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CHANGES IN PARENT ATTITUDES DURING PARTICIPATION
IN CERTAIN PARENTHOOD IN A FREE NATION
STUDY-DISCUSSION GROUPS

by

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6562

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Oral Examination
Committee
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of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science

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It was the purpose of this investigation to determine (1) whether there was a significant change in parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices as measured by the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey during participation in certain Parenthood in a Free Nation study-discussion groups, and (2) whether the amount and direction of any change in attitudes was related to certain variables such as age and education of participants.

The U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey was administered to persons participating in Parenthood in Free Nation study-discussion groups at the beginning of their first class meeting and again at the end of their last class meeting. Additional information was secured from the participants on a cover sheet at the time of the first administration of the instrument, and the participant's subjective evaluation of his change in attitude was secured through a brief questionnaire completed at the time of the second administration of the instrument. The final sample consisted of 59 persons divided among five groups.

The t test was employed to determine the degree of significance of the differences between scores on the first and second administrations of the instrument. This was done on the basis of the total score and the score for each of the four subscales for each of the five groups and the total sample. It was then determined whether the number of meetings missed, graduation from college, or working status of mothers was

related to changes in scores. Correlation coefficients were employed to determine whether any relationship existed between age and scores. The participants' subjective evaluations were summarized.

The total sample exhibited changes in total scores from the first to the second administration of the instrument which were significant at the .05 level. However, only one of the five groups exhibited changes in the direction of more desirable attitudes. This group exhibited changes in scores on the Total Scale which were significant at the .002 level, on the Dominant Subscale which were significant at the .001 level, and on the Possessive Subscale which were significant at the .02 level. Another group exhibited changes in scores on the Total Scale which were significant at the .05 level in the direction of less desirable attitudes.

All other results (number of meetings missed, graduation from college) were strongly influenced by this one group. Members of this group were teachers participating in this class as part of a course taught by a college professor for graduate credit, whereas the other groups were non-credit classes composed mainly of lay persons with professional leaders.

There was no significant relationship between age of participants and their scores on either administration of the instrument. In subjective evaluations of their changes in attitudes 50 of the 59 subjects indicated that they believed their attitudes had changed during the time they participated in this program.

The writer is indebted to Dr. I. V. Sperry and the thesis committee for their guidance and assistance; to Mrs. Helen Ashby, Assistant Director of The Institute for Child and Family Development and the leaders and members of the Parenthood in a Free Nation groups for their cooperation in this project.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

I. The Problem

Over the past 65 years there has been an increasing interest in efforts to aid parents in rearing their children. There has been considerable growth in the extent and variety of parent education activities, as well as developments in research and training, and the emergence of professional organizations which set standards, publish journals and sponsor meetings. Bernhardt said:

All educators must have faith in the educational process to bring about changes in the members of their classes. It is usually desirable, however, to have an adequate evaluation of the results so as to know both the extent and nature of the changes produced. This is as true of parent educators as it is of any other type of teacher.¹

Developments in research have not kept pace with the growth in popularity of parent education. Orville Brim said, "Aside from notable beginnings during the 1920's and 1930's...there has been a gross lack of systematic research in the field of parent education."² After reviewing 23 research studies of parent education programs, Brim stated:

¹Karl S. Bernhardt, Frances L. Johnston, Nan Foster, Marguerite Brown, "Attitude Change in Members of Parent Education Courses," Mental Hygiene, 43:394, 1959.

²Orville G. Brim, Jr., Education for Child Rearing (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1959), p. 9.

It is perhaps disappointing that there exist for the far-reaching and multimillion dollar activity called parent education this mere handful of efforts, many of them crude indeed, to discover whether this activity has any effect at all.³

One of the notable projects included in this activity was the Parenthood in a Free Nation program supported by the Fund for Adult Education, established in 1951 by the Ford Foundation. This nationwide project involving a great deal of time, effort, and money was originally evaluated by measuring demand and the subjective opinion of the participants. In 1954, 1,092 participants in the program were asked for their opinions and feelings in regard to their experiences in the course. Over 95 percent expressed general approval. Ridenour has pointed out that the favorable opinion of experts and favorable demand and support by parents together constitute evidence that a parent education program has beneficial effects.⁴ However, as Brim points out, even though a parent is willingly subjected to a "good" program, it is not known whether he assimilates the content.⁵ In a recent evaluation research program at The Merrill-Palmer Institute it was found that students were poor estimators of learnings of the class as a whole and even less accurate in estimating the direction of change of their own personal attitudes and be-

³Orville G. Brim, Jr., "Evaluating the Effects of Parent Education," Marriage and Family Living, 19:67, February, 1957.

⁴Nina Ridenour, "The Critics and Parent Education," Children, September-October, 1955, p. 186.

⁵Orville G. Brim, Jr., Education for Child Rearing (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1959), p. 282.

liefs as measured by certain scales.⁶ This study indicated that a student's or teacher's estimate of the success of a course is not a reliable guide for determining the actual success of a course. To date there have been no objective measures to determine whether a change in parent attitudes takes place during the time that members participate in a Parenthood in a Free Nation course.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine (1) whether there was a significant change in parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices as measured by the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey during participation in selected Parenthood in a Free Nation study-discussion groups, and (2) whether the amount and direction of any attitude change was related to certain variables such as age and education of participants.

II. Definitions of Terms Used

Attitude

The word attitude is used here to denote the "sum total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fear, threats, and convictions about any specified topic."⁷ Therefore an attitude is considered to be a general emotional and intellec-

⁶Richard K. Kerckhoff, "Evaluating Family Life Education," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development, 6:187-191, 1959-60.

⁷L. L. Thurstone, "Attitudes Can Be Measured," American Journal of Sociology, 33:531, 1928.

tual state of readiness to act in a positive or negative direction.

Parent Education

Parent education is "an activity which uses educational techniques to influence parental role performance."⁸

Child-Rearing Practices

Child-rearing practices refer here to practices and techniques which contribute to the development of children.

III. Organization of Remainder of Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organized into chapters which include (1) a review of literature relating previous investigations concerned with measuring attitudes toward child-rearing practices, changes in attitudes during parent education projects, and other studies relevant to the present problem; (2) a description of the methods and procedures employed in this investigation; (3) a description and interpretation of the findings of this investigation involving 59 participants in parent education study-discussion groups; and (4) an overview of the study, findings, and conclusions.

⁸Orville G. Brim, Jr., "Evaluating the Effects of Parent Education," *Marriage and Family Living*, 19:54, February, 1957.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter includes a review of literature relating previous investigations concerned with (1) measuring attitudes toward child rearing practices, (2) changes in attitudes during parent education projects and (3) the U. S. C. Parent Attitude Survey.

I. Selected Studies Concerned with Measuring Attitudes Toward Child-Rearing Practices

Early Studies (up to 1940)

Early attempts to measure attitudes toward children were concerned with the construction of useful instruments and with describing the scores obtained by a sample of parents, often in comparison with the scores of child development specialists. According to Stogdill's review of experiments in the measurement of attitudes toward children, an investigation by Sears was the first study to employ the questionnaire technique to measure adult attitudes toward children, and a study by Laws was the first really systematic attempt to assess parent attitudes.¹ In 1899 Sears used a

¹Ralph M. Stogdill, "Experiments in the Measurement of Attitudes Toward Children: 1899-1935," Child Development, 7:31-36, 1936.

questionnaire in a study of adult attitudes toward the punishment of children.² In this investigation 486 persons responded to the questionnaire concerning purposes, effects, kinds of punishment, and situations which call for punishment. Sears stated that he was asking for opinions rather than for facts.

Gertrude Laws attempted to develop a relatively objective means of rating the attitudes and practices of mothers. She administered a four part questionnaire to fifty mothers and compared each mother's own rating of herself with that of three other persons whom the mother considered competent to judge her attitudes and practices.³ The four parts of Laws' scale consisted of: (1) a list of 69 words to which the mother was to react quickly as suggesting something agreeable or disagreeable; (2) a list of 46 words with definitions which the mother was to check as describing her attitude toward her child, describing it part of the time, or not at all; (3) a list of 96 child-rearing practices which the mother was to check as being used by her "rarely or never," "sometimes," or "always or usually;" and (4) 148 responses of a child which the mother was to check as used by her child "rarely," "sometimes;" or "usually."

²Charles H. Sears, "Home and School Punishments," Pedagogical Seminary, 6:157-187, 1898-99.

³Gertrude Laws, Parent-Child Relationships (No. 283 of Teachers College, Columbia University. Contributions to Education; New York: Columbia University Press, 1927).

Scales for the measurement of attitudes toward the parental control of children and toward the social adjustments of children were developed by Stogdill.⁴ Using one of his scales to compare the attitudes of parents, advanced college students in a class in psychology, and well-recognized authorities in child guidance and mental hygiene, Stogdill found that parents and students differed considerably from the mental hygienists in their attitudes, and that the students more nearly agreed with the experts than did the parents. Enlightened attitudes toward children were found to be associated with high socio-economic status, special education in social or psychological sciences, favorable home training, and residence in the East or Middle-west; but not with sex, marital status, or intelligence.

In the 1930's a series of studies at the University of Iowa was concerned with parent education. Among these were several which dealt with attitudes toward children. Ackerly constructed and administered objective attitude and knowledge tests covering generalizations rated as highly important in the thinking of parents of elementary school children.⁵ She concluded that "all attitude tests used in this study revealed parental opinions that were outside the

⁴Ralph M. Stogdill, "Attitudes of Parents, Students, and Mental Hygienists Toward Children's Behavior," Journal of Social Psychology, 4:486-89, 1933.

⁵Lois A. Ackerly, "The Information and Attitudes Regarding Child Development Possessed by Parents of Elementary School Children," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 10:115-170, 1935.

range which the experts considered an intelligent attitude."

Three scales for measuring parental attitudes toward self reliance were constructed by Ralph Ojemann.⁶ Ojemann modified the statement method of Thurstone⁷ for measuring attitudes by adding a definition of the key-concept involved in the statement. These scales were later used in several studies which investigated the modification of this attitude through carefully constructed learning programs at various age levels.

A study by Ackerley comparing information obtained from interviews and that from attitude scales indicated that attitude scales can be substituted for the personal interview without much greater error than that which arises with specially trained interviewers.⁸

Coast and Gabriel conducted separate studies concerned with the attitudes of parents of preschool children and of adolescents.^{9,10} They compared the attitudes of un-

⁶Ralph H. Ojemann, "The Measurement of Attitude Toward Self Reliance," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 10:104-114, 1935.

⁷L. L. Thurstone, "Attitudes Can Be Measured," American Journal of Sociology, 33, 529-554, 1928.

⁸Lois A. Ackerley, Ralph H. Ojemann, Berniece Neil, and Eva Grant, "A Study of the Transferable Elements in Interviews with Parents," Journal of Experimental Education, 5:137-74, 1936.

⁹Louise C. Coast, "A Study of the Knowledge and Attitudes of Parents of Preschool Children," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 17:157-181, 1939.

¹⁰Anne Gabriel, "A Study of the Attitudes of Parents of Adolescents," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 17: 129-156, 1939.

trained parents with those of specialists in child development.

Other University of Iowa studies in this series will be mentioned under a section on selected studies which were concerned with changes in attitude during participation in various parent education projects.

Studies in the 1940's

There was relatively little research concerned with parent attitudes in the 1940's, the period immediately preceding the development of the instrument used in the present study. Stott found no differences in attitudes toward self reliance when he compared farm, town, and city parents.¹¹ A modified version of Ojemann's scale for attitudes toward self reliance for parents of elementary school children was used.

After selecting children representing each end of the adjustment distribution as measured by the Brown Personality Inventory, Brown sent the Stogdill scales of Attitudes Toward Child Behavior and Attitude Toward Parental Control to their mothers. The sample consisted of 36 mothers of "well-adjusted" and 37 mothers of "poorly-adjusted" children. There were no significant differences between the mean scores of the mothers of the two groups.¹²

¹¹Leland H. Stott, "Parental Attitudes of Farm, Town, and City Parents in Relation to Certain Personality Adjustments in Their Children," Journal of Social Psychology, 11: 325-39, 1940.

¹²Fred Brown, "An Experimental Study of Parental Attitudes and Their Effect Upon Child Adjustment," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 12:224-231, 1942.

Anderson reported on three studies at The University of Minnesota in which an interview and questionnaire were employed to assess parent attitudes which were then studied in relation to certain characteristics of their children.¹³

In the following section only selected studies since 1949 which did not employ the instrument used in the present investigation will be considered.

Studies after 1949 not employing the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey

The following are brief descriptions of some of the parent attitude scales developed during the past twelve years.

In 1950 Roy devised an eleven point scale using the Thurstone method to measure attitudes from extreme control to extreme freedom in specific play situations.¹⁴ The scores of twenty-five business and professional families, twenty-five student families, and specialists in child development were compared. Parents scored considerably higher on attitudes of restraint than specialists.

Wiley constructed a scale for the measurement of parental attitudes toward general home standards; verbal behavior; expression of hostility; weaning, thumb-sucking, and feeding;

¹³John E. Anderson, "Parents' Attitudes on Child Behavior: A Report of Three Studies," Child Development, 17: 91-97, 1946.

¹⁴Katherine Roy, "Parents' Attitudes Toward Their Children," Journal of Home Economics, 42:652-53, 1950.

toilet training; sexual behavior; boy-girl differences; and crying.¹⁵ Reliability, calculated by the split-half method, was found to be .80 to .90 on the first seven subscales for 172 cases. Validity was judged by comparing clinical judgments about the probable favorableness of students' attitudes with their scores. The comparison proved favorable. A significant difference was found between the scales administered at the beginning and end of a class dealing with attitudes toward children. Wiley later developed a similar attitude scale designed as a research and clinical tool for the speech clinician.¹⁶

Porter designed a scale intended to measure parental acceptance.¹⁷ He defined parental acceptance as:

...feelings and behavior on the part of the parents which are characterized by unconditional love for the child, a recognition of the child as a person with feelings who has a right and a need to express those feelings, a value for the unique make-up of the child and a recognition of the child's need to differentiate and separate himself from his parents in order that he may become an autonomous individual.¹⁸

The form of item used was one which described situations in which children expressed certain types of overt behavior and

¹⁵John H. Wiley, "A Scale to Measure Parental Attitudes Toward Certain Aspects of Children's Behavior," Speech Monographs, 18:132-33, 1951.

¹⁶John H. Wiley, "A Scale to Measure Parental Attitudes," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, 20:284-90, Sept., 1955.

¹⁷Blaine M. Porter, "Measurement of Parental Acceptance of Children," Journal of Home Economics, 46:176-82, 1954.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 177.

verbalizations. Each item was repeated twice, asking first how the parent felt in the situation and second, what the parent did in the situation. The answers were made by checking one of five multiple choice responses ranging from low to high acceptance. Reliability calculated by the split-half method was raised by the Spearman Brown Prophecy formula to .865. Validity was tested by comparing judges' ratings of the ranking of each response.

Wheeler constructed and standardized a scale to measure parent-child relationships.¹⁹ This investigator found no research establishing Wheeler's scale as valid and reliable.

Perhaps the most frequently used of the instruments described here is Form IV of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument developed by Schaefer and Bell.²⁰ This scale consists of twenty-three five-item scales, each measuring an attitude which is theoretically relevant to personality development in children. The items are general opinions with which the subject is asked to strongly or mildly agree or disagree. In the original sample many of the subscales were found to be related to education, with mothers of higher education having more usually approved attitudes toward child-rearing. The sample consisted of 100 wives of military per-

¹⁹Mary E. Wheeler, "Preliminary Standardization of Parent-Child Relationship Scale," Dissertation Abstracts, 15:2592, 1955.

²⁰Earl S. Schaefer and Richard Q. Bell, "Development of a Parental Attitude Research Instrument," Child Development, 29:339-362, 1958.

sonnel one to four days following parturition, and the results may have been affected by the selectiveness of the occupational group and recency of parturition.

Zuckerman gave the Parental Attitude Research Instrument to 222 mothers and found correlations between the scores and the age, education, and number of children of the mothers.²¹ Education was most significantly related to scores on the scales; age showed a smaller number of relationships; and number of children showed no significant relationship with the scales. The scales were factor analyzed using the 222 mothers in the normative sample, 131 mothers of psychiatric patients and disturbed children, and sixty mothers who were psychiatric patients. The three factors extracted were: Authoritarian-Control, Hostility-Rejection, and Democratic Attitudes.

Most of the attitude scales described above were seldom used in systematic research outside of the study for which they were constructed. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument and the instrument employed in the present study have apparently been most frequently used, and therefore a greater amount of data concerning them are available. A considerable amount of research has been devoted to the study of the attitudes of mothers of schizophrenics and of children with serious behavior problems.

²¹M. Zuckerman, B. B. Ribback, I. Monashkin and J. A. Norton, Jr., "Normative Data and Factor Analysis on the Parental Attitude Research Instrument," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 22:165-171, 1958.

Mark constructed an attitude survey of 139 items of the type used in the present study, and he used it in an attempt to determine if the attitudes of 100 mothers of schizophrenics toward child behavior differed from the attitudes of 100 mothers of nonschizophrenics.²² The results showed that a relatively large number of the attitude scale items distinguished between the two groups, with the mothers of schizophrenics exhibiting more restrictiveness in their control of the child, along with attitudes of both excessive devotion and cool detachment.

Zuckerman reported that McFarland attempted to replicate Mark's study with the same items and failed to find a significant number of items distinguishing the two groups.²³ In another study the hypothesis that mothers of schizophrenics have more severe controlling and rejecting parental attitudes than mothers of nonschizophrenics was tested. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument²⁴ developed by Schaefer and Bell was employed. The hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Klebanoff also used the Parental Attitude Research

²²Joseph C. Mark, "The Attitudes of the Mothers of Male Schizophrenics Toward Child Behavior," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 48:185-89, 1953.

²³Marvin Zuckerman, Mary Oltean and Orwin Monashken, "The Parental Attitudes of Mothers of Schizophrenics," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 22:307, 1958.

²⁴Ibid., pp. 307-310.

Instrument to assess the attitudes of mothers of schizophrenics, brain-injured and retarded, and normal children.²⁵ The sample was relatively small. Mothers of schizophrenic children showed less pathological attitudes than the mothers of brain-injured and retarded children. The mothers of ill children manifested more pathological attitudes than mothers of normal children.

In two recent comparisons of the attitudes of parents of children who had displayed certain adjustment problems and parents of those in whom no problems had been observed, a recorded structured interview was used to ascertain attitudes.^{26,27} In both investigations the attitudes of fathers were found to be at least as intimately related as the attitudes of mothers to the maladjustment among children.

Another study employing the Parental Attitude Research Instrument investigated the differences in attitude between mothers of juvenile delinquents and mothers of healthy adolescents.²⁸ On nine of the subscales a difference was obtained at the .05 level of significance, with mothers of

²⁵Lewis B. Klebanoff, "Parental Attitudes of Mothers of Schizophrenic, Brain-injured and Retarded, and Normal Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 29:445-54, 1959.

²⁶Donald R. Peterson et al, "Parental Attitudes and Child Adjustment," Child Development, 30:119-130, 1959.

²⁷Donald R. Peterson et al, "Child Behavior Problems and Parental Attitudes," Child Development, 32:151-62, 1961.

²⁸Jeff M. Madoff, "The Attitudes of Mothers of Juvenile Delinquents Toward Child Rearing," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 23:518-20, 1959.

delinquents expressing the more pathogenic child-rearing attitudes in all cases.

In this section the investigator has attempted to describe briefly some studies representing attempts to measure attitudes toward children, especially those employing a questionnaire or attitude scale, and the development and use of selected attitude scales. Emphasis has been on studies which compare the attitudes of different groups of parents because these demonstrate that a self-inventory type scale has possibilities for distinguishing between different parent attitudes and placing them on a continuum.

II. Selected Studies Concerned with Changes in Attitudes During Parent Education Programs

Studies in which the effects of a parent education program were evaluated have been concerned with several different aspects of the program and with measures of change in behavior, knowledge, or attitudes. Brim reviewed evaluation studies of parent education which have adequate research design and permit conclusions based on statistical inference up to May, 1956.²⁹ Four studies using experimental and control groups tested the effects of pamphlets. Three of these were parallel research. Their results did not agree. This shows the need for replication

²⁹Orville G. Brim, Jr., "Evaluating the Effects of Parent Education," Marriage and Family Living, 19:54-67, February, 1957.

in research. Two studies of group procedures using experimental and control groups also showed conflicting results. In five studies of group procedures, before and after tests on one group were employed. Favorable and significant changes were found, but failure to use control groups was a major weakness. In four studies the effects of variations in procedure were evaluated. It was found that "experts" transmit more information than "nonexperts," that leaderless groups learn more than groups with various types of leadership, and that when individuals express "cathartic needs" greater learning takes place. Three studies on educational counseling procedures showed that parent counseling yielded improvement in the child's behavior as rated by experts. Two studies comparing educational techniques found that group discussion procedures result in greater gain in factual knowledge than do lectures. Many of these studies suffered from failure to develop and use sound research instruments and from failure to determine the relationship between the situation, family size, ages, education, etc., and the results of a program. Brim's summary of evaluation studies shows that their total results are largely inconclusive.

Studies employing methods other than attitude scales

The following are representative of studies which were concerned with changes in attitudes toward child-rearing practices during parent education programs. Lois Jack formulated an interview for obtaining information on

mothers' practices and attitudes.³⁰ Parents' practices and the behavior of their children were scored as criteria of their efficiency in child-rearing. In scoring the responses to the interview, the age of the child was considered, since the behavior normally expected of a child at one age could receive a different rating if the child were much younger or older. Neither the validity nor reliability of the instrument were fully determined. Jack employed this interview with 28 mothers before and after a four month parent education course. The differences found in attitudes and practices were not great enough to be reliable, although there was improvement. The mothers who were presumably without the more elementary knowledge of correct practice made decided improvement in scores, while those who were superior in the beginning improved little.

Brim studied the process of acceptance of more permissive feeding of children by a group of mothers.³¹ His purpose was to contrast those who changed with those who did not in order to bring out variables which were relevant to the process of change. He found that satisfactions gained were important in bringing about a change, and that it was necessary that the performance for which satisfactions are delayed be supported and sustained in some manner, for

³⁰Lois M. Jack, "A Device for the Measurement of Parent Attitudes and Practices," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 6:137-49, 1932.

³¹Orville G. Brim, Jr., "The Acceptance of New Behavior in Child Rearing," Human Relations, 7:473-91, 1954.

example, by the favorable reaction of the husband.

A very interesting technique for assessing parent attitudes was employed in a research project at The Institute of Child Study of The University of Toronto.³² The "Q" technique used by Rogers to measure personality change as a result of psychotherapy was used to determine the degree of relationship between different "sorts" of statements about parenthood. The statements were placed on cards and subjects were asked to sort the cards twice, once to conform with how he viewed himself as a parent (his self picture), and once with what he thought an ideal parent is like (ideal picture). The statements were placed in a forced normal distribution of nine categories ranging from "most like" to "least like." This procedure was repeated at the beginning and end of a parent education course. Results revealed that approximately half the group felt inadequate as parents as indicated by differences in "ideal" and "self" pictures. Change toward significantly greater similarity of pictures occurred in 46 percent of the 39 subjects. The subjects' picture of the ideal parent compared with a combined sort by the three leaders revealed a correlation coefficient of .85. There was a correlation of .95 between the beginning group ideal and the final group ideal, indicating a greater change in how the parent viewed

³²Karl S. Bernhardt, Frances L. Johnston, Nan Foster, Marguerite Brown, "Attitude Change in Members of Parent Education Courses," Mental Hygiene, 43:394-99, 1959.

himself as a parent than in his picture of what a parent should be like. There was no control group in this study.

Studies employing attitude scales other than the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey

Various attitude scales, other than the one used in the present study were employed in the following studies which include preparental education programs as well as parent education programs.

Brandon developed an attitude scale, modifying the Thurstone method by adding a definition of the key-concept involved in the statements, and administered it and the scales developed by Ackerley and Ojemann to a group of college students.³³ The results showed a significant change in attitude after a carefully designed learning program. Product-moment correlations between gains in knowledge and changes in attitude showed low correlations.

More recently Stott and Berson devised a scale of thirty statements to measure attitudes of young prospective parents attending a series of eight weekly educational meetings designed to prepare them for parenthood.³⁴ The experimental group of twenty-eight couples was compared with a control group of thirteen expectant couples of the

³³Vera H. Brandon, "A Study of the Attitudes of College Students in Selected Phases of Child Development," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 17:19-60, 1939.

³⁴Leland H. Stott and Minnie Perrin Berson, "Some Changes in Attitudes Resulting from a Preparental Education Program," The Journal of Social Psychology, 34:191-202, 1951.

same socio-economic group and patients of the same obstetricians. The scale was designed to place the subjects on a continuum ranging from child-oriented, highly permissive and lenient to authoritarian, prohibitive, and coercive in their child-rearing attitudes. The experimental group's attitudes changed in a favorable direction and the change was highly significant statistically, while the control group did not change significantly.

Shapiro mailed a questionnaire adapted from one by Harris, Gough, and Martin³⁵ to members of experimental and control groups before and after parent education discussion groups.³⁶ He found that (1) exposure to a group discussion technique modified child rearing attitudes in a pre-determined direction, (2) change in attitudes was positively related to amount of exposure to group discussion, (3) those whose initial scores represented "more desirable" attitudes improved considerably more than those whose initial scores represented "less desirable" attitudes, and (4) those who attended fewer meetings were mainly those who had achieved the least "desirable" scores. Shapiro states that his questionnaire needs further validation, that he failed to control initial interest in attending

³⁵Harris, Gough, and Martin, "Children's Ethnic Attitudes: II. Relationship to Parental Beliefs Concerning Child Rearing," Child Development, 21:169-181, 1950.

³⁶Irving S. Shapiro, "Is Group Parent Education Worthwhile?" Marriage and Family Living, 18:154-161, May, 1956.

classes, and that the size of his sample was small and represents a particular segment of the population.

A study as yet unpublished attempted to evaluate the influences of a series of group discussions on child-rearing which was broadcast over the radio.³⁷ The Parental Attitude Research Instrument was used to measure the attitudes of 100 mothers who listened to the program and of fifty control mothers.

Although this is not a comprehensive review of research on the changes in attitudes taking place during parent education programs, it is representative of the research that has been done.

Previous study concerned with Parenthood in a Free Nation courses

The specific parent education course with which the present study is concerned, Parenthood in a Free Nation, was evaluated subjectively on a large scale in 1955.³⁸ Each participant was asked for his own opinions and feelings in regard to his experiences in the course. Respondents were 1,092 members, or 75 percent, of 72 groups. Of these, 98 percent expressed approval of the basic material, 97 percent listed one or more values the basic course had

³⁷Wallace Mandell and Timothy W. Costello, "Changing Parental Attitudes Through Radio Discussions," Research Relating to Children, 14-U-11, February-September, 1961.

³⁸Ethel Kawin, "Parenthood in a Free Nation," Children, 3:66-71, March-April, 1956.

for them, 96 percent would recommend this material for another discussion group, and 91 percent wished to take another similar course. This subjective evaluation by the participants in the course was the only study of note concerning the Parenthood in a Free Nation course.

III. Selected Studies Incorporating the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey

The University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey, hereafter referred to as the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey, is a self-inventory type device to measure parent attitudes toward their children which was developed by Edward J. Shoben.³⁹ The scale itself will be described in more detail in Chapter III.

Development of the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey

The chief assumption underlying the method for developing this scale was that parent behavior bears sufficient relationship to child adjustment to permit the measurement of the former against the criterion of the latter. An inventory containing 148 items was formed and administered to fifty mothers of problem children and fifty mothers of non-problem children. Problem children were defined as those who had come afoul of the juvenile authorities at least twice, who were undergoing clinical treatment for some per-

³⁹Edward J. Shoben, Jr., "The Assessment of Parental Attitudes in Relation to Child Adjustment," Genetic Psychology Monographs, 39:101-48, 1949.

sonality or behavior disorder, or who had been complained about by the mother as constituting a problem for which she would like to have aid. The non-problem children were those who did not meet any of these three criteria of maladjustment. An item analysis was undertaken to determine which items in the original 148 possessed sufficient discriminatory value to be retained. The method followed was to make a chi-square test of significance between the responses of the non-problem and problem subjects to each item. Items were retained if they discriminated at the 5 percent level or beyond. The 85 items meeting the test of discrimination at the 5 percent level or beyond were then weighted according to Guilford's formula to take into fullest account the four scoring categories of Strongly Agree, Mildly Agree, Mildly Disagree, and Strongly Disagree as they differentially contribute to the separation of problem from non-problem parents. Judges classified these 85 items into four subscales, the Dominant, Possessive, Ignoring, and Miscellaneous.

Studies concerned with validity and reliability of the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey

Reliability of the Survey was determined by the split-half method raised by the Spearman-Brown formula. Reliability coefficients were as follows: Total Scale, .95; Dominant Subscale, .91; Possessive Subscale, .90; Ignoring Subscale, .84; thus indicating a high degree of consistency in the Survey.

Following its original administration, the Survey was

given to 40 mothers, again equally divided between the problem and non-problem categories. Validity coefficients were determined for both administrations using the point-biserial coefficient of correlation. This method of determining validity was employed because (1) no attitude scale of proven validity was available with which to make a comparison, and (2) one of the two variables being compared, child adjustment, was dichotomous whereas the other, parent attitude scores, was continuously and normally distributed. These are given in Table I.

TABLE I
Shrinkage in Validity Coefficients From
Original to Second Administrations

Survey Variable	Point-Biserial r		Shrinkage
	Original	Second	
Total Scale	.904	.769	.135
Dominant	.801	.623	.178
Possessive	.790	.721	.069
Ignoring	.968	.624	.344

The amount of shrinkage in the magnitude of the validity coefficient from the first to the second administration was not considered excessive. These coefficients were interpreted as indicating a high degree of validity in the Survey.

A second attempt to check on the validity of the Survey was made by comparing scores obtained by parents with scores obtained by 8 clinical psychologists. The differences between the "ideal" clinicians' scores and those of the problem group were much greater than those between the clini-

cians' and the non-problem group. This was taken as further index of validity.

Several studies have attempted as all or part of their purpose to test the validity and reliability of Shoben's scale. One such work was that of Freeman and Grayson.⁴⁰ They administered the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey to fifty mothers of schizophrenics and fifty control mothers and found some evidence that the mothers of schizophrenics had poorer parent-child attitudes than did the control mothers since the difference was significant at the .07 level. Zuckerman and associates pointed out that educational and socio-economic differences between the experimental and control groups in this study were not controlled.⁴¹

In order to determine the reliability of the Shoben scale correlation coefficients were computed for scores obtained on the odd and even numbered items. Application of the Spearman-Brown formula for doubling the length of the test yielded correlation coefficients of .92 for mothers of schizophrenics and .90 for control mothers. Thus the instrument was found to be reliable for measuring the child-rearing attitudes of mothers of schizophrenics as well as of the control mothers.

Gordon attempted to test the validity of the scale by

⁴⁰Richard V. Freeman and Harry M. Grayson, "Maternal Attitudes in Schizophrenia," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 50:45-52, 1955.

⁴¹Marvin Zuckerman, Mary Oltean, Irwin Monashken, op. cit., p. 307.

comparing scores of mothers of deaf children with ratings of their behavior toward their children as observed by experts intensively over twelve days while all were attending a camp.⁴² The sample size was 41, consisting of two separate groups. Data for the two groups were inconsistent, but neither supported the validity of the scale.

Studies incorporating the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey

Trapp and Kausler tested the hypothesis that nursery school children of parents scoring either high or low on dominance attitudes will avoid adult contacts in a free-activity setting to a greater degree than nursery school children of parents scoring in the intermediate range on dominance attitudes.⁴³ The Dominant Subscale of the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey showed wider disagreement in attitudes between mothers and fathers of "poorly adjusted" than between mothers and fathers of "well adjusted" children.

Kates and Diab employed this instrument in a study.⁴⁴ Using this scale and several others, they examined the relationship between authoritarian beliefs and attitudes toward the parent-child relationship. They found, par-

⁴²Jesse E. Gordon, "The Validity of Shoben's Parent Attitude Survey," Journal of Clinical Psychology, 13:154-56, 1957.

⁴³E. Philip Trapp and Donald H. Kausler, "Dominance Attitudes in Parents and Adult Avoidance Behavior in Young Children," Child Development, 29:507-13, 1958.

⁴⁴Solis L. Kates and Lutfy N. Diab, "Authoritarian Ideology and Attitudes on Parent-Child Relationships," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51:13-16, 1955.

ticularly in female subjects, that authoritarian ideology is related to attitudes of dominance and possessiveness.

Using this scale, Bornston and Coleman found that a mother's own estimate of her attitudes provides a better predictive index for her child's aggressive reactions to frustration than does the child's interpretation of these attitudes.⁴⁵

Burchinal employed the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey and three other scales to determine the relationship between parental attitudes and child adjustment.⁴⁶ No significant relationship was found. These results may be due to the limitations of any one of the four instruments employed or to limitations of the instruments taken jointly.

Coleman, Bornston, and Fox used this scale and found a difference that was significant beyond the .01 level between mothers of children with reading disabilities and control mothers.⁴⁷

This instrument was used to investigate the relationship between attitudes of mothers and their children's

⁴⁵Frieda L. Bornston and James C. Coleman, "The Relationship Between Certain Parents' Attitudes Toward Child Rearing and the Direction of Aggression of Their Young Adult Offspring," Journal of Clinical Psychology, 12:41-44, 1956.

⁴⁶Lee G. Burchinal, "Parents Attitudes and Adjustment of Children," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 92:69-79, 1958.

⁴⁷James C. Coleman, Frieda L. Bornston, Jack Fox, "Parental Attitudes as Related to Reading Disabilities in Children," Psychological Reports, 4:47-51, 1958.

ethnocentrism.⁴⁸ A positive relationship between parental dominance and ignoring attitudes and children's ethnocentrism was found at the .01 level of significance.

Walters employed the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey in a series of studies concerned with the child-rearing attitudes of college students.^{49,50,51.}

These studies have established the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey as an instrument which is useful in assessing parent attitudes toward child-rearing practices, and which distributes these attitudes on a continuum and thus is of some value for distinguishing among the attitudes of parents of normal children as well as between parents of normal and of problem children.

In this chapter the writer has attempted to present selected studies from the literature which contribute background pertinent to the present investigation. A review

⁴⁸Sara Lee Dickens and Charles Hobart, "Parental Dominance and Offspring Ethnocentrism," The Journal of Social Psychology, 49:297-303, 1959.

⁴⁹James Walters and Barbara Bridges, "Attitudes of Single Men Toward Child Guidance," Journal of Home Economics, 48:109-113, 1956.

⁵⁰James Walters and Clara Fisher, "Changes in the Attitudes of Young Women Toward Child Guidance Over a Two-Year Period," Journal of Educational Research, 52:115-118, 1958.

⁵¹James Walters, "The Effects of an Introductory Course in Child Development on the Attitudes of College Women Toward Child Guidance," Journal of Experimental Education, 27:311-21, 1959.

of studies attempting to measure attitudes toward children demonstrated the usefulness of a self-inventory type attitude scale and the possibilities of such a scale for distinguishing varying degrees of an attitude. Studies concerned with attitude changes during participation in parent education programs revealed a need for further study in this area, especially with emphasis on the relationship between characteristics of participants and changes in attitudes. Finally, a review of several investigations indicated that the scale employed in this investigation is a useful instrument for assessing certain attitudes toward children.

CHAPTER III

GROUP STUDIED, INSTRUMENT USED, AND PROCEDURES

It is the purpose of this chapter to describe the sample studied; the origin, aims, content, and methods of the Parenthood in a Free Nation program; and the instrument employed to measure attitudes toward children.

The U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey was administered to persons participating in Parenthood in a Free Nation study-discussion groups in Greensboro, High Point and in Rutherfordton, North Carolina at the beginning of their first class meeting and again at the end of their last class meeting. In order to describe the sample and to determine whether several variables such as the participant's age and educational level were significantly related to any change in attitude, additional information was secured from the participants on a cover sheet at the time of the first administration of the instrument. The participant's subjective evaluation of his change in attitude was secured through a very brief questionnaire at the time of the second administration of the instrument. A copy of the participant's information and evaluation sheets are found in the appendix. A record of the number of meetings attended by each subject was obtained from the group leaders.

The first step in analyzing the data was to determine the amount and direction of attitude change as indicated by the scores for the initial and final tests. This was done on the basis of the total score and the score for each of the four subscales. It was then determined if the variables under consideration were significantly related to the scores.

The Situation

The Parenthood in a Free Nation program had its beginnings when the Ford Foundation's Fund for Adult Education sponsored a two day conference of professional workers with special experience in parent education.¹ The purpose of the conference was to compile suggestions for developing and trying out in experimental programs material and method of presentation designed to help parents become and bring up more mature and responsible citizens. They agreed upon these six major characteristics of mature, responsible citizens in a free society. (1) feelings of security and adequacy; (2) understanding of self and others; (3) democratic values and goals; (4) problem-solving attitudes and methods; (5) self-discipline, responsibility, and freedom; (6) constructive attitudes toward change. These were adopted as the major topics of the project's basic parent education course, Parenthood in a Free Nation.

¹Ethel Kawin, "Parenthood in a Free Nation," Children, 3:66-71, March-April, 1956.

Ethel Kawin was asked to outline a program for the course. This was published in a 130 page illustrated book entitled, Parenthood in a Free Nation. The outline consists of a basic reading for each of the six topics with additional references and a discussion guide for each topic.

The design of the course calls for an introductory meeting at which the general plan and content are presented by the leader and discussed by the group. At the closing meeting the course is summarized and evaluated and subsequent courses are discussed. The intervening six or eight meetings are devoted to the six major topics. It is suggested that the group divide into six subgroups, each accepting responsibility for planning the presentation of one of the six topics at one meeting. The purpose of the presentation is to stimulate discussion by all members of the group. Group leaders must have taken the basic course and a leadership training course especially designed for this program. The leadership training course is taught by a person who has professional training in the field.

The course is not designed to give specific and personal "answers."

It is designed to help parents and teachers acquire the knowledge and understanding which will enable them to decide for themselves how to meet the common everyday problems they encounter.²

Four specific goals of the Project are: (1) to increase

²Ibid., p. 70.

parents' knowledge and understanding of children and of themselves, and to develop their ability to utilize these in helping their children become mature, responsible citizens of a democracy; (2) to stimulate parents to seek such knowledge and understanding continuously; (3) to help parents feel more secure in their relationships to their children and to acquire increasing confidence in their own judgments; and (4) to help parents grow in their ability to share their common problems through study-discussion groups.

The Institute for Child and Family Development at The Woman's College of The University of North Carolina sponsored a summer workshop to train leaders for this program. Leaders of the groups involved in this investigation were trained either in this workshop or in a subsequent program. At a fall meeting of the leaders the investigator was introduced and the plans for this investigation were presented.

The Sample

As each Parenthood in a Free Nation group ordered materials to begin a course the Director of the Institute for Child and Family Development informed the investigator. The group leaders were contacted and asked if they would be willing to participate in the investigation. All who were contacted were willing to participate.

Although 104 persons in nine different groups completed the first attitude scale, only 59 persons in five

groups completed the course and the second attitude scale. The four groups which did not complete the course disbanded after a couple of meetings because of lack of interest as indicated by poor attendance.

The final sample was divided among five Parenthood in a Free Nation groups. A description of the composition of each group is shown in Table II.

As shown in Table II, the age range for the entire sample was 22 years to 55 years. The mean age for the sample was 37.2 years. Working mothers were defined as mothers with children under eighteen years who were gainfully employed 27 or more hours per week outside the home. There were 22 working mothers and 19 mothers with children under eighteen years who were not gainfully employed. In the total sample 34 were college graduates and 24 had not graduated from college.

In addition to the information given in Table II, it is of interest to note that only seven subjects had adults outside of the immediate family living with them.

Table III gives the occupational breakdown of the sample. Occupation refers to the occupation of the husband, or if the informant was an unmarried female, to the occupation of the informant.

The following paragraphs describe briefly the leaders and sponsoring organizations of each of the five Parenthood in a Free Nation groups which were studied.

The members of Group A were persons associated with a

TABLE II
Description of Subjects, By Groups

Description	Classification	Group					Total (N-59)
		A (N-15)	B (N-8)	C (N-6)	D (N-10)	E (N-20)	
Sex	Male	3	0	1	4	0	8
	Female	12	8	5	6	20	51
Race	White	0	8	6	10	19	43
	Nonwhite	15	0	0	0	1	16
Marital Status	Married	15	8	6	9	15	53
	Not Married	0	0	0	1	5	6
Age	Range	28-48	25-45	26-39	39-50	22-55	22-55
	Mean	36.2	32.5	32.7	43.3	38.0	37.2
Education	Not high school graduate	0	1	4	3	0	8
	High school graduate	0	3	0	1	0	4
	Formal education beyond high school	4	3	2	3	0	12
	College graduate	10	1	0	1	20	31
	Graduate degree	1	0	0	2	0	3
Working status of mother	Working	6	0	2	3	10	21
	Not working	5	8	3	3	0	19
Number of children	One	4	0	1	2	4	11
	Two	6	3	1	3	5	18
	Three	3	4	0	5	2	14
	Four	1	1	3	0	1	6
	Five	1	0	1	0	0	2
Attendance at meetings	Missed no meetings	3	1	3	5	20	32
	Missed one or more	12	7	3	5	0	27

TABLE III

Occupational Breakdown for the Total Sample,
Classified According to the Occupational Breakdown
For the 1960 Statistical Abstract

Classification	Number in Sample
Professional, technical and kindred workers.....	22
Farmers and farm managers.....	4
Managers, officials and proprietors, except farm.....	10
Clerical and kindred workers.....	6
Sales workers.....	4
Craftsmen, foremen and kindred workers.....	3
Private household workers.....	1
Workers, except private household.....	2
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	1
No occupation given.....	6

college laboratory nursery school. The leader, a woman, was a member of the faculty of the School of Home Economics and taught in the nursery school.

Groups B and C were led by the same woman, a Family Service Bureau worker. A Young Women's Christian Association sponsored Group B. Group C was sponsored by a Parent-teacher Association.

A high school home economics department sponsored Group D and the home economics teacher was their leader.

Group E consisted of college graduates who participated in this program as part of a summer school graduate course.

Most of the group members were working toward renewal of a teaching certificate or toward a graduate degree. A male professor in Child Development and Family Relationship was their leader.

Procedure

The investigator attended the first meeting of the groups, explained very briefly the purpose of the study and asked the members to participate. No one refused to take part. Each subject was given a copy of the instrument with participant's information page attached. Directions were printed on the instruments. The investigator explained several items on the participant's information sheet and reviewed the directions for completing the instrument. Subjects were asked to work quickly and to answer according to their first reaction to each statement. Numbers were used in the place of names on the instruments to assure anonymity. Subjects signed their names beside their number on a separate sheet to assure that the same number would be used at the time of the second administration of the instrument. Because the investigator was unable to attend the meetings of two of the groups, the leaders were asked to administer the instrument according to the directions given by the investigator.

Leaders were asked to keep a record of the number of meetings attended by each subject. At the end of the final meeting for each group the instrument was administered a second time. Upon completion of this survey subjects were

asked to fill out the attached sheet which provided for a very brief evaluation by the individual of his own change in attitudes. Subjects who had not attended the last meeting were given a questionnaire and inventory later by the leader to be filled out and mailed to the investigator.

Description of Instrument Used

A paper and pencil self-inventory scale, the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey, was selected as the method for assessing attitudes because this method is more expedient than individual interviews or observations. It was important that the attitudes of all of the subjects in each group be measured at the same time whenever possible.

The U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey is a self-inventory type survey consisting of 85 statements of general attitudes toward children to which the subject can respond by indicating that he Strongly Agrees, Mildly Agrees, Mildly Disagrees, or Strongly Disagrees. The statements are in the form of broad generalizations and cliches, and it is assumed that parents will most probably think of their own children in reacting to the statements.

The items are classified into three categories plus a small miscellaneous group of ten items: the Possessive Subscale reflects parental tendencies to pamper a child, to over emphasize bonds of affection between parent and child, to encourage the child's dependence upon the parent, and to restrict the child's activities to his own family

group; the Dominant Subscale reflects parental tendencies to put a child in a subordinate role, and to expect him always to conform completely to parental wishes under penalty of severe punishment; the Ignoring Subscale reflects parental tendency to disregard the child as an individual member of the family, to regard the good child as one who demands least parental time, and to disclaim responsibility for the child's behavior; and the Miscellaneous Subscale consists of emotionally toned statements about a variety of subjects regarding religion, sex, and socio-economic differences.

Shoben stated that responses to the items were weighted according to the differential contribution to discrimination among the four response categories, employing Guilford's formula.³ Scores for each scale were obtained by summing the weights for each item within the subscale. Higher scores indicate less desirable attitudes toward child-rearing practices, while lower scores are indicative of more desirable attitudes. The instrument with subscales and weights is found in the appendix.

After reviewing several parent attitude scales, the investigator chose the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey because of its high validity coefficients, ease of administration and brevity and because it had been widely used. Because the Parenthood in a Free Nation course is concerned with

³Edward J. Shoben, Jr., op. cit., p. 127.

helping parents to prepare children to become mature, responsible citizens able to assume the responsibility and self-discipline necessary for living in a free society, it seemed that the Dominant, Ignoring, and Possessive subscales in this scale were especially appropriate and among the attitudes most likely to change during such a course.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

It was the purpose of this investigation to determine (1) whether there was any significant change in parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices as measured by the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey during participation in a parent education study-discussion group, and (2) whether the amount and direction of any change in attitudes was related to certain variables such as age and education of participants. The null hypothesis employed was that no such change in attitude occurred, that is, that the participants' scores on the attitude surveys administered before the course began were equal to the corresponding scores on the attitude surveys administered at the final meeting of the groups. The .05 level of significance was selected as the level at which a difference between scores would be considered statistically significant.

Treatment of Data

This study was concerned with the differences between two measures for each individual subject. The change in score for each individual was the basic measure to be studied. The test employed to determine the statistical significance of the differences between measures for the sample and for each subgroup was the t test, using the

following formula:¹

$$t = \frac{\sum D}{\sqrt{\frac{N\sum D^2 - (\sum D)^2}{N-1}}}$$

In this formula D is the difference between the first and second measures for an individual subject. The number of subjects is represented by N. This formula was applied to the total scores and to each of the four subscales for the total sample and for each of the five subgroupings included in the sample.

In order to determine the relationship between certain variables and the change in scores, the subjects were grouped according to the following classifications: college graduates, and non-college graduates; those who missed no meetings, and those who missed one or more meetings; mothers who were gainfully employed and mothers who were not gainfully employed. The formula given above was applied to the scores of each of these groups.

Further study was made of each of these three variables; graduation from college, number of meetings missed, and working status of mothers, by comparing the two mean scores for the first administration of the instrument, and making a separate comparison of the two mean scores for the second administration of the instrument. A different formula for t was needed for this comparison, be-

¹Helen M. Walker and Joseph Lev, Statistical Inference. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953, p. 153.

cause differences in group means rather than changes in individual scores were being studied. The formula used was:²

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{s^2}{n_x} + \frac{s^2}{n_y}}}$$

$$s^2 = \frac{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n_x} + \sum Y^2 - \frac{(\sum Y)^2}{n_y}}{N_x + N_y - 2}$$

In this formula X is the score on the first administration of the instrument and Y is the score on the second administration of the instrument.

The degree of relationship between the subject's age and score was determined for both the first and second administrations of the instrument, employing the correlation coefficient. The formula used was as follows:³

$$r = \frac{\sum XY - \frac{(\sum X)(\sum Y)}{N}}{\sqrt{\left[\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{N} \right] \left[\sum Y^2 - \frac{(\sum Y)^2}{N} \right]}}$$

In this formula X represents the age of the participant and Y, the score on the attitude survey. This formula, in essence, arranges the values of one variable in rank order

²Oliver L. Lacey, Statistical Methods in Experimentation, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 101-131.

³Walker, op. cit., p. 234.

and measures the degree to which the corresponding values of the second variable tend to match this order. A correlation coefficient of 0 indicates no relationship between the two variables, and a correlation coefficient of 1 indicates perfect relationship. However, even where no real relationship exists, a correlation coefficient different from 0 can be expected as a matter of chance. Therefore a table showing the significance of correlation coefficients was used to tell whether the coefficients obtained were significant of a genuine relationship between age and scores.⁴

Results

Differences between first and second scores. Calculations resulted in the following values of t, listed according to subscales of the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey for the total sample of 59 subjects.

<u>Subscale</u>	<u>Value of t</u>
Dominant	3.9417*
Possessive	1.4223
Ignoring	.0503
Miscellaneous	.8512
Total Scale	2.3054**

*(At d.f. = 60, P.001 = 3.460)

** (At d.f. = 60, P.05 = 2.000)

Changes in scores for the total sample were significant at the .05 level. Thus the null hypothesis that there was no change in scores could be rejected with a reasonable degree of confidence. The change was in the direction of

⁴Ibid., p. 245.

more desirable attitudes toward child-rearing practices.

On the Dominant subscale changes in scores for the total sample were significant at the .001 level. The null hypothesis that there was no change in scores could be rejected with a very high degree of confidence for this subscale. This change was toward more desirable attitudes toward child-rearing practices.

Changes in scores in the remaining three subscales were not statistically significant.

Examination of Tables IV, V, and VI reveals the very strong influence that the changes in scores of one of the five groups of subjects must have exerted upon the results for the total sample.

Throughout the following discussion it should be remembered that Group E differed considerably from Groups A, B, C and D, and was not a typical Parenthood in a Free Nation course situation. All members of Group E were college graduates taking this course for college credit, and most of them were teachers who had had training and experience in presenting subject matter to a group and in leading discussion.

The mean scores obtained on the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey, differences between mean scores on the first administration and second administration of the instrument, and values of t , classified according to groups and to the subscales and Total Score, are presented in Tables IV through VIII. Scores on the subscales varied in magnitude because the

number of items making up the subscales differed. A lower score is indicative of more favorable attitudes.

Table IV shows the mean scores for the first administration and second administration of the instrument, and the values of t , classified by groups, for the Total Score.

TABLE IV

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t , Classified According to Groups, For Total Score

Group	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
A	15	343.533	342.200	.289
B	8	339.500	332.375	2.133*
C	6	347.000	343.000	1.300
D	10	347.300	354.800	2.735**
E	20	345.200	331.700	3.875***

*(At d.f. = 7, $P.1 = 1.895$)

** (At d.f. = 9, $P.05 = 2.262$)

*** (At d.f. = 19, $P.002 = 3.579$)

Group E showed a change toward more desirable attitudes which was significant at the .002 level. Group D exhibited a change toward less desirable attitudes which was significant at the .05 level, while the remaining three groups demonstrated slight changes toward more favorable attitudes. Changes for Group B approached significance and were in the direction of more desirable attitudes. The null hypothesis that no change in scores occurred could not be rejected for Groups A, B, and C. The

null hypothesis could be rejected with a high degree of confidence for Group E, and with a reasonable degree of confidence for Group D.

Table V shows the mean scores for the first administration and second administration of the instrument, and the values of t , classified by groups, for the Dominant Subscale

TABLE V

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t , Classified According to Groups, for Dominant Subscale

Group	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
A	15	160.33	159.27	.554
B	8	159.38	156.00	1.371
C	6	162.17	157.17	1.732
D	10	161.80	164.90	.911
E	20	159.80	150.10	6.596*

*(At d.f. = 19, $P.001 = 3.883$)

Group E showed a change toward more desirable attitudes which was significant at the .001 level. Changes in the remaining groups were not statistically significant. Therefore the null hypothesis that no change in scores occurred could not be rejected for Groups A, B, C, and D. The change indicated for Group E would have occurred less than one in one thousand cases by chance, and therefore the null hypothesis could be rejected with a very high

degree of confidence for this group.

Table VI shows the mean scores for the first administration and second administration of the instrument, and the values of t , classified according to groups, for the Possessive Subscale

TABLE VI

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t , Classified According to Groups, for Possessive Subscale

Group	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
A	15	82.47	81.73	.477
B	8	77.63	78.63	.514
C	6	83.33	83.17	.117
D	10	84.80	86.50	.791
E	20	82.60	78.45	2.714*

*(At d.f. = 19, $P.02 = 2.539$)

Group E showed a change toward more desirable attitudes which was significant at the .02 level. Changes in the remaining groups were not statistically significant. The null hypothesis employed was that there would be no change in the scores. The small differences found for Groups A, B, C, and D could have been due to chance, and therefore the hypothesis could not be rejected. For Group E, allowing two or fewer sampling errors in each one hundred, there was a significant change in scores from the first to the second administration of the instrument. The

null hypothesis could be rejected with 98 percent confidence.

Table VII shows the mean scores for the first administration and second administration of the instrument, and values of t , classified according to groups, for the Ignoring Subscale. None of the changes was statistically significant. Therefore the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

TABLE VII

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t , Classified According to Groups, for Ignoring Subscale

Group	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
A	15	59.00	60.00	.073
B	8	60.63	58.38	1.097
C	6	60.50	60.33	.084
D	10	58.30	60.10	1.143
E	20	60.35	61.05	.620

Table VIII shows the mean scores for the first administration and second administration of the instrument and values of t , classified according to groups, for the Miscellaneous Subscale. None of the changes was statistically significant, that is, the changes indicated could have been due to chance, and the null hypothesis that no change in scores occurred could not be rejected. The value for t for Group B approached significance.

TABLE VIII

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t , Classified According to Groups, for Miscellaneous Subscale

Group	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
A	15	41.73	41.20	.612
B	8	41.88	39.38	1.923*
C	6	41.00	42.33	1.131
D	10	42.40	43.30	.777
E	20	42.70	42.10	.770

*(At d.f. = 7, $P.1 = 1.895$)

Relationship between certain variables and changes in scores

Attendance

In order to determine whether there was any relationship between the number of meetings missed and change in total score, the median number of meetings missed was calculated. The median was zero. The sample was then divided into two groups: those who had missed less than the median, or no meetings; and those who had missed more than the median, or one or more meetings.

Table IX shows the mean scores for the first administration and second administration of the instrument and values of t , classified according to number of meetings missed.

TABLE IX

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t, Classified According to Number of Meetings Missed

Number of meetings missed	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
0	32	346.19	337.56	2.914*
1 or more	27	342.59	341.85	.260

*(At d.f. = 30, P.01 = 2.750)

The changes in total score for those who missed no meetings were significant at the .01 level. Changes in total score for those who missed one or more meetings were not statistically significant. Therefore the null hypothesis that subjects who missed one or more meetings and subjects who missed no meetings would show the same degree of change in scores could be rejected with a high degree of confidence. The scores of subjects who missed no meetings indicated changes which were significantly greater than those of subjects who missed one or more meetings. These results were influenced strongly by the highly significant changes in scores in Group E (one-third of the sample), all of whom missed no meetings.

Table X shows mean scores for subjects who missed no meetings and for subjects who missed one or more meetings, and values of t, for the first administration and second administration of the instrument. Differences between means for these two groups on the first administra-

tion and second administration of the instrument were no greater than those which could be expected to occur by chance. Therefore the null hypothesis that no difference in means existed could not be rejected.

TABLE X

Mean Scores for Subjects Who Missed No Meetings and For Subjects Who Missed One or More Meetings and Values of t , For the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument

Administration of Instrument	<u>Meetings Missed</u>		Difference Between Means	Value of t
	0	1 or More		
First	346.19	342.59	3.59	.731
Second	337.56	341.85	4.29	.851

Education

To determine whether graduation from college was related to any change in total score, the sample was divided into two groups, those who had graduated from college and those who had not graduated from college. There were 34 college graduates and 24 who had not graduated from college.

Table XI shows the mean scores on the Total Scale for the first administration and second administration of the instrument and values of t , classified according to graduation from college.

The changes in scores for subjects who were college graduates were significant at the .05 level. Changes in scores for subjects who had not graduated from college were not statistically significant. The null hypothesis that no

TABLE XI

Mean Scores for First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument and Values of t , Classified According to Graduation from College

	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
College Graduates	34	343.00	336.18	2.375*
Not College Graduates	24	346.08	342.92	.999

*(At d.f. = 32, $P.05 = 2.037$)

change in scores had occurred could be rejected for the college graduates and could not be rejected for subjects who had not graduated from college. These results were influenced strongly by the highly significant changes in scores in Group E (one-third of the sample), all of whom were college graduates.

Table XII shows the mean scores for college graduates and non-college graduates, and values of t , for the first administration and second administration of the instrument. Differences between these mean scores were not statistically significant. College graduates in this sample did not show more desirable or less desirable attitudes toward child-rearing practices than subjects who had not graduated from college on either administration of the instrument.

TABLE XII

Mean Scores for College Graduates and Non-College Graduates, and Values of t , for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument

Administration of Instrument	Mean Scores		Difference Between Means	Value of t
	College Graduates	Not College Graduates		
First	343.00	346.08	3.08	.612
Second	336.18	342.92	6.74	1.345

Working Status of Mothers

In order to determine whether there was any relationship between the working status of a mother and the change in total score, the mean scores of working mothers and those of mothers who were not gainfully employed were calculated.

Table XIII shows the mean scores on the Total Scale for the first administration and second administration of the instrument, and values of t , classified according to working status of mothers. None of the changes was statistically significant. The differences shown could have been due to sampling error. Thus the null hypothesis that no change had occurred could not be rejected.

Table XIV shows the mean scores on the Total Scale of working and non-working mothers, and values of t , for the first administration and second administration of the instrument. Neither of the differences was statistically significant. The mean scores of mothers who worked outside the

TABLE XIII

Mean Scores for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument, and Values of t , Classified According to Working Status of Mothers

Working Status of Mothers	Number in Group	\bar{X}_1	\bar{X}_2	Value of t
Employed	22	342.86	340.36	.647
Not Employed	19	343.05	340.47	1.680

home did not indicate more desirable or less desirable attitudes toward child-rearing practices than those of mothers not employed outside the home on either administration of the instrument.

TABLE XIV

Mean Scores of Working and Non-Working Mothers, and Values of t , for the First Administration and Second Administration of the Instrument

Administration of Instrument	Mean Scores		Difference Between Means	Value of t
	Working Mothers	Non-Working Mothers		
First	342.86	343.05	.19	.032
Second	340.36	340.47	.11	.017

Age

The correlation coefficient was calculated to determine whether any relationship existed between age and total score at the time of the first administration of the instrument, and between age and total score at the time of the

second administration of the instrument. A positive correlation coefficient would have indicated that as age increased scores increased in systematic and progressive fashion. A coefficient of zero would have indicated that no relationship existed between age and scores. It was found that the correlation coefficient between age and the first score was .080, and between age and second score was .241. Neither of these was statistically significant, meaning that such small correlations could be due to chance factors. The correlation coefficient of .241, however, approached significance at the .05 level. This may indicate that as age increased there was a slight tendency for scores to be higher (or attitudes less desirable). It may also indicate that there was a slight tendency for older subjects to experience less change in score than younger subjects from the time of the first administration of the instrument to the time of the second administration of the instrument.

Participants' subjective evaluations

At the end of his parent education course each participant in this investigation was asked to give his subjective evaluation of his change in attitude by checking a form prepared by the investigator. (A copy of this form is included in the Appendix.) Of the 59 participants, four did not answer this question; five indicated that they believed their attitudes had not changed; and 50 indicated that they believed their attitudes had changed during the time they participated in this course. Of these 50, 20 indicated that

they believed their attitudes had changed "Slightly;" 23, "Moderately;" and five, "Extensively." Two participants indicated that they believed their attitudes had changed, but that they did not know how much. Three of those who believed their attitudes had not changed and two who did not answer this question were in Group D. Scores for Group D on the Total Scale indicated a significant change toward less desirable attitudes. All five who believed their attitudes had changed "Extensively" were in Group E. Every member of Group E believed that his attitudes had changed. Scores for Group E on the Total Scale indicated a highly significant change toward more desirable attitudes. In Groups A, B, and C, 24 out of 29 subjects indicated that they believed their attitudes had changed, although scores for these subjects revealed that no statistically significant changes had occurred.

Summary of Findings

Judgment of significance is based upon the probability of obtaining, by chance, the changes in scores exhibited in this investigation. Significance at the .05 level indicates that the results obtained would occur by chance with a probability of only one in 20. Changes in scores found to have a probability of .05 or less were interpreted as indicating a real or significant change in scores. Those found to have a probability of greater than .05 were considered not significant, that is, the changes were no greater than what might have been expected to occur by chance.

In the present investigation the total sample of 59 subjects exhibited changes in attitudes toward child-rearing practices as measured by the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey which were significant at the .05 level. On the Dominant Subscale the total sample exhibited changes significant at the .001 level. These changes were in the direction of more desirable attitudes. Changes on the remaining three subscales were not statistically significant.

An investigation of the changes in scores for the five groups which composed the sample revealed that only one of the five groups had exhibited changes in the direction of more desirable attitudes. Group E exhibited changes in scores on the Total Scale which were significant at the .002 level, on the Dominant Subscale which were significant at the .001 level, and on the Possessive Subscale which were significant at the .02 level. Group D exhibited changes in score on the Total Scale which were significant at the .05 level in the direction of less desirable attitudes. All other changes in scores were not statistically significant.

The total sample changed significantly toward more desirable attitudes on the Dominant Subscale and Total Scale. These changes were probably influenced considerably by the very highly significant change exhibited by Group E on the Dominant Subscale. Group E also showed changes on the Possessive Subscale which were significant at the .02 level. All other values of t for the subscales were small enough to be due to sampling error. Thus it appears that the sig-

nificant changes shown in the total sample may have been influenced strongly by one group which comprised about a third of the sample and was the only group to show significant changes toward more desirable attitudes.

The scores of subjects who had missed none of the group meetings indicated changes in attitudes which were significant at the .01 level. Changes in scores of subjects who had missed one or more meetings were not statistically significant.

The scores of subjects who had graduated from college indicated changes in attitudes which were significant at the .05 level. Changes in scores of subjects who had not graduated from college were not statistically significant. These results were influenced strongly by the highly significant changes in scores in Group E (one-third of the sample), all of whom were college graduates and missed no meetings.

Changes in the scores of working mothers and mothers who were not employed outside the home were not statistically significant.

There was no significant correlation between age of participants and their scores on either administration of the instrument, although a correlation approaching significance for the second administration of the instrument indicated that there may be a slight tendency for older participants to make higher scores and to experience less change in scores.

A review of the participants' subjective evaluations

of their change in attitudes revealed that a great majority (50 out of 59) believed that their attitudes had changed. A study of the evaluations for each group revealed that the largest percentage of negative responses were from the one group whose scores indicated significant changes toward less desirable attitudes. The most positive evaluations were from participants in the group which showed highly significant changes toward more desirable attitudes. In the remaining three groups 24 out of 29 subjects indicated that they believed their attitudes had changed, although scores for these groups revealed that no statistically significant changes had occurred as measured by the attitude scale.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The tremendous growth in popularity of parent education activities in this country over the past 65 years has not been accompanied by an equal growth in efforts to determine the effectiveness of this activity. Orville Brim pointed out that there has been a gross lack of systematic research in the field of parent education. The Parenthood in a Free Nation program of study-discussion groups was originally evaluated by measuring demand and the subjective opinion of the participants. There have been no objective measures to determine whether a change in attitudes toward children takes place during the time that members participate in a Parenthood in a Free Nation group.

It was the purpose of this investigation to determine (1) whether there was a significant change in parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices as measured by the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey during participation in certain Parenthood in a Free Nation study-discussion groups, and (2) whether the amount and direction of any change in attitudes was related to certain variables such as age and education of participants.

A review of the literature representing attempts to measure attitudes toward child-rearing practices and the

development and use of attitude scales revealed that the self-inventory type attitude scale has been widely and successfully employed. Studies concerned with attitude changes during participation in parent education programs revealed a need for further study in this area, especially with emphasis on the relationship between characteristics of participants and changes in attitudes.

The University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey was developed by Edward J. Shoben as a measure of attitudes toward child-rearing practices. The scale consists of 85 statements with which the informant is to Strongly Agree, Mildly Agree, Mildly Disagree, or Strongly Disagree. It is divided into four subscales; the Dominant, the Possessive, the Ignoring, and the Miscellaneous. Several studies have established this instrument as one which is sufficiently sensitive to differentiate among parents of normal children as well as between parents of normal and of problem children.

The U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey was administered to persons participating in Parenthood in a Free Nation study-discussion groups at the beginning of their first class meeting and again at the end of their last class meeting. Additional information was secured from the participant on a cover sheet at the time of the first administration of the instrument, and the participant's subjective evaluation of his change in attitude was secured through a very brief questionnaire completed at the time of the second administration of the instrument. The final sample consisted of 59 persons

divided among five groups.

The t test was employed to determine the degree of significance of the difference between scores on the first and second administrations of the instrument. This was done on the basis of the total score and the score for each of the four subscales for each of the five groups and the total sample. It was then determined whether the number of meetings missed, graduation from college, or working status of mothers was related to changes in scores. Correlation coefficients were used to determine whether any relationship existed between age and scores.

In the present investigation the total sample of 59 subjects exhibited changes in attitudes toward child-rearing practices as measured by the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey which were significant at the .05 level. On the Dominant Subscale the total sample exhibited changes significant at the .001 level. These changes were in the direction of more desirable attitudes. Changes on the remaining three subscales were not statistically significant.

An investigation of the changes in scores for the five groups which composed the sample revealed that only one of the five groups had exhibited changes in the direction of more desirable attitudes. Group E exhibited changes in scores on the Total Scale which were significant at the .002 level, on the Dominant Subscale which were significant at the .001 level, and on the Possessive Subscale which were significant at the .02 level. Group D exhibited changes in score on the

Total Scale which were significant at the .05 level in the direction of less desirable attitudes. All other changes in scores were not statistically significant.

The total sample changed significantly toward more desirable attitudes on the Dominant Subscale and Total Scale. These changes were probably influenced considerably by the very highly significant change exhibited by Group E on the Dominant Subscale. Group E also showed changes on the Possessive Subscale which were significant at the .02 level. All other values of *t* for the subscales were small enough to be due to sampling error. Thus it appears that the significant changes shown in the total sample may have been influenced strongly by one group which comprised about a third of the sample and was the only group to show significant changes toward more desirable attitudes.

The scores of subjects who had missed none of the group meetings indicated changes in attitudes which were significant at the .01 level. Changes in scores of subjects who had missed one or more meetings were not statistically significant.

The scores of subjects who had graduated from college indicated changes in attitudes which were significant at the .05 level. Changes in scores of subjects who had not graduated from college were not statistically significant. These results were influenced strongly by the highly significant changes in scores in Group E (one-third of the sample), all of whom were college graduates and missed no meetings.

Changes in the scores of working mothers and mothers who were not employed outside the home were not statistically significant.

There were no significant correlations between age of participants and their scores on either administration of the instrument, although a correlation approaching significance for the second administration of the instrument indicated that there may be a slight tendency for older participants to make higher scores and to experience less change in scores.

A review of the participants' subjective evaluations of their change in attitudes revealed that a great majority (50 out of 59) believed that their attitudes had changed. A study of the evaluations for each group revealed that the largest percentage of negative responses were from the one group whose scores indicated significant changes toward less desirable attitudes. The most positive evaluations were from participants in the group which showed highly significant changes toward more desirable attitudes. In the remaining three groups 24 out of 29 subjects indicated that they believed their attitudes had changed, although scores for these groups revealed that no statistically significant changes had occurred as measured by the attitude scale.

Conclusions

1. Certain limitations included in this investigation need to be recognized and taken into account in considering

the interpretation of the data.

(a) One limitation of the present investigation is the lack of a control group. It was not known whether any attitude changes taking place in the present sample would have taken place if the subjects had not been participating in the study-discussion groups.

(b) Failure on the part of the investigator to ascertain reasons for subjects dropping from classes, or for entire classes being discontinued places another limitation upon interpretation of the data. Accurate information pertaining to reasons for drop-outs would have been very difficult and almost impossible to obtain. Therefore, only the very brief explanations of the leaders were available.

(c) Difficult to assess, but present in a study of this type are any limitations inherent in the specific instrument employed to measure attitudes toward child-rearing practices, as well as the limitations generally involved in employing a test of this type to measure complex attitudes. (i) The range of response is limited. (ii) Statements may not be interpreted uniformly due to differences in perceptions and verbal facility among the persons tested. (iii) A subject may sincerely believe that the response he has made is an accurate reflection of his actual attitude, whereas this may or may not be so. (iv) A subject may try to answer according to how he thinks he should feel rather than according to how he actually does feel. Assurance of anonymity by use of numbers instead of names, and instructions to work quickly

may have helped minimize this somewhat.

2. In the present study the fact that only one group in five showed statistically significant changes toward more desirable attitudes raises questions concerning the differences between that group and the others which may explain the results. It seems likely that motivation to learn may have been a factor, for the members of this group participated in this class as part of a course for graduate credit for which they were to receive a grade. They possibly expected to do and did do more outside reading than the other groups. The part played by the personality and techniques of the leader is difficult to evaluate, since these groups differed in other ways, but it seems likely that the leader may have had some effect on the outcome. Although this group was composed mainly of teachers, who might be expected to have more desirable attitudes than the general sample, their original mean score of 345.20 did not differ significantly from the mean score for the total sample, which was 344.54. Their final mean score of 331.70 was below the mean for the total sample, which was 339.19.

Also, because most of the subjects in this group were teachers it could be assumed that they had had more training and experience than most of the other subjects in presenting material to a group and in leading group discussion. The Parenthood in a Free Nation program was planned so that the group members present topics and lead discussions, and the results obtained in this investigation raise questions as to

the advisability of depending upon persons untrained in group leadership techniques to take these responsibilities.

3. Results of this investigation suggest that a desirable change in attitudes toward child-rearing practices occurs when the Parenthood in a Free Nation program is incorporated into a college-credit course.

Attitude, as defined in this investigation denotes an emotional as well as an intellectual state of readiness to act in a positive or negative direction. Therefore a gain in information may not in itself bring about a change of attitude. It seems probable that learning facts and sharing the experiences of others may contribute to a change in attitudes only after one has had time and opportunity to think through these in terms of his own situation. Even then, certain personality factors may cause an attitude to be more or less flexible.

The Parenthood in a Free Nation program does not aspire to produce a measurable change in long-established and irrationally based attitudes. It supplies information and experiences which may foster gradual and subtle changes toward a more desirable philosophy of child-rearing. The fact that one group in five in the present exploratory study showed a statistically significant change toward more desirable attitudes toward children, as measured by the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey, during the time they participated in this program indicates that such study-discussion groups may have possibilities for helping parents and teachers to im-

prove their attitudes under certain circumstances. Further study is needed to determine what circumstances and characteristics of participants and leaders lead to the most desirable changes.

Suggestions for Further Study

1. A need for attempts to further establish the validity and reliability of the U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey or to develop and establish validity of a similar scale has been indicated by a review of the literature concerning attitude scales.

2. Further study is needed to determine the relationship between parental attitudes and a child's mental health. Assumptions about this relationship have served as the basis for this and many other investigations.

3. Investigations similar to the present one but employing control groups are needed to supply more conclusive results.

4. Much study is needed to determine the types of programs which are most effective and characteristics of participants most likely to benefit from parent education programs. Studies concerned with the effects of personality characteristics such as dominance, persuasibility and anxiety and with the effects of the social setting of the parents in determining the effectiveness of parent education programs would be of value.

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PARENTHOOD IN A FREE NATION
Participant Information Sheet

Name _____ Sex _____

Your Address _____

Age of Husband _____ Age of Wife _____

Occupation of Husband _____

Number of Hours Each Week Wife Works Outside Home _____

High school grade in school attended by _____

Number of _____? _____? _____?

Children _____

APPENDIX

Name _____ Sex _____ Age _____

PARENTHOOD IN A FREE NATION
Participants Information Sheet

Name _____ Sex _____

Home Address _____

Age of Husband _____ Age of Wife _____

Occupation of Husband _____

Number of Hours Each Week Wife Works Outside Home _____

Last grade in school attended by

Husband _____ Wife _____

Children:

	Sex	Age
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Other adults living in the home (please specify: grandmother, aunt, uncle, etc.)

Participant's Evaluation

1. Do you believe that this course has resulted in any changes in your feelings and ideas about raising children:

Yes

No

2. To what extent do you believe your feelings and ideas have changed?

Slightly

Moderately

Extensively

Don't know

3. In what ways do you believe your feelings and ideas about raising children have changed?

4. Comments:

University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey

Please read each of the statements below. Rate each statement as to whether you strongly agree, mildly agree, mildly disagree or strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own convictions. Work as rapidly as you can. Draw a circle around the letter that best expresses your feeling.

			Strongly Agree	Mildly Agree	Mildly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Ig.	1.	A child should be seen and not heard.....	6 SA	5 MA	4 MD	3 SD
Poss.	2.	Parents should sacrifice everything for their children.....	6 SA	5 MA	3 MD	4 SD
Poss.	3.	Children should be allowed to do as they please.....	5 SA	5 MA	2 MD	5 SD
Ig.	4.	A child should not plan to enter any occupation his parents don't approve of.....	6 SA	6 MA	4 MD	5 SD
Dom.	5.	Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them.....	6 SA	5 MA	3 MD	4 SD
Dom.	6.	A child should have strict discipline in order to develop a fine, strong character.....	6 SA	4 MA	3 MD	3 SD
Ig.	7.	The mother rather than the father should be responsible for discipline.....	6 SA	4 MA	3 MD	4 SD
Poss.	8.	Children should be "babied" until they are several years old.....	6 SA	5 MA	3 MD	4 SD
Dom.	9.	Children have the right to play with whomever they like.....	4 SA	3 MA	5 MD	5 SD
Poss.	10.	Independent and mature children are less lovable than those children who openly want and need their parents.....	6 SA	5 MA	4 MD	3 SD
Poss.	11.	Children should be forbidden to play with youngsters whom their parents do not approve of.....	5 SA	5 MA	3 MD	2 SD

Ig.	12.	A good way to discipline a child is to tell him his parents won't love him any more if he is bad.....	6	3	4	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	13.	Severe discipline is essential in the training of children.....	6	6	5	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	14.	Parents cannot help it if their children are naughty.....	6	5	4	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	15.	Jealousy among brothers and sisters is a very unhealthy thing.....	4	5	2	6
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	16.	Children should be allowed to go to any Sunday School their friends go to.....	5	2	4	5
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	17.	No child should ever set his will against that of his parents.....	6	6	2	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	18.	The Biblical command that children must obey their parents should be completely adhered to.....	6	4	4	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	19.	It is wicked for children to disobey their parents.....	6	4	4	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	20.	A child should feel a deep sense of obligation always to act in accord with the wishes of his parents.....	6	5	3	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	21.	Children should not be punished for disobedience.....	5	6	3	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	22.	Children who are gentlemanly or ladylike are preferable to those who are tomboys or "regular guys".....	5	5	3	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	23.	Strict discipline weakens a child's personality.....	4	3	4	5
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	24.	Children should always be loyal to their parents above anyone else.....	6	3	4	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	25.	Children should be steered away from the temptations of religious beliefs other than those accepted by the family.....	6	6	3	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	26.	The weaning of a child from the emotional ties to its parents begins at birth.....	5	3	4	5
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	27.	Parents are not entitled to the love of their children unless they earn it.....	4	3	5	6
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	28.	Parents should never try to break a child's will.....	4	2	5	5
			SA	MA	MD	SD

Dom.	29. Children should not be required to take orders from parents.....	2	5	4	5
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	30. Children should be allowed to choose their own religious beliefs.....	4	3	4	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	31. Children should not interrupt adult conversation.....	5	4	2	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	32. The most important consideration in planning the activities of the home should be needs and interests of the children....	4	2	5	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	33. Quiet children are much nicer than little chatterboxes.....	6	4	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	34. It is sometimes necessary for the parent to break the child's will.....	6	5	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	35. Children usually know ahead of time whether or not parents will punish them for their actions.....	5	3	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	36. Children resent discipline.....	5	4	3	5
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	37. Children should not be permitted to play with youngsters from the "wrong side of the tracks".....	6	5	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	38. When the parent speaks, the child should obey.....	5	5	3	2
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	39. Mild discipline is best.....	4	3	5	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	40. The best child is one who shows lots of affection for his mother.....	6	5	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	41. A child should be taught that his parents always know what is best.....	5	5	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	42. It is better for children to play at home than to visit other children.....	6	4	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	43. Most children should have more discipline than they get.....	6	4	3	2
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	44. A child should do what he is told to do, without stopping to argue about it.....	6	4	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	45. Children should fear their parents to some degree.....	6	5	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD

Poss.	46. A child should always love his parents above everyone else.....	6	4	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	47. Children who indulge in sex play become adult sex criminals.....	5	6	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	48. Children should be allowed to make only minor decisions for themselves.....	5	5	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	49. A child should always accept the decision of his parents.....	5	5	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	50. Children who readily accept authority are much nicer than those who try to be dominant themselves.....	6	4	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	51. Parents should always have complete control over the actions of their children...	5	4	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	52. When they can't have their own way, children usually try to bargain or reason with their parents.....	5	3	4	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	53. The shy child is worse off than the one who masturbates.....	4	3	5	5
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	54. Children should accept the religion of their parents without question.....	5	6	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	55. The child should not question the commands of his parents.....	6	4	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	56. Children who fight with their brothers and sisters are generally a source of great irritation and annoyance to their parents.....	6	3	4	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	57. Children should not be punished for doing anything they have seen their parents do..	4	4	3	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	58. Jealousy is just a sign of selfishness....	6	3	4	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	59. Children should be taught the value of money early.....	5	3	3	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	60. A child should be punished for contradicting his parents.....	6	5	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	61. Children should have lots of parental supervision.....	5	3	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD

Poss.	62.	A parent should see to it that his child plays only with the right kind of children.....	6	4	3	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	63.	Babies are more fun for parents than older children are.....	6	5	4	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	64.	Parents should supervise a child's selection of playmates very carefully.....	6	4	2	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	65.	No one should expect a child to respect parents who nag and scold.....	5	3	5	2
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	66.	A child should always believe what his parents tell him.....	6	4	3	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	67.	Children should usually be allowed to have their own way.....	6	3	3	6
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	68.	A good way to discipline a child is to cut down his allowance.....	5	4	3	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	69.	Children should not be coaxed or petted into obedience.....	4	3	6	5
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	70.	A child should be shamed into obedience if he won't listen to reason.....	6	3	4	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	71.	In the long run it is better, after all, for a child to be kept fairly close to his mother's apron strings.....	6	6	3	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	72.	A good whipping now and then never hurt any child.....	6	4	3	2
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	73.	Masturbation is the worst bad habit that a child can form.....	6	5	4	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Poss.	74.	A child should never keep a secret from his parents.....	7	4	3	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	75.	Parents are generally too busy to answer all a child's questions.....	6	4	3	3
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	76.	The children who make the best adults are those who obey all the time.....	6	5	3	4
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	77.	It is important for children to have some kind of religious upbringing.....	6	3	2	2
			SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	78.	Children should be allowed to manage their affairs with little supervision from adults.....	5	3	4	5
			SA	MA	MD	SD

Dom.	79. Parents should never enter a child's room without permission.....	3	3	3	7
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	80. It is best to give children the impression that parents have no faults.....	6	5	4	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	81. Children should not annoy their parents with their unimportant problems.....	6	5	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	82. Children should give their parents unquestioning obedience.....	6	4	4	2
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Misc.	83. Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children.....	6	4	3	4
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Ig.	84. Children should have as much freedom as their parents allow themselves.....	6	4	3	6
		SA	MA	MD	SD
Dom.	85. Children should do nothing without the consent of their parents.....	6	5	3	3
		SA	MA	MD	SD