

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

JUDITH C. SCHAUMBURG

(Name)

for the

MASTER OF SCIENCE

(Degree)

in Family Life (Child Development) presented on

(Major)

May 24, 1974
(Date)

Title: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PRESCHOOL AGED CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPTS

AND THEIR PARENTS' ATTITUDES

Abstract approved: _____

Redacted for privacy

Alan I. Sugawara

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes. Thirty-three children, 18 boys and 15 girls, and their parents acted as subjects for this study. The mean age of the children was 3 years 8 months, and their mean IQ score was 109. All subjects came from the middle and upper socioeconomic classes.

A modified version of the Self Concept and Motivation Inventory, designed for this study, was used to assess the children's self-concepts, while a modified version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument was used to assess parental attitudes. The Pearson product moment correlation method was used to test all hypotheses. The .10 level of significance was used as the criterion for statistical significance.

In reference to findings related to the authoritarian-control parental attitude dimension, there were significant positive

relationships between boys' self-concepts and their fathers' attitudes on the authoritarian-control factor ($p < .10$) and two of its subscales, fostering dependency ($p < .05$) and suppression of sexuality ($p < .05$). In addition, boys' self-concepts were found to be significantly and negatively related to their mothers' attitudes on the authoritarian-control subscales of fostering dependency ($p < .10$) and seclusiveness of the mother ($p < .10$). Furthermore, there was a significant negative relationship between mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes on the subscale, suppression of sexuality and girls' self-concepts ($p < .10$). No other significant relationships were found between boys' and girls' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes.

Regarding findings related to the hostility-rejection parental attitude dimension, there was a significant positive relationship between boys' self-concepts and their mothers' hostility-rejection attitudes on the subscale, irritability ($p < .10$). No other significant relationships were found between boys' and girls' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' hostility-rejection attitudes.

With respect to findings related to the democratic parental attitude dimension, results revealed no significant relationships between boys' and girls' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' democratic attitudes.

Additional exploratory analyses of the relationships between pre-school aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude

differences revealed boys' self-concepts to be significantly and positively related to the father-mother attitude differences on the authoritarian-control factor ($p < .01$) and two of its subscales, fostering dependency ($p < .01$) and devotion to the father role/seclusion of the mother ($p < .01$). Furthermore, girls' self-concepts were found to be significantly and positively related to their father-mother attitude differences on the authoritarian-control subscales, devotion to the father role/seclusion of the mother ($p < .01$) and suppression of sexuality ($p < .05$). In addition, girls' self-concepts were significantly and positively related to their father-mother attitude differences on the democratic subscales, encouraging verbalization ($p < .10$) and comradeship and sharing ($p < .10$).

Findings of the present study were related to both theoretical and previous research literature. Generally, findings revealed the variables of sex of child and sex of parent to be important in understanding the results obtained. Caution must be taken, however, in interpreting these results, due to the variety of limitations encountered in this study. These limitations and suggestions for future research were discussed in the thesis.

Relationships Between Preschool Aged
Children's Self-Concepts and Their Parents' Attitudes

by

Judith C. Schaumburg

A THESIS

submitted to

Oregon State University

in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the
degree of

Master of Science

June 1975

APPROVED:

Redacted for privacy

Professor of Family Life
in charge of major

Redacted for privacy

Head of Department of Family Life

Redacted for privacy

Dean of Graduate School

Date thesis is presented

May 21, 1974

Typed by Sara Stewart for

Judith C. Schaumburg

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The full meaning and importance of this academic endeavor is due to the valued attributes of many individuals. Sincere appreciation is extended to:

First and foremost, my husband, Frank and children, Susan and Cynthia, who by sharing their precious gift of love gave purpose to this project;

Dr. Alan Sugawara, Assistant Professor of Family Life and major professor, who through continuous encouragement, interest and positive guidance inspired my "best self";

Dr. J. P. O'Neill, who so sensitively perceived and patiently understood my multi-role as a wife, mother and student;

The committee who participated in the Masters orals: Dr. Alan Sugawara, Major Professor, Dr. Anna Meeks, Dr. J. P. O'Neill and Dr. Martha Plonk;

Dr. Ken Rowe for assistance and guidance with data analysis;

The children and their parents who so generously participated in this study;

My mother and father for their confidence and support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Page</u>
INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of this Study	3
Definition of Terms	4
Assumptions	4
Hypotheses and Analyses	4
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	6
Definitions of Self-concept	6
Measurement of Self-concept	10
Measurement of Parent Attitudes	14
Relationships Between Children's Self-concepts and Their Parents' Attitudes	18
Studies Directly Related	18
Relationships Between Children's Self-concepts and Aspects of Their Personalities	20
Acceptance of Others	20
Anxiety	22
Social and Peer Interaction	23
Academic Achievement	25
Relationships Between Aspects of Children's Personalities and Their Parents' Attitudes	26
Acceptance of Others	26
Anxiety	27
Social and Peer Interaction	28
Academic Achievement	29
Summary	31
Theoretical Framework	31
METHODS	33
Subjects	33
Descriptions of the Children	34
Socioeconomic Status	35
Instruments	36
Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory (SCAMIN)	37
Reliability	40
Validity	40
Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI)	41
Reliability	45
Validity	45

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Page</u>
Procedures	48
Establishment of Rapport	48
Administration of the SCAMIN to Children	49
Administration of the PARI to Parents	51
RESULTS	52
Tests of Hypotheses	52
Hypothesis I	53
Hypothesis II	55
Hypothesis III	57
Exploratory Analysis	59
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION	63
Summary	63
Discussion of Findings	65
Authoritarian-Control Parental Attitudes	67
Hostility-Rejection Parental Attitudes	71
Democratic Parental Attitudes	72
Exploratory Analysis	73
Summary	74
Limitations of the Study	75
Sample	76
Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory	76
Parental Attitude Research Instrument	78
Control of Variables	78
Suggestions for Future Research	79
BIBLIOGRAPHY	81
APPENDICES	86

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
1.	Description of the Children by Sex, Age and I.Q.	34
2.	Description of Families by Socioeconomic Class.	36
3.	Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationships Between Preschool Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Authoritarian-Control Parental Attitudes.	54
4.	Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationships Between Preschool Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Hostility-Rejection Parental Attitudes.	56
5.	Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationships Between Preschool Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Democratic Parental Attitudes. ¹	58
6.	Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationships Between Preschool Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Father-Mother Attitude Discrepancies.	60
7.	Summary of the Significant Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationships Between Preschool Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Their Parents' Attitudes.	66

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PRESCHOOL AGED CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPTS AND THEIR PARENTS' ATTITUDES

INTRODUCTION

During the past several decades, interest in personality development among individuals has led to a number of theoretical and research studies focused upon delineating the nature of the self-concept. Various theoretical positions have emerged regarding what the self-concept is and how it develops.

Snygg and Combs (1949) refer to the self as a "phenomenal self" which develops as a product of a person's phenomenal field which the individual perceives as being characteristic of himself. The phenomenal field includes the totality of all experiences potentially available to the awareness of an individual at a given point in time. Like Snygg and Combs, Harry Stack Sullivan (Hall and Lindzey, 1970) views the self as a system of processes which are interpersonal in nature. This self-as-process focuses upon the psychological processes of perceiving, thinking, remembering and imagining which occur as a result of a person's interpersonal experiences. Unlike Sullivan, however, George Herbert Mead (Hall and Lindzey, 1970) views the self as an object, rather than a system of processes. This self-as-object includes a person's feelings, attitudes, perceptions and evaluations of himself as an object. Like Sullivan, Mead indicates that this self-as-object emerges as a result of a person's interpersonal experiences. By far, however, Carl Rogers' (1951) concept

of the self remains the most fully developed statement available at this time. To Rogers, the self, self-structure or concept of self is an organized configuration of perceptions which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as a person's perceptions of his characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence. Rogers indicated that this self gradually develops as a unique value structure as the individual interacts with the environment, which includes significant others. If these significant others create a warm, accepting environment by communicating to the individual unconditional positive regard, then the individual eventually develops a positive self-concept.

In the present study, of primary concern is the development of preschool aged children's self-concepts. Since the preschool child's social world is often limited to his immediate family, parents as significant others, play a major role in the development of his self-concept. It is understandable, therefore, that in studying the self-concepts of preschool aged children, the variable of parent attitudes becomes of paramount concern.

A review of literature indicated that no study was found relating preschool aged children's self-concepts to their parents'

attitudes. Only one such study was found with older aged children. Coopersmith (1967) in relating the self-esteem of fifth and sixth grade boys to their mothers' attitudes found significant relationships between various dimensions of mothers' attitudes and boys' self-esteem. Despite the sparcity of studies in this area, however, a variety of studies were found relating children's self-concepts to various aspects of their personalities (Coopersmith, 1959, 1967, 1968; Guardo, 1969; Horowitz, 1962; Lipsitt, 1958; Medinnus and Curtis, 1963; Omwake, 1954; Phillips, 1951, Sheerer, 1949; Wattenberg and Clifford, 1964; Williams and Cole, 1968), and various aspects of children's personalities to their parents' attitudes (Altman, 1958; Barwick and Arbucle, 1962; Crandall, et al., 1964; Drews and Teahan, 1957; Hoffman, 1961; Jenkins, 1968; Peterson, et al., 1959, 1961; Winder and Fau, 1962). On the basis of the findings of these studies then, it appears reasonable that a study regarding the relationship between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes be undertaken.

Purpose of this Study

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes.

Definition of Terms

1. Self-concept: as measured by the modified Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory (SCAMIN), operationally defined as responses of children to statements about their role as a learner in school.
2. Parental attitudes: as measured by the modified version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), operationally defined in terms of responses of parents to statements about child rearing related to the parental attitude dimensions of authoritarian-control, hostility-rejection and democratic.

Assumptions

1. The modified Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory (SCAMIN) is an adequate measure of self-concept among preschool aged children.
2. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) is an adequate measure of child rearing attitudes among parents of preschool aged children (Emmerich, 1969).

Hypotheses and Analyses

Hypothesis I: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's

self-concepts and their parents' authoritarian-control attitudes.

Hypothesis II: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' hostility-rejection attitudes.

Hypothesis III: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' democratic attitudes.

The Pearson product moment correlation method was used to test all hypotheses in this study. In addition, an exploratory analysis of the data was undertaken to study the relationship between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude discrepancies.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The scope and complexity of the literature related to the problem of this thesis suggested organization of this review into five sections. The material in these sections attempt to: look at various definitions of the self-concept; delineate the problems involved in measuring the self-concept; delineate the problems involved in measuring parent attitudes; summarize studies regarding the relationship between children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes and discuss a theoretical framework for this study.

Definitions of Self-Concept

Since the self-concept is one of the major variables in this study, it becomes important to examine the concept of self in light of selected contemporary theories of personality. Most current personality theories include within their theoretical positions a concept of the self. Generally, this theoretical concept has accounted for the subjective experience of individuals which facilitated and clarified the understanding of personality development, assisted in explaining the motivational and psychological processes that controlled behavior and described the self-feelings of individuals that accounted for personal identity.

Wylie (1961) suggests several reasons why more attention has been accorded to the self-concept in modern theories of

personality. In his later writings, Freud's increased attention on ego functioning added a degree of emphasis to the importance of the self-concept. Furthermore, psychologists working within clinical settings found it difficult to explain human behavior solely from a behavioristic standpoint, thus used the self-concept to provide a more complete description of human behavior.

A survey of the literature reveals varied definitions and descriptions of the self-concept. Snygg and Combs (1949) refer to the self as a "phenomenal self". The concept of self or the "phenomenal self" develops from the phenomenal field which includes the totality of experiences potentially available to the awareness of the individual at any given point in time. That part of the phenomenal field which the individual experiences as being part or characteristic of himself is the "phenomenal self". The development of the self is viewed as a product of the perceptual process. Reality is based on one's perception of the environment. Whether an experience proves to be enabling or disabling to an individual is largely determined by what one perceives. Perceptions viewed as facilitating will encourage enhanced feelings of the self, while negative feelings result from perceptions viewed as nonfacilitating.

Harry Stack Sullivan (Hall and Lindzey, 1970) held another view of the self. According to Sullivan, the self exists as a system of processes. Emphasis in this self-as-process definition

focuses upon such psychological processes as perceiving, remembering, thinking and imagining that are interpersonal in nature. The focal point is the interpersonal experience rather than the person. Personifications of the self develop as a result of interpersonal experiences. The individual develops a self with three personifications: "me", "good-me", and "not-me". The "good-me" personification results from interpersonal experiences that involve satisfaction, whereas the "bad-me" personification results from experiences that evoke anxiety. When positive experiences promote a sense of well-being, belonging and acceptance, the "good-me" represents the individual's positive self-concept or self-image. Experiences that are mainly negative or derogatory tend to promote a self-concept or self-image that is more negative in character.

George Herbert Mead's (Hall and Lindzey, 1970) self emerges as an object of awareness rather than a system of processes. The self-as-object definition refers to a person's feelings, attitudes, perceptions and evaluations of himself as an object. As other individuals in one's social environment respond to an individual, the self-as-object develops.

According to both Sullivan and Mead, (Hall and Lindzey, 1970) the development of the self is mainly viewed as a product of the social interaction process. Through interpersonal relations with others, a child comes to develop expectations and attitudes toward himself as a person. It is this pattern of

relationships with significant others that is largely responsible for an individual's development of positive or negative feelings about himself.

In Carl Rogers' theory of personality, the concept of self is one of the most central constructs. Rogers defines the self, self-structure and concept of self as

"an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence."
(Rogers, 1951, p. 136).

For Rogers, the self is gradually differentiated from the organism's total perceptual field and is a unique value structure. As a result of interaction with the environment, and specifically the influence of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed.

Though Rogers has been influenced by ideas expressed by Sullivan's interpersonal theory and phenomenology expressed by Snygg and Combs, his theory of personality remains the most fully developed statement of the self available at this time. Principal features of Rogers' theory, as it pertains to the development of the self-concept, include a warm, accepting environment provided by significant others. By giving unconditional positive regard

to the child, the child may eventually discover his "real self". This real self is one that is completely congruent with the experiencing organism. (Rogers, 1947, 1951, 1961).

From among the varied terminology which has been applied to the concept of self, this study shall consider the following to be representative of a general evaluative attitude toward the self: self-concept, self-acceptance, self-esteem, self-image, self and self-structure.

Measurement of Self-Concept

As there are various definitions of self-concept posited by personality theorists, there are various types of measurement devices which have been developed to study the self-concept. The most frequently used instruments for measuring self-referent concepts include scaling techniques such as adjective rating scales, questionnaires, the Q-sort and projective techniques such as sentence-completion tests, drawing tests and observation of children in free play situations.

Scaling techniques are a common source of measurement for assessing some aspect of the self-concept. According to this method of measurement, individuals are assigned numerical positions in order to provide for distinctions of degree with respect to the characteristic being measured. This rating procedure may determine distinctions of degree through self-ratings or ratings

by others. Generally, these techniques consist of adjective rating scales (Bills, Vance and McClean, 1951; Buss and Gerjuoy, 1957), questionnaires that form scales (Berger, 1952; Phillips, 1951) and modifications of scaling techniques as the Q-sort.

Adjective rating scales consist of adjectives relevant to various personality dimensions. A concept of self may be defined from the traits and values which an individual has accepted as definitions of himself. Basic problems arising from this type of measurement include representative sampling procedures and a clear understanding of the attributes being measured.

Questionnaires that form scales have also been widely used to study the self-concept. Responses of agreement or disagreement to statements representative of the dimension in question are elicited directly from an individual. These responses provide the basis for an assigned score. Major problems with respect to this type of measurement include selection of scale items and interpretation of response patterns.

One modification of the scaling technique which has frequently been used in the study of self-concept is the Q-sort. The rationale behind the Q-sort includes the assumption that specific self-perceptions and evaluations exist for individuals that can be ordered along a continuum from "unlike me" to "like me", the measure of which represents the self-concept. In conjunction with this first ordering of "like me" to "unlike me",

a second ordering of "like my ideal" to unlike my ideal", the measure of which represents the ideal self, is often used in self-concept studies. Statements relevant to the topic of study are sorted by an individual into specified number of piles. This sorting reflects the judgment of the individual according to a favorableness-unfavorableness dimension. When the same set of characteristics has been ordered according to both dimensions, it is possible to determine the discrepancy between the self-concept and ideal self-concept. This measure, called the self-ideal discrepancy, has frequently been used in research studies as an index of self-acceptance. Problems relevant to this type of measurement include the ability of an individual to conceptually define varied positions on the scale, as well as an individual's willingness to reveal his true feelings and attitudes.

In an effort to encourage free expression and spontaneity of responses, the projective methods of sentence-completion tests, drawing tests and observation of children in free play situations have been devised to measure self-concept. Although such indirect procedures encourage free responses on the part of the individual, there are problems inherent in this type of measurement. Those considered to be most significant are the interpretations given to a set of responses and eliciting specific rather than general content of an individual's attitude toward some object.

Though specific problems exist for each method of measurement, there are general problems that apply to the area of self-concept measurement. Reliability estimates are often not given and the problem of validity is frequently bypassed completely. There is often a lack of precise and clear construct-level definitions that hinders not only the testing of hypotheses, but also the comparison of similar investigations utilizing different instruments. (Crown and Stephens, 1961).

These general methodological problems become compounded when the self-concepts of children are studied. One of the most compelling problems researchers face in working with preschool children is that of language. The age level and developmental status of a child may affect any test result that is dependent upon verbal comprehension. Furthermore, the ability and desire a child has to attend to the test situation is another consideration. A child who becomes bored or disinterested may not persist at a task in the same manner as an adult. Measurement devices for children must be attractive and interesting enough to hold their attention.

Few reported studies have dealt with a preschool child's self-concept. The methodological difficulties as well as a lack of applicable tests have in many cases thwarted research efforts in this area. Wylie, in a comprehensive review of self-concept studies published between 1949 and 1958, summarizes the state of affairs in self-concept research.

"On the whole, we have found that there are enough positive trends to be tantalizing. On the other hand, there is a good deal of ambiguity in the results, considerable apparent contradiction among the findings of various studies, and a tendency for different methods to produce different results. In short, the total accumulation of substantive findings is disappointing, especially in proportion to the great amount of effort which obviously has been expended." (1961, p. 317).

The present study is basically concerned with a young child's perceptions of himself as reflected in a preschool setting. Because of this, a self-report method of measurement seemed desirable. Further interest in differentiating the relative position of individuals with respect to their self-concepts suggested the use of a scaling technique. Additional considerations of maturation, time and test availability prompted the selection of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory (Farrah, Milchus, and Reitz, 1968) as a useful source of self-concept measurement among preschool children in an academic setting.

Measurement of Parent Attitudes

Previously in discussing the various definitions of self-concept present in selected contemporary theories of personality, mention was made regarding the importance of significant others in understanding the development of children's positive self-concepts. Since preschool children's social worlds are often limited to their immediate families, parents, as significant others, play a major

role in the development of children's self-concepts. It is not unusual, therefore, that in studying preschool children's self-concepts, the variable of parent attitudes also becomes of paramount concern. Because of this, in the present study an attempt will be made to explore the relationships between preschool children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes.

A review of the literature regarding various approaches to studying parent attitudes indicated that measurement problems not only appear in studying children's self-concepts, but also in studying their parents' attitudes as well. In recent years there has been an increased interest in the study of parent attitudes and this has resulted in the development of various methods to study them. The most frequently used methods for studying parent attitudes have included observations, questionnaires and interviews. Of these, the interviews and questionnaires with their corresponding scales, have been the most popular. Though observational methods have been effective in understanding and describing parent behaviors, they are considered less effective for the purpose of studying parent attitudes, feelings and perceptions. Their major limitations include problems in obtaining information regarding the underlying feelings and attitudes of parents, accurate observations, objectivity of observers and well-defined concepts.

Interview procedures offer advantages as well as disadvantages in investigating parent attitudes. Due to great

flexibility in the interview situation, this technique is especially valuable in the study of such complex subject areas as parent attitudes. The adaptability of the interview procedure also makes it a valuable tool for sampling a wide educational segment of the population. Major difficulties with this type of measurement, however, center on problems of standardization and interpretation of results, as well as the time needed to administer the interviews to parents.

While the interview approach offers the greatest flexibility, the questionnaire offers time, economic and standardization advantages. Due to the written responses of subjects to prearranged questions, the questionnaire procedure can be administered more easily and quickly to a larger portion of the population. Basic problems relevant to this type of measurement include both the willingness of parents to report their true feelings and attitudes, as well as their ability to understand and interpret statements of the questionnaire.

When distinctions of degree in the study of parent attitudes are desired, attitude scaling techniques are often used. Though attitude scales employ various methods of construction, response and score interpretations, they remain the most common measurement approach of parent attitudes. Attitude scales attempt to measure varying degrees of positivity and negativity regarding the attitudinal referent. Subsequently, scores which are

obtained represent a favorable-unfavorable dimension toward the attitude object in question. (Green, 1954; Shaw and Wright, 1967) Perhaps the most significant problems encountered with respect to this type of measurement include validity factors, selection of scale items and interpretation of response patterns.

Like measurement problems encountered in the study of self-concept, similar general problems of measurement can be found in the study of parent attitudes. Reliability and validity factors remain major problems. In addition, the rationalization and deception of a parent's self-report may place a limit on the data obtained. Furthermore, most parent attitude measurement devices use the mother as the primary source of information.

In the present study an attempt will be made to study parent attitudes as they relate to a preschool child's self-concept. Recognizing the importance of parent attitudes as a complex concept as well as a subjective and personal phenomenon, a self-report questionnaire method of measurement will be used. Further interest in differentiating the relative position of parents with respect to selected attitude dimensions suggest the necessity of using a scaling technique. Additional considerations of test availability, separate mother-father forms and time factors prompted the selection of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (Emmerich, 1969) as a useful measurement device for studying parents' attitudes.

Relationships Between Children's Self-Concepts
and Their Parents' Attitudes

The primary purpose of this section of the review of literature focuses upon summarizing studies done exploring the relationships between children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes. An intensive search of the literature revealed no study relating preschool aged children's self-concepts to their parents' attitudes. One study was found, however, with older children. Furthermore, various studies were found relating children's self-concepts to various aspects of their personalities, and various aspects of children's personalities to their parents' attitudes. On the basis of the findings of these investigations, then, this section of the review of literature was divided into three parts: studies directly related to the area of this study; studies relating children's self-concepts to various aspects of their personalities; and studies relating various aspects of children's personalities to their parents' attitudes. A summary of studies in these areas will provide the justification for the present study.

Studies Directly Related

Coopersmith's (1967) study relating the variable of self-esteem among boys and maternal attitudes remains the only investigation found directly related to this study. Utilizing 85 pre-adolescent male fifth and sixth graders attending a school in

central Connecticut, self-esteem was measured by the Self-Esteem Inventory, while maternal attitudes were assessed through use of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument and maternal interviews.

Findings related to the dimension of maternal acceptance revealed that mothers of boys with high self-esteem were more loving, had closer relationships and were more interested in their boys than mothers of boys with low self-esteem. Also, mothers of boys with high self-esteem were found to be more available in times of distress and discomfort, more concerned with their boys' activities and actively participated in joint activities with them.

Results relative to the dimension of maternal control were also considered. Characteristics of maternal control involved a study of the number of limits, firmness, consistency and management procedures used by mothers in controlling their boys' behavior. Results indicated that boys with high self-esteem had mothers who exhibited more extensive limits in child rearing than mothers of boys with low self-esteem. Also a higher degree of firmness and consistency in child rearing was associated with boys of high self-esteem. Furthermore, management control procedures such as restraint, denial and isolation rather than corporal punishment and withdrawal of affection were found among mothers of boys with high self-esteem rather than mothers of boys with low self-esteem.

With respect to the dimension of democratic attitudes, mothers of boys with high self-esteem were more democratic than mothers of boys with low self-esteem. This means that mothers of boys with high self-esteem had a greater tolerance and respect for their boys' independent and contrary opinions. Management procedures such as discussion, reasoning and non-cohesive suggestion were generally employed to obtain their boys' cooperation. However, mothers of boys with low self-esteem employed management procedures that were dictatorial, rejecting and uncompromising.

Relationships Between Children's Self-Concepts and Aspects of Their Personalities

While only one study relating aspects of children's self-concepts to their parents' attitudes was found, a number of studies abound relating children's self-concepts to aspects of their personalities. Studies relating children's self-concepts to aspects of their personalities will be summarized according to the following categories: (1) acceptance of others, (2) anxiety, (3) social and peer interaction and (4) academic achievement.

Acceptance of Others

Various theoretical approaches to defining self-concept have indicated that individuals with positive self-concepts are more accepting of themselves than individuals with negative self-

concepts. (Combs, 1962; Kelly, 1962, Rogers, 1961; Snygg and Combs, 1949) If the dimension of self-acceptance can be used to denote a person's self-concept, then studies in the area of self-acceptance can provide us with information regarding the relationship between self-concept and acceptance of others.

Studying the recorded clinical population of ten adult subjects in client-centered therapy, Sheerer (1949) found a significant positive relationship between subjects expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others. Phillips (1951), from his non-clinical sample of 48 college psychology students, 77 college freshmen and sophomores and 86 high school students, found similar results. Using a multiple-choice questionnaire technique, positive correlations were obtained between self-acceptance and acceptance of others for all groups studied. Omwake's (1954) study with 113 college psychology students provided further data to substantiate this positive relationship. She employed Phillip's Questionnaire on Attitudes Toward the Self and Others (1951), the Bills, Vance and McLean's Index of Adjustment and Values (1951) and Berger's Scale for Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others (1952) in her research. Findings revealed that on all three measures, positive correlations were obtained between subjects' acceptance of themselves and acceptance of others. In a more recent study regarding maternal self-acceptance and child-acceptance by Medinnus and Curtis (1963), similar findings were

obtained. Investigating a group of 56 mothers with four year old children, results indicated that a significant positive relationship existed between maternal self-acceptance and child-acceptance. Bills, Vance and McLean's Index of Adjustment and Values and a Semantic Differential Scale of 20 bipolar adjectives were used to measure maternal self-acceptance. Child-acceptance was measured through use of the same set of bipolar adjectives found in the Semantic Differential Scale.

Anxiety

Regarding research relevant to the study of children's self-concepts and anxiety, a number of studies were found. In a series of studies by Coopersmith, designed to investigate the relationship between the self-concept and anxiety, (Coopersmith, 1959, 1967, 1968) findings revealed that children with high self-esteem were found to have a lower level of anxiety than children with low self-esteem. In the first of these studies the self-esteem of 102 fifth and sixth grade children was measured by the Self-Esteem Inventory and ratings from a Behavior Rating Form. The Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale was utilized as an index of anxiety. In the second study, similar results were obtained among male children of the same age. Finally, in the third study, using a different measurement of anxiety, previous findings were further supported. Boys' reports of distress feelings and mother's reports of boys' psychosomatic symptoms were used as measures of anxiety. Boys

with low self-esteem displayed more anxious behavior such as insomnia, fatigue, headaches and intestinal upset than boys with high self-esteem.

Other researchers have employed the discrepancy scores of individuals with respect to "what they think they are" and "what they would like to be" as an index of self-concept. Using this type of measurement, the greater the similarity between these two evaluations of the self, the more positive the self-concept. In doing this, Lipsitt (1958) and Horowitz (1962) using children of the fourth, fifth and sixth grades respectively, found significant negative correlations between children's positive self-concepts and anxiety. The Children's Self-Concept Scale served as an index of self-concept, while the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale measured children's anxiety. In a similar study with sixth grade children, Bruce (1958) obtained supportive results.

Social and Peer Interaction

In reference to studies regarding the relationship between children's self-concepts and social and peer interaction, several studies were found. In Coopersmith's 1959 study, 102 fifth and sixth graders were administered the Self-Esteem Inventory and a sociogram which used a peer-nomination technique. Children were asked to name three peers they would most like to have as friends in their class. Results indicated a significant positive correlation

between self-esteem and the number of peer nominations. Children with high self-esteem were nominated as peers more often than children with low self-esteem. Other studies by Williams and Cole (1968) and Guardo (1969) provided similar results. However, in these studies with sixth grade children the self-concept measures included the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and A Self-Concept Scale, respectively. When Horowitz (1962) employed a ranking procedure to assess the popularity of 111 fourth, fifth and sixth graders in Oregon, again similar results were obtained. Children who were ranked as most popular had more positive self-concepts than children ranked as less popular. In this study Lipsitt's Children's Self-Concept Scale served as an index of self-concept.

When an individual's sociometric status was assessed through observation of certain skills and abilities or possession of certain personality attributes related to social interaction, Coopersmith's studies of 1967 and 1968 with 85 preadolescent boys further substantiates previous findings. Using social involvement in group activities and discussion as an expression of an individual's social interaction, Coopersmith found significant differences in the social interactions of boys with varying levels of self-esteem. Boys with high self-esteem were found to be more "socially successful" (i.e. active participants in group discussion, eager and willing to express and support opinions, unwilling to side step disagreements and not particularly sensitive

to criticisms). In contrast, boys with low self-esteem were found to be more "socially unsuccessful" (i.e. quieter and more passive in group discussions, a listener rather than a participant, fearful of angering others and sensitive to criticisms). In addition, Coopersmith's 1967 study indicated that boys with low self-esteem not only possessed fewer friends, as measured by a classroom sociogram, but results of the Rosenberg Self-Image Questionnaire indicated that these children perceived themselves as having more difficulties in social situations. In all these studies the Self-Esteem Inventory was used as a measure of self-esteem.

Academic Achievement

With respect to the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement, few studies were found. In a study of 102 children in the fifth and sixth grades, Coopersmith (1959) administered the Iowa Achievement Test, the Self-Esteem Inventory and the Behavior Rating Form to investigate this relationship. Results revealed a significant positive correlation between school achievement and high self-esteem. In another study, Williams and Cole (1962) in investigating the relationship between self-concept, reading achievement, math achievement, and mental ability with 80 sixth graders from both rural and urban areas, found a significant positive correlation between self-concept and these achievement variables.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale provided a measure of self-esteem, while the California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity and the Reading and Arithmetic sections of the California Achievement Test Battery provided measures of ability and achievement, respectively. Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) with 128 kindergarten children found no relationship between the self-concept and mental ability. However, results revealed a positive correlation between self-concept and reading achievement. In this study, self-concept was measured through an Incomplete Sentences Test and tape recordings of children's remarks made while drawing a picture of their families. The Detroit Beginning First Grade Intellectual Test served as a measure of mental ability, while reading achievement was measured through a reading test series published by textbook companies.

Relationships Between Aspects of Children's Personalities and Their Parents' Attitudes

In reference to the relationship between aspects of children's personalities and their parents' attitudes, a number of studies were also found. Studies reviewed in this section will utilize the same previous categories of children's personalities to explore their relationships to parents' attitudes.

Acceptance of Others

Regarding research relating the personality characteristic

of acceptance of others among children and their parents' attitudes, only one study was found. Hoffman (1961) in studying 445 boys and girls in the third to sixth grades, representing various socioeconomic groups, found children's acceptance and liking of their peers to be positively related to parental affection. While children's acceptance of others was assessed through teacher ratings and classroom sociometrics, parental affection was measured through use of questionnaires and maternal interviews.

Anxiety

With respect to the personality characteristic of anxiety among children and their parents' attitudes, few studies were found. Altman (1958), in studying 51 eight to ten year old children from differing socioeconomic levels, found that children highest in emotional stability, frustration tolerance and freedom from conflict had mothers who were the least infantilizing toward their children, the most flexible in control procedures and the most accepting. The Rorschach Ink Blot Examination was used to measure anxiety in children, while maternal attitudes were measured through maternal interviews. In a study by Jenkins (1968) which examined the relationship between anxiety among 287 children, the majority of whom were under ten years of age, and maternal attitudes, a positive relationship was found between anxiety among children and

anxious, infantilizing and over-protective maternal attitudes. Anxiety behaviors included immaturity, chronic fear, shyness, over-conformity, submissiveness, frequent nightmares, sleep disturbances and difficulty of maternal separation. Maternal reports served as a measure of both anxiety among children and attitudes of mothers.

Social and Peer Interaction

With regard to studies relating the personality characteristic of social and peer interaction among children and their parents' attitudes, several studies were found. A study by Trapp and Kausler (1958) utilizing a sample of 16 nursery school children and their parents, revealed that children of parents with high and low levels of dominance (i.e. the degree of conformity of child to parental limits) avoided significantly more contacts with adults than children of parents with a moderate amount of dominance. The social behaviors of children were assessed through direct observation and parent attitudes were assessed by the Parent Attitude Survey. Another study by Peterson et al. (1959) using a sample of 60 children, six to twelve years of age, in which a clinic and nonclinic group were identified, found a high level of seclusiveness in clinic children to be significantly and positively related to their fathers' autocratic attitudes and lack of parental concern. In addition, both parents were less "well-adjusted", less sociable and experienced more disciplinary contention than parents

of nonclinic children. The social behaviors of children as well as parent attitudes were measured through parent interviews. With respect to a subsequent study by Peterson et al. (1961) using a sample of 77 kindergarten children from a clinic and nonclinic group, findings revealed that children from the nonclinic group who experienced significantly more social withdrawal, aloofness and inability to have fun had fathers who were strict, cold and aggressive. While children's social behaviors were assessed from a checklist completed by both parents and teachers, parent attitudes were assessed through parental interviews. Winder and Rau (1962) in studying 118 boys in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades, found high peer popularity of children positively related to low levels of parental aggression, frustration and punishment. While the Peer Nomination Inventory measured peer popularity, the Stanford Parent Attitude Questionnaire measured parent attitudes.

Academic Achievement

Finally, in studies relating children's academic achievement to their parents' attitudes, several studies were also found. In a study of 45 eighth grade students of differing levels of academic achievement, Barwick and Arbuckle (1962) found high achievement of both boys and girls significantly and positively related to parental acceptance. While parents of the high achieving girls were more accepting of their children than parents of children at lower

levels of achievement, fathers of the high achieving boys were more accepting of their children than fathers of children at lower levels of achievement. Academic achievement was measured on the basis of students' grade-point indices, while instruments used to measure parent's acceptance of their children included a Situation Questionnaire for Parent-Child Relationships, A Sentence Completion Test and the Thematic Apperception Test. When the relationship between academic achievement among 68 junior high students and the corresponding attitudes of their parents were examined, Drews and Teahan (1957) found a significant positive relationship between academic achievement among children and the restrictive and authoritative attitudes of mothers. While restrictive attitudes referred to parental limits set for the child, authoritative attitudes referred to parental punitiveness in response to the child's disobedience. In this study, the measure of academic achievement consisted of the subjects' grade-point average maintained over a period of two years, while maternal attitudes were assessed with the Parent Attitude Scale. In another study using a sample of 120 second, third and fourth graders, Crandall et al. (1964) found high academic proficiency of girls on reading and arithmetic tests positively associated with high achievement standards of their mothers. In contrast, girls who performed at lower achievement levels had mothers whose achievement standards were less demanding. The academic performance of children was measured with the California Achievement Test and parent attitudes

were assessed through parent interviews performed at the Fels Research Institute.

Summary

A review of literature regarding the relationships between children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes revealed only one study found directly related to this area. Studies abound, however, which reveal significant relationships between children's self-concepts and aspects of their personalities, as well as aspects of children's personalities and their parents' attitudes. On the basis of these findings then, it seems logical and important for one to explore the relationship between children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes. The present study will attempt to explore this relationship with a preschool population. While the modified Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory (SCAMIN) will be used as a measure of preschool children's self-concepts, the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) will be used to measure parents' attitudes.

Theoretical Framework

Although no theoretical position exists directly relating children's self-concepts to their parents' attitudes, Rogerian theory suggests that such a relationship may exist.

According to Rogerian theory, the concept of self consists of conscious perceptions and values of "I" or "me" as differentiated

from one's phenomenal field. This concept of self represents a subjective abstraction of the self in relation to the environment.

As a result of interaction with the environment and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the concept of self is formed. As development takes place, experiences are both differentiated and symbolized in an awareness of being or functioning. It is the individual's subjective experience of events that determines reality for an individual. From such experiences, an individual develops personal feelings of worth.

Rogers' views an accepting psychological climate as largely responsible for fostering and facilitating psychological growth and development and bringing about constructive personality changes. When an individual experiences warm, positive and acceptant attitudes from others, he appears more accepting of himself. While positive experiences enhance positive feelings of the self, negative experiences restrict such feelings. Implicit in Rogers' theory is a need for positive self-acceptance which is learned and developed through experiences with others. Within the context of the family unit, parents assume a major role in the socialization of their children. Consequently, since young children basically assess their worth or worthlessness in terms of their relationships with their parents, it appears important that in understanding a child's self-concept, his parents' attitudes become a major variable of investigation.

METHODS

Subjects

The subjects of the present study included 33 children and their parents associated with preschool programs sponsored by the Family Life Department at Oregon State University. Variables considered in selecting the children and their parents for this study included:

1. that the children ranged in ages from 3 years-5 months to 4 years-3 months at the time of data collection.
2. that the children had I.Q. scores of "average" or above as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn, 1965).
3. that the children came from families of the upper and middle socioeconomic classes as determined by Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index of Social Position.
4. that the children came from families where both parents were present.
5. that the children had no physical defects which might affect their performance in carrying out the tasks required of them in the present study.

Pertinent information regarding the children's age and sex, and the families' socioeconomic status was obtained from a

questionnaire filled out by parents upon enrollment of their children in one of the two preschool programs.

Description of the Children

A description of the sample of children used in this study according to sex, age and I.Q. is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Description of Children by Sex, Age and I.Q.

Subjects	N	Mean Age (Years/Months)	Mean I.Q.
Boys	18	3/9	110
Girls	15	3/8	109
Total	33	3/8	109

Age and Sex

The sample of 33 children included 18 boys and 15 girls, all ranging in ages from 3 years-5 months to 4 years-3 months. The mean ages for boys and girls were 3 years-9 months and 3 years-8 months, respectively.

I.Q.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn, 1965) was used to obtain the I.Q. scores of all children. This instrument provides an estimate of preschool aged children's verbal intelligence through measuring their receptive vocabularies. All children had I.Q. scores ranging from 90 to 129, with a mean I.Q. score of 109. The mean I.Q. scores for boys and girls were 110 and 109, respectively.

Socioeconomic Status

Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index of Social Position was used to determine the socioeconomic status of the families in the present study. In developing this index, Hollingshead assumed (1) that there was a class structure in our society; (2) that positions in this society could be determined by a few specific characteristics; and (3) that these characteristics could be represented numerically for statistical analysis. The two factors used by Hollingshead were occupation and education. Levels of occupation and education were given a scaled score ranging from one to seven, and were multiplied by factor weights of seven and four for occupation and education, respectively. The two products were then added and yielded a socioeconomic status score, ranging from a low of 11 to a high of 77. Socioeconomic status may be grouped according to five socioeconomic classes (Hollingshead, 1957, p. 10).

<u>Socioeconomic Classes</u>	<u>Range of Computed Scores</u>
I (Upper)	11-17
II	18-27
III	28-43
IV	44-60
V (Lower)	61-77

Following Hollingshead's index, the families in the present study were distributed among the socioeconomic class positions as summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Description of Families by
Socioeconomic Class

<u>Socioeconomic Class</u>	<u>N</u>
I (Upper)	20
II	8
III	5
IV	0
V (Lower)	0
Total	33

Instruments

Two instruments were used to collect the data for the present study. These included a modified version of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory and the Parental Attitude Research Instrument.

Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory (SCAMIN)

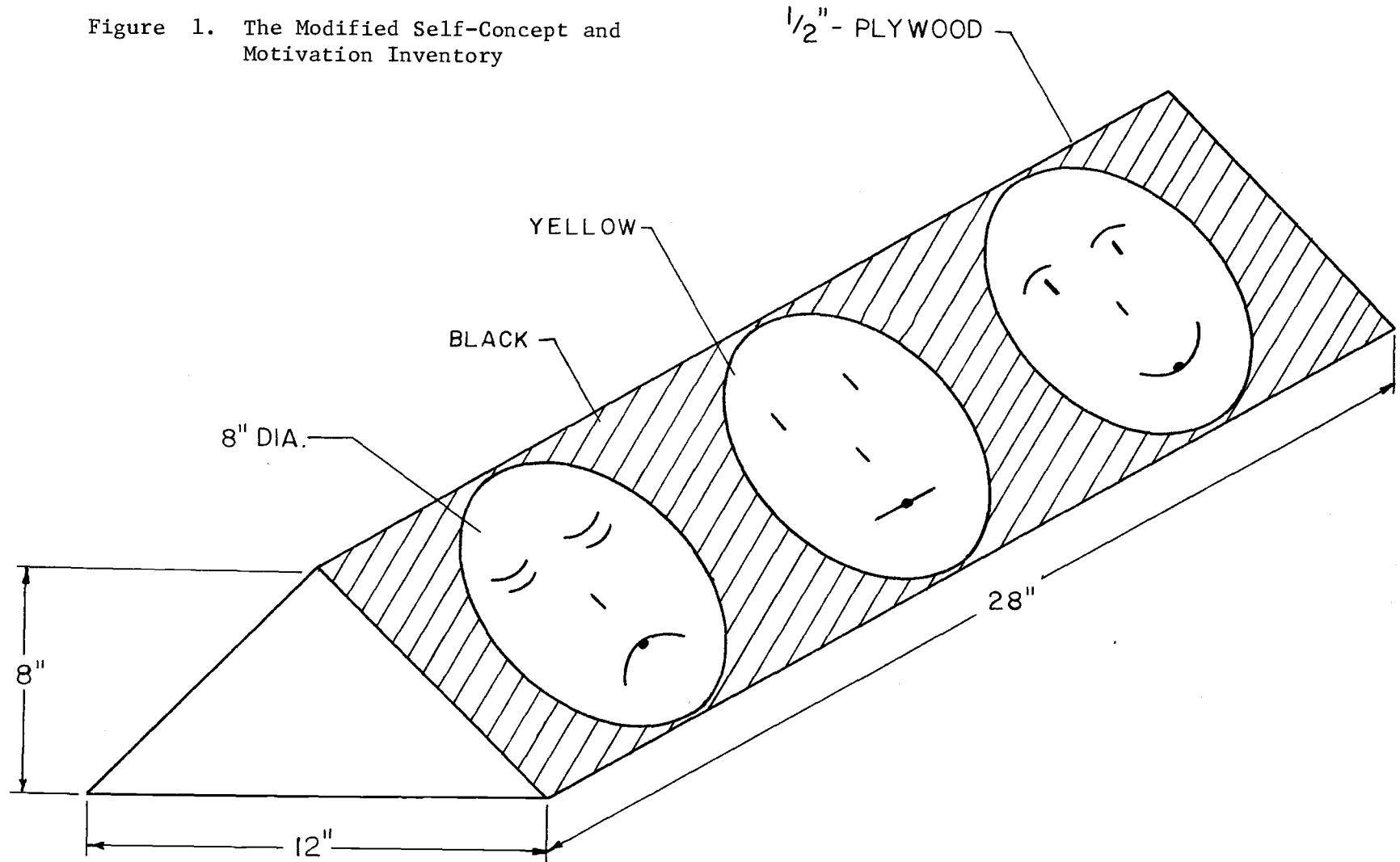
The Self Concept and Motivation Inventory (SCAMIN) is a measurement device developed by Farrah, Milchus and Reitz (1968) to assess children's self-concepts in an academic setting. Categories of the self-concept include both role expectations and self adequacy. While the category of role expectations includes the positive acceptance of aspirations and demands that children think significant others -- parents, siblings, peers and teachers -- expect of them, the category of self adequacy includes the positive regard with which children view their present and future probabilities of success.

The SCAMIN consists of a number of first-person statements which portray a situation or critical incident for the child. Children respond to the oral administration of the test by selecting faces from a three face response scale. The children's responses to questions are recorded as they darken the nose on the face of their choice. Scale responses ranged from sad to neutral to happy facial expressions; scored 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

In the present study, the SCAMIN was modified in order to make the instrument more applicable to three and four year olds. Findings from a sample of six preschool aged children indicated the need to consider the following changes in the SCAMIN. First, attention was focused on the sentence construction of the test.

In an effort to make the vocabulary of the test more meaningful for a preschool population, a few word additions and modifications were made. Also, the structure of the sentences were reversed to begin with the clause in order to stimulate the children's receptivity to the questions (See Appendix A and B). Secondly, the exploration of a physio-psychomotor response rather than a paper and pencil technique seemed to hold the greatest promise of increasing preschool aged children's interests and attention spans. Consequently, an instrument was designed to measure such a response. This instrument was fabricated from plywood with a sloped face to support the three face response scale. (See Figure 1) The faces of the scale were yellow with black facial markings that were superimposed on a black poster-board background. Response selections were indicated as the children dropped a bead through a one inch diameter hole in the mouth of the face of their choice. Scale responses ranged from sad to neutral to happy facial expressions; scored 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Thirdly, due to the preschool population, the modified test appeared to have its greatest use as an individually administered test rather than a group administered one. Modifications in the SCAMIN appeared to facilitate the responses of preschool aged children when an exploratory study was carried out at one of the local nursery schools, using a sample of seven girls and five boys

Figure 1. The Modified Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory



between the ages of 3 years and 4 years-3 months. Furthermore, a panel of child development experts, who had advanced degrees in the field, judged the modifications of the SCAMIN to be satisfactory, and not in violation of the major intent of the test as a measure of children's self-concepts in an academic setting.

Reliability

Using a sample of 102 six graders from a lower-middle class suburban Detroit school, a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of .82 was reported for the Later Elementary Form of the SCAMIN. The reliability coefficient for the Early Elementary Form and the Pre-School/Kindergarten Form was .79. Since no reliability measures were present for the modified SCAMIN used in this study, a reliability study was conducted to provide a measure of stability for this instrument. The test-retest method, with an interval of two weeks, was used to obtain a reliability coefficient. A random sample of half of the subjects in this study acted as subjects for the reliability study. A product moment reliability coefficient of .72 was obtained for the modified SCAMIN.

Validity

In developing the SCAMIN as a measure of children's self-concepts in an academic setting, Milchus, Farrah and Reitz (1968)

first identified several major theoretical constructs as descriptive of an individual's self-concept. These theoretical constructs include role expectations and self adequacy, based on Mead's concept of self and Erickson's and Thomas' concept of significant others. While the theoretical construct of role expectations represented the positive acceptance of aspirations and demands that children think significant others -- parents, siblings, peers and teachers -- expect of them, the theoretical construct of self adequacy represented the positive regard with which children view their present and future probabilities of success. Having identified these theoretical constructs, Milchus, Farrah, and Reitz then solicited from teachers hundreds of first-person statements related to these theoretical constructs that could be used to assess aspects of children's self-concepts. Following this task, a factorial analysis of these statements was conducted and only those representative of the theoretical constructs of self-concept, previously identified, were retained as an item in the SCAMIN.

Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI)

The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) is a measurement device that was originally developed by Schaefer and Bell (1958) to study mothers' attitudes toward child rearing and

the family. In the present study, a modified version of the PARI developed by Emmerich (1969) was used. Emmerich's modified version of the PARI was developed on the basis of the previous works of Zuckerman et al. (1958) in a study of mothers' attitudes toward child rearing and of Nichols (1962) in a study of fathers' attitudes toward child rearing.

Emmerich's modified version of the PARI (See Appendix C and D) consists of a large number of generalized third person statements about child rearing to which subjects are asked to respond in one of four ways.

A = Strongly agree

a = Mildly agree

d = Mildly disagree

D = Strongly disagree

Although different forms of the test are available for use with mothers and fathers, the forms are similar with respect to their scale contents and factorial structure. The three factors and their corresponding scales for the Mother's Form are as follows:

- 1) Authoritarian-Control
 - a) Fostering dependency
 - b) Seclusiveness of the mother

- c) Excluding outside influences
 - d) Suppression of aggression
 - e) Suppression of sexuality
- 2) Hostility-Rejection
- a) Marital conflict
 - b) Irritability
 - c) Rejection of the homemaking role
- 3) Democratic Attitudes
- a) Encouraging verbalization
 - b) Equalitarianism
 - c) Comradeship and sharing

For the Father's Form, the three factors and their scales are as follows:

- 1) Authoritarian-Control
- a) Fostering dependency
 - b) Devotion to the father role
 - c) Excluding outside influences
 - d) Suppression of aggression
 - e) Suppression of sexuality

- 2) Hostility-Rejection
 - a) Marital conflict
 - b) Rejection of interaction with the child
 - c) Rejection of family life

- 3) Democratic Attitudes
 - a) Encouraging verbalization
 - b) Equalitarianism
 - c) Comradeship and sharing

Emmerich (1969) reported that items of the PARI were stated so that a general tendency to agree irrespective of content would result in nonextreme total scores on each of the factors. For the Authoritarian-Control Factor, 13 items were stated so that agreement indicated the presence of the attribute and 12 items were stated so that agreement indicated an absence. Corresponding numbers of items were seven and eight for the Hostility-Rejection Factor and eight and seven for the Democratic Factor. In controlling for acquiescence-response sets in the PARI, all odd numbered statements were stated so agreement indicated the presence of that attribute, while the reverse was true for all even numbered statements. For odd numbered statements strong agreement of an item is given a score of +2, mild agreement +1, mild disagreement -1 and strong disagreement -2. For

even numbered items the signs are reversed. The final set of items found in the modified PARI contains a mixture of items taken from Schaefer and Bell (1958) and Zuckerman (1959), with seven items formulated by Emmerich (1969).

Reliability

From a sample of 100 unmarried student nurses, internal consistency reliability coefficients were computed with the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for 24 PARI scales developed by Schaefer and Bell (1957). The range of reliabilities was from .54 to .84. In addition, eight to ten item scales were tested on samples of 100 primiparae and multiparae to further evaluate internal consistency reliability. Internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged from .37 to .86 for the primiparae and from .43 to .83 for the multiparae. Finally, a set of 23 five-item scales (Form IV) was selected and tested for internal consistency reliability on new samples of 60 primiparae and multiparae. Except for the "rapport" scales which had a low variance, all but one of the internal consistency coefficients exceeded .50 for both the primiparae and multiparae group. (Schaefer and Bell, 1958)

Validity

As one means of evaluating the construct validity of the PARI, Zuckerman and Oltean (1959) correlated the PARI scales

with scales from the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS), the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), the F Scale of Authoritarianism, and a Test of Self Acceptance. The subjects used in this study included 60 female psychiatric patients, 24 mothers of college students and 88 unmarried student nurses. A significant positive correlation was found between the Authoritarian-Control Factor of the PARI and the F Scale of Authoritarianism in both the patients ($r = .51$) and the student nurses ($r = .61$) groups. When personality needs as measured by the EPPS were correlated with the Hostility-Rejection Factor of the PARI, several significant correlations were noted. For the mothers' group, these correlations consisted of the EPPS scales of achievement ($r = .48$), nurturance ($r = -.59$), aggression ($r = .41$) and affiliation ($r = -.67$). Positive correlations for the patients' group were also reported between the Hostility-Rejection Factor of the PARI and clinical scales composing the psychotic triad (pa, pt, sc) of the MMPI. Of this triad, all correlations for paranoia ($r = .33$), psychasthenia ($r = .35$), and schizophrenia ($r = .48$) were significant. Considering the nurses' group, the measure of Self Acceptance also correlated significantly and negatively ($r = -.37$) with the Hostility-Rejection Factor of the PARI.

The study of Freedheim and Reichenberg-Hackett (1959) used the PARI as a research instrument in discriminating attitudes toward children in various selected groups. The PARI was administered in a before-after design to the following groups: Group A included 16 highly trained professional members of a children's cerebral palsy rehabilitation staff; Group B represented 16 nurses' aides at the same hospital; Group C consisted of 48 college students taking a course in preschool child adjustment and Group D comprised the control groups of 47 college students from a history class. The PARI proved sensitive to differences between two groups varying in training, background and differing in overt behavior toward children. Significant differences were found between the staff group and nurses' aides on nine scales of the PARI. Furthermore, differences reflected in the student group taking a course in preschool child adjustment after pre-and post-test scores were compared, revealed significant shifts in nine PARI scales.

Zunich's (1966) study investigated the relation between parental attitudes as measured by the PARI and the actual behavior of 36 nursery school children as rated by observers in a child development lab school. Of 288 comparisons made between attitude subscales and child-behavior categories, nine were significant.

In 1969 Emmerich conducted an important study in which his revised version of the PARI was administered along with the Parental Role Questionnaire (PRQ) to 56 mothers and 47 fathers of children enrolled in the Purdue University Lab School. The PRQ was developed and conceived as a measurement device for differentiating parental role effectiveness on several different dimensions. Findings indicate that of the 54 correlations computed between the PRQ measures and the PARI factors, 21 were significant with correlations ranging from $-.44$ to $+.30$. Of particular interest was the tendency for the Authoritarian-Control Factor in the PARI to be associated with low scores on a variety of PRQ measures indicative of parental competence.

Procedures

Establishment of Rapport

The parents of all children enrolled in the preschool programs sponsored by the Family Life Department at Oregon State University agreed in advance to cooperate in research projects conducted through the department. Consequently, obtaining parental cooperation presented no major problems.

In order to facilitate administration of the SCAMIN to the children and increase the reliability of the results, a period of

two hours per day for one week was spent in establishing rapport with the children. Although the children were randomly selected for testing, they were not asked to participate if they were intensely involved in an activity.

When approaching a child for participation, the researcher said:

(Child's name), I brought a special game to school today for you to see. Would you like to play this game with me?

A few children indicated no desire to participate when first asked. To these children the researcher said:

That's fine if you don't feel like playing the game now.

Perhaps you'll feel like playing another time.

Only children who were willing to participate were used as subjects in the present study.

Administration of the SCAMIN to Children

A small room adjacent to the main classroom of the pre-school school was used for testing. A low table and two child-sized chairs were placed in the room and distracting items were removed or shielded from view. Only one subject and the researcher were present in the room during the testing period. The child was seated at the table facing the test materials which contained pictures of the three facial expressions, and the interviewer was

seated to the child's right holding the SCAMIN and a tally sheet on which the child's responses were recorded. While administering the test, the researcher attempted not to influence children's responses by overemphasizing a word, or by using a facial expression. Questions asked of the children were read and then repeated before moving on to further questions. An introduction preceded the actual administration of the test. This introduction is presented following:

We're going to play a game just like the big boys and girls play in school. It's called What Face Would You Wear? You know that boys and girls put on masks to look like other people. Sometimes clowns paint their faces to look happy or sad. And you change your face a few times every day. I want you to think of the faces that you feel like wearing when things happen to you. Look at the row of faces in front of you. Put your finger on each face. One of the faces has a big smile. Put your finger on the smiling face. (Researcher points to smiling face) Fine. But if you fell down hard on the sidewalk, you would wear a sad face. (Researcher points to sad face) Can you find the sad face? Put your finger on the sad face. Fine. The face in the middle isn't happy and it isn't sad. It's the face you would wear when you just don't know how you're feeling. This face is called the "I don't know face". (Researcher points to neutral face) Put your finger on the "I don't know face". Fine. To pick the face that you would wear, I want you to drop a pop bead through the mouth of one of the faces in front of you. Let's try it. What face would you wear, if you saw a dog? If you feel happy, you'll drop your bead through the mouth of the happy face. If you feel sad, you'll drop your bead through the mouth of the sad face. If you don't feel happy or if you don't feel sad -- you "just don't know", you'll drop your bead through the mouth of the "I don't know face". Whatever face you pick is all right. Fine.

The list of questions in the order of presentation may be found in Appendix B. Approximate testing time per child was about 15 minutes.

Administration of the PARI to Parents

The PARI was administered to parents on one of four evenings set aside for parent testing in a college classroom. Parents were requested to come together for testing. During testing, all parents were seated at tabled chairs positioned toward the front of the classroom. Mother and father forms of the PARI were passed out to the appropriate parent and parents were instructed to answer the PARI in a manner that reflected their own viewpoint toward their child. In order to avoid contamination of the data, parents were asked not to discuss their testing experience with other parents until all parents were tested. Approximate testing time was 20 minutes.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes. Thirty-three children, 18 boys and 15 girls, and their parents served as subjects for this study. All children were enrolled in one of two preschool programs sponsored by the Family Life Department at Oregon State University. Other variables considered in selecting the children and their parents for this study included the children's age, I.Q. and socioeconomic class of the family. The children in this study had a mean age of three years-eight months, and a mean I.Q. score of 109.

A modified version of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory, designed for this study, was used to assess children's self-concepts, while a modified version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument was used to measure parental attitudes.

Tests of Hypotheses

Three null hypotheses were generated for this study. The Pearson product moment correlation method was used to test all hypotheses. The .10 level of significance was chosen as the criterion for statistical significance.

The results of the tests of hypotheses are presented individually. In addition, an exploratory study was undertaken

regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences.

Hypothesis I

Hypothesis I: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' authoritarian-control attitudes.

Table 3 presents a summary of the product moment correlation coefficients obtained expressing the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes on the authoritarian-control factor and its subscales. With respect to findings related to boys and their fathers, results revealed that the authoritarian-control factor was positively and significantly related to boys' self concepts ($r = .45$, $p < .10$). Furthermore, two subscales in this factor, fostering dependency ($r = .55$, $p < .05$) and suppression of sexuality ($r = .48$, $p < .05$) were also found to be positively and significantly related to boys' self-concepts. In reference to findings related to boys and their mothers, two subscales in this factor were found to be negatively and significantly related to boys' self-concepts. These subscales included fostering dependency

Table 3. Product Moment Correlation Coefficients
Expressing the Relationships Between Pre-
School Aged Children's Self-Concepts and
Authoritarian-Control Parental Attitudes.

Parental Attitudes	Self-Concept	
	Boys (n=18)	Girls (n=15)
Fathers' Attitudes		
Authoritarian-Control	.45*	.00
Fostering Dependency	.55**	-.06
Devotion to Father Role	-.26	.12
Excluding Outside Influences	.24	.15
Suppression of Aggression	-.06	-.20
Suppression of Sexuality	.48**	-.02
Mothers' Attitudes		
Authoritarian-Control	-.23	-.24
Fostering Dependency	-.42*	-.07
Seclusiveness of Mother	-.41*	-.32
Excluding Outside Influences	.16	.11
Suppression of Aggression	-.19	.14
Suppression of Sexuality	.17	-.45*

* Significant at the .10 level

** Significant at the .05 level

($r = -.42$, $p < .10$) and seclusiveness of the mother ($r = -.41$, $p < .10$). No other significant relationships were found between boys' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' attitudes in this parental attitude dimension.

Regarding findings related to girls and their fathers, results revealed no significant relationships between girls' self-concepts and their fathers' attitudes on the authoritarian-control factor and its subscales. However, with respect to findings related to girls and their mothers, the authoritarian-control subscale, suppression of sexuality ($r = -.45$, $p < .10$) was negatively and significantly related to girls' self-concepts. No other significant relationships were found between girls' self-concepts and their mothers' attitudes in this parental attitude dimension.

Hypothesis II

Hypothesis II: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' hostility-rejection attitudes.

Table 4 presents a summary of the product moment correlation coefficients obtained expressing the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and parents' attitudes

Table 4. Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationships Between Pre-school Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Hostility-Rejection Parental Attitudes.

Parental Attitudes	Self-Concepts	
	Boys (n=18)	Girls (n=15)
Fathers' Attitudes		
Hostility-Rejection	-.13	-.11
Marital Conflict	-.15	.09
Rejection of Interaction With Child	.08	-.27
Rejection of Family Life	-.22	-.00
Mothers' Attitudes		
Hostility-Rejection	.23	-.06
Marital Conflict	-.11	.23
Irritability	.42*	.08
Rejection of Homemaking Role	.14	-.37

* Significant at the .10 level

on the hostility-rejection factor and its subscales. Regarding findings related to boys and their fathers, results revealed no significant relationships between boys' self-concepts and their fathers' attitudes on the hostility-rejection factor and its subscales. However, with respect to findings related to boys and their mothers, the hostility-rejection subscale of irritability ($r = .42, p < .10$) was positively and significantly related to boys' self-concepts. No other significant relationships were found between boys' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' attitudes in this parental attitude dimension.

In reference to findings related to girls, and their fathers and mothers, results revealed no significant relationships between girls' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' attitudes on the hostility-rejection factor and its subscales.

Hypothesis III

Hypothesis III: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' democratic attitudes.

Table 5 presents a summary of the product moment correlation coefficients obtained expressing the relationships between

Table 5. Product Moment Correlation Coefficients
Expression the Relationship Between Pre-
school Aged Children's Self-Concepts and
Democratic Parental Attitudes.¹

Parental Attitudes	Self-Concept	
	Boys (n=18)	Girls (n=15)
Fathers' Attitudes		
Democratic Factor	.24	.21
Encouraging Verbalization	.02	.27
Equalitarianism	.31	.18
Comradeship and sharing	.10	.05
Mothers' Attitudes		
Democratic Factor	.23	-.06
Encouraging Verbalization	.30	-.14
Equalitarianism	.11	.29
Comradeship and Sharing	.18	-.35

¹ No correlation coefficients are significant.

preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes on the democratic factor and its subscales. Regarding findings related to boys, and their fathers and mothers, results revealed no significant relationships between boys' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' attitudes on the democratic factor and its subscales. In addition, no significant relationships were found between girls' self-concepts and their fathers' and mothers' attitudes on this parental attitude dimension.

Exploratory Analysis

In attempting to study the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences an exploratory analysis of the data was undertaken. Table 6 presents the product moment correlation coefficients obtained expressing the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences relative to the parental attitude dimensions of authoritarian-control, hostility-rejection and democratic.

With respect to findings related to father-mother attitude differences on the authoritarian-control parental attitude dimension, results revealed that the differences between father-mother attitudes on the authoritarian-control factor were positively and significantly related to boys' self-concepts ($r =$

Table 6. Product Moment Correlation Coefficients
Expressing the Relationships Between Pre-
school Aged Children's Self-Concepts and
Father-Mother Attitude Discrepancies.

Father-Mother Attitude Discrepancies	Self-Concept	
	Boys(n=18)	Girls(n=15)
Authoritarian-Control	.52***	.15
Fostering Dependency	.66***	.01
Devotion to Father Role/ Seclusion of Mother	.50***	.32*
Excluding Outside Influences	.10	.01
Suppression of Aggression	.10	-.21
Suppression of Sexuality	.20	.34**
Hostility-Rejection	-.24	-.06
Marital Conflict	-.05	-.07
Rejection of Interaction With Child/Irritability	-.23	-.27
Rejection of Family Life/ Homemaking Role	-.28	.26
Democratic Factor	.03	.20
Encouraging Verbalization	-.25	.32*
Equalitarianism	.18	-.16
Comradeship and Sharing	-.09	.31*

* Significant at the .10 level
** Significant at the .05 level
*** Significant at the .01 level

.52, $p < .01$). Furthermore, two subscales in this factor, fostering dependency ($r = .66$, $p < .01$) and devotion to the father role/seclusion of the mother ($r = .50$, $p < .01$) were also found to be positively and significantly related to boys' self-concepts. In reference to findings related to girls, results revealed that the differences between father-mother attitudes on the authoritarian-control subscales of devotion to the father role/seclusion of the mother ($r = .32$, $p < .10$) and suppression of sexuality ($r = .36$, $p < .05$) were positively and significantly related to girls' self-concepts. No other significant relationships between children's self-concepts and father-mother attitude discrepancies in this parental attitude dimension were found.

Regarding findings related to father-mother attitude differences on the hostility-rejection parental attitude dimension, results revealed no significant relationships between father-mother attitude discrepancies and boys' and girls' self-concepts.

In reference to findings related to father-mother attitude differences on the democratic parental attitude dimension, while results revealed no significant relationships between father-mother attitude differences and boys' self-concepts, girls' self-concepts were found to be significantly and positively related to father-mother attitude differences on two

democratic subscales. These subscales included encouraging verbalization ($r = .32, p < .10$) and comradeship and sharing ($r = .31, p < .10$). No other significant relationships were found between girls' self-concepts and father-mother attitude differences on the democratic parental attitude dimension.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Summary

During the past several decades a number of theoretical and research studies on the development of self-concepts among preschool aged children have emerged. Both theoretical and research studies in this area have suggested that significant others play a major role in influencing the development of children's self-concepts. Since preschool children's social worlds are often limited to their immediate families, parents as significant others, assume a major role in the development of their self-concepts.

Although no theoretical position exists directly relating children's self-concepts to their parents' attitudes, Rogerian theory provides a framework for understanding such a relationship. According to Rogers, an individual's self-concept is enhanced if significant others in his life are warm, positive and accepting of him. Such positive experiences with significant others facilitate positive feelings of the self, while negative experiences restrict them.

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes. The subjects of the present study

included 33 children, 18 boys and 15 girls, and their parents associated with two preschool programs sponsored by the Family Life Department at Oregon State University. Variables considered in the selection of children and their parents for this study included the children's sex, age, I.Q., and the socioeconomic class of the family. The mean age of children in this study was three years-eight months, and their mean I.Q. score was 109. The families from which the children came were representative of the upper and middle socioeconomic classes as determined by Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position. The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was used to assess the children's I.Q. scores.

While a modified version of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory, designed for this study, was used to assess children's self-concepts, a modified version of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument was used to measure parental attitudes.

With respect to the variables of sex of child and sex of parent, the following null hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' authoritarian-control attitudes.

Hypothesis II: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' hostility-rejection attitudes.

Hypothesis III: There will be no significant relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' democratic attitudes.

The Pearson product moment correlation method was used to test all hypotheses. The probability level of .10 was used as the significance level. In addition, an exploratory study regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences was undertaken.

Discussion of Findings

A discussion of the findings of this study regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes are presented following. Table 7 summarizes the significant results obtained in this study. The parental attitude dimensions of the PARI -- authoritarian-control, hostility-rejection, and democratic -- will be used as the major

Table 7. Summary of the Significant Correlation Coefficients Expressing the Relationship Between Preschool Aged Children's Self-Concepts and Their Parents' Attitudes.

Parental Attitudes	Self-Concept	
	Boys (n=18)	Girls (n=15)
Fathers' Attitudes		
Authoritarian-Control	.45*	
Fostering Dependency	.55*	
Devotion to Father Role		
Excluding Outside Influences		
Suppression of Aggression		
Suppression of Sexuality	.48**	
Hostility-Rejection		
Marital Conflict		
Rejection of Interaction with Child		
Rejection of Family Life		
Democratic Attitudes		
Encouraging Verbalization		
Equalitarianism		
Comradeship and Sharing		
Mothers' Attitudes		
Authoritarian-Control		
Fostering Dependency	-.42*	
Seclusiveness of Mother	-.41*	
Excluding Outside Influences		
Suppression of Aggression		
Suppression of Sexuality		-.45*
Hostility-Rejection		
Marital Conflict		
Irritability	.42*	
Rejection of Homemaking Role		
Democratic Attitudes		
Encouraging Verbalization		
Equalitarianism		
Comradeship and Sharing		

* Significant at the .10 level

** Significant at the .05 level

headings under which these findings will be discussed. Whenever possible, all findings will be related to both theoretical and previous research literature available in the field. In addition, a brief discussion of the results obtained regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences will be undertaken.

Authoritarian-Control Parental Attitudes

In reference to boys, results revealed that while boys' self-concepts were significantly and positively related to their fathers' attitudes on the authoritarian-control factor and two subscales of this factor, fostering dependency and suppression of sexuality, boys' self-concepts were significantly and negatively related to their mothers' attitudes on the authoritarian-control subscales of fostering dependency and seclusiveness of the mother.

No research studies were found relating boys' self-concepts to their fathers' authoritarian-control attitudes. However, on the basis of Rogerian theory, if such authoritarian-control attitudes can be taken as a measure of parental punitiveness, restrictiveness and suppressiveness, then the findings of this study related to boys and their fathers appear to contradict the theoretical notions of Rogers. On the basis of Rogerian theory, we would have expected that boys' self-concepts would be negatively related to their fathers' authoritarian-control attitudes.

Caution must be taken, however, in interpreting the authoritarian-control dimension of the PARI as primarily a measure of parental punitiveness, restrictiveness and suppressiveness. In fact, a study of the items included in this parental attitude dimension indicated that in this dimension, no distinction was made between what Baumrind (1965, 1966, 1970) called "authoritative parental control" and "authoritarian parental control". According to Baumrind, parents who show authoritative parental control over their children are usually firm, warm, demanding and understanding of their children, while parents who show authoritarian parental control over their children are usually firm, less warm, punitive and lacking in verbal communication with their children. Furthermore, Baumrind (1967) and Baumrind and Black (1967) found that there was a positive relationship between parents who show authoritative parental control over their children and their children's social behaviors, such as assertiveness, self-reliance, affiliativeness and self-control.

If we can assume that the authoritarian-control parental dimension of the PARI does in part measure the firmness of the authoritative parental control dimension of Baumrind, and that the social behaviors of assertiveness, self-reliance, affiliativeness and self control are, on the basis of our review of literature, characteristics of a child with a positive self-concept, then the findings of this study regarding boys' self-concepts and their fathers' authoritarian-control attitudes support the theoretical notions of Baumrind.

Regarding findings related to the relationship between boys' self-concepts and their mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes, results revealed that boys' self-concepts were negatively related to two subscales of their mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes, fostering dependency and seclusiveness of the mother. If we assume that the authoritarian-control parental attitude dimension of the PARI measures parental punitiveness, restrictiveness and suppressiveness, such findings would be expected on the basis of Rogerian theory. However, if we assume that the authoritarian-control parental dimension of the PARI measures the firmness of the authoritative parental control dimension of Baumrind, then the findings of the present study contradict those that would be expected on the basis of Baumrind's theoretical notions. On the basis of Baumrind's theoretical notions, we would have expected mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes to be positively related to boys' self-concepts.

Only one study was found directly relating boys' self-concepts to their mothers' attitudes. Coopersmith (1967) in studying a sample of 85 preadolescent boys, found that boys who had high self-esteem, had mothers who were more firm and consistent in controlling their children's behavior than boys with low self-esteem. If Coopersmith's dimension of parental firmness and the authoritarian-control parental attitude dimension

of the PARI assesses the variables of parental punitiveness, restrictiveness and suppressiveness; then Coopersmith's findings contradict the findings of the present study, as well as those that would be expected on the basis of Rogerian theory. However, Coopersmith defined his dimension of parental firmness in the same manner that Baumrind did. On this basis then, Baumrind would have agreed with Coopersmith's findings that boys' self-concepts were positively related to parental firmness and consistency in controlling their children's behavior.

Regarding findings related to girls, results revealed that there were no significant relationships between girls' self-concepts and their fathers' authoritarian-control attitudes. Furthermore, only one of the subscales of the mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes was found to be significantly related to girls' self-concepts. Mothers' attitudes on the authoritarian-control subscale of suppression of sexuality was significantly and negatively related to girls' self-concepts.

No previous research studies were found directly related to the findings of this study. However, if fathers' and mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes in the PARI can be assumed to assess the variables of parental punitiveness, restrictiveness and suppressiveness, then on the basis of Rogerian theory, we would have expected a negative relationship to exist between

fathers' and mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes, and girls' self-concepts. However, as previously indicated mothers' attitudes on only one authoritarian-control subscale, suppression of sexuality, was found to be significantly and negatively related to girls' self-concepts.

If the authoritarian-control parental attitude dimension of the PARI assesses the firmness of the authoritative parental control dimension of Baumrind, however, we would have expected both fathers' and mothers' authoritarian-control attitudes to be positively related to girls' self-concepts. In this study, such results were not obtained.

Hostility-Rejection Parental Attitudes

Findings regarding the relationship between fathers' hostility-rejection attitudes, and boys' and girls' self-concepts, revealed no significant relationships between them. Furthermore, there were no significant relationships between mothers' hostility-rejection attitudes, and boys' and girls' self-concepts, except for one significant positive relationship between the subscale, irritability and boys' self-concepts.

No previous research investigations were found directly related to the findings of this study. However, if we can assume that the hostility-rejection parental attitude dimension of the

PARI measures aspects of the authoritarian parental control dimension (i.e. parents who are firm, less warm, punitive and lacking in verbal communication with their children) described by Baumrind, then results of the present study would appear contrary to the theoretical notions of both Rogers and Baumrind. On the basis of Rogers' and Baumrind's theoretical notions, we would have expected parents' hostility-rejection attitudes to be negatively related to their children's self-concepts. The finding of a significant positive relationship between boys' self-concepts and their mothers' hostility-rejection attitude of irritability, further adds to this contradiction.

Democratic Parental Attitudes

In reference to findings regarding the relationship between parents' (fathers' and mothers') democratic attitudes and their children's (boys' and girls') self-concepts, results revealed no significant relationships between them. This finding is contrary to what we would have expected on the basis of both theoretical and previous research literature. On the basis of both Roger's and Baumrind's theoretical notions, if we can assume that the democratic parental attitude dimension of the PARI assesses Rogers' concept of warmth among significant others, and Baumrind's warm and understanding authoritative parents,

then we would expect parents' democratic attitudes to be positively related to children's self-concepts. In the present study, such results were not obtained. In a previous study with pre-adolescent boys, however, Coopersmith (1967) provided data which appeared to support both Roger's and Baumrind's theoretical notions. In Coopersmith's study it was found that boys with high self-esteem had mothers who were closer in their relationships with their children, were more loving and democratic (i.e. tolerant and respecting of their children's independent behaviors and contrary opinions) than boys with low self-esteem.

Exploratory Analysis

With respect to findings regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences, a number of interesting results were obtained. There were significant positive relationships between boys' self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences on the authoritarian-control factor and two authoritarian-control subscales, fostering dependency and devotion to the father role/seclusion of the mother. Furthermore, there were significant positive relationships between girls' self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences on two subscales of the authoritarian-control factor, devotion to the

father role/seclusion of the mother and suppression of sexuality. In addition, there were significant positive relationships between girls' self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences on two democratic factor subscales, encouraging verbalization, and comradeship and sharing.

The general implications of these findings are clear. Future studies regarding the relationship between preschool aged children's self-concepts and parental attitudes can no longer overlook father-mother attitude differences in their investigations. Furthermore, a brief study of the data obtained from our exploratory analysis indicates that the sex of the child must be considered in understanding such a relationship. Studies of this kind can provide us with important information on parent-child relationships that seriously considers the interaction between both parents that have often been overlooked in research and parent education programs.

Summary

A discussion of the findings obtained regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes indicated that most of the significant findings that were obtained occurred in relation to the authoritarian-control parental attitude dimension of the PARI.

Here the variables of sex of child and sex of parent appeared to be important in explaining such a relationship. Discussion of these findings included relating them to both theoretical and previous research literature in the field. No one theoretical position could be used to explain the data. Depending upon the definition one used in describing the parental attitude dimensions of the PARI both Roger's and Baumrind's theoretical notions of parent-child relationships appeared useful in some cases, while not in others. Only one previous research study limited to boys' self-concepts and their parents' attitudes could be used to interpret the data.

A summary of the exploratory analysis regarding the relationships between preschool aged children's self-concepts and their father-mother attitude differences revealed interesting results. Findings related to the authoritarian-control and democratic parental attitude dimensions of the PARI appeared significant and suggested continued research in this area. Furthermore, the variable of sex of child appeared significant in delineating this relationship.

Limitations of the Study

Despite the fact that consideration was given to overcome a variety of limitations in this study, a number of other problems were encountered which may have influenced the results obtained. These limitations are discussed following under the headings of the

Sample, the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory, the Parental Attitude Research Instrument and Control of Variables.

Sample

Major limitations pertaining to the sample of this study included: 1) restriction of the sample to middle class families, 2) restriction of the sample to children from university-oriented families, and 3) the sample size. Limitations posed by the sampling of children and parents from middle class, university-oriented families prevent generalization of the results obtained to a larger, more varied population. Furthermore, although sex differences were investigated in this study, caution must be taken in interpreting these results, due to the relatively small size of these groups.

Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory

Several limitations were present regarding the use of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory to assess preschool aged children's self-concepts. Collier (1971) in a recent article on the assessment of self-concept in early childhood education stressed the difficulty of measuring such a multi-dimensional concept. Although Crowne and Stephens (1961) and Coopersmith (1967) suggested the desirability of demonstrating the comparability of findings on children's self-concepts through use of varying measurement devices, this task has been extremely difficult due to the large differences in content

areas and breadth of coverage represented in each self-concept measure. Under such circumstances, the comparability of scores obtained on children's self-concepts using various measurement devices become questionable.

Furthermore, the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory suffers from a lack of standardization studies. While such studies are presently being conducted at the Northwest Regional Laboratory in Portland, Oregon, no norms have yet been published for the test. Because of this, results obtained in this study must be interpreted with caution. The absence of norms make it difficult for the researcher to ascertain the value of a child's self-concept score on the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory.

In addition, the presence of a neutral category in the scale of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory poses problems. Questions can be raised regarding the degree to which children understand the intent of this category. Children may have responded favorably to this category as a matter of convenience, thus avoiding careful consideration of items in the test. If this is the case, then such responses definitely make the scores of children on this test difficult to interpret.

Finally, despite the fact that careful considerations were given to the modifications of the Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory for use with preschool aged children, these modifications may have produced spurious results.

Parental Attitude Research Instrument

Aside from problems in reliability and validity previously discussed, other major limitations were encountered with respect to the Parental Attitude Research Instrument. In administering the test to parents, questions were raised concerning the difficulty of interpreting the items in the test. In addition, while parents were allowed to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each item in the test, no category was present for parents to respond to an item when they felt that such an item was irrelevant to their child rearing attitudes. While all parents in this study answered the items in the test as requested, after completing the test, the opportunity was given for parents to make suggestions for further improvement of test items.

Control of Variables

Despite the fact that a number of variables were controlled for in this study, other pertinent variables were left uncontrolled. Some of these uncontrolled variables included: (1) the sibling status and ordinal position of the children in this study, (2) the personality characteristics of teachers in the preschool groups from which the children came, and (3) the differences in curriculum experiences of the children in the preschool groups. All of these uncontrolled variables posed serious limitations in interpreting the results obtained.

Suggestions for Future Research

Several suggestions for future research emerge as a result of this study. In future studies dealing with the relationships between children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes, results obtained suggested the utilization of a larger sample to investigate such a relationship. In this manner a clearer delineation of the differential relationships of sex of parent and sex of child might be possible. Furthermore, aside from controlling for the variables of the sex, age, and IQ of the child, and the socio-economic status of the family, other variables such as differences in age levels, sibling status and ordinal position characteristics of the children could be analyzed. Still further, an analysis of the teacher and curriculum variables of the different preschool programs from which the children came may provide additional pertinent information.

In reference to a study of children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes, a consideration of a multi-assessment technique would seem worthwhile. Utilization of a variety of different measurement techniques such as observations, interviews and questionnaires might further illuminate the relationships between children's self-concepts and their parents' attitudes.

Finally, results obtained in this study regarding the relationships between father-mother attitude differences and children's

self-concepts strongly suggest that further investigations of this nature be conducted. To date the present exploratory study was the only one found in this area.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Altman, C. 1958. Relationships between maternal attitudes and child personality structure. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 28: 160-169.
- Barwick, J. and D. Arbuckle. 1962. A study of the relationship between parental acceptance and the academic achievement of adolescents. *Journal of Educational Research* 56: 148-151.
- Baumrind, D. 1965. Parental control and parental love. *Children* 12: 230-234.
- _____. 1966. Effects of authoritative parental control on child behavior. *Child Development* 37: 887-907.
- _____. 1967. Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior. *Genetic Psychology Monography* 75: 43-88.
- _____. 1970. Socialization and instrumental competence in young children. *Young Children* 26: 104-119.
- Baumrind, D. and A. E. Black. 1967. Socialization practices associated with dimensions of competence in preschool boys and girls. *Child Development* 38: 291-327.
- Berger, E. M. 1952. The relation between expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 47: 778-782.
- Bills, R. E., E. L. Vance, and O. S. McLean. 1951. An index of adjustment and values. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 15: 257-261.
- Bruce, P. 1958. Relationship of self-acceptance to other variables with sixth grade children oriented in self-understanding. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 49: 229-238.
- Buss, A. H. and H. Gerjuoy. 1957. The scaling of terms used to describe personality. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 21: 361-369.
- Coller, A. R. 1971. The assessment of self-concept in early childhood education. Urbana, Illinois: ERIC/ECE. 79p.
- Combs, A. W. 1962a. A perceptual view of the adequate personality. In: *Perceiving, behaving, becoming: A new focus for education*, ed. by A. W. Combs, Washington, D.C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. 256 p.

- Coopersmith, S. 1959. A method of determining types of self-esteem. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 59: 87-94. X
- _____. 1967. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco, Freeman and Co. 283 p. X
- _____. 1968. Studies in self-esteem. *Scientific American* 2: 96-104. X
- Crandall, V., R. Dewey, W. Katkovsky, and A. Preston. 1964. Parents' attitudes and behaviors and grade school children's academic achievements. *Journal of Genetic Psychology* 104: 53-66.
- Crowne, D. and M. Stephens. 1961. Self-acceptance and self-evaluative behavior: a critique of methodology. *Psychological Bulletin* 58: 104-121.
- Crowne, D. P., M. W. Stephens, and R. Kelly. 1961. The validity and equivalence of tests of self-acceptance. *Journal of Psychology* 51: 101-112.
- Drews, E. M. and J. E. Teahan. 1957. Parental attitudes and academic achievement. *Journal of Clinical Psychology* 13: 328-332.
- Dunn, L. 1965. Expanded manual. The peabody picture vocabulary test. Minneapolis, Minnesota, American Guidance Service. 51 p.
- Emmerich, W. 1961. The parental role: a functional-cognitive approach. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development* 34(8): 1-46. X
- Farrah, G. A., N. J. Milchus, and W. Reitz. 1968. Manual, the self-concept and motivation inventory. Dearborn Heights, Michigan, Evaluation Services for Education. 5 p.
- Freedheim, D. K. and W. Reichenberg-Hackett. 1959. An experimental investigation of parent child attitudes with the PARI scales. *Child Development* 30: 353-361. X
- Green, B. F. 1954. Attitude measurements. In: *Handbook of social psychology*, ed. by G. Lindzey, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Addison-Wesley. 335-369.
- Guardo, C. J. 1969. Sociometric status and self-concept in sixth graders. *Journal of Educational Research* 62: 320-322.
- Hall, C. S. and G. Lindzey. 1970. *Theories of personality*. New York, Wiley. 622 p.

- Hoffman, L. W. 1961. The father's role in the family and the child's peer-group adjustment. *Merrill Palmer Quarterly* 7: 97-105.
- Hollingshead, A. B. 1957. A two factor index of social position. New Haven, Connecticut. 11 numb. leaves (mimeographed).
- Horowitz, F. D. 1962. The relationship of anxiety, self-concept and sociometric status among fourth, fifth and sixth grade children. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 65: 212-214.
- Jenkins, R. L. 1968. The varieties of children's behavioral problems and family dynamics. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 124: 134-139.
- Lipsitt, L. P. 1958. A self-concept scale for children and its relationship to the children's form of the manifest anxiety scale. *Child Development* 29: 463-471.
- Medinnus, G. R. and F. J. Curtis. 1963. The relation between maternal self-acceptance and child acceptance. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 27: 542-544.
- Milchus, N. J., G. A. Farrah, and W. Reitz. 1968. The construct validity of a self-concept and motivation inventory battery which controls item content through factorial structure. A paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council on Measurements in Education, Chicago, Illinois. 8 numb. leaves (mimeographed).
- Nichols, R. C. 1962. A factor analysis of parental attitudes of fathers. *Child Development* 33: 791-802.
- Omwake, K. T. 1954. The relation between acceptance of self and acceptance of others shown by three personality inventories. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 18: 443-446.
- Peterson, D. R., W. C. Becker, L. A. Hellmer, D. J. Shoemaker, and H. Quay. 1959. Parental attitudes and child adjustment. *Child Development* 30: 119-130.
- Peterson, D. R., W. C. Becker, D. J. Shoemaker, Z. Luria, and L. A. Hellmer. 1961. Child behavior problems and parent attitudes. *Child Development* 32: 151-162.
- Phillips, E. L. 1951. Attitudes toward self and others: A brief questionnaire report. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 15: 79-81.

- Rogers, C. R. 1947. Some observations on the organization of personality. *American Psychologist* 2: 358-368.
- _____. 1951. *Client-centered therapy*. Boston Houghton Mifflin. 560 p.
- _____. 1961. *On becoming a person*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin. 420 p.
- Schaefer, E. S. and R. Q. Bell. 1957. Patterns of attitudes toward child rearing and the family. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 54: 391-395.
- _____. 1958. Development of a parental attitude research instrument. *Child Development* 29: 339-361.
- Shaw, M. E. and J. M. Wright. 1967. Scales for the measurement of attitudes. New York, Mc Graw-Hill. p. 1-32.
- Sheerer, E. T. 1949. An analysis of the relationship between acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others in ten counseling cases. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 13: 169-175.
- Snygg, D. and A. W. Combs. 1949. *Individual behavior*. New York, Harper. 522 p.
- Trapp, E. P. and D. H. Kausler. 1958. Dominance attitudes in parents and adult avoidance behavior in young children. *Child Development* 29: 507-513.
- Wattenberg, W. W. and C. Clifford. 1964. Relation of self-concepts to beginning achievement in reading. *Child Development* 35: 461-467.
- Williams, R. L. and S. Cole. 1968. Self-concept and school adjustment. *Personnel and Guidance Journal* 46: 478-481.
- Winder, C. L. and L. Rau. 1962. Parental attitudes associated with social deviance in preadolescent boys. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 64: 418-424.
- Wylie, R. C. 1961. *The self concept*. Lincoln, Nebraska, University of Nebraska Press. 370 p.
- _____. 1968. The present status of self theory. In: *Handbook of personality theory and research*, ed. by E. F. Borgatta and W. W. Lambert, Chicago, Rand McNally. p. 728-787.

- Zuckerman, M., B. Ribback, L. Monashkin, and J. Norton. 1958. Normative data and factor analysis on the parent attitude research instrument. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 22: 165-171. X
- Zuckerman, M. and M. Oltean. 1959. Some relationships between maternal attitude factors and authoritarianism, personality needs, psychopathology and self-acceptance. *Child Development* 30: 27-36. X
- Zunich, M. 1966. Child behavior and parental attitudes. *Journal of Psychology* 62: 41-46. X

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory
(Original)

1. What face would you wear if your parents were telling you how you are trying in school?
2. What face would you wear if a teacher was telling you what kind of listener you will be?
3. What face would you wear if the boys and girls in class were going to pick the best workers in the room?
4. What face would you wear when you tell your parents how you feel about being in school?
5. What face would you wear if you were doing your drawing for a teacher?
6. What face would you wear if only the good children could have a party?
7. What face would you wear when you're thinking of how much you'll have grown up by next year?
8. What face would you wear if you had to make a picture of an animal that was hard to draw?
9. What face would you wear if someone was telling you what your class will be like next year?
10. What face would you wear when you think of how good you're doing in kindergarten?
11. What face would you wear if you tried to learn something new with numbers?
12. What face would you wear when you think of all the children in class who like you?

APPENDIX B

Modified Self-Concept and Motivation Inventory

1. If your mommy and daddy were telling you how hard you are trying in nursery school, what face would you wear?
2. If a teacher was telling you what kind of a listener you will be, what face would you wear?
3. If the boys and girls in nursery school were going to pick the best workers in the room, what face would you wear?
4. When you tell mommy and daddy how you feel about being here in nursery school, what face would you wear?
5. If you were doing a drawing for a teacher, what face would you wear?
6. If only the good children in nursery school could have a party, what face would you wear?
7. When you think about how much you'll have grown up by next year, what face would you wear?
8. If you had to make a picture of an animal that was hard to draw, what face would you wear?
9. If someone was telling you what your class will be like next year, what face would you wear?
10. When you think about how good you're doing in nursery school, what face would you wear?
11. If you tried to learn something new with numbers, what face would you wear?
12. If you were to think of all the children in nursery school who like you, what face would you wear?

APPENDIX C

Parental Attitude Research Instrument
(Father Form)

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

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

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

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

- | | | Agree | | Disagree |
|---|---|-------|---|----------|
| 1. A good father should shelter his child from life's little difficulties. | A | a | d | D |
| 2. Children should be taught about sex as soon as possible. | A | a | d | D |
| 3. People who think they can get along in marriage without arguments just don't know the facts. | A | a | d | D |
| 4. Parents should not have to earn the respect of their children by the way they act. | A | a | d | D |
| 5. A man can't do a father's job and have an active social life too. | A | a | d | D |
| 6. Most fathers are content to be with children in their spare time. | A | a | d | D |
| 7. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it. | A | a | d | D |
| 8. If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child. | A | a | d | D |
| 9. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens. | A | a | d | D |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 10. | Most fathers could spend all day with the children and remain calm and even-tempered. | A | a | d | D |
| 11. | Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates, and fun help them grow up right. | A | a | d | D |
| 12. | A child should learn that he has to be disappointed sometimes. | A | a | d | D |
| 13. | It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed. | A | a | d | D |
| 14. | If a couple really loves each other there are very few arguments in their married life. | A | a | d | D |
| 15. | Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 16. | A good father still has time for activities outside the job and home. | A | a | d | D |
| 17. | Settling down to family life is hard for a man because it means giving up so many other things. | A | a | d | D |
| 18. | Children should not be allowed to disagree with their parents, even if they feel their own ideas are better. | A | a | d | D |
| 19. | It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his father's views are right. | A | a | d | D |
| 20. | A child should be taught to fight his own battles. | A | a | d | D |
| 21. | It's no wonder men reach the boiling point when they come home and run immediately into family problems. | A | a | d | D |
| 22. | Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show less interest in their affairs. | A | a | d | D |
| 23. | A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him. | A | a | d | D |
| 24. | Sex play is a normal thing in children. | A | a | d | D |
| 25. | Sometimes it's necessary for a husband to tell off his wife in order to get his rights. | A | a | d | D |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 26. | Children should learn to compromise and adjust to the demands of their parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 27. | Too many men forget that a father's place is with his family. | A | a | d | D |
| 28. | Most fathers don't mind spending most of their spare time at home. | A | a | d | D |
| 29. | A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions. | A | a | d | D |
| 30. | 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 |
| 31. | Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury. | A | a | d | D |
| 32. | Raising children is an easy job. | A | a | d | D |
| 33. | If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice. | A | a | d | D |
| 34. | Children have to face difficult situations on their own. | A | a | d | D |
| 35. | Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children. | A | a | d | D |
| 36. | Almost any problem can be settled by quietly talking it over. | A | a | d | D |
| 37. | There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time, any more than that children should have their own way all the time. | A | a | d | D |
| 38. | A father can be a family man and still have plenty of time left over to visit with neighbors and friends. | A | a | d | D |
| 39. | One of the bad things about raising children is that you aren't free enough of the time to do just as you like. | A | a | d | D |
| 40. | Children should be discouraged from telling their parents about it when they feel family rules are unreasonable. | A | a | d | D |
| 41. | The child should not question the thinking of his parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 42. | It's quite natural for children to hit one another. | A | a | d | D |

43. There are times when a father feels he can't stand his family a moment longer. A a d D
44. Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes usually fail to make things go more smoothly. A a d D
45. Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging. A a d D
46. Children are normally curious about sex. A a d D
47. It's natural to have quarrels when two people who both have minds of their own get married. A a d D
48. It is rarely possible to treat a child as an equal. A a d D
49. A good father will find enough social life within the family. A a d D
50. Most fathers are pretty content with home life. A a d D
51. 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
52. A good father can tolerate criticism of himself, even when the children are around. A a d D
53. Most parents prefer a quiet child to a "scrappy" one. A a d D
54. A father should keep control of his temper even when children are demanding. A a d D
55. When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier. A a d D

APPENDIX D

Parental Attitude Research Instrument

(Mother Form)

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

strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-----------------	--------------------	----------------------

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

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

- | | Agree | | Disagree |
|---|-------|---|----------|
| 1. A good mother should shelter her child from life's little difficulties. | A | a | d D |
| 2. Children should be taught about sex as soon as possible. | A | a | d D |
| 3. People who think they can get along in marriage without arguments just don't know the facts. | A | a | d D |
| 4. Parents should not have to earn the respect of their children by the way they act. | A | a | d D |
| 5. The women who want lots of parties seldom make good mothers. | A | a | d D |
| 6. Most mothers are content to be with children all the time. | A | a | d D |
| 7. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it. | A | a | d D |
| 8. If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child. | A | a | d D |
| 9. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens. | A | a | d D |
| 10. Most mothers can spend all day with the children and remain calm and even-tempered. | A | a | d D |
| 11. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates, and fun help them grow up right. | A | a | d D |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. | A child should learn that he has to be disappointed sometimes. | A | a | d | D |
| 13. | It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed. | A | a | d | D |
| 14. | If a couple really loves each other there are very few arguments in their married life. | A | a | d | D |
| 15. | Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 16. | A good mother should develop interests outside the home. | A | a | d | D |
| 17. | One of the worst things about taking care of a home is a woman feels that she can't get out. | A | a | d | D |
| 18. | Children should not be allowed to disagree with their parents, even if they feel their own ideas are better. | A | a | d | D |
| 19. | It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his mother's views are right. | A | a | d | D |
| 20. | A child should be taught to fight his own battles. | A | a | d | D |
| 21. | Children will get on any woman's nerves if she has to be with them all day. | A | a | d | D |
| 22. | Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show less interest in their affairs. | A | a | d | D |
| 23. | A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him. | A | a | d | D |
| 24. | Sex play is a normal thing in children. | A | a | d | D |
| 25. | Sometimes it's necessary for a wife to tell off her husband in order to get her rights. | A | a | d | D |
| 26. | Children should learn to compromise and adjust to the demands of their parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 27. | Too many women forget that a mother's place is in the home. | A | a | d | D |
| 28. | Most young mothers don't mind spending most of their time at home. | A | a | d | D |
| 29. | A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions. | A | a | d | D |
| 30. | 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 |
| 31. | Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury. | A | a | d | D |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 32. | Raising children is an easy job. | A | a | d | D |
| 33. | If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice. | A | a | d | D |
| 34. | Children have to face difficult situations on their own. | A | a | d | D |
| 35. | Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children. | A | a | d | D |
| 36. | Almost any problem can be settled by quietly talking it over. | A | a | d | D |
| 37. | There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time, any more than that children should have their own way all the time. | A | a | d | D |
| 38. | A mother can keep a nice home and still have plenty of time left over to visit with neighbors and friends. | A | a | d | D |
| 39. | One of the bad things about raising children is that you aren't free enough of the time to do just as you like. | A | a | d | D |
| 40. | Children should be discouraged from telling their parents about it when they feel family rules are unreasonable. | A | a | d | D |
| 41. | The child should not question the thinking of his parents. | A | a | d | D |
| 42. | It's quite natural for children to hit one another. | A | a | d | D |
| 43. | Mothers very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer. | A | a | d | D |
| 44. | Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes usually fail to make things go more smoothly. | A | a | d | D |
| 45. | Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging. | A | a | d | D |
| 46. | Children are normally curious about sex. | A | a | d | D |
| 47. | It's natural to have quarrels when two people who both have minds of their own get married. | A | a | d | D |
| 48. | It is rarely possible to treat a child as an equal. | A | a | d | D |
| 49. | A good mother will find enough social life within the family. | A | a | d | D |
| 50. | Most young mothers are pretty content with home life. | A | a | d | D |
| 51. | 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 |
| 52. | A good mother can tolerate criticism of herself, even when the children are around. | A | a | d | D |

53. Most parents prefer a quiet child to a "scrappy" one. A a d D
54. A mother should keep control of her temper even when children are demanding. A a d D
55. When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier. A a d D