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A Comparison of the Attitudes of Educators and Their Parents as Measured by Four Constructs Associated with Child Abuse

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A COMPARISON OF THE ATTITUDES OF EDUCATORS AND THEIR PARENTS AS MEASURED BY FOUR CONSTRUCTS ASSOCIATED WITH CHILD ABUSE

By

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VITA

Judith M. Stone is the daughter of the late Dorothy M. and Lee E. Stone. She was born on August 23, 1939, in Chicago.

Judith attended elementary schools in Chicago, Barrington and Berwyn and graduated from Oak Park and River Forest High School in 1957. Her Bachelor of Arts degree in psychology was awarded in June 1961 from MacMurray College in Jacksonville, Illinois. In her senior year she served as president of the student body and was selected for Who's Who Among Students in American Colleges and Universities.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There is ample evidence that children have been abused throughout recorded history. Early civilizations considered it a right for parents to mutilate, maim, sell, kill or in a myriad of ways to psychologically or physically abuse children (Bakan, 1971; DeMause, 1974; Radbill, 1974). In most instances these practices were justified, legalized and sanctioned by prevailing social beliefs and practice. Zigler (1976) has written that: "This long history of child abuse has left an historical residue which makes the physical punishment of children an acceptable form" (p. 30).

Only recently have instances of the maltreatment of children been specifically identified as abusive and neglectful. A group of physicians brought the issue to prominence when they first coined the phrase and introduced the symptoms which they called "the battered child syndrome." The following year the publication of their presentation virtually catalyzed the medical world into heightened awareness of child abuse and neglect (Kempe, Silverman, Steele, Brandt, Droegemueller and Silver, 1962). Much of the early interest and research remained within the medical world. This resulted in an overemphasis on medical treatment for the child and attempts to intervene with future abusive acts by the parent(s).

Within the past ten years researchers have been attempting to de-emphasize the heritage of this earlier, more narrow focus on physical injuries and on those who have already abused their children (Alvy, 1975; Garbarino, 1977; Gil, 1970; Martin, 1976). Most of the research, treatment, rehabilitation and a host of legal, medical and psychological intervention efforts have been directed toward helping and understanding the abuser. Most of these efforts have been after-the-fact and interventive rather than preventive. Speaking specifically about the maltreatment syndrome, Wertham (1973) has stated that it is not only "...these heartless cruelties against defenseless children, but of the inadequacy of the steps taken so far to prevent them" (p. x).

Need for the Study

If prevention is to be achieved in the area of child abuse, then methods for identifying the potential to abuse must be determined. Irwin (1974), discussing recommendations of the American Academy of Pediatrics, listed the development of valid predictive questionnaires to identify the potential to abuse as a priority. Thus a study of an inventory which attempts to measure attitudes based on constructs typically found in abusive individuals is essential.

Bavolek (1978) on the basis of an extensive review of the literature and agreement from a panel of experts in related fields has developed an inventory of parenting

attitudes. The inventory identifies attitudinal postures based on four parenting constructs found in abusive parents.

The first objective of this study is to field test Bavolek's (1978) inventory to verify the factor structure he presented and thus further validation studies on the instrument, the Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory (A/API--in Appendix A). Although some pilot work has been done, this study represents the first major attempt to validate the instrument with an adult population.

The attitudes of graduate students in education, primarily educators, will be compared with Bavolek's results. Thus an attitudinal study among those who function either as surrogates or secondary socializing agents will be presented as a second part of the study.

Lastly, the attitudes of parents of the sample group will be compared with the attitudes of those graduate students who participated in the study. Parental attitudes are found by asking students to estimate how their parents would have responded to the questionnaire. This last information will additionally provide data for later comparisons between the attitudes found to be held by abusive persons and the views perceived to represent their own parent(s) biases.

Bavolek's (1978) 32-item inventory identifies and measures these constructs:

A. Inappropriate expectations of the child.

Bavolek thought that abusing parents tend to expect children to be capable beyond his/her developmental or maturational level. Their inappropriate expectations are based on a genuine lack of knowledge as to what might be reasonably expected and possible at each developmental stage. This is a gross misperception of the limited abilities and helplessness of the infant or child. Toilet training, eating and motor skills, are some of the areas in which a child is expected to achieve performance levels beyond reasonable expectations.

B. Inability to be emphathically aware of the child's needs.

Bavolek thought that abusive parents are simply unable to understand and respond to the needs of their offspring. Nurturance, if present at all, is inconsistent and disregard of the child's needs is one hallmark of the syndrome. Of primary value to the parent is submissive behavior of the child.

C. Strong belief in the value of punishment.

Bavolek thought that abusive parents have strong feelings about the value of punishment and their right to use it. These parents believe physical punishment is for the good of the child and thus proper means for disciplining 'badness' or inadequacy, whether real or not, in the child.

D. Role reversal.

The child's burden is one in which he or she, in meeting parental needs, is forced to take on the role of a supportive and responsive individual. The parents, who as children never had their needs met, look to their children for satisfaction of their unmet emotional needs. The children take on the adult role of meeting their parents' needs and consequently their own needs are unmet (Bavolek, 1978).

Bavolek's inventory was primarily tested on adolescents and was ultimately able to differentiate significantly between adolescents who had been abused and a group whose history gave no indication of abuse.

Bavolek (1979) is currently testing the instrument on identified adult abusers. At this time, no claims can be made particularly with adults, as to the inventory's ability to predict or identify an individual as an abuser. However, the validity of the constructs and the content indicate the inventory's viability as a tool for identifying the presence of specific parenting attitudes which parallel those found in abusive parents.

There is a need to provide normative data with adult populations on Bavolek's Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory (A/API). The need for this type of inventory as a screening device within a preventive framework is apparent. If the A/API can be used to identify people who are more likely to be abusive, then verification measures and early treatment can be effected prior to abuse.

The Purposes of the Study

This study, and others currently in process or planned with divergent groups, will help provide normative data necessary to determine the inventory's validity and utility. Verification of the importance of the factors as well as the measurement of the factors by this inventory will be meaningful additions to preventive work in the area of child abuse. This verification of Bavolek's factor structure is the major rationale and primary purpose of this study.

A second reason for this study is related to educational concerns. Outside of the family, the primary source of caring for children is the school system. This responsibility of the school is more grave when dealing with children from abusive backgrounds. These children have experienced a pervasive lack of tenderness and sensitivity to their needs and are virtually incapable of trust. Abusive parents, usually themselves abused as children, often enforce social isolation which makes it difficult, if not impossible for the child to experience alternative adult models (Garbarino, 1977; Parke and Collmer, 1975; Young, 1964).

Fraser (1977) states that "...teachers and other school personnel are the first line, and in some cases, the last line of defense in the fight against child abuse" (p. 1). While the legal responsibility he refers to is a major and mandated issue on an interventive level, personal and psychological responsibility of school personnel would appear to have its own mandate as a basic moral responsibility.

"Education for Parenthood--A Primary Prevention Strategy for Child Abuse and Neglect," a recent publication of the Child Abuse Project (Education Commission of the States, 1976), sees this kind of involvement as preventive and vital if change is to take place. Educators will increasingly be involved in helping to change the cycle of child abuse whether through modeling, affective education or courses preparing young people for parenthood (Children Today, 1973, 1975; Martin, 1973).

Yet, Kline and Hopper (1975), in an extensive review of the child abuse literature found a virtual paucity of educational sources, research and concerns. Little is known about the educational problems and needs of abused children. Less is known about the abilities of schools and teachers to deal with either the educational handicaps or the more subtle psychological injuries that are by-products of abusive home settings. What focus there has been in education has tended to relate to the laws and mechanisms for reporting suspected abuse. Educational concerns tend to be almost token references, usually found in journals unlikely to be read by school personnel. Attitudinal research among educators, those who may be the 'last line of defense,' has been all but neglected.

Educators, some of whom are parents, all of whom work within a system which functions in a surrogate parental role and as socializing agents in terms of daily exposure, formed the sample population for this study. A pilot study in

California (Bavolek, 1978), in which 30 educators were given the inventory, did indicate the presence of some extreme scores on the attitudinal construct scales. If such attitudes are reflected in the present study, on any or all of the four constructs, suggestions would be made for either inservice or appropriate educational courses or seminars which could focus on specific training areas.

While teachers are important socializing agents, parents are most often credited with being the principle source of influence in learning basic attitudes. Attitudes as links to understanding an individual's personality, values, motivations and actions, have been seen as reflectors of one's socialization (Halloran, 1967).

Interest in the way one experiences, judges and remembers events and individuals involved in the process of attitude formation is a major area of psychological interest and research. Questionnaires are one of the most common means by which past sources and present attitudes are measured. Knowledge of an individual's social attitudes is, according to Halloran (1967), an excellent barometer of an individual's past experiences and "...in all probability it is the best basis for prediction yet devised" (p. 28).

To obtain indications of past remembrances and experiences the respondents in this study were asked to answer the A/API a second time. The second set represents those attitudes

perceived to represent their own parents' biases about child rearing when the respondents were growing up. The final objective of this study will be to analyze comparisons between the self and projected parental responses to the A/API.

Definitions of Terms

Child abuse--as defined in the Abused and Neglected Child Reporting Act of the State of Illinois (1975), Section 3:

> 'Child' means any person under the age of 18 years. 'Abuse' means any physical injury, sexual abuse or mental injury inflicted on a child other than by accidental means by a person responsible for the child's health or welfare. 'Neglect' means a failure to provide by those responsible ...the proper and necessary support, education as required by law, or medical or other remedial care recognized under State law, other care necessary for the child's well-being; or abandonment by his parent, guardian or custodian; or subjecting a child to an environment injurious to the child's welfare.

Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory (A/API): A 32-item inventory of parenting and child-rearing attitudes which parallel those found in abusive parents.

Self: The set of responses reflecting the respondent's own child-rearing attitudes as measured by the A/API.

Parent: The set of responses perceived to represent the child-rearing attitudes of the parents of the respondents as measured by the A/API.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to students enrolled in Loyola University's summer courses in the Graduate School of Education.

In addition, the instruments used are self-report measures making the degree of reporting accuracy difficult to determine.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I introduces the rationale for the study. In addition the purposes of the study, terms and limitations are defined. Chapter II will present a review of the literature related to child abuse and neglect. Special emphasis will be placed on the need for preventive measures. Educational concerns related to child abuse and school personnel will be discussed. Lastly attitudinal research related to parenting and inter-generational questions as well as conceptual and definitional concerns will be presented.

Chapter III will focus on the design, methodology, instrumentation, data collection and proposed analyses of the data with Chapter IV presenting the results and findings of the statistical analyses. Chapter V will summarize the results and suggest recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of the related literature. The first section provides an historical overview with special emphasis on legal, religious and literary accounts of child abuse. The next section explores the current state of research and theory which is followed by preventive research and an introduction to Bavolek's (1978) Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory. The present involvement and preventive potential of the institution of education in the area of child abuse precedes the section on definition. The following section discusses developmental issues and the significance of early parent-child interactions and child-rearing practices and attitudes in abusive and non-abusive contexts. Constructs typically found in child abuse and measured by the Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory are described in the final section.

Historical Perspective

Maltreatment of children has been supported, accepted and often encouraged in law, religion and literature (Fontana, 1973). Legal, historical, mythical and literary accounts have been, and still are filled with tales of the abusive treatment of children.

There are references to some supportive legislation and times of reform, but they are sporadic and short-lived (DeMause, 1974, 1975; Fraser, 1976; Radbill, 1974).

The pervasiveness of the rights of parents and caretakers and the concomitant abrogation of the rights of children has been legalized since statutes were first recorded. The Hammurabi Code, mankind's first written set of statutory enactments, was written over 2,000 years before the birth of Christ. According to Fraser (1976) the Code established the father's sovereignty, accepted and adopted the practice of infanticide and defined the parent-child relationship as one of ownership. This last section of the code was the basis for a long history of thinking about the child as chattel or property.

Early philosophers and 'enlightened' leaders such as Plato, Aristotle and Seneca approved of the killing of defective children (Bakan, 1971). Later Greek law was less repressive and more enlightened towards children and their rights (Fraser, 1976).

Roman law then proceeded to establish the concept of patria potestas. This feature provided once again unilateral and unquestionable power and rights to the father as undisputed head of both the immediate and extended family. Much of the heritage of parental power (particularly patriarchal power) and rights, family unity and sanctity is reflected today in American laws, courts, and philosophy (Fraser, 1976).

The Bible contains many references to the offering of children as sacrifices, destroying the firstborn and the often quoted references to sparing the rod and spoiling the child. In early Mexico, children were sacrificed to the gods to help, in a symbolic way, the maize crop. Thus, newborns were sacrificed at the time of sowing, older children when the maize began to sprout, and then even older children as the crop matured (Fontana, 1973; Kline and Christiansen, 1975).

Bakan (1971) provides another historical view of the pervasiveness and often not very subtle occurrence of abusive themes in children's literature and lullabies. A few examples found so often in well-known fairy tales indicate these kinds of frightening overtures and overtones. Cinderella is surely a story of abuse. Hansel and Gretel were abandoned by their parents and left to die. Even a very short poem learned at an early age has Jack falling down and breaking his crown. Many stories depend upon a good prince or magical fantasy power to save some young person from a fairly deadly animal, lethal poison or evil person. The words of one of the more widely loved lullabies has as its final line the idea that when the bough breaks, "...down will come baby, cradle and all."

The occurrence of maltreatment is also quite apparent during the 19th and early 20th centuries. The advent of the Industrial Revolution produced a different kind of abuse as children provided cheap and efficient labor in mines, sweat shops and factories (Block, 1973; Radbill, 1974). Children were, once again, viewed as property and little more than economic units by their owners or

parents. The hue and cry which occurred finally, as a result of known deplorable conditions in the factories did ultimately result in compulsory education and child labor laws. It also resulted in what Kline and Christiansen (1975) termed an "...epidemic of child abandonment..." (p. 15) in which literally thousands of children were left to die on the streets as their economic usefulness diminished.

The most publicized incidence of individual child abuse in this country occurred in New York City in 1874 and the story is frequently recounted in the literature. Mary Ellen, a nine-year old child was chained to her bedside, severely beaten and malnourished. As there were no laws pertaining to humane treatment of children, her rescuers ultimately appealed to the "Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals" on the grounds that the child was a member of the animal kingdom. This case led to the creation of the first "Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children" the following year (Fontana, 1973). It is obvious that protection for animals had been an earlier consideration than protection for children.

Current Theoretical and Research Perspectives

Although other groups and societies, foundling homes, government efforts and a few reform periods followed, relatively little was known or written about child abuse until the early 1960's. During the mid-forties some roentgenologists were beginning to question the appearance of injuries whose origins were blatantly suspect (Fontana, 1973; Riddle, 1975). Regardless of the mounting

evidence, these medical specialists were unwilling to accept unexplainable injuries as inflicted by parents or caretakers.

The area of child abuse and neglect was all but neglected itself, particularly by the medical and psychological fields, other than for sporadic incidents, movements and some minimal legal involvement. The two individuals most responsible for a burgeoning interest, at least in the medical field are Drs. C. Henry Kempe and Ray Helfer, both pediatricians. Kempe et al. in 1962 alerted the medical world to what was then termed "the battered child syndrome." Helfer and Kempe began the first center dedicated to working with the problem of child abuse and neglect in Denver and have co-authored three already classic texts (1968; 1972; 1976) and numerous articles.

In general, however, the research that has been done in the area of child abuse and neglect has received recent criticism. Zigler (1976), who deplores the poor state of theory and research in the area of child abuse and neglect, has written a pessimistic article entitled "Controlling Child Abuse in America: An Effort Doomed to Failure." In it he states:

> There is general agreement that theoretical and empirical research in the area of child abuse remains primitive and rudimentary. The work done to date has been relatively recent, relatively limited in quantity, and poor in quality. (p. 29)

Gelles (1973) feels that the abuse literature does not meet "...even the minimal standards of evidence in social science" (p. 611), and Spinetta and Rigler (1972) feel that the psychological literature is little more than professional opinion.

As physicians, Kempe and Helfer (1968; 1972; 1976) and most other researchers followed a fairly strict medical model approach to a given 'disease.' Primary focus was on the physical harm to the child with attendant emphasis on diagnosis, pathogenesis and etiology of the sickness residing within the abuser. Attention was given to the physical harm with little attention to any other consequences of abuse. Much care was given to the broken arm or bruises with little or no thought given to the internal scars and/or emotional, educational or social sequelae of abuse (Kline and Hopper, 1975; Martin, 1976).

As Spinetta and Rigler (1972) indicate, the research focus tends to be quite narrow. In their review of the attendant psychological literature agreement is found among the majority of authors relative to "...psychological factors within the parents themselves as of prime importance in the etiology of child abuse" (p. 302). The primary focus is still on the individual who abuses and concomitant emphasis on the sickness which resides solely in that person.

Garbarino (1977) discusses this further limitation of the medical model's focus on pathology. Medical model ascribants, in his view, tend to also subscribe to 'kinds of people' theories and thus too much emphasis has been given to looking at the abuser as mentally ill. Recently psychiatrists and psychologists and researchers in the field of child abuse have begun to agree that severe pathology is rarely present. In fact, the percentage of

truly psychotic or seriously disturbed individuals approximates the same percentage found in non-abusive individuals (Steele and Pollock, 1974; Wasserman, 1967).

The area of child abuse and neglect has been dominated by investigators using a disease model as the primary focus of research. However, some of the forerunners, pediatricians such as Helfer and Kempe (1968; 1972; 1976) and psychiatrists such as Steele and Pollock (1974) are now redirecting their efforts to greater emphasis of multidisciplinary and, particularly, preventive approaches.

McKinney (1976) discussing related aspects in developmental psychology, attempts to bridge the disease model with a learning model:

> The more that is learned about child abuse, the greater tendency there is to move away from the after-the-fact disease model to the more preventive learning model. (p. 60)

Preventive Research in Child Abuse

Many current researchers agree that prevention, on a primary level, should be the ultimate goal and there have been recent attempts to realize this goal. Manciaux and Deschamps (1977) attempted to construct a risk grid whose ultimate utility is described as "...primarily descriptive and retrospective rather than predictive and preventive" (p. 61).

Others seeking predictive and preventive measures have employed a variety of tools. Gray, Cutler, Dean and Kempe (1976) using interviews, questionnaires and observations with

pregnant women found that observations during delivery were more significant than other measures in determining high-risk mothers. High-risk mothers who then participated in an intervention program fared clinically better than did the routine care high-risk mothers in that some children of the latter group required hospitalization for suspected abuse, as contrasted with none for either the intervention group or a control group.

Other researchers have used a variety of methods including some physiological measurements in addition to interviews, observations and questionnaires (Caulfield, Disbrow and Smith, 1977; Disbrow, Doerr and Caulfield, 1977; Doerr, Disbrow and Caulfield, 1977). The variables included the following data: parents' background, personality measurements, social network resources, ways of handling child behaviors, parent-type attitudes, parent-child interaction patterns, antecedents to early attachment and physiological response categories.

Their findings that abusive and neglecting parents are frequently abused as children, are low in empathy, have few close friends and are quite socially isolated, show role-reversal with children, and have strict disciplinarian attitudes, are congruent with other studies (Bavolek, 1978; Gray, et al., 1977; and Helfer, Schneider and Hoffmeister, 1978).

The Helfer et al. (1978) study is based on twelve years of research with the Michigan Screening Profile of Parenting (MSPP). There are five clusters measured by the instrument: (1) Emotional

Needs Met; (2) Relationship with Parents; (3) Dealing with Others; (4) Expectations of Children; and (5) Coping. The MSPP was developed on two basic assumptions. The first is that parents are truly interested in interacting with their children in positive ways and want to do well by their offspring. Secondly, the experiences in early childhood, particularly with one's own parents, greatly influence the way in which individuals interact with their own offspring.

Helfer et al. (1978) caution that the questionnaire is still in the development stages and not to be used as a diagnostic tool or without further verification by using other techniques. To date the Emotional Needs Met Cluster is more sensitive as an indicant of an abusive profile than the other four clusters, whether singly or in combination. Predictive validity has not yet been determined and the perceptions of parenting obtained are "...associated with current problem parenting" (p. 2). The sample has been primarily of mothers or pregnant women.

Bavolek (1978) is the first researcher to focus on identification of the potential to abuse with an adolescent population. He has recently developed a 32-item instrument which measures four parenting constructs typically found in those who abuse. While still in the experimental and exploratory stage, the inventory, at least with adolescents, achieved significant differences between young people who had been abused and those who had not. The instrument, the Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory, yet to be tested with an

adult population shows promise as a preventive tool and is discussed in greater detail in the last section of this chapter.

Although there are current projects developing preventive measures, the continuing emphasis on physical trauma has all but negated emphasis on the sequelae of abuse (Kline and Christiansen, 1975; Martin, 1976). This accounts, in part, for the late entry of school involvement and the almost total lack of attendance to the problem of child abuse in educational literature (Kline and Hopper, 1975).

Educational Involvement

Most of the early literature in child abuse focused on and indicated that most abuse took place prior to the age of three, and thus occurred prior to preschool age. More recently, following the work of Gil (1969), the alarming incidence of abuse in elementary school years as well as into adolescence is being confirmed (Ferro, 1975; Fisher and Berdie, 1978; Lebsack, 1974). It is only within the past ten years that data and the literature have discussed the need for a broader and more responsive involvement of the schools, whether on preventive or interventive levels (Children Today, 1973, 1975; Education Commission of the States, 1976; Gil, 1969).

Fox (1978), lamenting a lack of involvement, has stated that education has been virtually ignored other than a few projects and that this is particularly "...unfortunate and

regrettable considering the fact that education is the only institution that sees children on a daily basis from age 5 on up." It is apparent that the unique potential for prevention and intervention present in the school systems is just beginning to be developed. What focus there has been has tended to relate to the laws and mechanisms for reporting (Kline and Christiansen, 1975).

Kline and Hopper (1975), in an extensive review of nearly 500 articles and twenty books, found references to the need for school involvement in only 53 of the sources. The mentions were usually tangential to the presented material and appeared in journals unlikely to be read by school personnel.

Steele (1975), a psychiatrist long involved with child abuse and an innovator in working with abusive families, feels that: "The first task faced by all...is that of coming to peace with one's own attitudes toward...abuse and neglect..." (p. 4). Yet, little is known of the attitudes and awareness on the part of that system whose impact and importance is second only to that of the family system, that is, the school system (Fraser, 1976; Kristal, 1977).

The attitudes of educators and parents have been clearly represented in the area of the use of force with children. Stark and McEvoy (1970) report that over 80 percent of the public feel that strong discipline by parents is in order and more than half of all American adults sanction teachers using physical

punishment in school. Lear (1977) reports that a recent survey by the Pennsylvania Department of Education showed that over 70 percent of parents, educators and school board presidents favor corporal punishment. Eighty percent of school board presidents were most likely to sanction corporal punishment as compared to only 25 percent of the students.

Alvy (1975; 1978), a critic of the more narrow, psychodynamic approach which tends to focus criticism on the parent who abuses suggests:

> When schools resort to corporal punishment, they are imposing discipline with degradation rather than dignity. And not only are they perpetuating violence, but they are also engaging in behavior that they are otherwise legally required to report to the authorities. (1978, p. 3)

Zigler (1976) finds it appalling that legal and socially sanctioned abuse is found in "...that social institution which, after the family, is the most important socializing agent in America: the school" (p. 34).

To date the primary research focus in education has been on awareness of mandated laws, secondary prevention techniques and suggestions for training related to recognizing and reporting abuse (Education Commission of the States, 1976; Kristal, 1977). The preventive potential of educational systems is beginning to gain popularity. However, attitudinal research among educators has been all but neglected.

Bavolek (1978) recommended, after field testing the A/API on an adolescent population that norms be established with adults

by collecting and analyzing between and among groups differing on various demographics. He specifically suggests gathering data from professionals in fields such as mental health and education because of their routine contact and modeling potential. In fact, Bavolek (1978) administered the A/API to a small group of educators in California. The pilot study indicates the presence of some extreme attitudinal postures among some of the teachers in the group.

Martin (1976) stresses that, as with other crimes, the victim is often less attended to than the offender. Research, treatment, rehabilitation and various legal, medical and psychological efforts have been aimed at rehabilitating and understanding the abuser. He sees the public schools as a major therapeutic force as much of the development of skills and knowledge is assumed by the school system after the age of six:

> It is hoped that we can go beyond the initial critical concern with mortality and medical morbidity to encompass concern for the child's subsequent cognitive, emotional and social development. (Martin, 1976, p. 6)

Most writers agree that one of the perplexing or compounding elements making meaningful research so problematic in education and in general is the lack of a commonly agreed upon definition of basic terminology.

Problems of Definition

Zigler (1976) feels that the lack of an accepted definition of child abuse is the "...single most telling indicator that the

child abuse area is at an extremely primitive level of theory construction..." (p. 20). Many authors writing in this area (Alvy, 1975; Gelles, 1973; Parke and Collmer, 1975; Zigler, 1976) tend to see the definitional problem as one embedded in the biases inherent in the disciplines form which individuals come, and basically, these are either psychodynamic or sociocultural biases.

Individuals primarily from medical and clinical disciplines focus on personality defects and internal weaknesses (Fontana, 1972; Helfer and Pollock, 1967; Kempe et al., 1962; Paulson and Blake, 1969; Spinetta and Rigler, 1972; Steele and Pollock, 1968). Much emphasis is placed on the individual's need, or more recently, the family's need for treatment (Bandler, Grindler and Satir, 1976).

Alvy (1975), Garbarino (1977), Gelles (1973), Gil (1970), and Zigler (1976) who reflect sociological frames of reference focus on external environmental factors. They stress issues such as social class, income, family size, the institutional influence of the school, society's general acceptance of violence (particularly to children), living conditions, etcetera. Those who support the sociological stress model point out that economic factors are foremost but those who support a more clinical base point out that most lower-class families do not abuse their children and that many middle- and upper-class families are abusive and neglectful (Kempe and Helfer, 1972; Steele, 1976).

While the vast majority of research done has been by those in the medical field, Garbarino (1977) argues that the difficulty in achieving a broader definition of abuse is due not to the medical world's illness and disease model, but rather in society's unwillingness to accept blame that they would like to place solely on the parents. Garbarino feels that:

> The broader the definition of abuse, the more clear is its relation to 'normal' caregivers and their behavior with children, and the more serious the indictment against society and its institutions. (p. 722)

If a broader definition were to be adopted, the indictment would include not just the parents, but institutions and society as a whole and would focus on children's rights, an area long denied (Fraser, 1976; Zigler, 1976).

Further, Garbarino (1977; 1979) and Gil (1970) feel that the inability to define abuse, specifically to include the more operationally ambiguous components of emotional and psychological and sexual abuse, "...reveals the lack of a coherent pro-child ideology among Americans" (p. 72). As mentioned, most earlier definitions of abuse were limited to dealing with physical harm to a child and today there are still some states whose definitions exclude mention of neglect (Fraser, 1976).

There simply is no one agreed upon definition and there exists much disagreement within legal, medical and scholarly works as well as among practitioners in the field. Legal definitions differ state to state; medical and clinical

practitioners focus on physical abuse and have difficulty defining and dealing with emotional neglect and sexual abuse; and there is disagreement about terminology, treatment and causal elements (Fraser, 1976; Kline and Christiansen, 1975; Parke and Collmer, 1975; Zigler, 1976).

Developmental Aspects

One of the causal elements which has been well documented in the literature is the importance of the early years and the parent-child interactional experiences at that time.

Psychiatrists and psychologists, whether accepting the inheritance of the Freudian legacy or learning theorists, have long asserted the importance of the first few years of a child's life. Whether one stresses the first year or the first five years, this time is seen as the prime developmental period. During these years the fundamental basic personality is set by the quality of the parent-child interactions. This forms the blueprint for later adaptation to reality. Yarrow (1961) asserts that the importance of the early experience: "...has been reiterated so frequently and so persistently that the general validity of this theory is now almost unchallenged" (p. 463).

The classic works of Spitz (1945), Bowlby (1951), Brody (1956) and Harlow (1965) highlight the importance of bonding and attachment as well as the need for adequate parenting if social growth and development is to proceed without impoverishment. The residue caused by the absence of an adequate

parenting imprint and/or appropriate bonding are all too clear in the descriptions of deprivation, depression and sometimes marasmus presented in the research in this area.

Different disciplines use varying terminologies to describe early learning effects, but few refute the importance and legacy established within the immediate home environment by one's caretakers. As Stelle (1976) states:

> It is largely accepted that the fundamental patterns of behavior and language are learned by the growing child in the first three years of life, in his own home, from the examples and precepts of his caretakers. (p. 15)

McClelland, Constantian, Regalado and Stone (1978) in a follow-up study with the children in the classic Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) study of child-rearing practices, actively question whether the prevailing notion that "...even large differences in early experiences...make a difference later in life" (p. 2). In fact, one of the major conclusions of their study is "...that much of what people do and think and believe as adults is not determined by what happened to them at home in the first five years of life" (p. 44).

Satir (1972), more traditionally stresses that parents are often unaware of the carryover from their own childhood and what a potent influence it is. She describes one's childhood as the time in which a blueprint for family interactions occurs whether the early environment was nurturing or negligent. One's attitudes, motivations and values are developed and adopted from those observed at home.

Attitudes, seen as a reflection of one's personality and socialization are described by Halloran (1967) as "...our major equipment for dealing with reality,...our style of operation, our way of coping with and dealing with problems" (p. 28). The perpetuation and replication of parental attitudes, values and morals appear to stem from identification with one's parents at an early age and are maintained in adulthood (Bandler, Grindler and Satir, 1976; Fry, 1975).

Satir (1972) feels that 'probably' more people want to parent in a different manner than the way in which they were parented. This is probably much less possible for those who come from an abusive background.

Abusive parents, typically socially isolated and themselves abused as children, often marry a person from a similar background. They do not have as much opportunity for observing and interacting with different models or for becoming aware of alternate parenting approaches. The cyclical nature and etiology of child abuse and the inherited potential to abuse is well documented as is the apparent transmission of abusive attitudes that are passed from generation to generation (Barnard, 1973; Helfer and Kempe, 1974; Lystad, 1975; Pollock, 1968; Young, 1964).

Spinetta and Rigler (1972) in the section of their review of attitudes of child-abusing parents found:

> The authors seem to agree that abusing parents lack appropriate knowledge of child-rearing, and that their attitudes, expectations and child-rearing techniques set them apart from nonabusive parents. (p. 299)

In the area of child abuse and neglect, acceptance of a history of prior abuse and neglect is one of the most consistent findings (Garbarino, 1977; Lystad, 1975; Parke and Collmer, 1975; Spinetta and Rigler, 1972) and yet no research has been done to find out how one breaks the cycle (Corbin, 1977; Light, 1973). In other words, it is known that those who abuse were likely to have been abused, but it is also known that not all who were abused in turn abuse their offspring.

Recent research, while outside of the area of child abuse and neglect per se, is indicating that at least some children at risk appear able to survive bleak and non-nourishing home environs. Garmezy (1976) and Anthony (Anthony and Koupernik, 1974) have found that children, particularly from families with psychopathological home conditions, are more likely not to fall prey to the expected and predicted dire outcomes that their backgrounds would appear to dictate.

> What we are asserting is that our theories...whether rooted in biogenetic, sociological, psychological or developmental factors, generate prediction errors of considerable magnitude. (p. 78)

Steele (1977) feels that greater awareness of the ways in which intergenerational child-rearing practices and attitudes are learned or not would be of immense value in the area of prevention. Many have raised the question as to why socioeconomic benefits do not prevent abuse or why greater numbers of economically stressed and depressed families do

not abuse (Anthony and Koupernik, 1974; Helfer and Kempe, 1972; Korbin, 1979; Steele, 1976).

Korbin (1977; 1979) feels that psychological and anthropological studies have yet to show a clear correlation between early experiences and later adult behaviors. She feels that the notion of child-rearing practices being almost automatically passed on from generation to generation is in need of cross-cultural research.

In general, most researchers agree that attitudes are learned and predispose one to action and they are seen as hallmarks of one's past experiences and current biases (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Fry, 1975; Halloran, 1967; Satir, 1972). While there is much agreement with the notion that parents tend to emulate the modeling observed during their own childhoods (Bandura and Walters, 1963; Helfer and Kempe, 1972; Satir, 1972; Steele, 1976), other research is beginning to question and examine other potent influences which might allow for different outcomes (Korbin, 1977, McClelland et al., 1978). McClelland et al. (1978) conclude:

> Now they (parents) can rest assured that so long as they really like the child and don't organize his or her life entirely around adult needs, they are doing the things that make the most difference. (p. 46, underscore and parentheses mine)

Constructs in Child Abuse

The emphasis on not organizing a child's life around adult needs does reflect one of the problem areas for abusive parents. One of the most characteristic and primary constructs of the child

abuse syndrome is an inevitable role reversal (Morris and Gould, 1973; Spinetta and Rigler, 1972; Waterman, 1963). The child, in meeting parental needs, is forced to take on the role of a supportive and responsive individual who must continuously attempt to meet unrealistic expectations placed upon him or her. It is his or her duty, as a support system and surrogate adult, to submissively and perfectly comfort, approve of and respond to childlike parental models. Steele and Pollock (1968) state:

> It is hardly an exaggeration to say the parent acts like a frightened, unloved child, looking to his own child as if he were an adult capable of providing comfort and love. (p. 109)

The role reversal inherent in the abusive setting, at least in the absence of an alternative model, leads to a lack of mothering, a loss and lack of normal developmental childhood experiences and abilities and a tendency to repeat the same behaviors with their own children (Parke and Collmer, 1975; Spinetta and Rigler, 1972).

A second construct typically and consistently found in abusive parents is the setting of behavioral expectations beyond developmental capabilities. Attitudes and knowledge about the nature of child-rearing and age-appropriate expectations and capabilities are distorted. Thus the child is expected to perform and conform at inappropriately early ages (Helfer, 1976; Kempe and Helfer, 1972; Parke and Collmer, 1975).

Given the dearth of nurturance in their own childhood experiences, abusing parents find themselves unable to be empathically aware of their child's needs. This third construct

found commonly among abusing parents makes them incapable of responding to or recognizing the child's helplessness, limitations and basic need structure (Helfer and Pollock, 1967; Steele, 1975).

A fourth area in which abusive parents have been shown to share aberrantly is in the use of physical punishment as a proper, appropriate and righteous means of correcting bad behavior. Children learn, as the result of often rather forceful measures, to obey compliantly and are often unaware that their punishment is reflective of both the ways in which their parent(s) were abused and for the same reasons, however real or imagined the offense (Davoren, 1975; Merrill, 1962; Steele, 1975; Wasserman, 1967).

Bavolek (1978) has developed an inventory which identifies attitudinal sets based on the four parenting constructs identified in the literature as commonly found in abusive parents. The 32-item inventory identifies and measures:

A. Inappropriate expectations of the child

B. Inability to be empathically aware of the child's needs

C. Strong belief in the value of punishment

D. Role reversal.

Recognizing the need to identify high-risk individuals with the potential to abuse, Bavolek was the first to devise an instrument which could be used with an adolescent population.

The specific objective of his dissertation was to develop and validate an inventory which could compare adolescent parenting attitudes and knowledge about child-rearing practices with those commonly found in abusive individuals. The inventory was primarily tested on adolescents and was ultimately able to differentiate significantly between abused adolescents and a group not identified as abused.

Summary

The attitudes and practices employed by abusive parents are learned much as attitudes and practices in more conventional families are learned. Abusive parents (and their children), whose social contacts are limited, and who often marry a person from a similar background, usually do not have as much opportunity for different models or for an awareness of alternate parenting or socializing approaches. Relatively little research has been conducted to see if attitudinal biases about child-rearing practices can be used to predict or identify the potential to abuse.

A vital source of socialization and modeling takes place in school settings and may be one of the few areas where abusive children are exposed to different attitudes and approaches. Attitudes among school personnel and the use of the institution of education as a preventive arena is an area in need of research.

This review highlights the history of research in the area of child maltreatment and the need to explore different avenues

which will allow the assessment of attitudes and their formation and heritage within abusive and non-abusive individuals. The need to field test an instrument which has been able to differentiate between adolescents who had been abused and a group who had not is important in terms of achieving or maximizing on the preventive potential of such an inventory.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

One of the purposes of this study was to collect normative data to verify the factor structure on a new instrument, the Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory (A/API-see Appendix A). Secondly, the data were analyzed to assess the parenting attitudes of educators as measured by the four constructs of the A/API. The four constructs are: inappropriate expectations of the child; inability to be empathically aware of the child's needs; strong belief in the value of punishment; role reversal. The third purpose was to compare the self ratings on the A/API with projected parental responses to the A/API including comparisons based on various demographic variables both between and within groups across the four constructs.

The Design of the Study

The design of this study was a field study of the exploratory type. Exploratory research is preliminary to hypothesis testing and is more heuristic than many other types of research (Kaiser, 1972; Kerlinger, 1973).

Population and Sample

The sample consisted of graduate students attending summer sessions at Loyola University in 1978. Loyola University is a major university in the city of Chicago offering both master and doctoral level programs in related areas of the field of education. The summer graduate sessions offered by Loyola's Graduate School of Education attract a large number of educators as well as many interested in teaching and/or administrative work. The educators work in the greater metropolitan (city and suburban) area in fairly typical educational settings, public and private, in all levels from primary through higher education. Those who take summer courses come from a variety of settings and reflect, in and of themselves, differing backgrounds, life and work experiences.

The sample consisted of 194 students enrolled in graduate courses in education at Loyola's Water Tower Campus during the second of two summer sessions. The respondents, primarily educators, were pursuing graduate courses in four related areas within the School of Education: Educational Administration, Curriculum, Foundations of Education and Guidance and Counseling.

With the exception of seven non-citizens who were excluded, the entire population (n=194) were included in the sample. Stratified randomization had been planned but low course registration as well as some faculty reticence to the administration of the instrument during class time made this impossible. While

randomization is not inherent, population diversity is greater than that found in the original testing of the main instrument used in the study. The descriptions of the sample given below are summarized in Table 1.

Age: Sixty-seven members of the group (34.5 percent) were under thiry years old; 82 individuals (42.5 percent) were between thirty and thirty-nine and the remaining 45 respondents (23.2 percent) were over forty years of age.

Sex: Women respondents outnumbered men by slightly more than three (148) to one (46) and accounted for 76.3 percent of the total group.

Marital status: Seventy people (36.3 percent) were single and 69 were married (35.8 percent). Twelve persons were divorced (6.2 percent), 3 were separated (1.6 percent) and there was one widow (unsolicited response). Of the married group, 56 were women (81.2 percent). An additional 20.2 percent (39 persons) of the population were religious (ministers, priests, nuns).

Religion: There were 113 Catholics in the group (58.2 percent), 32 Protestants (16.5 percent) and 18 were Jews (9.3 percent). Another 12 people (6.2 percent) listed 'other' as their religion and 19 professed to having no religion (9.8 percent).

Occupations: Although 100 respondents had listed only one occupation, 85 listed two to four different work experiences and nine listed none. Thus percentage equivalents for occupational variables cannot be provided and this variable is not included in

Table 1

Demographic Data

	Number	Percentage
Sex		
Male	46	23.7
Female	148	76.3
Marital status		
Single	70	36.3
Married	69	35.8
Divorced	12	6.2
Separated	3	1.6
Religious	39	20.2
Racial background		
Asian	2	1.0
Black	14	7.2
Caucasian	172	88.7
Latino-Spanish	4	2.1
Other	2	1.0
Religion		
Catholic	113	58.2
Protestant	32	16.5
Jewish	18	9.3
Other	12	6.2
None	19	9.8
Residence--current		
Rural	7	3.6
Urban	120	61.9
Suburban	65	33.5
Other	2	1.0
Residence--youth		
Rural	18	9.3
Urban	101	52.1
Suburban	72	37.1
Other	3	1.5
Parental status		
Yes	47	24.2
No	147	75.8
Educational level		
BA	40	20.6
MA	46	28.9
RN	8	4.1
Graduate courses	79	40.7
Other	11	5.7

	Number	Percentage
Socioeconomic level/family		
Lower	17	8.8
Lower-middle	39	20.1
Middle	95	49.0
Upper-middle	37	19.1
Lower-upper	4	2.1
Upper	2	1.0
Income level		
Under $8,000	53	27.3
$8,000 to $15,000	61	31.4
$15,001 to $25,000	49	25.3
$25,001 to $40,000	15	7.7
Over $40,000	16	8.2
Quality of family life		
Excellent	49	25.3
Above average	74	38.1
Average	52	26.8
Below average	19	9.8
Most unsatisfactory	0	0.0
Age		
20-29	67	34.5
30-39	82	42.2
Over 40	45	23.2
Male children		
0	156	80.8
1	18	9.3
2	12	6.2
3	4	2.1
3+	3	1.6
Female children		
0	161	83.0
1	24	12.4
2	6	3.1
3	3	1.5
3+	0	0.0
Brothers		
0	47	24.2
1	68	35.1
2	45	23.2
3	18	9.3
3+	16	8.2
Sisters		
0	62	32.0
1	53	27.3
2	47	24.2
3	18	9.3
3+	14	7.2

Table 1. However, totals from those who had worked from one to four different positions, indicated 323 different past and present occupations which were represented in the sample. A majority of these occupations, 266, were related directly to education (82.4 percent), that is, teaching, administrative work, counseling, etcetera.

Income level and socioeconomic level: Thirty-one persons of the group (15.9 percent) made over $25,000 annually (married persons were told to combine incomes) and 49 made over $15,000 per year (25.3 percent). Another 61 made over $8,000 (31.4 percent) and 53 persons (27.3 percent) made less than that on a yearly basis. Thus 27.3 percent were in a lower income bracket even though only 17 persons (8.8 percent) grew up in a lower income household. Ninety-five people (49 percent) grew up in a middle-class environment but only 6 respondents (3.1 percent) described early home life as lower-upper or upper-class.

Quality of family life: The final demographic question was the most subjective. Respondents were asked to rate the quality of their family life (verbal instructions clarified this to mean family of origin) as either excellent, above average, average, below average or most unsatisfactory. None of the respondents reported their family setting to be 'most unsatisfactory.' Nineteen people (9.8 percent) found their homes below average and, in fact, depiction of the quality of family life was definitely skewed towards better than average

with 49 of the respondents (25.3 percent) selecting 'excellent' as their descriptor.

Other: One hundred seventy-two people in the sample were Caucasians (88.7 percent). Sixty-five persons (33.5 percent) are currently living in the suburbs and a slightly higher percentage (37.1 percent), 72 individuals grew up there. One hundred twenty respondents were urban dwellers (61.9 percent) and 101 grew up in cities (52.1 percent). Forty-seven people were parents (24.2 percent).

Data Collection

Letters were sent to all faculty members teaching in the Graduate School of Education during the evening and second day summer sessions. The letter (Appendix B) briefly stated the purpose of the study and the length of time to administer the materials and requested permission for class time.

Of the 28 professors contacted, six were in the Curriculum Department where half gave permission; nine were in the Foundations of Education Department with three participating in the study; six out of ten contacted in the Guidance and Counseling Department agreed to allow students to participate; and three out of four in Educational Administration gave up class time for the study.

In all, data were collected in 25 classes including five each in the Foundations of Education and Educational Administration

Departments, six in the Curriculum Department and nine in the Guidance and Counseling Department. Nine teachers did not respond and five declined to participate. Nevertheless, fairly equal representation of the four areas within the Graduate School of Education provides a more diverse group than the adolescents tested in the original research with the A/API (Bavolek, 1978).

The inventories were administered on nine days between June 26 and July 12 in accord with the wishes of the consenting professors. Each class was given a verbal introduction to the study, a guarantee of anonymity, a reminder to answer both sides of each sheet and information as to how to obtain a summary of the study's findings (see Appendix B). Although participation was voluntary, all agreed to participate and were given four sheets of paper. The first was the 32-item A/API which was followed by a 21-item general information sheet. The third page contained the following direction:

> This is the same inventory which you have just completed. This time you are asked to rate the statements in the way you think your parent(s) or caretakers would have as you were growing up. In other words, this set of responses should reflect your parents' attitudes about parenting.

The last page was the second copy of the A/API.

Additional instructions given were related to items 19 and 21 on the general information sheet. Current income level (item 19) was explained as being inclusive of spouse's income. Item 21, referring to the quality of family life, was stressed to mean one's family of origin.

Respondents were able to request copies of the results and were thanked as a group and individually. Sets were checked for accuracy and completeness before participants departed.

Instruments

The major assessment instrument used in this study was the Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory (A/API). Additionally a general information sheet was completed by each respondent.

General Information Sheet

A twenty-one item general information sheet, providing primarily demographic information, was answered by each participant.

Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory

The A/API is a thirty-two item inventory within a Likert scale format developed by Bavolek (1978). The inventory identifies attitudinal postures based on four parenting constructs found in abusive parents. The 32-item inventory identifies and measures:

A. Inappropriate expectations of the child

B. Inability to be empathically aware of the child's needs

C. Strong belief in the value of punishment

D. Role reversal.

Bavolek (1978) in attempting to devise a valid and reliable instrument which could measure attitudes indicative of a high potential for child abuse, followed these steps:

1. Four parenting constructs were identified which, based on an extensive review of the literature, are typically found in known abusive parents. Validating these constructs a panel of experts in parenting education, instrument development and child abuse had high agreement (80 percent or higher on 49 of the original 50 items) that the item was a measure of a given construct. Thus, content validity was established on the initial items designed to measure the constructs.

2. Three prototypes of the instrument were progressively developed and tested with adolescent populations. Prototype III had two forms (A and B). Form B was constructed such that half the items reflected parenting behaviors positively and half depicted negative parenting behaviors whereas Form A depicted only inappropriate parenting behaviors. Form A produced higher degrees of relationships between item scores and total factor scores and was the basis for the final data collection.

3. The results of factor analysis using Kaiser's (1970) Second Generation Little Jiffy formed the rationale for the construction and scoring of Bavolek's final version of the 32-item instrument. These methods will be discussed and described in greater detail in the data analysis section of this paper. The 32 identified items had the highest positive factor loadings in each of the four identified constructs. Item-construct correlations ranged from adequate to high degrees of relationship between item and total construct scores.

4. Adequate levels of reliability were reflected in both internal consistency using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Nunnally, 1967), as well as the test-retest reliability coefficient. The latter is open to some criticism as only a small group (n=17) was retested over a relatively short period of time (one week).

5. The factor scores of the normal group (identified by Bavolek as non-identified abused adolescents) were compared to a group who had been identified as abused. Abused adolescents, according to multiple analyses of variance, scored significantly lower ($p. < .001$) than the normal group.

Bavolek's conclusions were:

> (1) the instrument developed as a result of this study has adequate levels of content validity, construct validity, internal reliability, and stability over time;
> (2) instruments designed to measure attitudes towards parenting and child rearing have higher item-construct correlations when items elicit disagreement from respondents than items eliciting agreement;
> (3) converting the respondent's raw scores into factor scores provides a useful standard for score interpretation;
> (4) abused adolescents have significantly lower mean scores than non-identified abused adolescents, suggesting that abused adolescents have less appropriate attitudes towards parenting and child rearing;
> (5) each of the four parenting constructs can be used to discriminate between abused and non-identified abused adolescents... (pp. 129-130)

There are some criticisms of Bavolek's study. The first, mentioned earlier, was the claim of stability over time which was measured over too short a period (one week) and with a very small group (n=17). Additionally, Bavolek's population was relatively homogeneous. His entire abused group was housed in

an institutionalized setting and the various other groups tested were primarily Caucasians living in Utah and Idaho and members of the Church of the Latter Day Saints.

The unidimensionality of the responses (that is, all items should elicit disagreement) is another area of concern, particularly with educated, more sophisiticated and test-wise adult samples. (This will be discussed further in Chapter Five). However, a pilot study in California (Bavolek, 1978), in which thirty educators were given the inventory, did indicate the presence of some extreme scores on the attitudinal construct scales. If extreme undesirable scores (less than -2.00 standard deviations) were found among educators in the present study, there would appear to be a need for either in-service or appropriate educational courses and seminars. Courses related to appropriate developmental capabilities, empathic instruction and/or alternate affective approaches would be some examples of the kinds of specific training areas.

Bavolek (1979) is currently testing the instrument on identified adult abusers and the inventory is being tested on adult populations in different parts of the United States. A grant has been requested for collecting normative data on a national basis. At this point no claims can be made, particularly with adults, as to the inventory's ability to predict or identify an individual as an abuser. However, the validity of the constructs and the content make the inventory seem viable as an appropriate

tool for identifying the presence of specific attitudes which parallel those found in abusive parents. The study reported here provides new data on an instrument which may ultimately prove to be appropriate and sensitive to people representing varying age groups and educational levels.

Bavolek (1978) concluded that the data provided in his initial study supported claims of adequacy in terms of content and construct validity, and internal reliability for the identified 32 items. His claims are supported in that:

> ...the data generated from the factor analysis indicated those 32 items had the highest positive factor loadings ($\geq$.20) in each of the four identified constructs...item-construct correlations (.53 to .75) indicated adequate to high degrees of relationship between item scores and total construct scores...internal consistency...indicated adequate levels of reliability for each construct (A=.70; B=.75; C=.81; D=.82). (pp. 127-128)

Predictive validity has yet to be established.

Until the results of this study are compared to other adult populations, little can be said of the instrument's ability to differentiate between normal adults and those who are or who might be abusive parents.

Data Analysis

Data analyses can be grouped into three major classes: verification of test validity, extreme scores and tests of differences between means.

Verification of Test Validity

The data from all responses were factor analyzed using the same procedure(s) used by Bavolek (1978), namely:

(1) Identification numbers were recorded, raw data were scanned for irregularities and non-citizenship status.

(2) The raw data were entered on data cards for computer analysis.

(3) A general data description analysis (BMDP, Los Angeles, 1977) was performed to screen for data entry errors.

(4) Inter-item covariance and correlation matrices were generated using a missing data correlation program.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis of the A/API was performed using Kaiser's Second Generation Little Jiffy, a technique employing image analysis followed by orthoblique rotation (Kaiser, 1970). All tests were entered into this analysis (whether reporting for self or parent) in order to give maximum variability and sample size. As was mentioned earlier, Bavolek's sample was relatively homogeneous and it was hoped that similar factors would be found with a more heterogeneous sample.

Kaiser's Second Generation Little Jiffy analysis, also used by Bavolek, consists of latent image analysis followed by orthoblique rotation. The advantage of this type of factor analysis is that only common variance is extracted, that is, the information contained in the solution is only that information

contained in at least two items. Most error variance is eliminated when the image covariance matrix is calculated, giving factor solutions that are 'clean' and thus easy to interpret. The advantages of the orthoblique rotation are that: (1) there is no underlying assumption that the factors are uncorrelated; (2) an uncorrelated solution is slightly favored; and (3) the computational procedure is relatively fast.

The image Eigenvalues were used as the basis of deciding how many factors to rotate using a procedure recommended by Cattell (1966) and referred to as the skree test. Bavolek's skree test results were compared with those obtained in this study.

On the basis of the skree test, it was decided to rotate four factors and the resulting orthoblique rotated factor loadings were compared with those obtained by Bavolek. Then the correlations between factors were calculated and compared with those found by Bavolek.

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Nunnally, 1967) was performed in order to verify the findings of Bavolek. This measure of internal consistency, equivalent to all possible split-half reliability measures (Keene, 1979), was used by Bavolek as a reliability measure. The coefficient alphas obtained for both self and parent were compared with those found by Bavolek.

Extreme Scores

Factor scores were used to measure the presence of extreme scores. Raw scores were first converted to factor scores with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. Scores of -2 standard deviations from the mean were considered extreme.

Tests of Differences Between Means

In order to compare the four mean scores for self with the corresponding mean scores for parents, four two-way mixed analyses of variance (sex by test) were calculated, one for each factor. Sex was included as a second dimension in the analysis to control for possible sex differences.

Then a series of one way analyses of variance were calculated to test differences between mean scores for several demographic variables. Eight analyses of variance were conducted for each demographic variable of interest, four for the 'self' factors and four for 'parent' factors. The variables submitted to this treatment were: sex, age groups, socio-economic levels, parental status, income levels, religious affiliation, and quality of family life.

For sex and parental status, if the between groups were significant at or below the .05 level, the means and standard deviations were calculated to find which group had higher and which lower mean scores.

For other demographic variables, (those with more than two levels), if significant differences were found, Scheffé's test

of differences between means was used to determine which levels were significantly different from other variables. Scheffé's test is considered to be a conservative and stringent post hoc comparison particularly when comparing data with unequal n's (Bruning and Kintz, 1977).

Summary

The participants in this study were 194 students who were enrolled in the Graduate School of Education at Loyola University in Chicago during the summer of 1978. They were asked to complete two copies of the A/API and a general information sheet.

One of the purposes of the study was to obtain verification of the factors in the A/API from a normative adult sample. Factor analysis (Kaiser's Second Generation Little Jiffy) and Cronbach's alpha coefficient were the primary statistical techniques used to compare validity and reliability measures used in the original testing of the A/API with an adolescent sample (Bavolek, 1978).

Raw scores were converted to factor scores to allow interpretation of individual response sets on each of the four constructs. Scores -2 standard deviations away from the mean were considered extreme or undesirable and would indicate the need for additional training.

Lastly a series of analyses of variance were calculated to test the differences between mean scores for several demographic variables both within and between the self and parent

groups. Scheffé's test of differences between means was the post hoc comparison used to determine which levels were significant within the various demographic variables.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This chapter describes the results of the statistical procedures employed in this study. A general data description with emphasis on some problem areas is discussed first. Factor analytic and internal consistency measures used to verify the factor structure on the A/API, the primary purpose of this study, are presented next. Extreme scores used to assess the parenting attitudes of educators as measured by the four constructs of the A/API, an inventory designed to identify and measure attitudes which parallel those found in abusive individuals, are then discussed. Lastly, to compare self and parent ratings globally and on a number of demographic variables, the results of the analyses of variance and post hoc comparisons are discussed.

General Data Description

After screening the data for errors as described in Chapter Three, general descriptive statistics were completed for each variable.

There were a number of problem areas which resulted in the immediate elimination of some of the variables. For

example, mistakes by the respondents in filling out items resulted in missing or incomplete data. Variables eliminated for this reason are ages of children, family size and birth order.

A second reason for dropping data was information which was too difficult or impossible to interpret. Current and past residential information and occupational experiences were dropped on that basis. Educational level and marital status had to be dropped because of confounding information. Some respondents checked two and sometimes three different levels of education. For example, an RN also checked BA and graduate courses. Marital status confounding also occurred because of double checking and the inclusion of the religious group within this variable.

Another area of difficulty was ethnic background. There was such low variability in the respondents make-up (nearly 90 percent were Caucasians) that further comparisons would be meaningless.

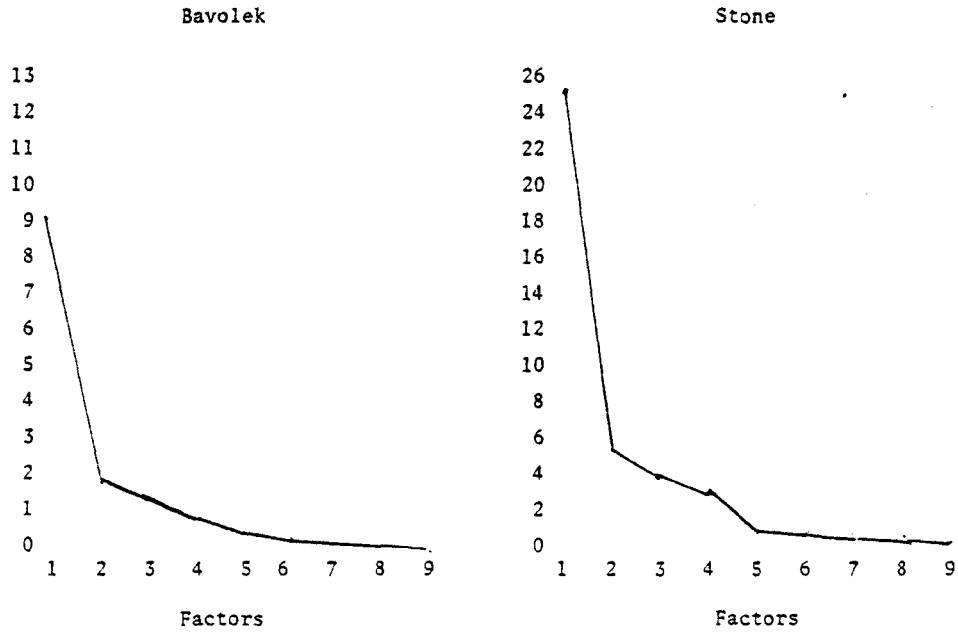
Factor Analysis

Comparison of skree tests and the image eigenvalues resulting from Kaiser's (1970) Second Generation Little Jiffy analysis are reported and compared with Bavolek's (1978) results in Table 2.

Table 2

Comparison of Eigenvalues

Factor #	Bavolek (1978)	Stone
1	9.105	25.080
2	1.866	5.302
3	1.237	3.512
4	0.612	2.166
5	.238	0.562
6	.123	.374
7	.069	.310
8	.049	.193
9	.036	.143
10	.021	.123



Comparison of Skree Tests

It is clear from the pattern of eigenvalues that the great majority of the common factor variance is accounted for by four factors and that the patterns are similar. The higher eigenvalues found in the present study are a result of generally higher correlations between variables than Bavolek found.

The orthoblique rotated factor loadings (and some related statistics) are reported in Table 3. The measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) for all items (.94) indicates that the covariance matrix was well suited for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1970). The communalities and individual MSA's indicate that all items contribute significantly to the common variance.

Bavolek's (1978) rotated factor loadings are reported in Table 4. It is obvious from comparisons of Tables 3 and 4 that his factor structure was verified.

Although the factors were not extracted in the same sequence, all items were grouped into the same factors except for item 17. This item appeared as a rather weak item in Bavolek's analysis and in the present analysis cross-loaded on two factors, but most strongly on empathic awareness. Most items are not only grouped similarly by the two analyses, but the rank order of the factor loadings are similar.

Table 5 reports the correlations between factors found by Bavolek and the corresponding correlations found in the present study. The correlations are similar in magnitude, ranging from .54 to .70 for Bavolek and from .45 to .68 for this study.

Table 3

Orthoblique Rotated Factor Loadings

Stone, 1980

Construct/ Item	$\bar{x}$	Standard Deviation	C/C Punishment FI	C/D Role Reversal FII	C/B Empathy FIII	C/A Expectations IV	Commun. h^2	Measure/ Sampling Adequacy MSA
C25	3.53	1.14	1.00	.02	.00	-.09	.95	.96
C15	3.41	1.13	.94	-.04	-.07	.04	.80	.95
C 8	3.55	1.13	.92	-.00	-.04	-.04	.82	.96
C 2	2.57	1.07	.79	-.04	-.26	-.06	.42	.93
C29	3.04	1.22	.78	.21	-.08	-.01	.73	.98
C12	3.75	1.04	.75	-.06	-.05	-.02	.58	.95
C 9	3.43	1.14	.71	.14	.07	-.06	.65	.97
C13	3.97	0.99	.68	-.13	.17	.04	.59	.93
C19	3.44	1.09	.45	.13	.10	.14	.47	.96
C22	3.27	1.07	.33	.17	.17	-.04	.36	.96
D 1	3.48	1.02	-.01	.76	-.04	.08	.53	.92
D 4	3.47	1.03	.04	.76	-.19	-.03	.45	.91
D30	3.40	1.07	.11	.74	-.06	-.01	.58	.95
D 3	3.54	1.16	.14	.71	.03	-.17	.52	.94
D32	3.84	0.92	-.08	.67	.04	-.05	.40	.91
D11	3.56	1.03	-.15	.64	.01	.15	.46	.93
D14	3.76	1.08	.13	.63	.11	-.05	.56	.95
D 7	4.03	0.87	-.04	.49	.18	-.01	.35	.93
B21	4.03	0.94	-.08	.05	.76	-.02	.53	.94
B28	4.25	0.90	.01	-.05	.73	-.02	.50	.91
B 5	3.95	1.02	.07	-.09	.67	.00	.45	.96
B24	4.19	0.84	.03	.02	.64	-.07	.41	.93
B31	4.31	0.79	.24	-.02	.61	-.01	.37	.94
B18	4.06	0.80	-.08	.00	.57	.02	.28	.85
B23	3.85	0.97	-.00	-.00	.50	.16	.35	.95
B26	3.52	1.06	-0.6	-.06	.33	.16	.31	.95
A10	3.64	1.11	.00	-.17	.02	.77	.49	.86
A20	3.62	1.04	-.05	.05	-.06	.76	.54	.87
A16	3.80	0.92	-.02	.03	-.01	.59	.35	.86
A 6	3.74	1.01	.10	.07	-.17	.52	.29	.92
A27	4.13	0.89	-.05	.12	.18	.35	.28	.92
A17	4.13	0.83	.04	.08	.29	.10	.19	.88
			Eigen Value 6.001	Eigen Value 3.924	Eigen Value 3.426	Eigen Value 2.093		Total MSA .94

Construct C, Factor I = Physical Punishment
Construct D, Factor II = Role Reversal
Construct B, Factor III = Empathic Awareness
Construct A, Factor IV = Expectations

Table 4

Orthoblique Rotated Factor Loadings

Bavolek, 1978

Construct/ Item*	$\bar{x}$	Standard Deviation	C/C Punishment FI	C/D Role Reversal FII	C/B Empathy FIII	C/A Expectations IV	Commun. h^2	Measure/ Sampling Adequacy MSA
C 2	3.24	1.07	.72	.15	.12	-.07	.46	.93
C 8	3.25	1.09	.71	.02	.05	-.11	.45	.93
C 9	2.80	1.18	.66	-.30	-.01	.02	.28	.91
C12	3.88	1.06	.60	-.03	-.06	.10	.38	.92
C13	3.80	0.99	.50	.10	-.04	.05	.33	.91
C15	3.71	1.03	.47	.05	-.08	.10	.28	.94
C19	3.09	1.15	.40	.07	.13	-.08	.22	.95
C22	3.59	1.04	.36	.04	.02	.07	.19	.94
C25	3.23	1.08	.35	-.01	.05	.16	.24	.95
C29	3.45	0.94	.32	.10	-.04	.05	.17	.94
B 5	3.69	1.16	-.02	.70	-.01	-.04	.46	.94
B18	3.26	1.17	.08	.67	.00	-.11	.43	.95
B21	3.62	1.16	.03	.65	-.03	-.08	.36	.94
B23	3.33	1.03	-.07	.56	-.05	-.08	.25	.92
B24	3.12	1.12	-.01	.47	.10	-.07	.23	.94
B26	3.95	0.94	-.06	.46	-.02	.12	.25	.92
B28	4.07	1.00	.05	.40	-.07	.16	.28	.95
B32	3.41	1.13	.06	.37	.00	.06	.21	.95
D 1	3.02	1.02	-.10	.05	.64	-.01	.38	.91
D 3	3.40	1.03	-.01	.02	.63	.08	.48	.93
D 4	3.13	0.97	.03	-.06	.60	-.04	.32	.91
D 7	2.90	0.99	.04	-.03	.58	-.05	.32	.92
D11	2.96	1.02	.05	-.07	.54	.02	.29	.93
D14	2.81	1.08	.02	.03	.52	-.08	.25	.94
D30	3.23	1.14	.04	-.02	.52	.03	.30	.95
D31	3.35	0.97	.02	.07	.45	.00	.25	.94
A 6	3.90	1.01	-.03	-.10	.00	.52	.19	.88
A10	3.87	1.01	-.07	.10	-.02	.50	.26	.91
A16	3.83	0.87	.00	-.09	-.04	.49	.17	.87
A17	3.53	0.98	.03	-.05	.09	.41	.22	.93
A20	3.70	0.96	-.04	.00	.08	.35	.15	.92
A27	3.84	0.91	-.05	.24	.05	.29	.23	.94
			Eigen Value 2.825	Eigen Value 2.640	Eigen Value 2.609	Eigen Value 1.302		Total MSA .93

* Bavolek's (1978) item numbers were changed to match those in this study. Additionally some of the factor loadings on the basis of corrected information supplied by Bavolek (1979) were changed to correct the initial reporting.

Table 5

Factor Correlation for Rotated Factors

Bavolek (1978, p. 98)

	Punishment	Empathic Awareness	Role Reversal	Parental Expectations
Punishment	1.00			
Empathic Awareness	.64	1.00		
Role Reversal	.54	.55	1.00	
Parental Expectations	.70	.70	.60	1.00

Stone

	Punishment	Empathic Awareness	Role Reversal	Parental Expectations
Punishment	1.00			
Empathic Awareness	.68	1.00		
Role Reversal	.49	.55	1.00	
Parental Expectations	.45	.51	.56	1.00

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Table 6 presents the comparisons between Bavolek's adolescent group and the adult population(s) in this study. Better coefficients are reflected in both the self and parent groups in the present study. Calculated in the same manner as the original Bavolek study, the results verify that the internal consistency of the instrument is satisfactory on two different populations in addition to that of Bavolek. The coefficients are very high and thus there is further evidence that what is being measured is indeed consistent.

Thus the first purpose of the study, to verify the factor structure in the A/API, is supported by factor analytic and internal consistency measures.

Extreme Scores

The second rationale for this study was to assess the attitudes of the respondents in terms of their scores on the A/API. Analysis of the factor scores indicates that no extreme scores were found on any of the four constructs for the self responses. Future data from other adult samples will provide additional comparisons but at this point the respondents in this study appear to have appropriate attitudes towards child rearing and parenting as measured by the A/API. Parent responses did indicate the presence of some extreme scores and are discussed in the following section.

Table 6

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

(Bavolek and Stone)

Construct		Number of Items	Bavolek	Stone	
				Self	Parent
(C)	Strong parental belief in the value of physical punishment	10	.81	.85	.90
(D)	Role reversal	8	.82	.86	.88
(B)	Inability of the parents to be empathically aware of the child's needs	8	.75	.82	.89
(A)	Inappropriate parental expectations of the child	6	.70	.75	.78

Analyses of Variance

Analyses of variance and post hoc measures for between and within group comparisons are given in Tables 7 through 24. Discussions related to within and between group comparisons are based on the results of the differences between the self and parent groups.

The analyses comparing the responses for self with the responses for parent by sex are reported in Table 7. It can be seen that the levels of significance for the interaction terms are not significant, thus indicating that the sexes do not differ with regard to differences between self and parent responses. The main effect for differences between mean self and parent scores was found to be highly significant for each of the four factors ($p < .001$).

Table 8 reports the means on which the preceding analyses of variance were based. It can be seen that, for all four factors, mean scores for self were higher (more favorable) than mean scores for parents.

The source table for the analyses of variance to test the differences between sexes is reported in Table 9. It can be seen that differences between sexes were not significant at or below the .05 level, except for one factor, Empathic Awareness for self. In this case the level of significance was $p < .01$.

Table 7

Analysis of Variance

(Self vs. Parent) x Sex

Punishment

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Significance
Mean	8.74454	1	8.74454		
Sex	0.28044	1	0.28044	0.30	0.584
Error	178.04260	192	0.03216		
Self vs. Parent	80.00290	1	80.00290	101.17	0.000
Self vs. Parent x Sex	0.47612	1	0.47612	0.96	0.329
Error	94,81012	192	0.49639		

Role Reversal

Mean	72.69096	1	72.69096		
Sex	0.08011	1	0.08011	0.11	0.741
Error	140.38669	192	0.73118		
Self vs. Parent	45.83459	1	45.83459	116.70	0.000
Self vs. Parent x Sex	0.32155	1	0.32155	0.82	0.367
Error	75.41194	192	0.39277		

Empathic Awareness

Mean	78.31198	1	78.31198		
Sex	4.16054	1	4.16054	4.13	0.044
Error	193.53787	192	1.00801		
Self vs. Parent	27.73077	1	27.73077	66.61	0.000
Self vs. Parent x Sex	0.85756	1	0.85756	2.06	0.153
Error	79.92963	192	0.41630		

Expectations

Mean	14.75174	1	14.75174		
Sex	0.88722	1	0.88722	0.89	0.347
Error	190.35643	192	0.99663		
Self vs. Parent	39.15643	1	39.15643	98.61	0.000
Self vs. Parent x Sex	0.22673	1	0.22673	0.57	0.451
Error	75.84386	192	0.39709		

Table 8

Means

Self vs. Parent

Punishment

	Self	Parent	Marginal
Male	.64	-.35	.14
Female	.78	-.37	.21
Marginal	.75	-.21	.19

Role Reversal

Male	.86	.12	.49
Female	.96	.09	.53
Marginal	.94	.10	.51

Empathic Awareness

Male	.67	.15	.41
Female	1.02	.28	.65
Marginal	.94	.25	.60

Expectations

Male	.52	-.17	.17
Female	.69	-.12	.28
Marginal	.65	-.13	.26

Table 9

Analysis of Variance

Sex

Source of Variation	Self: Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Parent: Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Punishment										
Total	70.44548	1	70.44548			17.98604	1	17.98604		
Sex	0.71577	1	0.71577	1.48	0.2226	0.01541	1	0.01541	0.02	0.899
Error	92.10533	190	0.48476			180.52524	190	0.95013		
Role Reversal										
Total	115.83511	1	115.83511			1.41875	1	1.41875		
Sex	0.31851	1	0.31851	0.95	0.331	0.06194	1	0.06194	0.08	0.780
Error	63.63724	190	0.35493			150.64017	190	0.79284		
Empathic Awareness										
Total	98.61433	1	98.61433			5.93669	1	5.93669		
Sex	4.24066	1	4.24066	6.63	0.011	0.48042	1	0.48042	0.62	0.433
Error	121.57021	190	0.63984			147.96967	190	0.77879		
Expectations										
Total	50.64424	1	50.64424			3.04077	1	3.04077		
Sex	0.96751	1	0.96751	1.73	0.190	0.08571	1	0.08571	0.10	0.749
Error	106.31723	190	0.55956			158.86809	190	0.83615		

Table 10 reports the means for each sex, indicating that females had higher or more favorable scores than males on empathic awareness.

The source tables for the analyses of variance to test the differences between age groups are reported in Table 11. Age groups were from 20-29, 30-39, and those who were over forty years of age. It can be seen that differences between age groups were not significant at or below the .05 level except for one factor, Role Reversal for parent. Table 12 reports the table of means and differences for each group. Scheffé's test of differences between means was performed but no significant differences were found.

This indicates that, while differences between means were significantly different ($p < .05$), when all three means were included in the test, the differences were not large enough to identify precisely which pairs of means were significantly different.

The source tables for the analyses of variance to test the differences between socioeconomic levels are reported in Table 13. Socioeconomic levels were differentiated as either lower, lower-middle, middle, upper-middle, lower-upper or upper.

It can be seen that none of the differences were significant at or below the .05 level except for one factor, Punishment

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations

Self

Empathic Awareness

	Sex	
	Male	Female
Mean	.67	1.01
Standard Deviation	.75	.81
n	46	146

Table 11

Analysis of Variance

Age Groups

Source of Variation	Self: Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Parent: Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Punishment										
Total	104.42952	1	104.42952			20.39046	1	20.39046		
Age	0.93311	2	0.46655	0.96	0.385	3.51935	2	1.75967	1.88	0.156
Error	91.88799	189	0.48618			177.02129	189	0.93662		
Role Reversal										
Total	161.50093	1	161.50093			1.87694	1	1.87694		
Age	0.57121	2	0.28561	0.85	0.428	4.83389	2	2.41695	3.13	0.046
Error	63.38452	189	0.33537			145.86821	189	0.77179		
Empathic Awareness										
Total	160.45236	1	160.45236			11.93053	1	11.93053		
Age	0.45073	2	0.22536	0.34	0.712	3.93164	2	1.96582	2.57	0.079
Error	125.36014	189	0.66328			144.51843	189	0.76465		
Expectations										
Total	77.38429	1	77.38429			2.62982	1	2.62982		
Age	0.50113	2	0.25056	0.44	0.642	4.16951	2	2.08475	2.55	0.081
Error	106.78360	189	0.56499			154.78426	189	0.81896		

Table 12

Scheffe's Test of Differences Between Means

Parent

Role Reversal

Table of Means and Differences

	Age 20-29 .29136	Age ≥40 .08733	Age 30-39 -.07321
Age 20-29 .29136	--		
Age ≥40 .08733	.20403	--	
Age 30-39 -.07321	.36457	.16054	--

* p. ≤ .05
** p. ≤ .01
*** p. ≤ .001

Table 13

Analysis of Variance

Socioeconomic Status

	Self					Parent				
Punishment										
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Total	21.71587	1	21.71587			4.02269	1	4.02269		
S.E.S.	0.84262	5	0.16852	0.34	0.888	10.99104	5	2.19821	2.41	0.038
Error	91.97844	186	0.40000			169.54951	186	0.91156		
Role Reversal										
Total	33.95789	1	33.95789			0.55586	1	0.55586		
S.E.S.	0.54723	5	0.10945	0.32	0.900	6.32443	5	1.26489	1.63	0.154
Error	63.40846	186	0.34091			144.37761	186	0.77622		
Empathic Awareness										
Total	30.38988	1	30.38988			1.18040	1	1.18040		
S.E.S.	3.92668	5	0.78534	1.20	0.312	8.08972	5	1.61794	2.14	0.062
Error	121.88414	186	0.65529			140.36029	186	0.75463		
Expectations										
Total	15.48491	1	15.48491			1.05597	1	1.05597		
S.E.S.	1.33658	5	0.26732	0.47	0.799	6.59521	5	1.31904	1.61	0.159
Error	105.94812	186	0.56961			152.35851	186	0.81913		

for parent. Table 14 reports the table of means and differences for each age group.

Scheffé's test of differences between pairs of means was performed for all possible pairs of socioeconomic levels. No significantly different pairs were found.

The source tables for the analyses of variance to test the differences between parents and non-parent subjects are reported in Table 15. None of the differences were significant at or below the .05 level.

The source tables for the analyses of variance to test the differences between income levels are reported in Table 16. Respondents indicated income levels to be under $8,000, $8,000 to 15,000, $15,001 to 25,000, $25,001 to 40,000 or over $40,000. It can be seen that none of the differences were significant at or below the .05 level of significance.

The source tables for the analyses of variance to test the differences between religious affiliation are reported in Table 17. Respondents chose between Catholic, Protestant, Jewish, other and none in this category. It can be seen that none of the differences were significant at or below the .05 level except for one factor, Punishment for parent. Table 18 reports the table of means and differences for each religion.

Scheffé's test of differences between pairs of means was performed for all possible pairs of religions. No significantly different pairs were found.

Table 14

Scheffe's Test of Differences Between Means

Parent

Socioeconomic Status

Punishment

Table of Means and Differences

	Lower .88005	Low Mid 1.00066	Middle 0.93837	Upper Mid 0.94896	Low Mid 1.39012	Upper 0.05657
Lower .88005	--					
Low Mid 1.00066	-.12061	--				
Middle 0.93837	.05832	.06299	--			
Upper Middle 0.94896	-.06891	.05170	-.01059	--		
Lower Upper 1.39012	-.51007	.38946	-.45175	.44116	--	
Upper 0.05657	.82384	.94409	.88180	.89239	1.33355	--

* p. $\leq$ .05
** p. $\leq$ .01
*** p. $\leq$ .001

Table 15

Analysis of Variance

Parental Status

Source of Variation	Self Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Parent Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Punishment										
Total	86.33177	1	86.33177			15.02669	1	15.02669		
Par.Status	0.64113	1	0.64113	1.32	0.251	0.67921	1	0.67921	0.71	0.399
Error	91.52583	189	0.48426			179.86084	189	0.95164		
Role Reversal										
Total	131.38544	1	131.38544			0.40179	1	0.40179		
Par.Status	0.67061	1	0.67061	2.00	0.159	0.53136	1	0.53136	0.67	0.414
Error	63.26100	189	0.33471			149.54305	189	0.79123		
Empathic Awareness										
Total	128.47981	1	128.47981			6.07028	1	6.07028		
Par.Status	0.44055	1	0.44055	0.66	0.416	0.53601	1	0.53601	0.69	0.408
Error	125.36780	189	0.66332			147.30800	189	0.77941		
Expectations										
Total	61.47162	1	61.47162			2.79604	1	2.79604		
Par.Status	0.18948	1	0.18948	0.33	0.564	0.01013	1	0.01013	0.01	0.913
Error	107.07954	189	0.56656			158.70773	189	0.83972		

Table 16

Analysis of Variance

Income Levels

	Self					Parent				
					Punishment					
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Total	83.15379	1	83.15379			20.30879	1	20.30879		
Income	1.60718	4	0.40179	0.82	0.512	1.91882	4	0.47971	.050	0.734
Error	91.21837	187	0.48777			178.62180	187	0.95520		
					Role Reversal					
Total	132.07994	1	132.07994			0.34988	1	0.34988		
Income	2.54646	4	0.63662	1.94	0.106	1.53394	4	0.38348	0.48	0.750
Error	61.40921	187	0.32839			149.16812	187	0.79769		
					Empathic Awareness					
Total	134.89516	1	134.89516			5.12660	1	5.12660		
Income	5.79709	4	1.44927	2.26	0.064	2.56569	4	0.64142	0.82	0.512
Error	120.01370	187	0.64178			145.88435	187	0.78013		
					Expectations					
Total	63.92291	1	63.92291			3.95461	1	3.95461		
Income	1.76538	4	0.44135	0.78	0.538	1.43094	4	0.35773	0.42	0.791
Error	105.51933	187	0.56427			157.52283	187	0.84237		

Table 17

Analysis of Variance

Religion

Source of Variation	Self Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Parent Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Punishment										
Total	52.60983	1	52.60983			4.18309	1	4.18309		
Religion	1.72455	3	0.57485	1.33	0.268	8.22543	3	2.74181	3.00	0.032
Error	73.24954	169	0.43343			154.53627	169	0.91442		
Role Reversal										
Total	83.86467	1	83.86467			6.06161	1	6.06161		
Religion	0.62283	3	0.20761	0.70	0.555	4.31204	3	1.43735	1.99	0.118
Error	50.33910	169	0.29786			122.16428	169	0.72287		
Empathic Awareness										
Total	79.02467	1	79.02467			9.70634	1	9.70634		
Religion	1.56201	3	0.52067	0.85	0.467	3.77351	3	1.25784	1.74	0.161
Error	103.18159	169	0.61054			122.20187	169	0.72309		
Expectations										
Total	35.94150	1	35.94150			0.00034	1	0.00034		
Religion	1.12025	3	0.37342	0.74	0.531	4.89505	3	1.63168	2.15	0.096
Error	85.56467	169	0.50630			128.44473	169	0.76003		

Table 18

Scheffé's Test of Differences Between Means

Religion

Factor I

Table of Means and Differences

	Protestant	Jew	Catholic	Other
	-.15969	-.22889	-.44071	-.49417
Protestant -.15969	--			
Jew -.22889	-.06920	--		
Catholic -.44071	-.28102	-.21182	--	
Other -.49417	-.33448	-.26528	-.05346	--

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

The source tables for the analyses of variance to test the differences between levels of quality of family life are reported in Table 19. Quality of family life was rated as either excellent, above average, average, below average or most unsatisfactory. None of the respondents indicated the quality of family life as most unsatisfactory.

Significance was found on all four factors with the parent group. Tables 20-23 report the tables of means and differences between means for each level of quality of family life. Scheffé's test of differences between pairs of means was performed for all possible pairs.

It can be seen from Table 20 that for Factor I, Punishment, the subjects reporting excellent quality of family life had significantly higher scores on the punishment factor than those reporting below average quality of family life ($p < .05$). No other significant differences were found.

Table 21 shows that the subjects reporting excellent quality of family life had significantly higher scores on Role Reversal than those reporting average or below average quality of family life ($p < .001$). No other significant differences were found.

Table 22 indicates no significant differences between subjects on Empathic Awareness.

Table 19

Analysis of Variance

Quality of Family Life

Source of Variation	Self Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance	Parent Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Signif-icance
Punishment										
Total	85.83189	1	85.83189			23.49887	1	23.49887		
Quality	2.11670	3	0.70557	1.46	0.226	15.09262	3	5.03087	5.72	0.001
Error	90.70436	188	0.48247			165.44800	188	0.88004		
Role Reversal										
Total	128.59076	1	128.59076			0.11887	1	0.11887		
Quality	0.91006	3	0.30335	0.90	0.440	16.43414	3	5.57805	7.67	0.000
Error	63.04567	188	0.33535			134.26791	188	0.71419		
Empathic Awareness										
Total	140.15579	1	140.15579			5.65034	1	5.65034		
Quality	3.39166	3	1.13055	1.74	0.161	7.38242	3	2.46080	3.28	0.022
Error	122.41916	188	0.65117			141.06764	188	0.75036		
Expectations										
Total	59.66806	1	59.66806			5.78810	1	5.78810		
Quality	1.58617	3	0.52872	0.94	0.422	11.96759	3	3.98920	5.10	0.002
Error	105.69856	188	0.56223			146.98616	188	0.78184		

Table 20

Scheffé's Test of Differences Between Means

Quality of Family Life

Punishment

Factor I

Table of Means and Differences

	Excellent .02729	Above Average -.31446	Below Average -.56684	Average -.72862
Excellent .02729	--			
Above Average -.31446	-.34175	--		
Below Average -.56684	-.53955*	-.25238	--	
Average -.72862	-.70133	-.41416	-.16178	--

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Table 21

Scheffé's Test of Differences Between Means

Quality of Family Life

Role Reversal

Factor II

Table of Means and Differences

	Excellent .53062	Above Average .09716	Average -.17627	Below Average -.33895
Excellent .53062	--			
Above Average .09716	.43346	--		
Average -.17627	.70689***	.27343	--	
Below Average -.33895	.86957***	.43611	-.51522	--

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Table 22

Scheffé's Test of Differences Between Means

Quality of Family Life

Empathic Awareness

Factor III

Table of Means and Differences

	Excellent .455	Above Average .33189	Below Average .01368	Average -.02451
Excellent .455	--			
Above Average .33189	.12311	--		
Below Average .01368	.44132	.31821	--	
Average -.02451	.47951	.3564	.03819	--

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

It can be seen from Table 23 that the subjects reporting the quality of their family life as excellent had significantly higher scores on Expectations than those reporting average or below average quality of family life ($p<.05$). No other significant differences were found.

The extreme scores for the parent group varied from one on Factor III, Empathic Awareness (.5 percent) to nine on Factor I, Punishment (4.7 percent). Factor II, Role Reversal, had five parent scores (2.6 percent) and seven (3.6 percent) had extreme scores on Expectations, Factor IV.

Thus the analyses of variance indicate a significant difference between the self and parent groups. This is consistent with the presence of extreme scores in the parent group with none in the self group. The correlations in Table 24 indicate that those with higher parent ratings had higher self ratings, supporting the passing on of good attitudes. The correlation between parent and self attitudes as seen in Table 24 suggests a relationship between the attitudes of self and parents.

Summary

Verification of the factor structure found in Bavolek's (1978) dissertation on the A/API was one of the major purposes of this study. Factor analytic results were remarkably similar to those obtained in the adolescent population studied by

Table 23

Scheffé's Test of Differences Between Means

Quality of Family Life

Expectations

Factor IV

Table of Means and Differences

	Excellent .19917	Above Average -.07081	Average -.39961	Below Average -.51421
Excellent .19917	--			
Above Average -.07081	.26998	--		
Average -.39961	.59878*	-.269151	--	
Below Average -.51421	.71338*	-.4434	-.1146	--

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

Table 24

Relationship Between Self and Parent Attitudes

	Self Factor I	Self Factor II	Self Factor III	Self Factor IV
Parent Factor I	.3203	.2612	.1967	.2371
Parent Factor II	.2115	.3271	.2074	.2483
Parent Factor III	.2789	.2948	.4216	.3594
Parent Factor IV	.3262	.3823	.3433	.4393

Bavolek. Thirty-one of the thirty-two items were found to group into the same factors as reported by Bavolek. Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Nunnally, 1967) provided a satisfactory verification of the internal consistency of the A/API on different populations.

Thus the construct validity and internal consistency have been verified by the results obtained from a more heterogeneous and adult population. The need for further research with the A/API is implied by the outcome of this study and specific suggestions for future work are discussed in Chapter Five.

A second purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of educators as measured by extreme scores on the A/API. In Bavolek's (1978) study, scores which were -2 standard deviations or more below the mean were considered extreme and indicated a need for special training. For this sample, none of the respondents self scores were found to be extreme.

Comparisons of this sort are weakened by the inherent group differences (that is, a more homogeneous adolescent population and a heterogeneous adult group).

Lastly, the data were analyzed for within and between group differences on the four constructs measured by the A/API. Basically depiction of self is more favorable than for parents. Parent scores indicate the presence of some extreme scores as opposed to none for self. Analyses of

variance indicated the difference as significant at the .001 level on all four factors, with the self responses higher. Thus the individuals portrayed themselves to have higher, more favorable parenting attitudes than their parents, at least generally, on all four factors.

There was only one comparison in the study where significance occurred in the self group as opposed to the parent part of the sample. This was on Factor III, Empathic Awareness and the difference was between sexes. Females had higher mean scores than males in the self group but no difference in the parent group. Thus the females rate themselves as being higher in empathic awareness than males and their own parents.

Specific differences were found when comparing self and parent on age, socioeconomic levels and religion. There were no significant differences found among people, either self or parent, on the basis of income levels or whether they themselves were parents.

The area where the greatest number of significant differences were found was in the area of quality of family life. Respondents had rated the quality of family life (family of origin) as excellent, above average, average or below average. Scheffé comparisons showed that there was no significant differences between groups on Empathic Awareness. However, in the areas of Role Reversal and Expectations, the parent ratings of those who rated the quality of their family life

as excellent scored significantly higher than those who depicted their families as average or below average.

Also, in the area of Punishment, the 'excellent' group scored significantly higher than the below average group. Thus, in at least three of the four constructs, the depiction of one's family life as excellent was further substantiated with generally more positive parenting attitudes than those who depicted the quality of their family life as either average or below average. This finding might be interpreted as another form of external validity for the A/API.

Those with higher parent ratings had higher self ratings which supports the passing on of good attitudes. While there is a significant difference between means of groups, the correlation between parent and self attitudes and the relatively low number of extreme scores suggests a relationship between attitudes of self and parents.

Further discussion and implications for additional research are presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The Problem

Most of the recent child abuse literature reflects a greater involvement of researchers in interventive, after-the-fact efforts. The research in this area indicates only a few studies in which preventive tools have been designed and tested.

One of these instruments, a parenting inventory, was originally field tested with an adolescent population. This study represents the first major attempt to field test the inventory with an adult population. The sample group in this study is primarily made up of educators whose importance as socializing agents is potentially more germane when working with those from abusive backgrounds.

The Purposes

The primary purpose of this study was to verify the factor structure in Bavolek's (1978) Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory (A/API). The A/API, which purports to measure four constructs commonly found in abusive individuals, had previously only been tested with an adolescent population and this study is the first to gather normative data from an adult sample.

The second major purpose was to use the A/API to measure attitudes found among educators. Lastly, comparisons between self response sets and perceived parental response sets were compared on a number of demographic variables.

The Instrument

The major instrument used in this research project was the Adult/Adolescent Parenting Inventory. The A/API is a thirty-two item inventory within a Likert scale format (Bavolek, 1978). The inventory identifies and measures attitudinal postures based on the following constructs typically found in abusive parents:

A. Inappropriate expectations of the child

B. Inability to be empathically aware of the child's needs

C. Strong belief in the value of punishment

D. Role reversal.

The Design

The design of this study was a field study of the exploratory type. Exploratory research is preliminary to hypothesis testing and is more heuristic than many other types of research. Kerlinger (1973) discusses the importance particularly of using factor analysis as part of the methodological and measurement investigation prior to later, more systematic and rigorous testing of hypotheses.

The study was limited to students enrolled in Loyola University's summer courses in the Graduate School of Education. Because of small enrollment figures and the reticence of some instructors to participate, a stratified random sampling was not obtained. The adult population obtained is more heterogeneous than that in the original adolescent population (Bavolek, 1978).

The sample consisted of 194 students who were pursuing graduate courses in four departments within the School of Education: Educational Administration, Curriculum, Foundations of Education and Guidance and Counseling. Participation was voluntary in those classes where professors responded positively to the request for class time to administer the inventories.

The inventories were administered to students in 25 classes. Each class was given an introduction to the study, a guarantee of anonymity, a reminder to answer both sides of each sheet and information as to how to obtain a summary of the study's findings. Respondents filled out a general information sheet and two sets of the A/API. The first set represented their own child-rearing attitudes and the second set reflected the child-rearing attitudes of the parents of the respondents as measured by the A/API.

Factor analysis and a measure of internal consistency were used to verify the factor structure of the A/API with an

adult sample. To assess the attitudinal sets of the respondents, factor scores were analyzed for the presence of extreme scores. Finally comparisons between group differences and on a number of demographic variables were measured by analyses of variance and post hoc comparisons on differences between the means.

The Findings

The first purpose of this study was to verify the factor structure of Bavolek's A/API with an adult population. Kaiser's Second Generation Little Jiffy and Cronbach's alpha coefficient were used to verify the validity and internal consistency of the A/API.

All items were shown to significantly contribute to the common variance, a great majority of which is accounted for by four factors. With the exception of one item, all of the items were grouped into the same four factors as those in the original field testing of the A/API. Comparisons of the eigenvalues, the rotated factor loadings, correlations between factors and some related statistics in this study were very similar to those obtained in the adolescent population studied by Bavolek. The correlations are similar in magnitude, ranging from .54 to .70 for Bavolek and from .45 to .68 for this study.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient, a measure of reliability used by Bavolek, verified the internal consistency of the A/API.

Coefficients in the Bavolek study ranged from .70 to .81 as compared to coefficients which ranged from .75 to .85 in the self group and from .78 to .90 in the parent group. Better coefficients indicated that the internal consistency of the instrument is satisfactory on two different adult populations (Self and parent groups) in addition to Bavolek's adolescent population.

Raw scores which had been converted to factor scores were used to assess the parenting attitudes of the respondents, the second purpose of this study. Scores -2 or more standard deviations away from the mean were considered extreme or undesirable and would indicate the need for additional training. There were no extreme scores on self scores and relatively few extreme scores for parents.

The final rationale for the study was to compare the attitudes between the self and parent groups. Analyses of variance were calculated to test differences between mean scores for self and parent. The main effect for differences between mean self and parent scores was highly significant for each factor ($p<.001$). Mean self scores for all four factors were higher (more favorable) than mean scores for parents.

Eight one-way analyses of variance were calculated for seven demographic variables. Thus sex, age, socioeconomic level, parental status, income level, religious affiliation

and quality of family life differences were analyzed for the four 'self' factors as well as the four 'parent' factors.

Empathic Awareness for females was the only comparison where significance occurred in the self group ($p<.01$). In addition to the significance between self and parent groups, analysis of male and female mean scores indicated higher scores for females on the empathy factor. Thus females rated themselves as having higher, more favorable scores than males and their own parents on empathic awareness.

Age, socioeconomic level and religious affiliation groups indicated some specific differences but post hoc tests were not significantly different on within group comparisons. No significant differences were found for the parental status and income level variables.

There were a number of significant differences found both within and between groups on the 'quality of life' variable. Post hoc comparisons showed no significance within groups on Empathic Awareness. For the Punishment Factor, respondents who reported an excellent quality of family life had significantly higher scores than those reporting below average quality of family life ($p<.05$). Subjects reporting excellent quality of life had significantly higher scores on Role Reversal than those who reported average or below average quality of family life ($p<.001$). Finally, those who described their family life

as excellent had significantly higher scores on Expectations than those reporting average or below average quality of family life ($p<.05$).

Correlations between higher parent and higher self ratings ranged from .32 to .44. There were relatively few extreme scores for the parent group (ranging from one on Empathic Awareness to nine on Punishment). The correlations between self and parent attitudes plus the relatively low number of extreme parent scores suggests a relationship between the attitudes of self and parents. These findings support the 'quality of life' findings which suggest the passing on of good attitudes and may be seen as a form of external validation for the A/API.

Conclusions

Factor analytic and internal consistency measures provided verification of the construct validity and internal consistency for the main instrument in this study. Thus Bavolek's factor structure has been verified with a more heterogeneous and adult population than in his original work with a relatively homogeneous adolescent population. The results of this study are clearly supportive of additional work with the A/API and suggestions for further research are contained in the following section.

The lack of extreme scores found among the respondents in this study may indicate the presence of favorable parenting attitudes among the educators represented in this sample.

This is clearly a result one would hope to achieve from a group who function as alternate models of more appropriate attitudinal sets and actions than abusive children observe at home.

However, this result must be interpreted with caution in terms of possible confounding elements. The first is the difficulty encountered in self-report measures and the desire to 'look good' even when anonymity is guaranteed. In other words, respondents may supply recognized socially desirable attitudes rather than 'self' reflections. Further, the tendency for individuals to use response sets (extreme responses, agree responses, disagree responses, socially desirable responses) is always a threat to valid measurement and confounding in terms of attitude variance (Kerlinger, 1973).

This possible set-response variance is of even greater concern when the instrument itself is unidimensional and thus a respondent may easily be able to perceive the desired response set. The unidimensionality of the responses in the A/API (that is, all items should elicit disagreement) is another major area of concern, particularly with educated, more sophisticated and test-wise adult samples. This seeming ability to 'look good' with the instrument as it is now, particularly with adult groups, is a question that future research must address carefully and is discussed in the recommendations section.

The results of the question of extreme scores will have greater significance in subsequent studies with other adult

normative and abusive samples. Recommendations for additional research in this area are discussed in the final section of this paper.

The final purpose of the study was to analyze both between and within group differences on a number of demographic variables on each of the four factors. There was a significant difference on all four factors between the self and parent responses. This reflected a fairly consistent tendency to portray one's self more positively and with more favorable parenting attitudes than one's parents.

Although there were significant differences between the two groups, the relatively few and inconsistent extreme scores suggest that the parents were not perceived or presented as having attitudes which would parallel those found in abusive parents. They were significantly different in that the respondents consistently portrayed themselves in a more favorable light.

The perpetuation and replication of attitudes from generation to generation is supported by correlations found between higher self and higher parent ratings. Additionally, in three of the four constructs, those who depicted the quality of their family life as excellent had generally more positive parenting attitudes than those who depicted the quality of their family life as average or below average.

Thus, in the final section support is gained for the passing on of good attitudes from generation to generation,

a relationship between attitudes of self and parents is supported and Bavolek's A/API has obtained what might be considered another form of external validity.

In conclusion, the results of this study support the viability of the A/API as a means of measuring and identifying four constructs typically found in individuals prone to abuse their children. The attitudes of the educators in the study were generally quite positive and may indicate the presence of highly appropriate child-rearing attitudes. The ability to 'fake good' on the current prototype of the A/API, however, is open to question and needs further research with other adult groups.

Lastly, while the passing on of good attitudes received support, it was also clear that the respondents were able to portray their parents' attitudes in a less favorable light than their own.

It is this author's belief that additional research using the A/API will increase our understanding of the cycle of child abuse. The format followed in this study, that is, self and parent response sets, seems a particularly viable one for future studies and is further discussed in the recommendations section.

Recommendations

1. Further research using varied and more random adult samples should be done with the A/API. Additional normative data is needed before even tentative conclusions can be developed.

2. Follow-up studies for predictive validity with the A/API are recommended and are necessary to help determine the predictive utility of the inventory.

3. Research using known adult abusers as well as normal groups is in order. Then comparisons between normal adult groups and abusive groups should be analyzed.

4. Known abusers who take the A/API should be asked to rate a 'parent' set of responses for comparison with this study and with assumptions and recent findings about abusive parents. This would provide a way of seeing whether abusive parents are able to see themselves as having different attitudes than their parents and if they are able to rate themselves in a more favorable light. The literature would suggest that their attitudes would be very similar and that both sets would have extreme scores when compared to other normal adult groups.

5. The results of this study and other normative and abusive groups will add needed information about extreme scores for comparisons between adult groups. The question of extreme scores needs to be researched further given the unidimensionality of the A/API. Bavolek (1978) had two prototypes of the A/API and the use of the alternate inventory, where half of the items reflected parenting behaviors positively and half negatively might be used to research concerns about the ease of faking a good response set.

6. General information sheets for future use with the A/API should be constructed with adequate care and attention given so that variable confounding difficulties are alleviated.

7. The A/API could be used to obtain insights into differences between response sets of individual parents. A few individuals in this study remarked on how different some of their answers would have been if responses were based on mother or father as opposed to sets reflecting a combined parental posture.

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APPENDIX A

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

ADULT/ADOLESCENT PARENTING INVENTORY*
(A/API)

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

SA	A	U	D	SD
strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree

Circle the letter on the answer sheet which best describes your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that you respond to each statement. Some of the statements may seem alike, but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

		strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree
1.	Young children should be expected to comfort their mother when she is feeling blue.	SA	A	U	D	SD
2.	Parents should teach their children right from wrong by sometimes using physical punishment.	SA	A	U	D	SD
3.	Children should be the main source of comfort and care for their parents.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4.	Young children should be expected to hug their motner when she is sad.	SA	A	U	D	SD
5.	Parents will spoil their children by picking them up and comforting them when they cry.	SA	A	U	D	SD
6.	Children should be expected to verbally express themselves before the age of one year.	SA	A	U	D	SD
7.	A good child will comfort both of his/her parents after the parents have argued.	SA	A	U	D	SD
8.	Children learn good behavior through the use of physical punishment.	SA	A	U	D	SD
9.	Children develop good, strong characters through very strict discipline.	SA	A	U	D	SD
10.	Parents should expect their children who are under three years to begin taking care of themselves.	SA	A	U	D	SD
11.	Young children should be aware of ways to comfort their parents after a hard day's work.	SA	A	U	D	SD
12.	Parents should slap their child when s/he has done something wrong.	SA	A	U	D	SD
13.	Children should always be spanked when they misbehave.	SA	A	U	D	SD
14.	Young children should be responsible for much of the happiness of their parents.	SA	A	U	D	SD

		strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree
15.	Parents have a responsibility to spank their child when s/ne has misbehaved.	SA	A	U	D	SD
16.	Parents should expect children to feed themselves by twelve months.	SA	A	U	D	SD
17.	Parents should expect their children to grow physically at about the same rate.	SA	A	U	D	SD
18.	Young children who feel secure often grow up expecting too much.	SA	A	U	D	SD
19.	Children should always "pay the price" for misbehaving.	SA	A	U	D	SD
20.	Children should be expected at an early age to feed, bathe, and clothe themselves.	SA	A	U	D	SD
21.	Parents who are sensitive to their infant's feelings and moods often spoil their children.	SA	A	U	D	SD
22.	Children deserve more discipline than they get.	SA	A	U	D	SD
23.	Children whose needs are left unattended will often grow up to be more independent.	SA	A	U	D	SD
24.	Parents who encourage communication with their children only end up listening to complaints.	SA	A	U	D	SD
25.	Children are more likely to learn appropriate behavior when they are spanked for misbenaving.	SA	A	U	D	SD
26.	Children will quit crying faster if they are ignored.	SA	A	U	D	SD
27.	Children five months of age ought to be capable of sensing what their parents expect.	SA	A	U	D	SD
28.	Children who are given too much love by their parents will grow up to be stubborn and spoiled.	SA	A	U	D	SD
29.	Children should be forced to respect parental authority.	SA	A	U	D	SD
30.	Young children should try to make their parent's life more pleasurable.	SA	A	U	D	SD
31.	Young children who are hugged and kissed often will grow up to be "sissies."	SA	A	U	D	SD
32.	Young children should be expected to comfort their father when he is upset.	SA	A	U	D	SD

GENERAL INFORMATION

It is very important that you respond to each statement. Please circle and/or fill in the appropriate response.

1. Year of birth: 19____.

2. Sex:

   a. Male
   b. Female

3. U.S. Citizen:

   a. Yes
   b. No

4. Marital status:

   a. Single
   b. Divorced
   c. Married
   d. Separated
   e. Religious

5. Ethnic background:

   a. Caucasian
   b. Black
   c. Latino-Spanish
   d. Asian
   e. Other

6. Religious preference:

   a. Catholic
   b. Protestant
   c. Jewish
   d. Other: _____
   e. None

7. Where do you live now:

   a. Rural
   b. Urban
   c. Suburban
   d. Other:_____

8. Where did you grow up:

   a. Rural
   b. Urban
   c. Suburban
   d. Other:_____

9. Are you a parent:

   a. Yes
   b. No

10. Number of male children:

		Age(s)
a.	0	
b.	1	_____
c.	2	_____
d.	3	_____
e.	more than 3	_____

11. Number of female children:

		Age(s)
a.	o	
b.	1	_____
c.	2	_____
d.	3	_____
e.	more than 3	_____

12. How many brothers do you or did you have:

		Age(s)
a.	0	
b.	1	_____
c.	2	_____
d.	3	_____
e.	more than 3	_____

13. How many sisters do you or did you have:

		Age(s)
a.	0	
b.	1	_____
c.	2	_____
d.	3	_____
e.	more than 3	_____

14. Educational level:

a. B.A.
b. M.A.
c. R.N.
d. Graduate Courses
e. Other:_____

Choose the appropriate occupation(s) and specify the number of years at each:

15. Education — Number of years

a. Elementary teacher _____
b. High school teacher _____
c. College teacher _____
d. Administrator _____
e. Other (Specify)_____ _____
_____

16. Health

Number of years

a. Nurse _____
b. Dental related _____
c. Other (Specify)_____ _____
_____

17. Mental health

Number of years

a. Elementary counselor _____
b. High school counselor _____
c. College counselor _____
d. Counseling in agency _____
e. Other (Specify)_____ _____
_____

18. Other (Specify)_____
(Years) _____

19. Income level:

a. Under $8,000
b. $8,000 to $15,000
c. $15,001 to $25,000
d. $25,001 to $40,000
e. Over $40,000

20. Socioeconomic level of family as you were growing up:

    a. lower
    b. lower-middle
    c. middle
    d. upper-middle
    e. lower-upper
    f. upper

21. The quality of my family life was:

    a. excellent
    b. above average
    c. average
    d. below average
    e. most unsatisfactory

APPENDIX B

REQUESTS FOR PARTICIPATION

June 10, 1978

Dear_____,

I am conducting research on parenting attitudes present in different groups of people who regularly interact with children on many different levels. I would like to collect this kind of information from those individuals enrolled in your summer course(s).

Briefly, I will be gathering normative and comparative data on a newly developed parenting inventory. No identifying questions will be asked and anonymity will be guaranteed. Filling out a demographic questionnaire and the basic inventory should take no more than thirty minutes.

Dean John Wozniak has sent a letter to the chairpeople within the School of Education urging their support in encouraging teachers within their respective departments to cooperate with this endeavor.

Please indicate your willingness to participate by indicating a date and time which would be most convenient for you. I appreciate your willingness to help. If you have any questions or concerns, please leave a note in my box or call me at 327-5390. I will be teaching in the second day summer session and look forward to meeting you.

I will be contacting you again shortly. Thank you for your help and interest.

Sincerely,

Judith M. Stone,
Ph.D. Candidate

____ You may come to my class on _____

at _____. The course number is _____

and we meet in room _____.

____ You may not come to my class.

_____
(name)

EXPLANATION AND INTRODUCTION OF STUDY TO PARTICIPANTS

You are being asked to participate in a study collecting normative data regarding parenting attitudes. Your participation is voluntary, and even though some demographic information is requested, your anonymity is guaranteed as no names or identifying material will be asked.

The author's hope is that the attitudinal inventory will be appropriate for use with people of varying age and educational levels and thus some of the wording may seem rather basic.

The inventory and general information sheet have questions on both sides of each sheet. Please be sure to answer all questions. Question 19, about income level, is to include your spouse's income. Question 21 about the quality of family life refers to your family as you were growing up.

Thank you very much for your help. If you wish to receive a summary of the findings of the study, please leave your name and address on a separate sheet.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Judith M. Stone has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Marilyn S. Sugar, Director
Assistant Professor, Guidance and Counseling, Loyola

Dr. Manuel S. Silverman
Associate Professor and Chairman, Guidance and Counseling, Loyola

Dr. John A. Wellington
Professor, Guidance and Counseling, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

4-14-80
Date

Marilyn Sugar
Director's Signature