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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

A COMPARISON OF THE CONCEPTS OF PARENTING AS REPORTED BY COLLEGE STUDENT/PARENTS OF DIFFERENT AGE LEVELS

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

MARTHELLE SULLIVAN MERRITT

Norman, Oklahoma

1975

A COMPARISON OF THE CONCEPTS OF PARENTING
AS REPORTED BY COLLEGE STUDENT/PARENTS
OF DIFFERENT AGE LEVELS

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DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There can be little doubt that the American family has experienced many changes in the past fifty years. The effects of a depression and three wars have taken their toll on family roles and relationships. A few of the role changes which have occurred include fathers who are often transferred from one location to another because of their work, mothers who work either by choice or necessity, and children who seek their companionship, leadership, and training outside the home. Winter (1968) concludes that the father has abdicated his role as head of the household, the mother is trying to fulfill the role of both parents, and the children are seeking leadership and companionship outside the home. Winter goes on to state;

> This is the authority setup in the new family. There are obviously many exceptions and all kinds of variations. But this is a major outline of how things are working out. At the moment, father has lost his power to direct his children. He is not even a leader among equals. He can come home and try to sound important, but he carries little weight in the situation. He may have a lot to say about the new car or the vacation trip, but he has lost touch with the children's discipline. This, in itself, might not be such a problem, but it is making him lose touch with his wife. Her life is lived in the home with the children. If he loses touch with this, he loses touch with her. She then finds herself in the strange

> position of having to give her attention either to her husband or to her children. She is no longer sharing jointly in a life with her husband which includes her children (p. 37).

The obvious question now is whether these family changes have affected parents' attitudes and practices of child-rearing.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of the present study was to identify and compare concepts of parenting as reported by college student/parents of different age levels. Specifically, the study was to compare nine different areas of child-rearing attitudes and concepts reported by parents from five different age groups who were enrolled as undergraduate students in a four-year liberal arts university during the tenure of the 1974-75 academic year.

Hypotheses Tested in the Study

In order to achieve the stated purpose of the study, ten (10) hypotheses were tested for significance at the .05 level. These ten null hypotheses were stated as follows:

Ho_1 There will be no statistically significant differences among the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) scores reported by college student/parents from the five different age categories.

Ho_2 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the first PARI subscale (Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization).

Ho_3 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the second PARI subscale (Equalitarianism).

Ho_4 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the third PARI subscale (Parent's Deification of Child).

Ho_5 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the fourth PARI subscale (Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing).

Ho_6 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the fifth PARI subscale (Strictness).

Ho_7 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the sixth PARI subscale (Deception of Children).

Ho_8 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the seventh PARI subscale (Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing).

Ho_9 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the eighth PARI subscale (Child's Deification of Parents).

Ho_{10} There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the ninth PARI subscale (Liberality).

Definition of Terms

It was necessary to define several of the terms used in the study. The definitions presented were not meant to be universal definitions but only as the terms were used in

the present study. Those terms defined were as follows:

(1) Parenting: The child-rearing attitudes and practices used by the college student/parents participating in the study.

(2) College Student/Parents: The one-hundred fifty (N=150) parents who participated in the study were enrolled in classes at a university. Twelve percent (12%) of the University's students are parents. The University is located in a city of 79,000 people approximately 100 miles from the State capitol. The city is served by the Frisco and Rock Island Railroads, the Interstate Highway System, U. S. Highways 62 and 277 and State Highway 7 with bus connections in all directions. Frontier and Continental Airlines have a total of ten flights daily arriving and departing the local airport. A military post of approximately 18,000 people borders the city, and increases the city's population to approximately 100,000 persons. The geographical area served by the University contains nearly a million people.

The student body of the University is composed primarily of commuters. At the present time, only 295 of the nearly 4,200 students enrolled live on the university campus. The average (mean) age

the students at this University is about 25 years.

(3) Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI): The forty-five item instrument used in determining the participants' child-rearing attitudes and practices (Appendix A).

(4) PARI Scores: Participants' scores taken from the Parental Attitude Research Instrument.

(5) PARI Rating Indices: The average rating made of all nine PARI subscales.

(6) PARI Subscales: The nine aspects or dimensions of parenting being measured by the Parental Attitude Research Instrument.

(7) Ability-to-Encourage-Children's-Verbalization Scores (First Subscale): Participants' responses to items #1, #10, #19, #28, and #37 of the PARI.

(8) Equalitarianism Scores (Second Subscale): Participants' responses to items #2, #11, #20, #29, and #38 of the PARI.

(9) Parent's-Deification-of-Child Scores (Third Subscale): Participants' responses to items #3, #12, #21, #30, and #39 of the PARI.

(10) Excluding-Outside-Influences-on-Child-Rearing Scores (Fourth Subscale): Participants' responses to items #4, #13, #22,

#31, and #40 of the PARI.

(11) Strictness Scores (Fifth Subscale): Participants' responses to items #5, #14, #23, #32, and #41 of the PARI.

(12) Deception-of-Children Scores (Sixth Subscale): Participants' responses to items #6, #15, #24, #33, and #42 of the PARI.

(13) Encouraging-Outside-Influences-on-Child-Rearing Scores (Seventh Subscale): Participants' responses to items #7, #16, #25, #34, and #43 of the PARI.

(14) Child's-Deification-of-Parents Scores (Eighth Subscale): Participants' responses to items #8, #17, #26, #35, and #44 of the PARI.

(15) Liberality Scores (Ninth Subscale): Participants' responses to items #9, #18, #27, #36, and #45 of the PARI.

Assumptions Made in the Study

Several assumptions were made in the proposed study. These assumptions were primarily associated with the population of college student/parents and the data collection instrument. The primary assumptions made were as follows:

(1) It was assumed that the college student/parents comprised a normal population.

(2) It was assumed that the time intervals

between groups of student/parents were sufficient to reflect any changes in parents' child-rearing attitudes and practices that may have been caused by the passage of time.

(3) It was assumed that the PARI is a valid and reliable instrument for collecting data concerning parent's child-rearing attitudes and practices.

(4) It was assumed that the nine subareas of the PARI reflect the independent responses of the college student/parents.

Limitations of the Study

The present study assumed certain parameters in order to make data collection possible. The limitations were as follows:

(1) The participant population was limited to one-hundred fifty (N=150) parents who were enrolled at a midwestern state university during the 1974-75 academic year. These students were enrolled in regular college courses.

(2) Knowledge of the participants' child-rearing attitudes and practices was limited to their responses to the forty-five items contained on the Parental Attitude Research Instrument.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

More people, both parents and professionals, are giving more attention to children and how they develop than ever before in history. This added attention has given rise to an area of behavioral science known as "parenting." Explained further, parenting may be defined as the child-rearing attitudes and practices utilized by a particular parent or parents. Some researchers have even gone so far as to state certain requirements for good parenting. Arnold (1973) listed the following ten requirements for good parenting:

(1) A good parent wants his or her child. He has a biological need to have children. He does not need to see himself in or be fulfilled through his children. He does not feel he has failed if his expectations are not fulfilled.

(2) A good parent practices foresight. He is aware of problems that may confront him, as a parent, and his children. He knows his own limitations, the characteristics of his child, and the qualities of the environment in which he lives.

(3) A good parent renders first loyalty to his family and children, ahead of any other. He does not sacrifice his own interests for the sake of his child. He is prepared to make sacrifices to provide for his child's essential needs. He fosters a sense of family solidarity and his child's respect for adult goals.

(4) A good parent strikes balances. He does not subscribe to extreme beliefs. He is authoritative, rather than authoritarian, self-disciplined, not a disciplinarian, permissive within given limits, lets the child know the limits of allowable behavior.

(5) A good parent keeps learning about himself, his child, and the world. He learns with his child, keeps up with events, trends, and knowledge, and shelters his child from others that are potentially damaging.

(6) A good parent shares his feelings with his child. He listens more than he talks, asks questions more than making statements, and lets his child see him laugh and enjoy himself or suffer sadness and disappointment on the proper occasion.

(7) A good parent gives his child experience in the real world and as much freedom as he can handle at each stage of development. He wants for all children what he would have for his own.

(8) A good parent is playful, shares and is interested in his child, his activities, friends, and schooling. He gives him a sense of urgency to be somebody and encourages his child to discover, from the earliest ages on.

(9) A good parent knows that he can make mistakes and admits them. The child is allowed the same privilege without suffering a sense of defeat. He lets his child know that errors can be forgiven, but not every action excused. The child is given opportunities to make good.

(10) A good parent likes himself, his work, and his family. He respects his own, as well as other people's ideals and ethics. He knows that neither they nor he can ever live up to them.

The statement of guidelines for good parenting has not been without its rewards. Through these and similar

guidelines, parents are beginning to understand their own and their children's behavior. It may be said that we have a better understanding of the young than did earlier generations, in which small children were regarded as miniature adults or as being full of evil that had to be beaten out of them. Neisser (1972) reported that the world appears different to children than it appears to adults, and that many of the minor annoyances we experience in rearing our children stem from their misconceptions of the world around them.

Neisser further indicated that conflicts which arise between parents and their children are due perhaps as much to human conditions as to the pressures of our society. The activities of the very young child, if they are a parent's sole social diet, can be by turns wearing, threatening, and boring, although children are at the same time endearing, amusing, and challenging. The demands that three-, four-, and five-year-old children make, not out of willfulness or lack of consideration, but out of their helplessness and immaturity, are often difficult to meet. The different ways parents use to meet their childrens' demands are in part the results of their own attitudes about rearing children, the child's personality and temperament, and the relationship existing between the parent and the child. Stated in another way, it may be said that the factors which affect the parents' child-rearing practices can be divided into three general categories; (1) those

factors or characteristics which the child possesses, (2) those factors or characteristics which the parent possesses, and (3) those factors or characterisiics which are regarded as environmental or situational. These three groups of factors are combined in varying proportions to form each parent's child-rearing attitudes and practices. The three areas listed and examples of each are shown in Figure 1. Studies relating to each of the three areas of influence are presented in the following sections of the literature review.

Environmental Factors Affecting Child-Rearing Attitudes and Practices as Reported in Anthropological Studies

One of the major contributions of anthropology has been to report a wide range of variations in many child-rearing practices that goes far beyond any found within Western European society and provides a framework for defining cultural variables that are not bound to a single society (Whiting & Whiting, 1960). A manual on child care usually contains a list of the beliefs and values which the author believes to be conducive to good parenting as well as the techniques for child-rearing. The transmission of values to children is generally held to be one of the most important duties of a parent and the one most difficult to accomplish. One way of regarding culture is by defining it as the extent to which the individual members of a particular group share their systems of values, beliefs, and living

Figure 1

PARENT-POSSESSED, CHILD-POSSESSED, AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS
WHICH AFFECT CHILD-REARING ATTITUDES AND PRACTICES

Parent-Possessed Factors	Child-Possessed Factors	Environmental Factors
(1) Sex	(1) Sex	(1) Parent/Child Rapport
(2) Age	(2) Age	(2) Number of Parents in the Home
(3) Race	(3) Race	(3) Home Atmosphere
(4) Physical and Mental Health	(4) Birth Order	(4) Number of Children
(5) Temperament/Personality	(5) Size	(5) Family Traditions
(6) Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values	(6) Appearance	(6) Social Norms and Mores of Community
(7) History/Background of their own rearing	(7) Physical and Mental Health	(7) Socioeconomic Level
(8) Religious Beliefs	(8) Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values	(8) Geographical location of home in U.S.
(9) Occupation	(9) Peer Group	(9) Situational Circumstances (wars, floods, etc.)

techniques and the extent to which these are customary rather than idiosyncratic matters that carries them beyond the realm of individual psychology.

The beliefs and values about child-rearing which are associated with different societies or sub-societies are a good example of environmental factors. For example, Rajput mothers from a village in northern India believe that the fate of a child is written on his brow at birth and that his physique, temperament, and behavior are predetermined (Triandis & Hitchcock, 1974). In almost direct opposition to this belief, mothers in a small New England town, report the belief that an infant is born "a bundle of potentialities" and that his personality and behavior are the result of the molding of these potentialities by parents, teachers, and peers (Fischer & Fischer, 1974). It is not surprising that the child-training techniques employed by the Indian mothers differ from those used by the New England parents nor that the interest in and anxiety about child-rearing is far greater among the New England mothers. Indian mothers revealed little interest in the questions researchers asked them about their child-rearing practices, and found it hard to believe that anyone would travel from the United States to India to research such a subject. The Indian mothers answered all questions briefly and had few justifications for their actions, whereas the New England mothers were eager to discuss the subject and anxious for new insights

and advice. In addition, Indian mothers believe that their children learn primarily from observation and that direct verbal communication is not necessary. On the other hand, New England mothers put great faith in the spoken word and in demonstrating with constant verbal statements and explanations. There was a greater use of reasoning and lecturing by the New England mothers, and more frequent use of physical punishment and threats by the Indian mothers.

Okinawan mothers distinguish sharply in the nature of children's learning according to age. They feel that children less than five years of age are incapable of learning right from wrong. Once they enter the first grade, they are expected to learn to behave and are constantly told that they are capable of "knowing better" (Maretzki & Maretzki, 1974). This belief in the changing nature of a child's learning processes with maturation is shared by parents in many societies, and has some parallels in our own society.

In a study of child-training practices among three culturally divergent communities in southwestern United States, it was found that most nursing infants in the Texan and Mormon communities slept in the parental bed (Whiting, 1953). The Mormon mothers stated the reason as being "to keep the infants warm." On the other hand, the Texan parents had more and varied reasons; (1) they were afraid the child would roll out of bed if he were left

alone, (2) some said that it was easier to nurse the child during the night when he slept with the parents. Actually, crowded living conditions seemed to account for some of the Texan's sleeping patterns, families living in houses with three rooms or less let the infants sleep in the parental bed, those with four rooms or more did not. Some of the Texan mothers reported disliking the lack of privacy caused by the infant sleeping in the parental bed. However, there was no such complaint from the Mormon mothers, and they evidently have the value that it is good to sleep with the infant and do so even though they have adequate space for the baby to have his own crib.

Another contrast can be made between the techniques of physical punishment as administered by mothers from Rajput India and the Mixtecan mothers of Juxtlahuaca, Mexico (Romney, 1974). The Rajput mother is apt to justify striking the child because of her own anger at the child's misbehavior. In sharp contrast to this method of punishment, the Mixtecan mother more often justifies punishment as a learning process in which she is teaching the child to behave. The Mixtecans also believe that the emotion of anger causes illness. The Indian mothers claim to disapprove of the expression of anger, but they are constantly fighting among themselves and yelling at their children. The differences in beliefs and expressiveness, may help explain the differences in the aggressive behavior of both

Mixtecan and Rajput children and adults and suggest that isolated behavior out of the context of the total custom complex may not be a good predictor of individual actions.

To say that middle-class American children are usually reared by their own parents is not anything different or particularly interesting. To say that an Ojibwa child is reared by his grandmother from the time he is weaned and may live in a different village from his own parents' from then on is somewhat more interesting. However, this custom is not practiced by all or even a majority of Ojibwa families, but it is a custom and any Ojibwa family who practices it is not looked upon as deviant (Barnouw, 1950).

This section has contained examples of child-rearing practices taken from different societies. These examples are presented to illustrate environmental variables which may affect parents' child-rearing attitudes and practices. It is suggested that the concept of any culture is complex, with its analysis of values, beliefs, techiques, justification, and rationalizations, and the methods used by anthropologists to get at these, may be helpful in the study of child development. The comparative study of child life in other societies may prove to be very useful in the prediction of human behavior.

Child-Possessed Factors Which Affect Parent's Child-Rearing Practices

Some working concepts of attitudes and values are necessary if we are to discuss child-possessed factors

which influence or may effect the parents' child-rearing attitudes and practices. In most general terms, they are concepts concerning the individual's orientation toward himself. Krech and Crutchfield (1948) define attitude as "an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world."

Lewin (1944) speaks of values as influencing and guiding behavior, determining which types of behavior have a positive or a negative valence, but not having the character of a goal. Similarly, psychoanalytic theory speaks of values as internalized parents. From the sociological point of view, Williams (1958) describes a value as "any aspect of a situation, event, or object that is invested with a preferential interest as being 'good,' 'bad,' 'desirable,' and the like. Values are not concrete goals of action, but rather the criteria by which goals are chosen."

The core characteristics of attitudes and values are then an involvement in the object, principle or event, a consistency in orientation toward the object, and a potential effect or behavior relating to that object.

Attitudes and values are part of the normative and descriptive data on children's orientations toward their human

and physical environments and toward themselves. The evidence points to the fact that children have extremely sensitive perceptions even at a very early age. These early attitude studies have flourished in the area of social awareness. Much less is known about children's attitudes toward their parents' authority and affection, toward socially defined children's roles, and about children's value systems with regard to morality, justice, altruism, etc. Many of the goals of child-rearing and education are directed toward developing desired attitudes about authority, altruism, science, morality, etc. Still regarding attitude as a response, questions about the "environment" of the attitude within the individual may be of interest.

According to Yarrow (1958), when the child is exposed to given experiences and to certain specified rearing practices of the parent, certain behavioral characteristics of the child may be observed. These outcomes are not always consistent, however. A comparison of parental child-rearing practices and childrens' behavioral outcomes shows a correlation ranging from +.25 to +.35. Attention to intervening conditions, such as the child's attitudes and values, may refine these relationships. For example, internalized peer group values regarding defiance of adult authority may affect the adolescents' responses to their parents' efforts at cultivating dependent behavior in them. The set of values regarding personality, status, etc., which the child

brings into the new situation, can be strongly influential in determining his response.

The intrafamilial contexts, the effects of parental handling upon children's attitudes and value systems, and the interactive effects of children's attitudes and values and parental handling upon other consequents in child development are areas in which these concepts should be further explored. Children are difficult research subjects, and only the beginning of methodological research bearing on their functioning as research subjects has been made. There is a need to inquire much more carefully into fundamental questions, such as the conditions motivating children.

Parent-Possessed Factors Which Affect Parents' Child-Rearing Practices

Parents also possess certain factors or characteristics which are sure to affect child-rearing attitude and practices. Such factors as temperament, educational level, age, race, and childhood experience seem to be part of each parents' child-rearing practices.

A brief look at the teenage parent. One out of every 10 girls in the United States becomes a mother before the age of 18. More than 210,000 school-age girls in the United States give birth each year. The number is increasing by about 3,000 anually, largely because of an increase in population rather than a rise in the percent of pregnancies. Sixty percent of teenage mothers are white. For most young fathers, the pregnancy is an experience full of emotional

confusion and anxiety (Howard, 1973).

Teenage parents studied by a Pennsylvania State University professor not only expected too much too soon from their infant children, they also slapped, shook, and otherwise abused them for failing to meet these expectations. Professor Vladimir de Lissovoy (1973) studied 48 couples with an average IQ just above 100 in a semi-rural area of central Pennsylvania, and concluded that their ignorance of child development was just one part of a larger pattern of unsuitable behavior: "In general, I found the young parents in this study to be, with a few notable exceptions, an intolerant group - impatient, insensitive, irritable and prone to use physical punishment with their children."

The parents, many of them high school dropouts, were questioned on what age they believed children should be able to do certain things. The fathers, whose own ages averaged 17, thought babies could be toilet trained for bowel and urine control at 24 weeks; should be able to sit alone at 6 weeks; speak their first word at 24 weeks; and recognize wrong-doing at 40 weeks. The mothers, whose ages averaged 16½ years, were slightly more realistic, thinking that bowel training would be possible at 26 weeks; speak the first word at 32 weeks; and recognize right from wrong at 52 weeks.

Only ten percent of the mothers expressed enjoyment of their children in the sense that they spontaneously cuddled

or played with them just for the sheer joy of it. It was also surprising to learn that in this primarily rural area only three mothers had attempted to breast feed their children.

Many of the parents told how they spanked their babies for "misdeeds." In later visits, in response to questions about discipline of crawling babies, all of the mothers indicated they used physical punishment to control their children. Since nearly all of the teenage parents in the study had younger brothers or sisters for whom they sometimes had to baby sit, Professor de Lissovoy concluded that they didn't benefit from these experiences.

As for parents in general, no specific age, their level of income, education, and age, their childhood either in terms of experiences they lacked or in which they felt some fulfillment, aspects of their marital relationship, and the particular time in history affect the attitudes of parents toward what they expect from their children.

Child-rearing processes have changed radically in the past thirty years. Advice given by pediatricians to young parents now is very different from the kind they gave only a few years ago. Advice on child-rearing appeared to a limited extent in public journals or women's magazines in the 1800's. Access to professional advice and to the literature related to child-rearing practices has been associated with the income level and educational background of the parents.

Parents consider their own parental background; their own parents have already implanted in them guilt for certain deviations. They have those emotions to contend with besides new ones acquired between husband and wife, and both sets of grandparents, and some aunts, uncles, and cousins. Not to mention the child's teacher, pediatrician and the mothers of the child's friends. The list of references that parents use as a check list to compare their own views in child-rearing and the way their children are responding to them could go on and on.

Child-rearing in the past was more concerned with the physical aspects of children than with their psychological development. Today, physical aspects are seen as a by-product of a child's psychological state at any given time. The two are considered simultaneously (Margolin, 1974).

Inkeles (1955) notes that the parent is thought of as having a fixed repertoire of child-rearing procedures provided by his culture and learned in his own childhood. Sewell (1966) and others corroborate the sociological theory of Parsons and Bales in that one aspect of socialization is the differential between general transmission of information from one generation to another. Kitano (1964) and Kephart (1966) suggest that daughters modify or reject the child-rearing methods of their mothers, which is in accord with the social learning theory of child development elaborated by Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1964) and Baldwin (1967).

The complexity of empirical findings supports one of the basic assumptions of the social learning theory; i.e., concepts of aggression, dependency, and other emotional traits are not unitary, but are groups of independent behavior patterns which are dependent upon specific child-rearing experiences.

Much of the interest in child-rearing is concerned with the correct way to rear children. Bronfenbrenner (1958) and Haber (1962) suggest that parents are returning to more direct methods of discipline which had been used previously rather than the more permissive indirect methods.

The trends in child-rearing are intricately interrelated to complex sets of variables. One of these variables is social class. Woods, Glavin and Kettle (1966) studied child-rearing attitudes by comparing a group of mothers and a group of daughters having a high socioeconomic status. Eighty-three mother-daughter paired questionnaires out of 86 were usable. The average age of the daughters was 20, the range being 18-29. The mother group ranged from 35 to 64 with a mean age of 48. The purpose of the study was to investigate the differences in selected aspects of child-bearing and child-rearing attitudes, beliefs, and practices between two generations of women within the same family.

When the attitudes toward child-rearing and child-bearing were compared with the agreement of the mothers and daughters in a chi-square analysis, the attitudes toward

child-bearing were significantly ($p < .02$) more similar among the mothers and daughters than were their attitudes toward child-rearing. One explanation is that the child-bearing attitudes might be based more on factual information while attitudes toward child-rearing were based more on heresy, customs, myths, etc.

The finding of major significance in this study was that mothers and their daughters did not differ significantly in their attitudes toward child-bearing and child-rearing. The generation gap so frequently spoken of does not appear so wide in the practical day-to-day kinds of materials covered in this investigation. The mother-daughter similarity seems to indicate a substantial overlap in two-generational attitudes. This probably evidences a strong parent-child transmission-of-attitudes system, although it is not certain whether this is parent-child, child-parent, or a combination thereof.

Bischof (1969) stated the evidence seems to be that when the mother and father agree as to how they should enact their roles and how the family should operate as a unit, there is a beneficial effect upon the children.

Duvall (1965) listed six areas that are unavoidable in the influence parents have in molding the behavior of their children.

1. Parents must make some decisions as to what control and what freedom their teen-age children are to have.

2. Parents must decide how much responsibility is to be vested in the teen-agers and how much responsibility should remain with the parents. This connotes who is to be blamed when things go wrong.

3. Decisions must be made between the parents and children on school social activities and the degree of emphasis on academic achievement.

4. Parents must make the decision as to how mobile the child is to be. Shall he come and go with no or little accountability?

5. An ever-present problem is to keep open the lines of communication between the parent and the child. This is based on the respect each has for the other.

6. Values that the parents and teen-ager hold are considered to have two factors: those used for momentary decisions (day-to-day living) and those that go beyond and into causes bigger than the family or the self.

The parent's early experience may be affecting his marital relationship, which in turn plays a role in the child's personality development. Or there may be a relationship between early experiences of the parent and the child's psychological state, but these background factors are seen as operating through their effects on the parent's personality, which in turn affects the parent's interaction with the child (Erikson, 1945; Hellman, 1954).

Sears (1950) discusses the effects of a discrepancy between the parent's social-class background and current class status on the child's dependency behavior, variables in this case being sensitivity to approved methods of child-rearing and whether or not the child was fed on demand. Spiegel (1957) and Kluckhohn (1958) have studied the effects of the

parent's cultural background on the child. Baruch (1937) related the parents' early home environment to the child's adjustment through the intervening variable of the marriage relationship. Several investigators have studied the influence of education on the parents' child-rearing attitudes and behavior (Bouck, 1936; Elder, 1949; Staples & Smith, 1954; Schaefer & Bell, 1958; Burchinal, 1958a), which in turn are presumed to affect the child's development.

Glueck and Glueck (1957) found a relationship between the juvenile delinquency of the mother and the juvenile delinquency of the son and suggest that the relationship takes place through the mother's current instability, which is assumed to have carried through from her past. Some researchers (e.g., Ackerman & Sobel, 1950; Spiegel, 1957) feel that to understand the child as a functional part of the family group a study must take into account the history of that group, including the parent's background, so as to gain the necessary understanding of the child's current experiences in the family. This is believed to also apply to child-rearing practices.

Using recall data is usually undesirable, particularly when the events occurred many years earlier and may be emotionally loaded. Simple forgetting, conscious distortion, and repression are likely to affect the reports. Unfortunately, the only alternative to the method of recall is the longitudinal study, which should continue through at

least two generations, and would not be practical for this research at this time, as well as, other obvious practical difficulties regarding the longitudinal method of research.

White (1957) found that middle-class mothers more often mention experts, other mothers, and friends as their sources of ideas about child-rearing. If they mention their own parents, it is usually as a negative reference. Lower-class mothers, more often rely on their own inclinations and their own up-bringing--using their parents as a positive reference group. The lower-class is less susceptible to change in child-rearing patterns, the middle-class responds more to expert advice and the prevailing climate of opinion.

Miller and Swanson (1958) contend that the growing complexity of economic organization, the continued increase in urbanism, and the decreased rate of immigration have changed the meaning of social class. Child-rearing patterns have correspondingly changed in such a way that the child's resulting personality will enable him to pursue more effectively an occupation in the family's current setting. The changed requirements are presumed to be reflected in child-rearing practices, thus fitting the child psychologically for his probable adult occupation. Another theory of the process by which class affects child-rearing practices (Aberle & Naegele, 1952) views the parent as socializing the child for the adult role he is expected to occupy, the parent's model for this role being the one he himself

occupies. Occupation could affect young children by its effect on the father's personality. Dyer (1956), has shown that job satisfaction of the father is communicated to the child and also affects the parents' job aspirations for the child. One variable mentioned was the neighborhood setting; transiency, delinquency rate, number of children, the community's perception of the neighborhood, etc. Bossard (1951) suggested a unique way of considering the house itself as a variable. He has developed a Spatial Index for Family Interaction, based on the number of interrelationships, and the number of square feet of floor space in the living quarters. He suggests that this index is related to the stresses, strains, and frustrations of family living. This, too, would have some bearing on the child-rearing practices.

Mother-father relationship can be linked to the child almost directly by processes that are internal to the child. The power relationship between the husband and wife is perceived by the child and may influence his identification choice; the division of labor between the husband and wife determines in part the child's cognition of what male and female roles are; and the degree of marital tension may affect the child's sense of security. Hoffman (1960) suggests that when the father is dominant toward the mother she is dominant toward the child, and the child, continuing the pecking order, is then dominant toward other children,

siblings or children in the nursery school. It is apparent from these illustrations that the husband-wife relationship is an important variable in the child's development, as well as an important variable in the child-rearing techniques practiced.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In the present study the researcher conducted a survey in which one-hundred fifty (N=150) college student/parents were asked to indicate their attitudes of parenting (child-rearing practices) by responding to a forty-five item Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) (See Appendix A). Average ratings were computed for each parent on the nine subareas of the PARI. These data were used to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter I.

The methods and procedures used in the conduct of the present study were divided into three phases. These phases were as follows: (1) the Pre-Survey Procedures, (2) the Survey Procedures, and (3) the Data Analysis Procedures. Each of these phases and the steps taken during each phase were discussed in the subsections of Chapter III.

PRE-SURVEY PROCEDURES

The pre-survey procedures consisted of all those tasks which the researcher had to complete before the actual collection of the data began. The most important of these tasks were described in the following sections.

Choice of Research Design

The first pre-survey procedure was to choose the

proper research design for the conduct of the study. The words "research design" are intended to mean the plan, structure, and strategy of investigation conceived to obtain answers to research questions and to control external sources of variation. The Plan is the overall scheme or program of the evaluation problem; the Structure is the more specific structure or paradigm of the actual manipulation of the independent variables being controlled; and the Strategy as used here is even more specific than the structure--it is the actual methods to be used in the gathering and analysis of the data.

A research design serves two basic purposes: (1) it provides answers to research questions posed by the investigator; and (2) it controls external sources (independent variables) of variation. In other words, it is through the design of a study that research is made effective and interpretable. Kerlinger makes the following statement in regard to research and evaluation designs:

> . . . How does design accomplish this? Research designs set up the framework for 'adequate' tests of the relations among variables. The design tells us, in a sense, what observations (measurements) to make, how to make them, and how to analyze the quantitative representations (data) of the observations. Strictly speaking, design does not 'tell' us precisely what to do, but rather suggests the directions of observation-making and analysis, how many observations should be made, and which variables (independent variables) are active variables and which are assigned. We can then act to manipulate (control) the active variables and to dichotomize or trichotomize or otherwise categorize the assigned variables. A

> design tells us what type of statistical analysis to use. Finally, an adequate (proper for the particular situation) design outlines possible conclusions to be drawn from the statistical analysis (pp. 196-197) (Parentheses material added).

The research design chosen for the present experiment was a multiple-sample survey design preceded by the random sampling of participants from five (5) finite populations. A paradigm of the research design is shown in Figure 2.

Selection of Study Participants

Another pre-survey procedure was the selection of sample participants. Those chosen for the present study consisted of one-hundred fifty (N=150)--male (N=75) and female (N=75)--parents enrolled in undergraduate courses at a midwestern university. These two groups were randomly chosen from a total population of 510 student/parents attending the university. This group comprises approximately twelve percent (12%) of the total enrollment. The fact that all were college students placed a certain amount of bias in the survey data. However, this is discussed in a later section of the study.

Parents were divided into five different age groups. The number of male and female parents needed at each age level is shown in Figure 3.

Selection of a Data Collection Instrument

Selection of the data collection instrument was the next procedure. The instrument chosen was the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Cross & Kawash, 1968).

Figure 2

RESEARCH DESIGN CHOSEN FOR THE STUDY

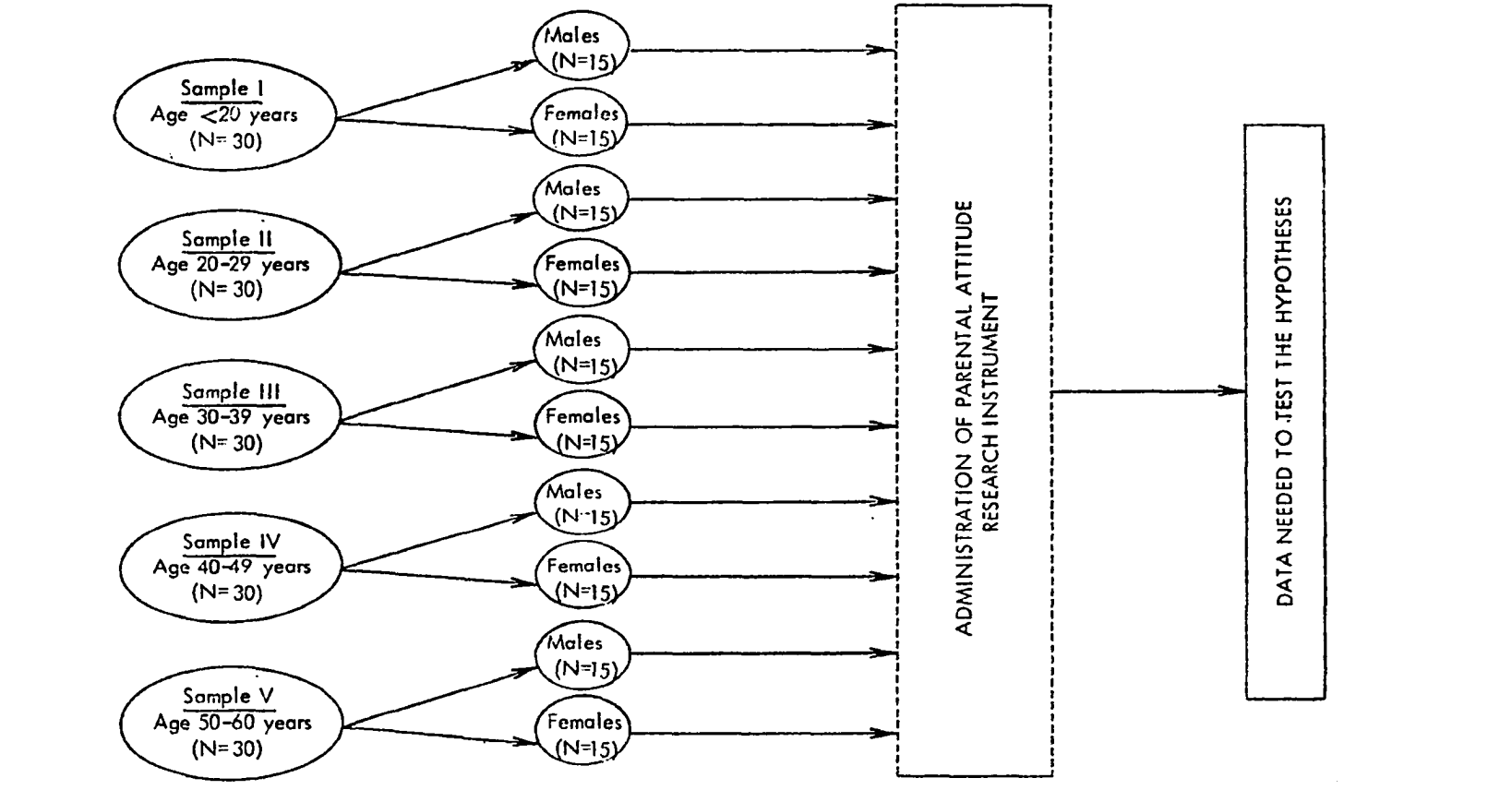

Figure 3

NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE COLLEGE STUDENT/PARENTS
NEEDED AT EACH AGE LEVEL

AGE CATEGORIES	SEX		TOTALS	
	Male	Female		
< 20 years	(N=15)	(N=15)	(N=30)	(Sample I)
20-29 years	(N=15)	(N=15)	(N=30)	(Sample II)
30-39 years	(N=15)	(N=15)	(N=30)	(Sample III)
40-49 years	(N=15)	(N=15)	(N=30)	(Sample IV)
50-60 years	(N=15)	(N=15)	(N=30)	(Sample V)
TOTALS	(N=75)	(N=75)	(N=150)	Total Number

A copy of this instrument is presented in Appendix A. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was designed to measure nine areas of parenting. These nine areas are as follows:

(1) Ability to encourage children's verbalization
(2) Equalitarianism
(3) Parent's deification for child
(4) Excluding outside influences on child-rearing
(5) Strictness
(6) Deception of Children
(7) Encouraging outside influences on child-rearing
(8) Child's deification of parents
(9) Liberality

Five questionnaire statements are associated with each of the nine areas of the questionnaire. Numbers of the questionnaire statements in each area are shown on the Raw Score Sheet developed for scoring the PARI and presented in Appendix B.

Cross and Kawash (1968) identified nine factors after performing a factor analysis on the forty-five items of the questionnaire. The particular questionnaire statements related to each area of the questionnaire are shown in Figure 4.

Dielman and Cattell (1972) reported a test-retest reliability index of .84 for the PARI. Although the reliability indices varied from a low of .64 for the subarea of Deception to a high of .94 for the subarea of Equalitarianism.

Conduct of a Pilot Study

Prior to the conduct of the dissertation study the

Figure 4

QUESTIONNAIRE STATEMENTS RELATED TO EACH OF THE NINE SUBAREAS OF THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT PARI

Ability to encourage children's verbalization	(1) Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their ideas are better. (10) Children should be encouraged to tell parents whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable. (15) A child's ideas should be seriously considered when making family decisions. (29) When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents. (37) A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it.
Equalitarianism	(7) When a parent asks a child to do something the child should always be told why. (11) Parents should adjust to the children more rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents. (20) In a well-run home children should have things their own way as often as the parents do. (28) As much as is reasonable a parent should try to treat a child as an equal. (58) Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and that is not fair.
Parent's Deification of Child	(3) A child should be taught that there are many other people he will love and respect as much or more than his parents. (12) Most children soon learn that their parents were mistaken in many of their ideas. (21) Loyalty on the part of children to their parents is something that the parents should earn. (30) A parent should not expect to be more highly esteemed than other worthy adults in their children's eyes. (39) Loyalty to parents is an overemphasized virtue.
Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	(4) Children should never learn things outside the home which make them doubt their parents' ideas. (13) There is no excuse for someone to upset the confidence a child has in his parents' way of doing things. (22) A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes. (31) It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his parents' views are right. (40) The child should not question the thinking of his parents.
Strictness	(5) Parents very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer. (14) The things children ask of a parent after a hard day's work are enough to make anyone lose his temper at times. (23) Its natural for a parent to "blow his top" when children are selfish and demanding. (32) It's a rare parent who can be even tempered with his children all day long. (41) Raising children is a nerve-wracking job.
Deception of Children	(6) There's no excuse wasting a lot of time explaining when you can get kids doing what you want by being a little clever. (15) Often you have to fool children to get them to do what they should without a big fuss. (24) It's best to trick a child into doing something he doesn't want to do instead of having to argue with him. (33) You have to fool children into doing many things because they wouldn't understand anyway. (42) When a child is doing something he shouldn't one of the best ways of handling it is to just get him interested in something else.
Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	(7) Children have every right to question their parents' views. (16) If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child. (25) A good parent can tolerate criticism of himself even when the children are around. (34) When a child thinks his parent is wrong he should say so. (43) A child should be encouraged to look for answers to his questions from other people even if the answers contradict his parents.
Child's Deification of Parents	(8) A child should grow up convinced his parents always know what is the right thing to do. (17) A child soon learns that there is no greater wisdom than that of his parents. (26) Loyalty to parents comes before anything else. (35) More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them. (44) A child should always love his parents above everything else.
Liberality	(9) Most parents can spend all day with the children and remain calm and even tempered. (18) A parent should keep control of his temper even when children are demanding. (27) Raising children is an easy job. (36) Most parents never get to the point where they can't stand their children. (45) There is no reason why a day with the children should be upsetting.

researcher conducted a limited pilot study. The primary purposes of this study were to determine possible problems with (1) the sampling of participants, (2) the data collection instrument, (3) coding and analysis of the data, and (4) interpretation of the results.

Methods of the Pilot Study

In the pilot study the researcher conducted a survey in which ninety-two (N=92) college student/parents were asked to indicate their attitudes of parenting (child-rearing practices) by responding to a forty-five item Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). Ratings were computed for each parent on the nine subareas of the PARI. These data were used to test nine hypotheses.

Results of Pilot Study

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the participants' scores on the nine subareas of the PARI. The results of the ANOVA calculations are presented in Table 1.

SURVEY PROCEDURES

The second major area of methods and procedures was the Survey of Data Collection Procedures. These procedures began as soon as the preliminary preparations had been made and were completed when the last questionnaire had been administered.

Questionnaires were distributed to the participating

TABLE 1

RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY COMPARING THE PARI RATINGS MADE BY PARENTS FROM FIVE DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS

Subscales of the PARI	MEAN VALUES OF PARENTS' RATINGS					F-Value*	Significance Level
	SAMPLE I (< 20 yrs)	SAMPLE II (20-29 yrs)	SAMPLE III (30-39 yrs)	SAMPLE IV (40-49 yrs)	SAMPLE V (50-60 yrs)		
Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization	17.6	16.5	17.9	16.5	18.2	F = 0.64	p > .05
Equalitarianism	17.7	14.3	15.4	11.7	16.0	F = 3.87	p < .01
Parent's Deification of the Child	13.2	13.6	13.8	12.5	14.6	F = 1.74	p > .05
Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	10.5	10.4	10.3	10.5	8.3	F = 1.32	p > .05
Strictness	13.5	12.5	13.4	15.5	14.3	F = 3.21	p < .05
Deception of Children	10.6	10.2	9.0	12.0	9.6	F = 2.94	p < .05
Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	15.5	15.2	16.0	15.7	17.3	F = 2.16	p > .05
Child's Deification of the Parent	12.6	12.2	10.1	12.3	11.2	F = 1.94	p > .05
Liberality	12.5	11.9	11.1	10.5	10.6	F = 2.03	p > .05

*All F-Values had 4;62 degrees of freedom

parents during the time they were attending classes at the University. Responses were made on the four-point continuum after each question. Participants were also asked to make any comments they wished about their child-rearing practices. In evaluating questionnaire responses, personal comments can be very crucial to the overall results (Johnson & Medinnus, 1969).

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The final phase of methods and procedures was the data analysis procedures. These were the procedures followed after the questionnaire data had been collected. There were two types of data analysis procedures--preliminary procedures and statistical analysis procedures.

Preliminary Procedures

Before the data were analyzed it was necessary to code and enter them on IBM cards. The questionnaire responses were assigned the following values:

A (Strongly Agree)=4
a (Agree)=3
d (Disagree)=2
D (Strongly Disagree)=1

The numerical values assigned each parent's responses were averaged for each of the nine subareas. These nine averages (means) were considered to be the raw scores of each participant. Tables showing the raw scores and descriptive statistics of each parent group are presented in the appendices.

Statistical Analysis

A one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the nine subscales and total scores of the study participants from the five different age levels. This testing statistic was appropriate for testing all the null hypotheses stated in Chapter I. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistic was preceded by a preliminary comparison of the sample variances. This comparison was made with an *F-Maximum Test for Homogeneity of Sample Variances* (Bruning & Kintz, 1970). In addition, significant *F* values were followed by studentized range tests in order to find specific differences among the group means. The *Newman-Keuls Test* was the range statistic used to make all *post-hoc* comparisons (Kirk, 1970).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Ratings made by one-hundred fifty (N=150) college student/parents were analyzed in an attempt to determine possible differences among the child-rearing attitudes and practices of parents from five different age categories. Participants were asked to respond to the forty-five item Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) shown in Appendix A. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the participants' ratings and test the ten hypotheses stated in Chapter I. The essence of these hypotheses was to determine parents' attitudes toward nine different aspects/dimensions of child-rearing.

Secondary comparisons of the parenting concepts were also made between the two sexes, two races (White and Non-White), and two religious groups (Protestants and Catholics). The results of these comparisons are presented in the latter part of this chapter.

This chapter contains the results of all data analysis procedures. The method used in considering each null hypothesis is as follows: (1) statement of the null hypothesis tested, (2) the descriptive statistics used in the data analysis, (3) results of any preliminary tests, (4) inferential statistic used to test the null proposition, (5) results of

testing the null hypothesis, and (6) the decision made about the null hypothesis. This same general pattern is used with all ten hypotheses. After the hypotheses are tested, several ancillary findings are presented, and the Chapter ends with a short summary of all results.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number One

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number one was as follows:

Ho_1 There will be no statistically significant difference among the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) scores reported by college student/parents from five different age categories.

The first null hypothesis was tested by comparing the average PARI ratings made by the thirty participants from each age category. First, the nine subscale ratings made by each participant were averaged to determine a composite PARI Rating Index. These Indexes served as the participants' raw scores in the statistical calculations. The means and standard deviations of the groups are presented in Table 2.

A one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the average PARI ratings of the five age groups. However, since one of the primary assumptions of the ANOVA testing statistic is that the sample variances be homogenous, it was necessary to precede the ANOVA statistic with an F-Maximum Test for Homogeneity of Sample Variances. (Bruning & Kintz, 1970). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum

TABLE 2

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND VARIANCES OF THE PARI RATING INDICES AS COMPUTED FOR EACH OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS

Parents' Age Group	Statistics for Combined PARI Ratings		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
(1) Less than 20 Years of Age	13.50	3.01	9.04
(2) 20-29 Years of Age	13.71	3.82	14.59
(3) 30-39 Years of Age	13.45	3.46	11.95
(4) 40-49 Years of Age	13.15	3.52	12.42
(5) 50-60 Years of Age	13.37	3.61	13.04
TOTALS . . .	13.44	3.48	12.21

Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 14.59, 20-29 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 9.04, less than 20 Yrs. age group). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 1.61, df=5/29; $p > .05$). Results of the ensuing one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) presented in Table 3 show that there was not a significant difference among the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) scores reported by parents from the five age categories. These results would not allow the researcher to reject the first null hypothesis.

Preliminary Considerations for Testing Null Hypotheses Two Through Ten

Null hypotheses two through ten were stated in an attempt to determine any differences among the parents' ratings of the nine PARI subscales. All null hypotheses were tested with the same testing statistic, a one-way analysis of variance preceded by an F-Maximum Test for Homogeneity of Sample Variances. In an attempt to reduce the number of tables, the descriptive statistics related to testing all nine hypotheses are presented in one table. The means, standard deviations, and variances computed for each age group on each PARI subscale are presented in Table 4.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Two

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number two was as follows:

TABLE 3

A COMPARISON OF THE COMBINED PARI RATING INDICES COMPUTED FOR PARENTS FROM THE FIVE AGE CATEGORIES

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	45.80	4	11.45	0.938	$>.05$
WITHIN (Groups)	16,424.34	1,345	12.21		

TOTAL	16,470.14	1,349			

TABLE 4

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND VARIANCES COMPUTED FOR EACH AGE GROUP ON THE NINE PARI SUBSCALES

Subscales of the PARI		SAMPLE I (Teenage)	SAMPLE II (20-29 yrs.)	SAMPLE III (30-39 yrs.)	SAMPLE IV (40-49 yrs.)	SAMPLE V (50-60 yrs.)
Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization	$\bar{X}$	16.77	17.60	16.80	16.60	17.10
	S	2.19	1.79	2.06	2.37	2.12
	S^2	4.81	3.20	4.24	5.61	4.51
Equalitarianism	$\bar{X}$	14.07	15.93	14.70	13.86	14.46
	S	2.27	2.48	2.12	2.26	1.78
	S^2	5.17	6.13	4.49	5.09	3.15
Parent's Deification of the Child	$\bar{X}$	14.07	15.10	14.10	13.60	14.33
	S	2.29	2.34	2.16	2.98	2.70
	S^2	5.24	5.47	4.65	8.87	7.26
Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	$\bar{X}$	12.03	10.46	12.33	11.10	10.83
	S	3.32	3.37	2.98	3.10	3.55
	S^2	11.00	11.36	8.85	9.61	12.63
Strictness	$\bar{X}$	12.57	14.00	13.50	13.83	13.90
	S	2.66	2.99	3.27	3.18	3.53
	S^2	7.08	8.97	10.67	10.14	12.44
Deception of Children	$\bar{X}$	10.13	9.46	9.66	9.40	10.50
	S	2.80	2.64	2.93	2.25	3.27
	S^2	7.84	6.95	8.58	5.08	10.67
Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	$\bar{X}$	15.27	16.23	15.76	15.06	15.56
	S	1.78	3.03	2.34	2.30	2.56
	S^2	3.17	9.15	5.50	5.31	6.53
Child's Deification of the Parent	$\bar{X}$	13.43	12.40	12.90	12.70	11.83
	S	2.18	3.68	3.99	3.88	3.74
	S^2	4.74	13.56	15.89	15.04	14.01
Liberality	$\bar{X}$	13.20	12.03	11.26	11.96	11.80
	S	2.22	2.34	2.73	3.33	2.77
	S^2	4.92	5.48	7.44	11.07	7.68

Ho_2 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the first PARI subscale (Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization).

The second null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the first subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 5.61, 40-49 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 3.20, 20-29 Yrs. age group). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 1.75, 5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the first subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 5.

The results presented in Table 5 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the first PARI subscale (Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the second null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Three

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number three was as follows:

TABLE 5

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE FIRST SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	23.11	4	5.78	1.292	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	648.46	145	4.47		
TOTAL	671.57	149			

Ho_3 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the second PARI subscale (Equalitarianism).

The third null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the second subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Equalitarianism). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 6.13, 20-29 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 3/15, 50-60 Yrs. age group). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 1.95, df=5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the second subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 6. The results presented in this table indicate that there was a significant difference among the five age groups' PARI scores on the Equalitarianism subscale (F = 4.094, df=5/145; $p < .01$). These results allowed the researcher to reject the third null hypothesis.

Additional comparisons were made among the five group means to determine specific differences. A Newman-Keuls Test, a studentized range statistic for post hoc comparisons, was the next testing statistic. The Newman-Keuls

TABLE 6

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE SECOND SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Equalitarianism)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	78.83	4	19.68	4.094	<.01
WITHIN (Groups)	696.96	145	4.81		
TOTAL	775.79	149			

TABLE 7

SUMMARY TABLE FOR THE NEWMAN-KEULS TEST AMONG THE MEAN RATING INDICES COMPUTED FOR THE FIVE DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS

Rank-Ordered Mean Values		$\bar{X}_4$	$\bar{X}_1$	$\bar{X}_5$	$\bar{X}_3$	$\bar{X}_2$
40-49 Years of Age	$\bar{X}_4 = 13.86$	--	0.21	0.60	0.84	2.07**
Less Than 20 Years of Age	$\bar{X}_1 = 14.07$		--	0.39	0.63	1.86**
50-60 Years of Age	$\bar{X}_5 = 14.46$			--	0.24	1.47*
30-39 Years of Age	$\bar{X}_3 = 14.70$				--	1.23*
20-29 Years of Age	$\bar{X}_2 = 15.93$					--

$MS_{Error} = 4.81$

*p <.05

**p <.01

Test was used to make the post hoc comparisons. The results are presented in Table 7.

The results presented in Table 7 indicate that parents who were 20-29 years of age had significantly higher scores on the Equalitarianism subscale than any of the other parent groups. A close inspection of the five statements being rated on the Equalitarianism subscale will show that they are primarily oriented toward treating children on a somewhat equal basis with parents in making family decisions. Apparently, those parents in the 20-29 years of age group are inclined toward this belief. On the other hand, the lowest Equalitarianism scores were reported by the 40-49 years of age group and the teenage group.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Four

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number four was as follows:

Ho_4 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the third PARI subscale (Parent's Deification of Child).

The fourth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the third subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Parent's Deification of Child). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 8.87, 40-49 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 4.65, 30-39 Yrs. age group). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 1.91, df=5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the third subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 8.

The results presented in Table 8 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the third PARI subscale (Parent's Deification of Child). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the fourth null hypothesis.

TABLE 8

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE THIRD SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Parent's Deification of Child)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	36.23	4	9.06	1.439	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	913.13	145	6.30		

TOTAL	949.36	149			

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Five

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number five was as follows:

Ho_5 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the fourth PARI subscale (Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing).

The fifth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the fourth subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Exlcuding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 12.63, 50-60 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 8.85, 30-39 Yrs. age group). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level ($F = 1.43$, df=5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the fourth subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 9.

The results presented in Table 9 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the fourth PARI subscale (Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the fifth null hypothesis.

TABLE 9

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE FOURTH SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	76.31	4	19.08	1.785	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	1,549.96	145	10.69		
TOTAL	1,626.27	149			

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Six

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number six was as follows:

Ho_6 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the fifth PARI subscale (Strictness).

The sixth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the fifth subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Strictness). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 12.44, 50-60 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 7.08, Less than 20 Yrs.). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 1.76, df=5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the fifth subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 10.

The results presented in Table 10 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the fifth PARI subscale (Strictness). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the sixth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Seven

The exact form of the null proposition tested in

TABLE 10

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE FIFTH SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Strictness)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	41.23	4	10.31	1.046	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	1,429.73	145	9.86		

TOTAL	1,470.96	149			

hypothesis number seven was as follows:

Ho_7 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the sixth PARI subscale (Deception of Children).

The seventh null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the sixth subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Deception of Children). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 10.67, 50-60 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 5.08, 40-49 Yrs. age group). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level ($F = 2.10$, $df=5/29$; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the sixth subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 11.

The results presented in Table 11 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the sixth PARI subscale (Deception of Children). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the seventh null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Eight

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number eight was as follows:

Ho_8 There will be no statistically significant

TABLE 11

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE SIXTH SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Deception of Children)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	26.53	4	6.63	0.849	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	1,132.30	145	7.81		
TOTAL	1,158.83	149			

differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the seventh PARI subscale (Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing).

The eighth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the seventh subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 9.15, 20-29 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 3.17, Less than 20 Yrs.). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 2.89, df=5/29; $p >$ .05). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the seventh subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 12.

The results presented in Table 12 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the seventh PARI subscale (Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the eighth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Nine

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number nine was as follows:

TABLE 12

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE SEVENTH SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Encouraging Outside influences on Child-Rearing)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	24.71	4	6.18	1.040	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	859.83	145	5.93		
TOTAL	884.54	149			

Ho_9 There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the eighth PARI subscale (Child's Deification of Parents).

The ninth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the eighth subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Child's Deification of Parents). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 15.89, 30-39 Yrs. age group) was not significally larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 4.74, Less than 20 Yrs.). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 3.35, df=5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the eighth subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 13.

The results presented in Table 13 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the eighth PARI subscale (Child's Deification of Parents). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the ninth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Hypothesis Number Ten

The exact form of the null proposition tested in hypothesis number ten was as follows:

TABLE 13

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE EIGHTH SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Child's Deification of Parents)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	42.24	4	10.56	0.835	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	1,833.73	145	12.65		
TOTAL	1,875.97	149			

Ho_{10} There will be no statistically significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the ninth PARI subscale (Liberality).

The tenth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the ratings made by each age group on the ninth subscale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Liberality). Statistical results of the preliminary F-Maximum Test showed that the largest sample variance (S^2 = 11.07, 40-49 Yrs. age group) was not significantly larger than the smallest sample variance (S^2 = 4.92, Less than 20 Yrs.). The computed F value was not significant at the .05 level (F = 2.25, df=5/29; $p > .05$). It was concluded that the sample variances were homogenous, and the analysis continued.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean ratings taken from the ninth subscale. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 14.

The results presented in Table 14 indicate that there were no significant differences among the ratings made by parents from the five age groups on the ninth PARI subscale (Liberality). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the tenth null hypothesis.

Ancillary Findings

Several ancillary findings were made while testing the hypotheses which could help to explain the results obtained. The participants' PARI ratings of the nine instrument subscales were compared on dimensions other than age. These

TABLE 14

A COMPARISON OF THE FIVE AGE GROUPS' RATINGS ON THE NINTH SUBSCALE OF THE INSTRUMENT (Liberality)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
BETWEEN (Groups)	60.17	4	15.04	2.055	> .05
WITHIN (Groups)	1,061.40	145	7.32		
TOTAL	1,121.57	149			

variables were sex, race, and religion.

PARI Ratings of the Two Sexes

The first ancillary comparison was made between the male and female parents' responses on each of the nine PARI subscales. These results would normally be presented in nine different tables. However, since these were only secondary comparisons, the results of all nine analysis of variance tests are presented in one table (Table 15) along with the means and standard deviations computed for the two sexes on each of the nine subscales.

The results presented in Table 15 indicate that there were no significate differences among the males' and females' ratings of the nine PARI subscales. The greatest difference was noted on the sixth subscale (Deception of Children), but the computed F value was not significant ($F = 3.11$, $df=1/148$; $p > .05$). The results of the first ancillary comparison led to the conclusion that the variable of sex played a rather insignificant part in determining one's child-rearing attitudes and practices.

PARI Ratings of the Races of Parents

A second comparison was made between the White and Non-White parents' responses on each of nine PARI subscales. Originally, the researcher had planned to use the categories of White, Black, Indian, and "Other." However, the small numbers in the Indian and "Other" categories made a meaningful comparison of four groups impossible, and the

TABLE 15

RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TESTS COMPARING THE MALES' AND FEMALES' RATINGS ON THE NINE PARI SUBSCALES

PARI Instrument Subscales	MALES (N=75) Mean	MALES (N=75) Standard Deviation	FEMALES (N=75) Mean	FEMALES (N=75) Standard Deviation	Computed F - Value	Significance Level
Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization	17.10	1.79	17.82	2.06	F = 0.88	> .05
Equalitarianism	14.71	2.12	14.46	2.26	F = 3.15	> .05
Parent's Deification of the Child	15.12	2.98	14.22	3.11	F = 1.63	> .05
Excluding Outside Influences on Child Rearing	12.41	2.16	11.51	2.08	F = 2.04	> .05
Strictness	13.57	3.27	13.29	2.65	F = 2.65	> .05
Deception of Children	9.88	2.93	10.22	1.94	F = 3.11	> .05
Encouraging Outside Influences on Child Rearing	15.72	2.34	15.82	1.88	F = 1.28	> .05
Child's Deification of the Parent	13.41	3.19	12.11	3.02	F = 0.96	> .05
Liberality	13.06	2.73	12.80	1.95	F = 1.32	> .05

Indian and "Other" categories were combined with the Blacks to form a Non-White group. This helped to equalize the numbers of parents being compared.

The results of all nine analysis of variance tests are presented in Table 16. This Table also contains the means and standard deviations computed for the racial groups on each of the nine PARI subscales.

The results presented in Table 16 indicate that there were several significant differences between the Whites' and Non-Whites' ratings on the nine PARI subscales. Differences were noted on the following instrument subscales: (1) Equalitarianism, (2) Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, (3) Strictness, (4) Deception of Children, (5) Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, (6) Child's Deification of the Parent, and (7) Liberality. The Whites had the highest mean scores on Equalitarianism, Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, and Liberality. The Non-Whites had the highest mean scores on Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, Strictness, Deception of Children, and Child's Deification of the Parent. The greatest number of discrepancies were noted between these two racial groups. From the results of the second ancillary comparison it was concluded that the variable of race seems to make the most difference in the child-rearing attitudes and practices espoused by the one-hundred fifty students/parents participating in the present study.

TABLE 16

COMPARISONS OF THE PARI RATINGS MADE BY THE WHITE AND NON-WHITE GROUPS ON THE NINE INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES

PARI Instrument Subscales	WHITES (N=103) Mean	WHITES (N=103) Standard Deviation	NON-WHITES (N=47) Mean	NON-WHITES (N=47) Standard Deviation	Computed F - Value	Significance Level
Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization	17.84	2.66	16.13	2.12	F = 2.68	> .05
Equalitarianism	16.21	2.99	12.33	2.26	F = 7.73	< .01
Parent's Deification of the Child	15.31	3.27	14.82	2.16	F = 3.54	> .05
Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	10.81	3.18	13.36	3.37	F = 8.19	< .01
Strictness	12.22	3.53	14.66	2.66	F = 4.16	< .05
Deception of Children	9.19	3.32	12.20	2.64	F = 8.24	< .01
Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing	16.81	3.37	14.21	2.34	F = 7.05	< .01
Child's Deification of the Parent	10.79	2.98	14.30	3.88	F = 5.26	< .05
Liberality	14.22	3.10	10.86	3.74	F = 4.83	< .05

PARI Ratings of the Two Religious Groups

A third comparison was made between the PARI ratings made by the different religious groups on the nine subscales of the PARI Instrument. Originally, the researcher had planned to use the categories of Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, and "Other." However, the small number in the last two categories made a meaningful comparison among the four groups impossible. As a result, the Jewish and "Other" categories were eliminated, and the comparison was made between the Protestants' and Catholics' responses. Comparisons were made with a one-way analysis of variance test. The results of these comparisons are presented in Table 17. This Table also contains the means and standard deviations computed for each group's ratings on each PARI subscale.

The results presented in Table 17 indicate that there were no significant differences among the Protestants' and Catholics' ratings on the nine PARI subscales. The greatest difference was noted on the seventh subscale (Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing), but the computed F value was not significant ($F = 3.34$, $df=1/141$; $p > .05$). The results of the third ancillary comparison led to the conclusion that the variable of religious beliefs played a rather insignificant role in determining one's child-rearing attitudes and practices.

Summary of Results

The results of testing the ten null hypotheses showed

TABLE 17

COMPARISONS OF THE PARI RATINGS MADE BY THE DIFFERENT RELIGIOUS GROUPS ON THE NINE INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES

PARI Instrument Subscales	PROTESTANTS (N=120) Mean	PROTESTANTS (N=120) Standard Deviation	NON-PROTESTANTS (N=23) Mean	NON-PROTESTANTS (N=23) Standard Deviation	Computed F - Value	Significance Level
Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization	16.52	2.23	16.75	2.77	F = 2.12	> .05
Equalitarianism	14.20	2.43	14.06	3.33	F = 2.03	> .05
Parent's Deification of the Child	15.11	2.61	14.93	3.99	F = 1.81	> .05
Excluding Outside Influences on Child Rearing	11.91	2.89	12.20	2.31	F = 0.35	> .05
Strictness	13.20	2.07	13.61	1.77	F = 1.09	> .05
Deception of Children	9.88	2.62	10.18	2.63	F = 1.32	> .05
Encouraging Outside Influences on Child Rearing	16.17	2.73	16.23	2.98	F = 3.34	> .05
Child's Deification of the Parent	12.89	2.21	13.29	2.95	F = 1.22	> .05
Liberality	12.86	2.60	10.94	2.15	F = 3.05	> .05

that only one could be rejected. An overall comparison of the five age groups' composite PARI scores (Ho_1) showed no significant differences. However, because of the positive or negative orientation of the nine instrument subscales, participants' ratings tended to cancel each other. For this reason, comparisons were made among the age groups' ratings on each subscale. A significant difference was noted among the groups' scores on the second subscale (Equalitarianism). The 20-29 age group gave the most positive ratings to this concept, while the 50-60 age group and the teenage group made the most negative ratings.

Three secondary comparisons were made comparing the ratings made by males and females, Whites and Non-Whites, and Protestants and Catholics. Results of these ancillary comparisons showed significant differences between the White and Non-White groups' scores on seven of the nine PARI subscales. No differences were observed on any of the subscales when comparisons were made between sexes and religious groups.

The conclusions drawn from the results are presented in Chapter V. The last Chapter also contains a summary of the study and implications for further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The purpose of the present study was to compare the concepts of parenting as reported by college student/parents of different age levels. During the conduct of the study the researcher compared nine different areas of child-rearing attitudes and concepts reported by parents from five different age groups who were enrolled as undergraduate students in a four-year liberal arts college during the 1974-75 academic year.

In the present study the researcher conducted a survey in which one-hundred fifty (N=150) college student/parents were asked to indicate their attitudes of parenting (child-rearing practices) by responding to a forty-five item Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) (See Appendix A). Average ratings were computed for each parent on the nine subareas of the PARI. The nine subareas on the data collection instrument were as follows: (1) Ability to Encourage Children's Verbalization, (2) Equalitarianism, (3) Parent's Deification of the Child, (4) Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, (5) Strictness, (6) Deception of Children, (7) Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, (8) Child's Deification of the Parents,

and (9) Liberality.

Ratings made by the one-hundred fifty (N=150) college student/parents were analyzed in an attempt to determine possible differences among the child-rearing attitudes and practices of parents from the five different age categories. Participants were asked to respond to the forty-five item Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the participants' ratings and test the ten hypotheses stated in Chapter I. The essence of these hypotheses was to determine parents' attitudes toward nine different aspects/dimensions of child-rearing. Secondary comparisons of the parenting concepts were also made between the two sexes, two races (White and Non-White), and two religious groups (Protestants and Catholics).

The results of testing the ten null hypotheses showed that only one could be rejected. An overall comparison of the five age groups' composite PARI scores (Ho_1) showed no significant differences. However, comparisons were made among the age groups' ratings on each subscale. A significant difference was noted among the groups' scores on the second subscale (Equalitarianism). The 20-29 age group gave the most positive ratings to this concept, while the 50-60 age group and the teenage group made the most negative ratings.

Three secondary comparisons were made comparing the

ratings made by males and females, Whites and Non-Whites, and Protestants and Catholics. Results of these ancillary comparisons showed significant differences between the White and Non-White groups' scores on seven of the nine PARI subscales. No differences were observed on any of the subscales when comparisons were made between sexes and religious groups.

The conclusions drawn from the results are presented in the following sections.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions presented in this section are the major conclusions which could be defensibly drawn from the results obtained from testing the hypotheses. The generalization of the results obtained in the present study to other populations of Parents should be approached with caution until more research has been conducted in the area.

From the results of testing the null hypotheses, it was concluded that the only real differences there were among the parents' attitudes and child-rearing practices was in the area of Equalitarianism. The five statements rated on the Equalitarianism subscale were as follows:

(1) When a parent asks a child to do something the child should always be told why.

(2) Parents should sometimes adjust to the children rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents.

(3) From a well-run home children should have things their own way as often as the parents do.

(4) As much as is reasonable a parent should try to meet a child as an equal.

(5) Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjusting, and that is not fair.

Parents in the 20-29 age group tended to give the highest numerical ratings (most positive) to these statements, while parents in the 50-60 age group tended to check the lowest numerical ratings (most negative) to the statements. From these results it was concluded that parents who are in the process of rearing children at the present time (20-29 age group) were somewhat more permissive than those parents who have already reared their children (50-60 age group).

Results of making the secondary comparisons between males and females, Whites and Non-Whites, and Protestants and Catholics led to the conclusion that the only real differences were between the races of parents. The White parents tended to agree with the child-rearing practices stated on the subscales of Equalitarianism, Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, and Liberality. On the other hand, the Non-White parents were more in agreement with the subscales of Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing, Strictness, Deception of Children, and the Child's Deification of the Parent. While some differences were seen from one age level to the next on other variables, it was concluded that the real differences among the groups' child-

rearing attitudes and practices were between the two races of parents. It was also concluded that additional studies should take this finding into consideration when making further comparisons on the Parental Attitude Research Instrument.

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated the effects of age on the individual's concepts and practices of good parenting. The researcher had hypothesized that parents' attitudes and practices of child-rearing would change as they grew older. However, statistical analysis of the parents' responses taken from the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) showed that there were very few changes from one age level to the next. It may very well be that there are no changes in the child-rearing attitudes and practices of parents at different age levels. On the other hand, the researcher is of the opinion that failure to find significance lies partly in the limitations of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument. At least three fallacies or weaknesses were noted in the PARI: (1) Some of the subscales were negatively oriented and others were positively oriented, and ratings from the two tended to cancel each other's effects. (2) Some statements contained on each PARI subscale were more appropriate than others. It appeared that some statements which were classified within one subscale could have been classified within other subscales. (3) Responses to the

PARI were forced into an Agree/Disagree format, and no provision was made for the parents who were not sure or had no opinion on certain statements.

The previous passages are not intended to imply that the lack of significance sought in the study could be attributed to the data collection instrument. It is meant to imply that the Parental Attitude Research Instrument should be examined very closely and perhaps altered before further research is conducted in the area.

One other explanation should be given concerning the population of parents. All parents were college students, and therefore they were a very atypical group of parents in terms of the overall population of American parents. As anticipated, the parental groups' attitudes and child-rearing practices were much more positive (higher numerically) than those reported by previous researchers. A comparison of the attitudes and child-rearing practices reported by parents in the present study with the attitudes and child-rearing practices reported by parents in previous research efforts would probably show wide discrepancies. The uniqueness of the present population of parents should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results of the study.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Results of this investigation, as well as the review of literature, validated the appropriateness of the hypotheses formulated. The associations and differences in the

individual's concept of good parenting would suggest the need for more research in this field. There may be, too, an attempt to improve on the stimulus questions concerning child-rearing and interpersonal relationships which have now acquired almost standard form and context.

A replication of the present study could also be done with slight changes in the questionnaire. For instance, the questionnaire could state a particular age for the child. The fact that the student/parents did not have a specific age given presented some problems. The participants might have answered the questions differently if a certain age had been indicated. They believed some things would have been allowed for an older child that were not allowed for the younger child.

Human Development research may always be in need of more adequate devices to assess psychological aspects of the home environment and a description and evaluation of the parent's impact as well as the home's impact upon the child. Horney (1942) acknowledged that the child's growth may be stunted or furthered by the ". . . kind of relationship which is established between the child and his parents or others around him, including other children in the family . . . [p. 43]."

Further studies could also be conducted in which the geographical area from which parents were chosen could be enlarged enough to include a greater variety of

cultures. This could also include a greater variety of ethnic groups as well as persons with different occupations. It might also be interesting to compare the parental attitudes with the children's attitudes.

One further implication for research would be to conduct a longitudinal study of parents' attitudes and child-rearing practices over an extended period of time. Results of such a study would give some indication of the type of attitude changes experienced by parents at different stages of rearing their children.

The present investigator concluded that this investigation was successful in discriminating certain of these psychological aspects or relationships by qualitatively and quantitatively measuring the individual's concept of good parenting in relation to age. Information from this study would provide possible guidelines for the development of curricula specifically designed to teach a course in Parent Education at the secondary educational level.

This study was not meant to be a panacea for concepts of parenting, it was only an attempt to add to the body of knowledge in this area and stimulate further research. If this has been accomplished it has served its purpose.

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APPENDIX A

PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT (SHORT FORM) CHOSEN FOR COLLECTING THE DATA IN THE PRESENT STUDY

APPENDIX A

PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT
(Short Form)

(age) (class in college) (city and state of birth)

(sex) (race) (married or single) (religion)

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

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

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

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

		Agree		Disagree	
1.	Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better	A	a	d	D
2.	When a parent asks a child to do something the child should always be told why	A	a	d	D
3.	A child should be taught that there are many other people he will love and respect as much or more than his own parents	A	a	d	D
4.	Children should never learn things outside the home which make them doubt their parents' ideas	A	a	d	D
5.	Parents very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer	A	a	d	D
6.	There's no excuse wasting a lot of time explaining when you can get kids doing what you want by being a little clever	A	a	d	D

APPENDIX A (Cont'd)

7.	Children have every right to question their parents views	A	a	d	D
8.	A child should grow up convinced his parents always know what is the right thing to do	A	a	d	D
9.	Most parents can spend all day with the children and remain calm and even tempered	A	a	d	D
10.	Children should be encouraged to tell parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable	A	a	d	D
11.	Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents	A	a	d	D
12.	Most children soon learn that their parents were mistaken in many of their ideas	A	a	d	D
13.	There is no excusing someone who upsets the confidence a child has in his parents' ways of doing things	A	a	d	D
14.	The things children ask of a parent after a hard day's work are enough to make anyone lose his temper at times	A	a	d	D
15.	Often you have to fool children to get them to do what they should without a big fuss	A	a	d	D
16.	If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child . . .	A	a	d	D
17.	A child soon learns that there is no greater wisdom than that of his parents	A	a	d	D
18.	A parent should keep control of his temper even when children are demanding	A	a	d	D
19.	A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions	A	a	d	D
20.	In a well-run home children should have things their own way as often as the parents do	A	a	d	D
21.	Loyalty on the part of children to their parents is something that the parents should earn	A	a	d	D
22.	A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child's eyes	A	a	d	D
23.	It's natural for a parent to "blow his top" when children are selfish and demanding	A	a	d	D
24.	It's best to trick a child into doing something he doesn't want to do instead of having to argue with him	A	a	d	D
25.	A good parent can tolerate criticism of himself even when the children are around	A	a	d	D
26.	Loyalty to parents comes before anything else	A	a	d	D
27.	Raising children is an easy job	A	a	d	D
28.	When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents	A	a	d	D

APPENDIX A (Cont'd)

29. As much as is reasonable a parent should try to treat a child as an equal . . . . . A a d D

30. A parent should not expect to be more highly esteemed than other worthy adults in their children's eyes . . . . . A a d D

31. It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his parents' views are right . . . . . A a d D

32. It's a rare parent who can be even tempered with his children all day . . . . . A a d D

33. You have to fool children into doing many things because they wouldn't understand anyway . . . . . A a d D

34. When a child thinks his parent is wrong he should say so . A a d D

35. More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them . . . . . A a d D

36. Most parents never get to the point where they can't stand their children . . . . . A a d D

37. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it . . . . . A a d D

38. Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and that is not fair . . . . . A a d D

39. Loyalty to parents is an overemphasized virtue . . . . . A a d D

40. The child should not question the thinking of his parents . A a d D

41. Raising children is a nerve-wracking job . . . . . A a d D

42. When a child is doing something he shouldn't one of the best ways of handling it is to just get him interested in something else . . . . . A a d D

43. A child should be encouraged to look for answers to his questions from other people even if the answers contradict his parents . . . . . A a d D

44. A child should always love his parents above everything else . . . . . A a d D

45. There is no reason why a day with the children should be upsetting . . . . . A a d D

APPENDIX B

RAW SCORE SHEET USED TO TALLY THE INDIVIDUAL RESPONSES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT (PARI)

RAW SCORE SHEET FOR THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT (PARI)

To be scored: A=4 points, a=3 points, d=2 points, D=1 point

Scores From Individual Inventory Items					Factors	Total	
1	10	19	28	37	Ability to encourage children's verbalization		
2	11	20	29	38	Equalitarianism		
3	12	21	30	39	Parent's Deification of Child		
4	13	22	31	40	Excluding Outside Influences on Child-Rearing		
5	14	23	32	41	Strictness		
6	15	24	33	42	Deception of Children		
7	16	25	34	43	Encouraging Outside Influences on Child-Rearing		
8	17	26	35	44	Child's Deification of Parents		
9	18	27	36	45	Liberality		

A MULTIVARIATE instrument - PARI is an inventory consisting of 45 items designed to be used in a variety of situations where parental attitudes toward child-rearing are related to (in this study) the age of the parent.

APPENDIX C

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX C

TABLE 19

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE FEMALES WHO WERE LESS THAN 20 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	19	18	18	20	17	15	16	18	17	17	18	19	17	16	16
SUBSCALE #2	15	16	15	11	13	14	17	17	15	16	12	14	14	13	7
SUBSCALE #3	15	17	13	16	12	12	15	12	15	14	16	9	10	12	14
SUBSCALE #4	8	10	18	16	11	13	23	12	11	15	9	12	9	12	9
SUBSCALE #5	14	12	13	15	14	11	13	10	11	12	12	14	13	6	15
SUBSCALE #6	8	13	6	12	9	10	11	6	10	11	12	6	6	11	9
SUBSCALE #7	17	16	14	17	15	16	15	13	15	15	17	17	14	14	15
SUBSCALE #8	13	12	15	18	13	11	16	14	11	10	12	14	10	15	13
SUBSCALE #9	15	14	16	14	10	11	15	14	14	14	13	9	11	13	13

TABLE 20

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE MALES WHO WERE LESS THAN 20 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	16	19	16	18	14	12	18	14	17	19	18	17	19	10	15
SUBSCALE #2	11	17	14	12	13	14	18	14	14	15	16	15	12	16	14
SUBSCALE #3	15	19	13	17	17	13	11	16	13	17	14	14	12	15	14
SUBSCALE #4	10	11	15	13	12	10	17	10	8	11	9	10	14	13	10
SUBSCALE #5	18	12	7	15	13	16	14	12	14	9	14	8	16	12	12
SUBSCALE #6	16	9	9	17	11	9	6	12	9	13	12	9	13	8	11
SUBSCALE #7	16	19	19	18	15	15	15	13	14	17	13	13	14	12	15
SUBSCALE #8	13	14	16	15	14	15	17	10	11	13	11	16	16	12	13
SUBSCALE #9	12	13	18	15	12	14	14	11	14	19	12	13	12	10	11

Appendix C (Cont'd)

TABLE 21

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE FEMALES WHO WERE 20-29 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	19	20	20	20	16	20	18	19	18	19	19	19	19	19	19
SUBSCALE #2	15	17	18	19	18	17	16	16	18	19	18	13	17	18	15
SUBSCALE #3	11	13	13	15	18	20	16	17	18	16	17	16	15	19	15
SUBSCALE #4	15	8	9	13	10	5	12	11	8	6	18	14	6	8	11
SUBSCALE #5	18	14	12	15	14	18	15	7	16	12	16	15	18	15	15
SUBSCALE #6	8	7	9	12	9	13	8	8	9	6	10	8	5	7	7
SUBSCALE #7	13	18	19	20	15	20	20	17	18	20	18	15	19	16	16
SUBSCALE #8	17	15	15	18	11	6	12	15	12	7	20	16	7	6	7
SUBSCALE #9	12	13	13	14	8	9	13	19	8	13	12	11	8	14	11

TABLE 22

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE MALES WHO WERE 20-29 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	14	17	14	18	17	18	16	19	19	18	18	15	16	16	15
SUBSCALE #2	13	19	12	16	17	16	17	19	18	13	16	11	13	11	13
SUBSCALE #3	17	16	13	16	14	11	13	15	16	14	10	16	14	16	13
SUBSCALE #4	16	5	17	9	10	12	8	9	8	10	14	12	10	11	9
SUBSCALE #5	15	8	18	16	11	16	14	11	11	12	18	10	10	15	15
SUBSCALE #6	10	10	17	12	11	12	10	8	7	12	8	7	8	13	13
SUBSCALE #7	18	20	7	17	17	16	14	19	12	14	14	14	14	13	14
SUBSCALE #8	17	9	15	10	13	13	10	13	14	12	14	13	15	11	9
SUBSCALE #9	14	13	13	12	12	11	11	14	14	14	8	13	11	11	12

TABLE 23

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE FEMALES WHO WERE 30-39 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	16	18	19	16	17	17	19	20	19	16	17	15	18	13	17
SUBSCALE #2	12	15	20	15	14	14	17	17	18	14	14	15	17	15	11
SUBSCALE #3	13	13	12	16	14	13	14	16	16	13	15	15	15	17	13
SUBSCALE #4	8	8	9	15	11	10	13	12	15	11	11	11	16	14	5
SUBSCALE #5	7	18	18	14	15	16	18	18	10	13	12	13	11	13	16
SUBSCALE #6	6	9	8	15	13	11	6	12	10	12	10	10	6	13	7
SUBSCALE #7	18	18	20	14	16	16	17	19	19	18	16	12	15	11	20
SUBSCALE #8	10	6	7	13	16	11	15	10	12	14	10	11	15	18	6
SUBSCALE #9	10	8	9	12	12	8	10	12	9	11	16	11	12	13	7

TABLE 24

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE MALES WHO WERE 30-39 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	16	17	18	18	16	13	18	18	14	15	12	15	18	19	20
SUBSCALE #2	16	12	14	16	13	12	11	17	13	15	17	13	15	14	15
SUBSCALE #3	12	12	10	16	15	12	13	15	13	10	20	13	14	17	16
SUBSCALE #4	11	18	15	17	14	10	14	10	13	10	17	14	12	13	13
SUBSCALE #5	8	12	11	18	16	13	15	16	13	13	5	13	14	12	14
SUBSCALE #6	13	5	8	15	10	10	7	13	10	14	8	8	8	5	8
SUBSCALE #7	15	15	15	16	16	13	14	13	15	14	15	13	14	18	18
SUBSCALE #8	11	19	20	20	12	13	13	11	11	18	20	12	13	8	12
SUBSCALE #9	14	16	14	15	11	9	9	6	10	10	11	12	10	17	14

APPENDIX C (Cont'd)

TABLE 25

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE FEMALES WHO WERE 40-49 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	17	17	14	20	20	15	18	18	18	20	16	14	20	19	16
SUBSCALE #2	12	11	15	19	16	14	14	17	11	17	14	14	18	15	14
SUBSCALE #3	14	11	11	19	16	14	16	16	18	16	15	17	17	14	13
SUBSCALE #4	7	9	12	6	8	9	8	9	13	8	13	16	9	8	7
SUBSCALE #5	9	14	8	15	15	16	16	18	19	11	16	15	15	19	13
SUBSCALE #6	6	8	9	6	5	12	8	10	11	5	12	13	8	10	11
SUBSCALE #7	18	11	13	20	17	15	17	16	17	18	15	17	14	18	14
SUBSCALE #8	5	12	10	6	13	20	5	10	13	12	12	15	12	10	12
SUBSCALE #9	11	11	17	8	11	11	5	9	7	9	10	16	13	9	7

TABLE 26

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE MALES WHO WERE 40-49 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP														
SUBSCALE #1	16	16	14	17	19	19	11	17	20	15	15	19	15	13	16
SUBSCALE #2	11	12	13	17	15	13	10	13	15	12	13	15	12	12	12
SUBSCALE #3	9	14	13	16	14	13	12	15	12	14	13	5	12	10	9
SUBSCALE #4	18	10	13	10	12	9	15	11	17	11	13	12	12	14	14
SUBSCALE #5	15	10	11	8	15	19	16	10	16	14	14	13	9	12	14
SUBSCALE #6	12	9	11	10	10	10	9	11	10	9	14	7	9	10	7
SUBSCALE #7	10	15	14	17	14	16	12	15	15	14	15	17	13	13	12
SUBSCALE #8	15	10	16	13	9	13	15	11	17	10	20	17	17	13	18
SUBSCALE #9	10	13	16	15	13	12	10	14	17	10	18	16	14	13	14

APPENDIX C (Cont'd)

TABLE 27

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE FEMALES WHO WERE MORE THAN 50 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP															
SUBSCALE #1	16	19	16	18	16	17	16	18	20	15	19	16	20	15	18	
SUBSCALE #2	14	15	15	15	15	12	13	14	16	12	16	14	18	15	12	
SUBSCALE #3	11	13	15	19	18	14	16	10	14	13	16	15	14	9	12	
SUBSCALE #4	11	11	14	5	13	13	12	11	12	12	7	5	8	9	17	
SUBSCALE #5	17	8	16	8	19	14	18	13	13	17	16	8	15	9	10	
SUBSCALE #6	14	12	14	7	11	11	14	9	5	15	10	8	11	9	14	
SUBSCALE #7	16	17	15	18	18	15	19	15	17	17	16	18	18	14	15	
SUBSCALE #8	12	12	15	6	10	11	5	14	15	14	15	7	10	12	15	
SUBSCALE #9	7	16	12	14	10	13	11	10	13	12	12	6	12	14	15	

TABLE 28

RAW SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AS COMPUTED FOR THE MALES WHO WERE MORE THAN 50 YEARS OLD

INSTRUMENT SUBSCALES	INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS WITHIN THE GROUP															
SUBSCALE #1	19	19	15	18	18	16	11	19	14	15	17	19	15	19	20	
SUBSCALE #2	15	14	15	16	17	14	15	16	12	11	15	15	13	12	18	
SUBSCALE #3	14	17	17	13	16	15	12	15	16	10	10	18	15	19	14	
SUBSCALE #4	10	13	14	6	18	12	15	12	6	16	5	11	11	8	8	
SUBSCALE #5	16	11	13	18	14	8	17	14	19	14	19	16	14	11	12	
SUBSCALE #6	11	13	11	10	19	6	15	8	11	11	7	8	6	8	7	
SUBSCALE #7	17	13	12	16	16	17	9	17	16	13	16	14	9	20	14	
SUBSCALE #8	11	16	16	11	16	16	18	15	6	15	7	11	10	5	9	
SUBSCALE #9	14	15	15	9	14	11	13	10	7	11	8	11	9	17	13	

APPENDIX D

IBM CARD FORMAT AND 80-80 LISTING OF PARTICIPANTS' DATA CARDS

APPENDIX D

IBM CARD FORMAT USED TO ENTER THE PARENTS' SCORES FROM THE PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Information Entered	Card Columns	Possible Range of Values
(1) Age-group number	1	1-4
(2) Participant's Sex	2	1-2
(3) Participants' Race	3	1-5
(4) Participant's Religian	4	1-4
(5) Participant's Military experience	5	1-2
(6) Total score from first PARI subscale	6-7	0-20
(7) Total score from second PARI subscale	8-9	0-20
(8) Total score from third PARI subscale	10-11	0-20
(9) Total score from fourth PARI subscale	12-13	0-20
(10) Total score from fifth PARI subscale	14-15	0-20
(11) Total score from sixth PARI subscale	16-17	0-20
(12) Total score from seventh PARI subscale	18-19	0-20
(13) Total score from eighth PARI subscale	20-21	0-20
(14) Total score from ninth PARI subscale	22-23	0-20

Appendix D (Cont'd)

80-80 LISTING OF THE PARENT GROUPS' DATA CARDS

```
12112191515081408171315
12112181617101213161214
12112181513181306141516
12212201116161512171814
12111117131211140915131O
12312151412131110161111
12112161715231311151615
12112181712121006131414
12122171515111110151114
12112171614151211151014
12211181216091212171213
12112191409121406171409
12121171410091306141011
12121161312120611141513
12121160714091509151313
11212161115101816161312
11112191719111209191413
11312161413150709191618
11212181217131517181515
11312141317121311151412
11342121413101609151514
11112181811171406151714
11112141416101212131011
11111171413081209171114
11112191517110913171319
11111181614091412131112
11112171514100809131613
11211191212141613141312
11112101615131208121210
11112151414101211151311
21212141317161510181714
21112171916050810200913
21111141213171817071513
21112181616091612171012
21112171714101111171312
21241181611121612161311
21242161713081410141011
21112191915091108191314
21112191816081107121414
21122181314101212141214
21112181610141808141408
21222151116121007141313
21212161314101008141511
21112161116111513131111
21112151313091513140912
22212191511151808131712
22112201713081407181513
22112201813091209191513
22111201915131512201814
22112161818101409151108
22112201720051813200609
22112181616121508201213
22112191617110708171519
22112181818081609181208
22142191916061206200713
22112191817181610182012
22111191316141509151611
22141191715061805190708
22112191819081507160614
22111191515111507160711
32142161213080706181010
32112181513081809180608
32112192012091808200709
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Appendix D (Cont'd)

80-80 LISTING OF THE PARENT GROUPS DATA CARDS (Cont'd)

```
32312[illegible]15161514151413 12
32112171414111513161612
32112171413101611161108
32112191714131806171510
32112201716121812191012
32312191816151010191209
32112161413111312181411
32211171415111210161016
32122151515111310121111
32121181715161106151512
32312131517141313111813
32112171113051607200607
31112161612110813151114
31112171212181205151916
31212181410151108152014
31122181616171815162015
31122161315141610161211
31112131212101310131309
31111181113141507141309
31112181715101613131106
31111141313131310151110
31112151510101314141810
31211121720170508152011
31112151313141308131212
31321181514121408141310
31112191417131205180817
31111201516131408181214
42112171214070906180511
42212171111091408111211
42212141511120809131017
42112201919061506200608
42112201616081505171311
42112151414091612152011
42111181416081608170505
42112181716091810161009
42121181118131911171307
42111201716081105181209
42111161415131612151210
42312141417161513171516
42212201817091508141213
42111191514081910181009
42111161413071311141207
41142161109181512101510
41112161214101009151013
41122141313131111141616
41211171716100810171315
41122191514121510140913
41111191313091910161312
41112111012151609121510
41111171315111011151114
41211201512171610151717
41112151214111409141010
41212151313131414152018
41112191505121307171716
41122151212120909131714
41211131210141210131313
41111161209141407121814
52112161411111714161207
52111191513110812171216
52112161515141614151512
52112181519050807180614
52121161518131911181010
52121161518131911181010
52112171214131411151113
52112161316121814190511
52211181410111309151410
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Appendix D (Cont'd)

80-80 LISTING OF PARENT GROUPS' DATA CARDS (Cont'd)

```
52211201614121305171513
52322151213121715171412
52111191616071610161512
52121161415050308180706
52112201814081511181012
52112151509090909141214
52112181212171014151515
51111191514101611171114
51122191417131113131615
51122151517141311121615
51111181613061810161109
51211181716181419161614
51111161415120806171611
51122111512151715091813
51111191615121408171510
51141141216061911160607
51111151110161411131511
51311171510051907160708
51112191518111608141111
51211151315111406091009
51111191219081108200517
51121201814081207140913
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