that differences in parental behavior across SES groups were often due to methods by which the various SES groups were discriminated. If extreme groups were taken, then one might expect more SES differences than if two closely related groups were chosen to represent high and low SES subjects. In this study 67 percent of the low SES subjects had SES indices ranging from 30 to 35 while 63 percent of the high SES subjects had indices ranging from 35 to 49. Therefore, although the two SES groups did not overlap in terms of their SES indices, certain occupational categories such as skilled laborer and

small businessman were found to overlap. Therefore, it was proposed that the insignificant results could be due to such occupational overlaps as well as close similarity between children's perceptions of parental behavior in adjacent SES groups.

The discrepant findings with respect to females SES differences on the "firm control versus lax control" factor were not so easily explained. Since Rosen (1964) used only male subjects, his results could not be considered discrepant with these findings, and since Bronfenbrenner (1961) and DuValle (1937) based their SES divisions on education and ability to pay WMCA or YWCA membership, respectively, their results could not be directly compared. The present findings also differed with respect to a number of observational and attitudinal studies reported by Hess (1970). If one considered that children's perception of parental behavior, could be a function of: (a) the parents' actual behavior, (b) social expectations of parental behavior consistent with the socio-economic class the parents belong to, (c) adolescent expectations of parental behavior consistent with the contemporary teen-age expectations within a socio-economic class, or (d) combinations of the above, then the present findings would be discrepant with the observational and attitudinal data only to the degree that children's perception of parental behavior was influenced by (a) or (b).

Since these variables were not differentiated in this study, it was not possible to say whether the high SES females actually experienced firm control, or their parents actually exercised firm control, or whether the high SES females felt that the degree of control was

inconsistent with their expectations of their parents' demands. Similar questions could have been asked about male subjects in the two SES groups.

The age variable also appeared important to the present findings. Whereas many of the studies reported by Hess (1970) were concerned with mother's behavior towards preschool children, the present study was interested in perceived parental behavior towards young adolescents. According to Kohn (1959), middle class parents were more restrictive about home duties and less permissive about sex than lower class parents. These results were compatible with those mentioned by Hess if one took into account the differences in the types of behavior that middle and lower class parents punish along with the age difference. Kohn (1959) proposed that lower class parents would physically punish their children for extreme behavior such as screaming and destroying property. Middle class parents were considered to punish their children for behavior that was interpreted as representing a loss of control. Extreme behavior would be ignored by middle class parents if it was interpreted as an emotional release. If one concluded that the child, as he matured, engaged in fewer extreme behaviors but was in situations which demanded self control, i.e., told to clean his room or on a date, then one might expect the middle class parents to be more controlling than the lower class parents. There was no evidence to support this proposal and, therefore, it remained merely suggestive.

Value of a Study Such as This

If the children's perceptions of parental behavior were not necessarily consistent with actual parental behavior, then one might question the value of a study that tried to determine the relationship between perceived parental behavior and sex of parent, sex of perceiver and socio-economic background of the perceiver. To the degree that one was attempting to determine the functional relationship between actual parental behavior and sex and SES variables, this study would be of minimal value but the purpose of the present study was to determine the relationship between these variables and perceived parental behavior per se.

In keeping with Cooley's (1902) viewpoint, the social reality of another person was considered to be related to the perceived person more than to the actual person. Accordingly, it was assumed that perceived parental behavior could be more relevant to the child's social development than actual parental behavior. Schaefer (1965a) reported a number of articles that supported this assumption. The gestaltist and cognitive psychologists, mentioned in the introduction, also argued that it was the perceived environment and not the actual environment that affected a child's behavior. Parson's theory also made use of phenomenological variables. The child, according to his theory, learned to know the parents' roles and developed expectations as to how the parent would behave in certain situations. Therefore, the data appropriate for studying Parson's Theory of Role Identification was considered to be phenomenological.

In a practical sense, knowledge of how a child's perceptions of parental behavior differ across sex of the child, sex of the parent and SES could be a valuable addition to the present observational and attitudinal data that have already been gathered. Such information might better enable one to understand how parental behaviors, different to the external observer, could produce similar resulting responses and how apparently similar parental behaviors could produce different resulting responses.

The results of the present study have suggested that analysis of changes in children's perceptions of parental behavior with age could prove fruitful. Piaget has suggested that conceptions change qualitatively with age up to approximately thirteen, and accordingly, the children's perceptions of parental behavior may change. Parson suggested that the child's social group increased beyond the nuclear family as the child matured and that it was necessary for the child to learn new roles as a consequence of these changes. A longitudinal study of children's perceptions of parental behavior, from childhood to adolescence, could enable one to study how increased socialization and differentiation affected the child's perceptions of parental behavior. An accompanying measure of actual parental behavior during this period would also prove beneficial in determining how parental behavior and perceived parental behavior were related as the child matured.

The present study was primarily interested in determining the functional relationship between adolescents' perceptions of parental

behavior and the following variables:

- a) sex of parent reported
- b) sex of adolescent
- c) socio-economic background of the adolescent
- d) any combination of the above

The last variable was particularly important since knowledge of how certain variables interact could enable future investigators to determine which variables need to be controlled and what the consequences would be if certain groups of subjects were omitted. The results of the present study strongly indicated that when analysing subjects' perceptions of parental firm control, sex and SES of the subjects should be clearly stated and controlled.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The present study reported a number of theoretical approaches to child development. The approaches differed in two important respects. They placed different emphasis on innate and environmental variables and considered different types of data to constitute relevant areas for research. Freud emphasized innate variables and considered emotional conflicts, initiated by these variables, to constitute the relevant area of analysis. The social learning theorists were primarily interested in the effects of environmental variables and concerned themselves with the study of external stimuli and internal behaviors and their hypothesized relationships. Lewin stressed the immediate environmental variables which he proposed consisted of internal and external information organized and differentiated according to innate laws. Relevant research involved the division of a naturalistic setting into goal regions. This involved the interpretation of external variables into psychological variables. Piaget concerned himself with the study of conceptual variables. He considered both innate and environmental variables to play a role in the child's development and accordingly, stressed both variables. He considered the use of epistemological as well as existential data relevant for research. Finally, Parsons, in his Theory of Role Identification, emphasized environmental variables. In particular he emphasized the effects of socialization on development.

He stressed such phenomenon as internalization and perception of social roles. Therefore, the use of phenomenological data appeared relevant for his study. Cooley also supported the use of phenomenological data when studying effects of socialization.

The present study was concerned with analyzing the differential effects of sex and socio-economic status upon the parent-child relationship and according to Parson's theory, these could be clearly predicted in the child's perceptions of parental behavior. Therefore, consistent with his theory, perceptual data was used. A number of studies were also reported that empirically and theoretically supported the use of children's perceptions of parent behavior as relevant data for the study of parent-child interactions.

Factor score loadings, derived from factor scores computed on the three factor structure extracted from factor analysis, using the principal components solution and varimax rotation, of scale scores on the shortened version of the CRPBI (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970c), were used in the present analysis since they were considered to adequately sample the perceptual space relevant to the parent-child interaction (Golden, 1969; Schaefer, 1965b).

Thirteen- and fifteen-year-old students, in grades seven and nine, respectively, were chosen as subjects since they constituted an age group that had not thoroughly been studied in past literature on perceived parental behavior. The distribution of their SES scores were similar to that of the Province of Manitoba and their division into high and low SES subjects was based on their respective positions above

or below the provincial median indice. This method of SES sampling was considered to produce representative rather than arbitrary groups. Age and school of testing variables were controlled across all other variables to reduce any biases that they could produce.

The results of the present study indicated that parental behavior, as reported by young adolescents, varied with the sex of the parent being reported. Mothers were reported as more accepting, more psychologically controlling and less firm controlling than fathers. These results were consistent with those obtained from a number of studies on children's perceptions of parental behavior. Reported parental accepting-rejecting, psychologically controlling-autonomous and firm-lax controlling behaviors were not found to systematically vary with the sex and socio-economic status of the adolescents, although such variations were hypothesized. The discrepancy between the present results and those obtained from studies upon which the hypotheses were based, were considered to be primarily due to differences in the age of the subjects sampled. The earlier studies used preschoolers and early school children. The present study used early adolescents.

The present study did find that high SES males differentiated between parents on firm-lax control to a greater degree than low SES male subjects or female subjects. High SES female subjects were found to report both parents as more controlling than either low SES female subjects or male subjects. Therefore, although perceptions of parental firm-lax control did not systematically vary across SES and sex of adolescent respondents, they did interact with these variables.

Accordingly, it was suggested that future researchers should carefully control and clearly state the socio-economic background and sex of his subjects when reporting their perceptions of parental firm-lax control. It was also suggested that future research in the area of children's perceptions of parental behavior might attempt to study the effects of age on perception, particularly in the age range between childhood and early adolescence. Another area for study, proposed in this paper, was that of determining the relationship between children's perceptions of parental behavior and actual parental behavior. It was suggested that analysis of the changes with age in the relationship between children's perception and actual parental behavior might prove beneficial for understanding how developmental changes affect a child's perceptions of parental behavior.

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