

Université de Montréal

**Agreement between mothers' and fathers' beliefs and child rearing strategies
in relation to the child's social behavior**

by

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Université de Montréal
Faculty of Graduate Studies

This thesis entitled:

**Agreement between mothers' and fathers' beliefs and child rearing strategies
in relation to the child's social behavior**

presented by:
Zina Mowszowicz Suissa

was evaluated by a jury consisting of the following:

Dr. Sylvie Normandeau

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Dr. Gilles Bibeau

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ABSTRACT

Agreement between mothers' and fathers' beliefs and child rearing strategies in relation to the child's social behavior

Inter-parental agreement on parents' global beliefs and specific beliefs was investigated in relation to parents' child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior. The study also examined the child's perception of his or her mother's and father's global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies in relation to mother's and father's perception of the child's social behavior. Sixty intact, middle-class families with their eleven to twelve year old children (grades 5 and 6) participated in the study. Global beliefs were measured with the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992) as a measure of parents' perception of the source of their child's personal-social development. Specific Beliefs were investigated with a measure developed for this research following the studies of Dix et al. (1986, 1989), Mills and Rubin (1990, 1992), Rubin and Mills (1990), and Normandeau and Larivée (1997) to explain parents' causal attributions for their child's behavior. Parents provided ratings on the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire (CRSQ; Kochanska, Kuczynski, & Radke-Yarrow, 1989) as a measure of their child rearing strategies. Finally, parents' perception of the child's social behavior was assessed with the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1986). In turn, children's perception of their parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies were investigated with the same measures as their parents.

Parental agreement on global beliefs or specific beliefs did not relate to either parents' rearing strategies or their perception of their child's social behavior. Fathers taking on a more authoritative parenting style were more likely to recognize the benefits of the use of rewards and punishment as a disciplinary strategy. Results also suggested that mothers and fathers are more authoritative with their sons than with their daughters. Finally, differences in children's perception of their mother's and father's global beliefs, specific beliefs, or child rearing strategies are not linked to the child's social behavior. Marital status and socioeconomic status were taken into consideration as control variables. Limitations and implications of the study were discussed.

Key words: parental agreement, child rearing strategies, parental beliefs, causal attributions, child's social behavior

RESUME

Liens entre l'entente parentale en regard des croyances et des pratiques éducatives et le comportement social de l'enfant

Cette étude a examiné le degré d'accord entre les parents quant à leurs croyances globales et spécifiques, leurs pratiques éducatives d'une part et leur perception du comportement social de leur enfant d'autre part. Cette étude a aussi examiné la perception qu'a l'enfant des croyances globales et spécifiques de ses parents, ainsi que la relation entre les pratiques éducatives telles que perçues par l'enfant et la perception qu'ont les parents du comportement social de l'enfant. Soixante familles intactes de classe moyenne et leur enfant de 11-12 ans (5^{ième} et 6^{ième} années) ont participé à cette étude. Les croyances globales ont été évaluées à l'aide du 'Personal-Social Development Questionnaire' (PSDQ; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992). Cet instrument mesure la perception des parents quant aux sources principales du développement social de leur enfant. Les croyances spécifiques ont été mesurées à l'aide d'une mesure des attributions causales suggérées par les parents pour expliquer les comportements de leur enfant. Elle s'inspire des travaux de Dix et al. (1986, 1989), Mills et Rubin (1990, 1992), Rubin et Mills (1990) et Normandeau et Larivée (1997). Les pratiques éducatives ont été mesurées à l'aide du 'Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire' (CRSQ; Kochanska, Kuczynski et Radke-Yarrow, 1989). La perception parentale quant au comportement social de leur enfant a été examinée à l'aide du 'Child Behavior Checklist' (CBCL; Achenbach et Edelbrock, 1986). Finalement, les perceptions qu'ont les enfants des croyances globales et spécifiques

de leurs parents et de leurs pratiques éducatives ont été évaluées avec les mêmes mesures que celles utilisées par les parents.

Les résultats ne montrent aucun lien entre le degré d'accord entre les parents en regard des croyances générales ou spécifiques et soit leurs pratiques éducatives, soit le comportement social de leur enfant. Les pères « autorisants » sont plus susceptibles de croire à l'efficacité des récompenses et des punitions pour modeler le comportement de leur enfant. Par ailleurs, les parents adoptent une attitude plus « autorisante » avec leur fils qu'avec leur fille. Finalement, les perceptions qu'ont les enfants des croyances globales et spécifiques et des pratiques éducatives de leurs parents ne sont pas associées de façon significative au comportement social de l'enfant. Les statuts marital et socioéconomique ont été considérés comme variables de contrôle. Les limites et les implications de l'étude ont été discutées.

Mots-clés: entente parentale, pratiques éducatives, croyances parentales, attributions causales, comportement social de l'enfant.

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DEDICATION

In memory of my beloved father, Misza Mowszowicz, a loving husband,
father, father-in-law, grandfather, and great-grandfather who impressed on us the
value of education.

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achievements in your own lives. Finally, to my husband Jacques, as you know this is a dream come true. There are no words to acknowledge my love and gratitude in believing in me and supporting me. You have fostered in me the courage to forge my own path toward discovering what is truly fulfilling for me.

1. INTRODUCTION

The search for the forces that guide parents actions relative to their children is as ancient as the interest in the human condition.
(Sigel, 1985)

Researchers, dating back to the eighties, have queried how parents' beliefs relate to their child rearing strategies. McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982) proposed that if beliefs guide actions, then they should be able to predict parents' behaviors, actions, or strategies. Goodnow (1984) referred to the latter as the "missing link" in accounting for the parent-child relationship. Miller (1986) further suggested that studying parental beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies is important because "parents' beliefs about children may be related to parent child-rearing strategies and hence to developmental outcomes in the child" (p. 276).

Parents' child rearing strategies can be seen as an expression of a set of beliefs about how children become socially competent and how family environments shape children's behavior (Laosa & Sigel, 1982). As parents are considered the primary socializers, regulators, and caretakers of their children (Dix & Grusec, 1985), child rearing strategies will depend on parents' global beliefs – views about the nature of children, developmental processes (developmental milestones or markers), and the interpersonal context of the family (Murphey, 1992). Child rearing strategies are also dependent on parents' specific beliefs, with regards to parents' inferences (attributions) about the traits and motives of their children, the situational forces operating on their children, and beliefs about what causes their children's behavior (Dix & Grusec, 1985).

To date, there has been some research examining parents' global beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies, notably Sigel (1985, 1992), McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1980, 1982, 1992), Goodnow (1992), and Kochanska, Kuczynski, and Radke-Yarrow (1989). On the other hand, research on parental agreement on child rearing beliefs and its' relation to other family, parent, and child variables only became an object of study in the late eighties. One of the most important findings from research on parents' beliefs has been that parents who were in agreement on child rearing were more likely to be supportive, to use inductive control techniques, and to de-emphasize authoritarianism (Deal, Halverson, & Wampler, 1989; Roberts, Block, & Block, 1984).

Extensive research has also been done on parents' specific beliefs (i.e. Dix et al., 1985, 1986, 1989; Rubin et al., 1989, 1990; Mills et al., 1990, 1992). Miller (1995) illuminated these findings in a review of studies on parents' specific beliefs. Miller (1995) examined how mothers and fathers compared in their attributions when explaining their children's behavior. The studies showed that mothers and fathers were more similar than different in the explanations they gave for their children's social behavior. Research on parental concordance on specific beliefs has not been as fruitful. Miller (1995) was unable to find any studies that document the effect of parental concordance on specific beliefs in relation to children's social behavior. Miller (1995) suggests that research on the latter is important because of its' potential implications for "transmission of attributions to children" (p. 1568). As suggested by Goodnow (1992), agreement between parents may influence the child's awareness of parents' beliefs and also his or her acceptance of these beliefs.

On the whole, parental agreement may be a key element to positive outcomes

for children, such that, concordance in child rearing beliefs and practices may create a stable environment that promotes healthy functioning both within the home and outside the home. According to Platz, Pupp, and Fox (1994) children thrive best when there is some consistency between parents, as significant differences between parents in their expectations, discipline, and nurturing styles could signal potential problems for the family. As mothers and fathers may have different perceptions of their children's behavior, differences may create the potential for conflict (Minuchin, 1985) and parental conflict may result in less effective parenting, as demonstrated by problematic behavior in children (Block, Block, & Morrison, 1981; Porter & O'Leary, 1980). The reason for the latter may be that, "contradictory, confusing messages from disagreeing parents may stress the child's loyalties and complicate attempts to discern order and predictability in their world" (Block et. al, 1981, p. 965).

It is through the child's perception of his or her parents' beliefs and child rearing strategies that these beliefs and child rearing strategies can have an influence on the child. According to Murphey (1992), this has been a relatively neglected area in research, as few studies have examined the child's perception of the messages they receive from their parents. Studies have shown that although children do not always accurately perceive parental beliefs, when they do, their own beliefs are more likely to be consistent with their parents' beliefs (Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987; Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985). A child's accurate perception is also more likely when parents are in close agreement with each other (Alessandri & Wozniak, Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985). To the extent that parenting strategies reflect beliefs that can be inferred by the child, the parent's behavior also becomes more

predictable and understandable to the child, decreasing stress, and providing a model for interpreting everyday events (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1985).

As parenting is one of the greatest challenges adults endeavour in their lives, a greater awareness of parents' beliefs will therefore enhance our understanding of how parents invest in child rearing. This study will examine how agreement-disagreement between mother's and father's beliefs relate to their child rearing strategies, and, in turn, to the child's social behavior. As beliefs are perceived as important guides for parents' actions, influencing interactions with their children, and as the child does extract socializing messages from the interaction of the combined parental belief system (Elias & Ubriaco, 1986), the child's perception of his/her parents' beliefs and child rearing strategies will also be investigated.

This research has tremendous implications because it may benefit parent educators and family counselors. Parents could discuss their child-rearing beliefs and values and when disagreements between parents arise, interventions could help parents to become aware of their discrepancies about child rearing and to create some resolution of these discrepancies.

The first chapter will provide an overview of parental beliefs from an interdisciplinary perspective - disciplines such as philosophy, anthropology, sociology, and psychology. The latter will demonstrate the commonality envisioned by these disciplines in determining that parents' beliefs, regardless of the discipline, consider the meaning that parents bring to their child rearing. A conceptual analysis of beliefs, including the source and functions of these beliefs will be addressed in the second chapter. To understand the function of parental beliefs is important because such knowledge will make it easier to modify parenting behavior that is less than

optimal (Grusec, Hastings, & Mammone, 1994). Two models will be outlined as a means of demonstrating different authors' viewpoints of how beliefs have been examined in relation to other variables – i.e. child rearing strategies, child's social behavior. This will culminate in the author's own research model that will provide a framework for the present study. Empirical evidence of research will be presented that document each component of the research model. Studies that examine agreement between mothers and fathers on their global and specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior will also be investigated. As well, studies that have examined the child's perception of his/her parents' beliefs (global and specific) and child rearing strategies will be documented.

The third chapter will consist of the methodology determined for this research, to be followed by the results section. Finally, a discussion section will be presented that will provide the findings, the implications, and the limitations of the present study and directions for future research.

2. LINKING PARENTAL BELIEFS AND CHILD REARING STRATEGIES TO THE CHILD'S SOCIAL BEHAVIOR.

2.1. Parental beliefs from an interdisciplinary perspective

In beginning the examination of beliefs, primarily parental beliefs, the perusal of the literature demonstrates that throughout time philosophers, sociologists, psychologists, and historians have all pondered on these forces. For example, philosophers, William James and George Herbert Mead, and sociologist, Charles Horton Cooley, focused their attention on persons in interaction, as they envisioned

human beings constantly influencing each other by virtue of shared meanings (cited in Nett, 1993). Mead and Cooley, in their theory of “symbolic interactionism” emphasized the importance of family members in the socialization of the child and in the process of identity formation. The very concept of socialization derives from symbolic interactionism (Nett, 1993) and symbolic interactionism, as a theory, is instrumental in trying to “make sense” of the variety of conditions under which family members serve as important influences on each other. Peter Berger, a sociologist, introduced his own concept which he coined the “social construction of reality” in his belief that it is through social interaction that human beings create and maintain collective meanings that they attach to their everyday lives (Berger & Luckman, 1966).

In characterizing the patterned ways in which people think, evaluate, and feel, sociologists define beliefs as “shared cognitive assumptions about what is true and what is false” (Sanderson, 1991, p. 48). Bourdieu (1990) conceptualizes beliefs in relation to action, in that the individual is the “practical operator” (*habitus*). The *habitus*, a form of internal representation, is a “system of acquired dispositions, structured through social relations and functions as the practical operator through which the actions of the subjects become social action” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. ix). The *habitus* “reproduces and transforms through their practice the social constructions encountered by each generation” (p. ix). Bourdieu (1990) further reports that as social behavior is habitual and automatic and as practices are repeated again and again, this comes to be part of the “natural” order with the original reasons for their occurrence difficult to resurrect.

Ruiz (1997) explains the latter view. According to Ruiz, “as children, we do

not have the opportunity to choose our beliefs, but we agree with the information being passed down to us... and the only way to store information is by agreement... as soon as we agree we have faith... and to have faith is to believe unconditionally, thus creating our belief system” (p. 5). Ruiz proposes that this is not only how we learn as children but also how humans are “domesticated”. By being reinforced through rewards and punishments, at one point, “children will be able to domesticate themselves according to the same belief system they were given, using the same system of rewards and punishments” (p. 9). This may also help to explain the theory of cognitive dissonance (our inner judge), in that, children may feel discomfort when their behaviors do not match their values, beliefs or attitudes.

Parental beliefs not only refer to the parent as an “individual” but also in relation to others. Parents, as a part of a community, must integrate a sense of connectedness with others in acquiring a “parental identity” in the belief that “group membership carries with it some obligations to acquire the kinds of ideas and knowledge appropriate to being a mother and a father” (Goodnow, 1988, p. 289).

Anthropologists, in trying to understand how people create meanings, have shown an interest in studying parents’ ethnotheories (parent’s cultural beliefs) and how they relate to the context of life, in the systems that parents hold regarding the nature of children, development, parenting, and the family (Harkness & Super, 1966) Lightfoot and Valsiner (1995) provide an overview of how parents construct these ethnotheories, in that, “beliefs are semiotically coded higher psychological functions that are constructed and internalized with cultural guidance. The socially communicated meanings constitute the collective culture that provides material for constructing a personal culture.....Belief systems constitute resources from which

active persons construct their own (personal) belief structures.... Individual belief systems are the results of the construction process, based on beliefs embedded in social suggestion complexes. These complex – loosely organized structures of social expectations that circulate in the social discourse of the time – can tie together many heterogeneous beliefs, and present those to individuals in ways that become linked with their own existing intrapersonal knowledge and belief systems” (pp. 395-396).

The assumptions and values in ethnotheories provide a frame of reference within which parents make decisions about how to socialize their children, and are referred to as “cultural practices” (Harkness & Super, 1996). These cultural practices represent a “recurrent sequence of activities....engaged in by most or many members of a cultural group and that carry with them normative expectations about how things should be done” (p. 6). Furthermore, these cultural practices are not neutral but rather come packaged with values about what is natural, mature, and morally right (Miller & Goodnow, 1995). As people learn these “practices” – their essential and optional features – they develop a sense of belonging and identify within the community (Holland & Valsiner, 1988).

Lightfoot and Valsiner (1992) suggest that ethnotheories are more likely to show larger variations across cultural groups or social groups than within them. However, the belief system that exists within a collective culture “constitutes resources from which individuals construct their own (personal) belief structure” (Light & Valsiner, 1992, p. 395). Certain within-culture variables that may be associated with parental beliefs are socialization practices and socioeconomic status. Socialization processes may result in the assumptions made by mothers and fathers about their own parental role. Differences between mothers’ and fathers’ beliefs are

to be expected not only as a result of their own socialization experiences but also because of the disparity in their direct parental experience (Murphey, 1992). However, mothers and fathers who establish a relationship characterized by concordance of beliefs and behaviors may be better able to form harmonious and responsive relationships with their children (Minuchin, 1988).

Differences within cultural or social groups may also be attributed to socioeconomic status. Bronfenbrenner (1979) proposed that theories about children and development may filter down through the social classes and parents from different socioeconomic backgrounds may be exposed to different information. For example, in a study by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982b) comparing higher socioeconomic (SES) parents with lower SES parents, higher SES parents were more likely to espouse concepts of the child as an active processor in his or her own development and were therefore more likely to de-emphasize direct instruction, contrary to lower SES parents who emphasized more directive instruction. McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982b) suggests the differences may be as a result of different educational opportunities in understanding child development made available to the different SES groups. According to McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982b), “parents from lower SES backgrounds may be exposed to information about reinforcement theory by B.F. Skinner (to modify children’s behavior), while those from higher SES groups may be exposed to Piaget’s ideas about knowledge tied to the child’s own actions” (p. 265).

Studies in psychology, as in anthropology and sociology, have also tried to understand the forces that guide parents by investigating the attitudes, attributions, expectations, and perceptions of the child and parent, all under the “rubric of parental

beliefs” (Murphey, 1992, p. 200). Within a psychological perspective, Sigel (1985) views beliefs as “constructions of reality”, arising from social experiences, defining an individual’s psychological reality (i.e. expectations that one has of children), and altered on the basis of experiences with children. Sigel (1992) postulates that beliefs are “multi-determined, reflecting demographic, sociocultural and personal factors that coalesce to influence the quality of the parent-child interaction, both in its dyadic nature, as well as within the context of the family” (p. 454). This view reverts back to Kelly’s (1955, 1963) theory of “constructive alternativism”, in that, constructs or beliefs about child development are a means through which parents’ behaviors are guided.

McGillicuddy and Sigel (1995) provided a link between psychology and anthropology in trying to understand parental beliefs within the context of ethnotheories. According to McGillicuddy and Sigel, “the content of beliefs in the context of parenting is to know some aspects of the child and development. From this knowledge, a system of causal attributions regarding the child’s behaviors is derived; from this knowledge, attention is directed toward assimilation of some relevant information and disregard of contradictory or irrelevant information, given the knowledge.... reflection on such knowledge will lead to control cognitions and planful behavior.... knowledge that is deeply processed and routinized, easily activated, and which will be automatized; knowledge derived across many customs of child rearing which will be organized into categories or ethnotheories that shape attention and interpretation of roles vis-à-vis the child. The content of beliefs is knowledge, accepted as truth by the parent and all other “ideas” (types of beliefs) flow into or out of this most basic component of the belief system” (p. 347).

It is clearly evident from an interdisciplinary perspective that whatever discipline we endeavour to use to understand parents' views in the socialization of their children, all of the perspectives have one commonality - whatever the label used for parental beliefs, each label serves as a function for guiding the behavior and actions of parents toward their children (Goodnow & Collins, 1990; Harkness & Super, 1996; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992; Miller, 1988). Within each perspective, beliefs emerge from social exchanges of some kind – with children, other parents, peers, etc. Although there may be some variability in the particular content of parental beliefs across societies or cultures, it is assumed that all members of all societies use childrearing methods that are derived from an underlying belief structure, regarding the nature of child growth and development (LeVine, 1988).

From the theories set forth by philosophers, Mead and Cooley, on “symbolic interactionism” to sociologist, Berger’s “social construction of reality”, to anthropologists, Quinn and Holland (1987) and Harkness and Super (1996) “parents’ ethnotheories” and finally, to psychologists’ determination of beliefs as “constructions of reality” (Sigel, 1985), regardless of the concept, each of the latter tries to find meaning that parents bring to the child rearing function.

2.1.1. Definition of beliefs, attitudes, and values

Sigel (1985) tried to formulate a clear understanding of what designates a belief and how we can arrive at a working definition when doing research. First, there is often tremendous overlap between a belief, a value, and an attitude.

Attitudes represent an opinion one has about people, objects, and ideas (Maio & Olson, 2000). For example, we could have an attitude that watching

too much television has caused parents to talk less with their children.

Values have been defined in terms of what parents would like to see embodied in their children and the characteristics they consider most desirable to inculcate in their children (Kohn, 1969). Values have their origin, or at least are intertwined in the daily life, goals, and salient events of a person's life. In sum, values refer to what parents consider an important outcome, either in the child or in the parent-child relationship. For example, a value could reflect an abstract goal – i.e. to raise a happy child or placing a high value on education.

Beliefs can be defined as a conviction that one has in the truth of some proposition (de Vito, 2003). Parenting belief systems can be seen as an “internal representation of relationships that individuals bring with them to any interaction with others, including, but not limited to their own children” (Grusec, Hastings, & Mammon, 1994, p. 9). The latter suggests that individuals possess cognitive structures that represent regularities in their patterns of interpersonal relating. These “cognitive maps” (Baldwin, 1992) or “schemas” (Bugental, 1991; Bugental, Blue, Cortez, Fleck, Kopeikin, Lewis, & Lyon, 1993) help individuals to navigate their social world and include images of the self and others, along with a script for an expected manner of interaction. According to Bugental (1991; Bugental et al., 1993) these schemas are chronically accessible, operate below the level of conscious awareness, and sensitizes individuals to specific events in the environment. These schemas are accessible through self-reported questionnaires which elicit beliefs and behavioral intentions. This method assesses the parent as a thinking individual, one who can process and evaluate information as well as arrive at decisions (Holden & Edwards, 1989).

Beliefs can also constitute (1) constructions of reality arising from social experiences and defining an individual's psychological reality; and (2) categories or concepts – derived from a conceptualization that human cognition organizes reality into categories (Sigel, 1985). An example of a belief is, "I believe that children learn best by being rewarded". Parents could therefore provide the child with appropriate reinforcements by employing positive and negative reinforcement strategies to enhance learning.

Finally, Abelson (1986) has shown a great deal of interest to the understanding of beliefs as "possessions". From this viewpoint, he theorizes that most beliefs are comfortable and familiar, some are more expendable than others. He adds that many beliefs are displayed only to people one expects to appreciate them, and an attack upon the most cherished of one's beliefs can be reacted to defensively, "as though one's appearance, taste or judgment had been called into question" (p. 231).

As illustrated, beliefs can be theorized as possessions (Abelson, 1986), as internal representations (Grusec, Hastings, & Mammone, 1994), as constructions of reality arising from social experiences (Sigel, 1985), as schemas that help individuals to navigate their social world and that provide a script for an expected manner of interaction (Bugental, 1991, Bugental et al., 1993). In the context of this research, in consideration of the latter, parental beliefs will be examined as global beliefs – beliefs parents have about the nature of children (characteristics of boys and girls) and their developmental timetables (boundaries for acceptable behavior that adults draw around internalized norms for child development) (Murphey, 1992), and as specific beliefs – in the attributions parents make in explaining, evaluating,

and predicting their child's behavior (Miller, 1995).

2.1.2. Sources of parental beliefs

Beliefs about children emerge from social exchanges of some kind – our own upbringing, early experiences with caregivers, interaction with our own children, observation of other parents, our peers, culture, and expert advice.

Parent and child gender has been shown to be important in shaping parents' beliefs. Parent gender has been suggested as a “source of differential experience, in that society traditionally demands different roles from mothers and fathers, and parental beliefs and behaviors are shaped accordingly” (Knight & Goodnow, 1988, p. 519). With regards to child gender, part of the socialization process for girls is to focus on nurturing, child rearing and hence, child development issues...however, for males, ideas about child rearing may not be realized as important until after parenthood is attained” (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1982, p. 79).

Education and socioeconomic status may also be associated with parental beliefs (Miller, 1988). Parent's educational level may affect beliefs by virtue of parents having greater exposure to viewpoints associated with higher educational levels or social class” (Bronfenbrenner, cited in McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1982). As suggested earlier, in relation to socioeconomic status, theories about children and development may filter down through the social classes and therefore parents from different socioeconomic backgrounds may be exposed to different information.

One's own upbringing, as a child, is the source most often cited by parents themselves when asked where their beliefs come from (Sigel et al., 1980). According to Bowlby (1973) early experiences with caregivers provide the child with material

for the construction of “mental working models” of the world that include both the self and significant others. These models are described as “working models” because individuals use them to generate interpretations of events. These models also provide rules that direct social behavior and determine the ways in which social experiences are appraised.

Particular parenting strategies are presumed to derive from a system of beliefs that parents have and are used to predict others’ behaviors and guide their own behavior (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1982b; Sigel, 1985). For example, “parents who believe that children are empty vessels, waiting to be filled with knowledge, will be more likely to instruct their children verbally when teaching rather than encouraging self-discovery through questioning or demonstrations” (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1995, p.25-26).

Cultures and communities also deliver many messages about parenting. Bronfenbrenner (1979) pointed to the importance of the broader community (macrosystem) in the communication of normative cultural standards about child rearing through advice from relatives and experts, or through witnessing interactions within families other than one’s own. Goodnow (1985) suggests that one’s culture is the primary source of information about the facts of child rearing, that is, what children are like at various ages, what parenting techniques work, and what goals parents should value. Parents, however, are not merely “passive recipients” of their culture’s messages but rather seek out others to discuss child rearing values, and the social networks they form, in turn, then serve to build their beliefs about parenting (Goodnow, 1988). Ultimately, beliefs are created from an internal organization of these experiences (McGillicuddy-DeLisi & Sigel, 1995).

2.1.3. Function of parental beliefs

Beliefs enable adults to organize their world in a consistent manner, to make predictions, perceive similarities, and to relate new experiences to past ones (Kelly, 1955). Beliefs serve comparable functions for everyone, irrespective of culture, although the particular content of beliefs may vary with historical or present aspects of the culture (LeVine, 1988). Beliefs, however, are not necessarily static, but are subject to change throughout the life cycle as a function of education, media exposure, and relationship with significant others (Laosa & Sigel, 1982).

Beliefs are also a source of parenting practices providing parents with a means for setting parenting priorities and evaluating success in parenting (Goodnow & Collins, 1990). To the extent that these parenting strategies reflect beliefs that can be inferred by the child, the parent's behavior also becomes more predictable and understandable to the child, decreasing stress and providing a model for interpreting everyday events (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1985).

With regards to the outcomes for the child, the child's environment, both interpersonal and physical, will be created within the context of parents' beliefs. Knowledge that comprises of beliefs can be viewed as internalizations that are acquired, stored, and used within the information-processing system. From a review by McGillicuddy-DeLisi and Sigel (1995) on the belief system, the authors propose the following about the function of beliefs: "The child's world is more predictable when the parent's behaviors reflect the organization of some beliefs. The child may perceive and understand that these beliefs exist, perhaps even adopting them as his or her own" (cited in Bornstein, 1995, p. 350).

2.2. MODELS OF THE BELIEF-BEHAVIOR PARADIGM

2.2.1. Existing models

To get a better perspective of how research has portrayed parental beliefs in relation to other variables, the following represents two models that have examined parents' beliefs, each from a different perspective. The model by Murphey (1992) (Figure 1) relates the role of parental beliefs to child socialization and the model by Stratton (1988) (Figure 2) investigates the cycle through which cultural beliefs are related to the behavior of the child in the family.

Murphey (1992) (Figure 1) elaborates on how parental beliefs, both global and particular (attributions/expectations) relate to parental behavior in mediating the child's outcome.

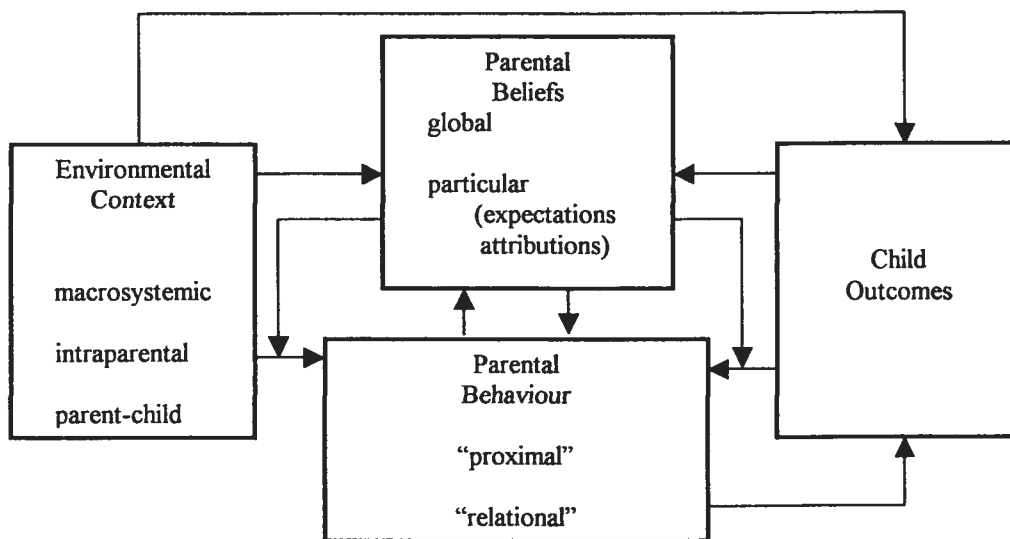


Fig. 1: Role of parental beliefs in child socialization (Murphey, 1992)

As illustrated in the model, parents' beliefs are influenced by the environmental context which operates on three levels: the macrosystem, the intraparental, and the parent-child. From the macrosystemic level, parents' beliefs

inhere within a broader context of knowledge and ideology that is normative and culturally determined, as shown by studies that have documented cross-cultural differences in parents' beliefs (i.e. comparing parents' developmental expectations). At the intraparental level, socialization processes are affected by a parent's history, including family of origin, and the kinds of psychological and emotional needs that arise from it. The latter influences one's schema for self and others. The parent-child level relates to parenting tasks (discipline, instruction, etc.). The nature of the adult's cognitions of the child may be linked to the adult's experience with, and knowledge about, children and development, as well. The parent-child relationship may also be mediated by parents' attributions about their children's competence and responsibility in situations, which in turn, may impact different discipline practices with different child behaviors (Dix, Ruble, and Zambarano, 1989).

The model also suggests that the environmental context may have a direct or indirect influence on the child outcome. For example, parental beliefs that arise in an environmental context may affect the child directly through developmental and scholastic expectations of parents from various cultures. Comparative studies have shown how expectations and attributions for academic achievement of American and Chinese mothers differ (Stevenson & Lee, 1990). With regards to more specific societal-level factors, there is evidence that chronic stress conditions exert influence on the beliefs-behavior-outcomes system. Stress factors include demographic markers of low income, little education, and poverty of social support. In turn, environmental factors, such as stress and life factors, can relate to child outcomes indirectly, through parental beliefs or child rearing strategies, which, in turn, will affect the child's social behavior.

As proposed by the model, parents have global beliefs, in relation to the nature of children, their developmental processes, and the interpersonal context of the family and particular beliefs, that consist of expectations/attributions that parents make for their children's behavior. According to Murphey (1992), these two constructs are probably reciprocally related rather than independent. For example, the attributions parents make for their children's behavior may be influenced by the competence level they feel is "reasonably" expected at a given age; conversely, those expectations (global beliefs) may be affected by attributions of what it is (i.e. effort, innate ability) that motivates developmental change.

Murphey (1992) conceptualizes in his model that parental beliefs, both global and particular, may affect child outcomes through their influence on parental behavior, both proximal, situation-bound behavior, and arrangements and relationships that exist over time and place. Beliefs, in turn, are affected by the parent's perception of the child, especially when the two (global and particular) are discrepant.

Finally, the child's perception of parents' beliefs may be dependent upon the perceived "strength" of the belief-message (beliefs expressed through verbalization), the child's level of cognitive development, and the affective quality of the parent-child relationship. From this, the child may come to adopt beliefs about him- or herself that are consistent with the parents' beliefs. According to Murphey, beliefs expressed by more than one source (fathers, mothers, as well as other sources) may prove more influential.

Murphey (1992) in reflecting on his model, demonstrates that he is a proponent of parental beliefs (as the literature has shown) as being typically derived

“from the top down”, from normative, culture-based expectations/assumptions, and from the context of the parent’s social-psychological situation.

The model by Stratton (1988) (see Figure 2) proposes that all parents have a general conceptualization of what children are like at a given age. These beliefs reflect the values of the broader culture (e.g. gender role, moral values, beliefs about the nature of child development). Parents also have a specific set of beliefs about each of their own children (e.g. a particular child is bright, stubborn), which will determine how the child is treated. The child will then build up a model about the person he/she is and how he/she is being perceived by his/her parents, as well as building a model of the parents. These models will provide the basis for the child to choose particular modes of behavior, which will then feed back to the parents’ perception.

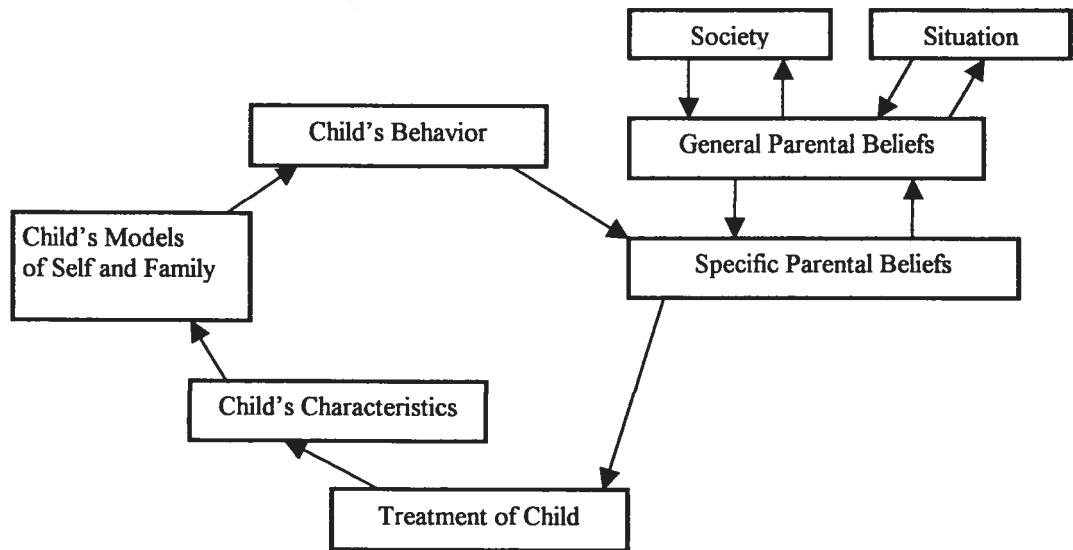


Figure 2: Cycle through which cultural beliefs are related to behavior of a child in a family (Stratton, in Valsiner, 1988, p. 14)

According to Stratton (1988) parents from different cultures can be expected to have marked differences in their general beliefs which will be reflected on the family. For example, Goodnow, Cashmore, Cotton, and Knight (1984) investigated mothers' beliefs about child development in samples of parents with Australian and Lebanese backgrounds. They found that ethnicity was a predictor of beliefs about developmental timetables more so than socioeconomic status or gender. Stratton suggests that this may be due to differences in the views of the Western culture (individualistic culture), in the assumption that "earlier is better" and that learning must not be left too late. In contrast, it was the belief in the Lebanese culture (collectivistic culture) that children should not be pressured because they will be able to acquire the necessary skills when the time comes that they need them. An individualistic culture therefore represents a culture in which autonomy, self-reliance, and independence are encouraged, whereas, a collectivistic culture stresses interdependence, in the ongoing connection of the individual with other human beings (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

The model further indicates that parental beliefs translate directly into ways of treating children, in that, general beliefs affect specific beliefs, which, in turn, determines the treatment of the child. This is demonstrated in one of Stratton's earlier studies investigating the significance of parental perception. The study examined how the initial perceptions mothers have of their first babies affect their interactions with their children at 10 weeks, in addition to the kinds of long-standing patterns that are set up as a result. For example, in the study, mothers who earlier did not feel it meaningful to think of babies as having negative emotions would later interpret the behavior of the baby as an unhappy baby. This differed from mothers'

perception and reactions if they felt babies could have negative emotions. Stratton (1988) concluded from the latter, that mothers approached their first baby with a set of expectations about the nature of children and also an acquired perception of their own baby.

In summary, the model by Stratton (1988) proposes that a process unfolds when general beliefs affect specific beliefs, which, in turn, determines how the child is treated. From this, the child encaptures a “model” of the kind of person he or she is and how he or she is being perceived by his or her parents. Stratton (1988) postulates that this “model” provides the basis for a child to choose particular modes of behavior, which then feeds back to the parents’ perceptions. Family beliefs may also be represented within the child’s model, which will eventually come to be general beliefs with which the grown-up child starts a new phase of family formation and parenting.

2.2.2. Proposed research model

After careful examination of the models by Murphey, 1992 (Figure 1) and Stratton, 1988 (Figure 2), the following represents a model (adapted from Murphey, 1992) that will provide a framework for this research study (see Figure 3). A broad outline of the model will first be presented, followed by an elaboration of each of the components of the model. From this, the author will extrapolate research questions in order to conduct the study.

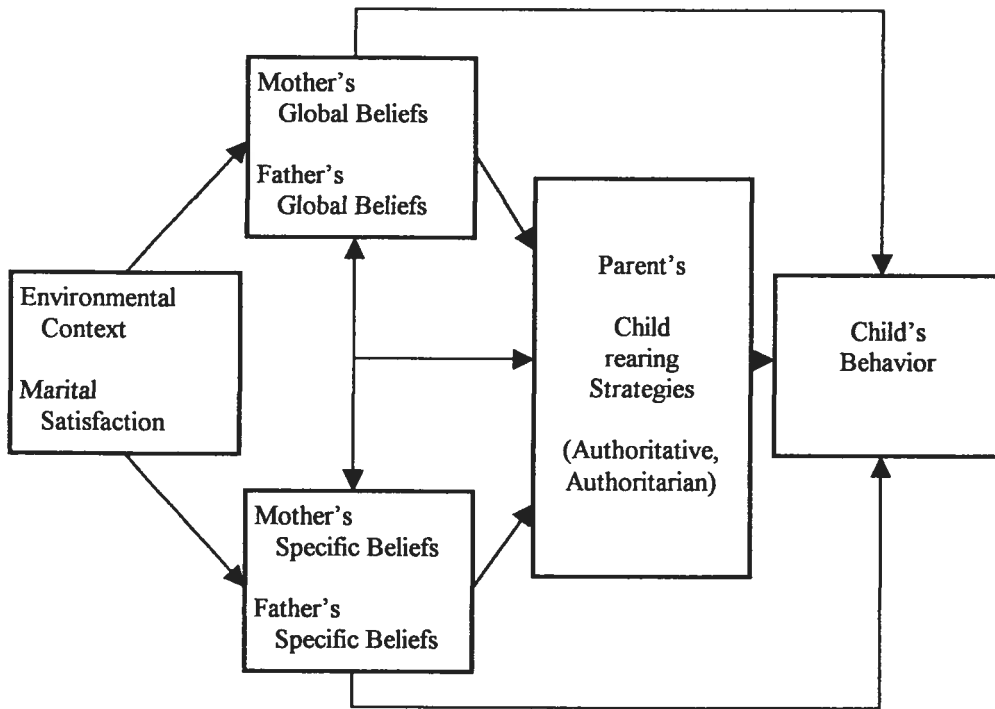


Figure 3: Proposed research model: Mothers' and fathers' beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior.

2.2.2.1. Environmental context

As proposed in the model by Murphey (1992), beliefs arise in an environmental context which impacts both parents' beliefs and the child's social behavior. Aspects of the environmental context that will be considered in this study are socioeconomic status and the marital relationship.

Socioeconomic status represents an important variable, and as suggested earlier, theories about children and development may filter down through social classes and parents from different socioeconomic groups may be exposed to different information. For example, as shown in a study by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982b), parents of higher socioeconomic status are more likely than their counterparts of

lower socioeconomic status to believe that children learn best by being active processors in their own development rather than passive recipients of direct instruction from parents.

With regards to marital factors, as reported by Goldberg (1990), spouses who reported more satisfying marriages converged in their perception of their children's behaviors. Furthermore, Goldberg proposes that "parents who differ markedly in their child rearing values, perceptions, or behaviors may argue more and blame the other for the child's transgressions" (p. 532). Marital satisfaction will therefore be a factor contributing to this study.

2.2.2.2. Global beliefs

One of the early pioneers in the study of parental beliefs, Ann McGillicuddy-DeLisi, in the mid 1970s, initiated a pilot study to better understand how parents conceptualize their beliefs about the nature of children. Through this study, McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982) proposed that parents' beliefs about the child's development exists within a framework that encompasses certain philosophical views (global beliefs), and, further, that "within this global system very specific beliefs about the parent's role in the progress and capability of one's child may be an offshoot or a subsystem that exists parallel to beliefs about developmental processes" (p. 199). The latter suggests that parent's behavior is indeed related to their beliefs about society in general, and, therein, to the parent's role in the socialization process.

Subsequently, McGillicuddy-DeLisi developed a global beliefs questionnaire with the use of psychological theories as a source of the item content. The measure, entitled the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ;

McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992) is a measure of parents' personal-social development beliefs. The theoretical framework of the measure is based on Kelly's theory of constructive alternativism (1955, 1963), in that, parents are seen as constructing and altering their beliefs about the child on the basis of direct experiences with their children. These beliefs are then used to explain and predict the child's behavior. The questionnaire consists of items representing constructivist, attribution, psychoanalytic, biological, gender, operant learning, and social learning perspectives that would be used to assess parents' global beliefs about children.

The constructivist and attribution perspectives demonstrate a cognitive component, in that people develop schemas to interpret, anticipate, and evaluate the thoughts and behaviors of others. On the basis of their ongoing experiences with their children, as well as their own experiences as a child within their own family, parents construct their own beliefs about children's personal-social development. The constructivist perspective proposes that parents believe that children construct views based on their own experiences, which ultimately helps them to make sense of their world. For example, a constructivist perspective would view children as developing ideas about social relationships through their play with peers. Attribution theory suggests that people are motivated to explain their own and other people's behaviors by attributing the causes of those behaviors to an external situation or a person's internal dispositions or traits. For example, a parent may think the cause of a child's action is due to something in the environment (e.g. the child stole the money because his family is starving) or they may attribute the cause of an action to something within the person (e.g. the child stole the money because he is a born thief).

The psychoanalytic, biological, and gender approaches are linked to children's maturational stages. The psychoanalytic perspective emphasizes unconscious motives as a driving force. Human behavior is influenced by the unconscious and children have basic drives that they need to learn to control. The biological perspective emphasizes bodily events and changes associated with actions, feelings, and thoughts, in that physiological and psychological factors cause children to act in a specific way in a particular time. Finally, gender differences consist of the processes by which children learn the behaviors, attitudes, and expectations associated with being masculine or feminine, through imitation of men and women. Parents who have a gendered approach explain their child's behavior in reference to differences between girls and boys.

The final subscales of the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ), operant learning and social learning, assume that it is the environment that shapes learning. Operant learning determines that a response is more or less likely to occur depending on its consequences. A parent therefore believes that a behavior may increase or decrease, based on the rewards or punishment that follow the behavior. Social learning, in turn, assumes that behavior is learned and maintained through observation and imitation of others' behaviors. A parent therefore believes that children learn by interacting and observing the behavior of others.

Several other authors have provided ways to understand the source of parental beliefs. From a constructivist perspective (global beliefs) and as adapted from the model by Murphey (1992), beliefs are created from a parent's view of the nature of children (characteristics of boys and girls), developmental processes (developmental timetables or markers as boundaries for acceptable behavior that

adults draw around internalized norms for child development), and the interpersonal context of the family. The interpersonal context of the family includes parents' belief-perspectives regarding the child, the parent, and their respective roles.

Within the constructivist perspective, Goodnow (1988), McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1988) and Sigel (1985, 1992) recognize parents as cognitive (thinking) agents, in that their beliefs serve as guides to their actions. These beliefs have been constructed in the course of interactions with children and adults throughout the lifespan. From this perspective, beliefs about children are seen as a source of parents' child rearing practices in order to predict others' behaviors and guide one's own behaviors (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1990; Sigel, 1985).

On the whole, global beliefs can be understood in several ways. First, intrapersonally, beliefs are created from an internal organization of experience into a coherent system (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1985, 1992). Second, interpersonally, parents interpret and transform beliefs about children from a variety of experiences, including experts' advice and through observation of other parents with their children (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1980). Experiences in everyday interactions with others serve to confirm some beliefs and challenge others. Third, parental beliefs can predict directly or indirectly to child outcomes.

McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1985) suggests that parental beliefs may predict directly to the child's behavior through the history of interactions between parent and child, wherein parents communicate their beliefs (often in a subtle manner) to the child or when children formulate a perception that competence is important. Rubin, Mills, and Rose-Krasnor (1989) demonstrate the direct effect of parents' proactive beliefs to the child's social competence. In the study, mothers were asked a series of

questions about their beliefs about how children develop social skills in relation to making friends, sharing possessions, and leading or influencing others. Their preschool children's social behavior was observed during free-play at school and rated by their teachers. Children's social problem-solving goals (seeking assistance of others, indirect requests), strategies (prosocial actions) and outcomes (failures, successes) were then recorded. The results indicated that mothers who viewed attainment of social skills as highly important tended to have children who demonstrated well-developed socially competencies. Teachers rated these children as less hyperactive than their peers. However, parents who believed that attainment of these skills were not so important had children who were less socially competent and were rated by teachers as hyper-distractible.

Parents' beliefs can also predict indirectly to the child's behavior, in that, parents' behavior acts as a mediator between their beliefs and the child's outcome. An example of parents' beliefs as indirectly affecting the child's behavior was shown in a study by Jennings and Connor (1989), wherein, mothers' perception of their preschoolers' task motivation was assessed through questionnaires. The study revealed that mothers who perceived more intrinsic motivation in their children were less directive, and their children had higher test scores in both verbal and nonverbal ability. Within this framework, parents' beliefs were shown to affect the child indirectly because they were expressed in terms of child rearing practices that influenced the child's behavior.

2.2.2.3. Specific beliefs

Specific beliefs can be defined as particular (specific) expectations or

attributions parents make in explaining, evaluating, and predicting their child's behavior (Goodnow & Collins, 1990). Attribution theory is an approach that emphasizes that behavior depends on people's inferences about what is causing the events around them, about what motives and traits characterize those in an interaction, and about what properties are inherent in social situations (Dix, Ruble, Grusec, & Nixon, 1986). Parents' attributions for children's misdeeds are to some extent the product of conscious, rational cognitive processes (Grusec, Rudy, and Martini, 1995). Origins of these attributions are likely to be experiences with the child, parent's own personal history, or sociocultural influences that predispose parents towards particular types of attributions.

Fritz Heider (1958), referred to as the father of attribution theory, viewed people as "amateur scientists". In trying to understand other people's behaviors, "people piece together information until they arrive at a reasonable explanation or cause" (Heider, cited in Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 1997, p. 119). As suggested earlier, beliefs that parents hold about child rearing may, in turn, influence how they interpret specific child behaviors and how they think they should respond.

Weiner (1986) proposes that causal attributions (the perceived causes of behaviors) are not the most important aspect, but rather the interpretation that is made of the cause. These perceptions have an influence on emotions and expectations, which in turn, feeds back to perceptions. Weiner delineated four dimensions through which attributional dimensions are determined. A causal attribution may be labeled as internal/external, global/specific, stable/unstable, and controllable/uncontrollable. The first dimension considers the cause of an observed behavior as being due to internal dispositions (something about the person) or

external sources (something about the situation). Globality refers to the belief that the cause of an event is due to factors that apply in a large number of situations, as opposed to the belief that the cause is specific and applies only in a limited number of situations. Weiner proposes that inferences about a cause's stability influences responses by determining expectations about the recurrence of the behavior. For example, behavior caused by stable factors, such as intelligence or personality traits (i.e. shyness, gregariousness) should recur, whereas behavior caused by unstable factors, such as effort or luck, should be less likely to recur. Finally, controllability refers to whether the cause of the behavior is something over which the individual can assert control or is something that is uncontrollable.

In the search for understanding their children's behavior, parents may hold their child accountable and attribute the behavior to the child's character (dispositional or internal attribution) or they may conclude that the child's actions were driven by circumstances (situational or external attribution). Parents who attribute antisocial behavior to stable dispositional factors and see their child's behavior as intentional and under the child's control will be more likely to be punitive in their responses (Dix & Grusec, 1985; Dix, Ruble, Grusec, & Nixon, 1986). For example, parents who endorse an authoritarian ideology will be more likely to make dispositional attributions for their children's misdeeds (Dix et al., 1989). In sum, attributions parents make about the causes of their child's behavior will be related to the type of discipline strategies parents report that they would use to handle misbehavior.

2.2.2.4. Global and specific beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies

Similarly, as illustrated within the models by Murphey (1992, Figure 1) and Stratton (1988, Figure 2), in this study two types of beliefs will be investigated (global and specific) from the perspective of both mothers and fathers. As outlined in the model by Murphey (1992), global beliefs in this study will be defined as the views parents have of their children's personal-social development, which includes their views of the nature of children (characteristics of boys and girls) and developmental processes (developmental timetables or markers). Specific beliefs will be examined as the attributions parents make in explaining, evaluating, and predicting their child's behavior. However, what has not been addressed in the models by Murphey and Stratton is how mothers' and fathers' agreement on their global beliefs relates to their child rearing strategies and, in turn, to the child's social behavior, considering both the environmental context (socioeconomic status), as well as parents' marital satisfaction. Furthermore, mothers' and fathers' agreement on their specific beliefs (attributions) will also be investigated and how this impacts parents' child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior.

Global beliefs may be reciprocally related to parents' specific beliefs (Murphey, 1992). As described earlier, the attributions parents make for their children's behavior (specific beliefs) may be influenced by the developmental expectations parents have for their children at a given age (global beliefs). In turn, parents' developmental expectations may be affected by the attributions parents make for their children's behavior.

From the discussion on parents' global beliefs and specific beliefs, it is evident that parents have beliefs about children's personal-social development and

they make causal attributions in explaining their children's behavior. However, it is also important to understand how these beliefs and attributions relate to their parenting strategies.

Although a plethora of studies have examined either parents' global beliefs (i.e. Goodnow, 1992; Kochanska, Kuczynski, & Radke-Yarrow, 1989; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1982, 1985, 1992; and Sigel, 1985, 1986) or their specific beliefs (i.e. Dix et al., 1985, 1986, 1989; Mills et al., 1990, 1992; and Rubin et al., 1989, 1990), few studies have simultaneously examined both. This study will examine the relationship between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs and how this influences parents' child rearing strategies.

2.2.2.5 Global beliefs and specific beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies and child behavior

In order to understand the influence of parents' beliefs on children, there is the assumption that "such beliefs find expression in more or less direct ways that are communicated from parent to child" (Murphey, 1992, p. 204). Previews of studies that follow demonstrate the relationship between parents' beliefs and their child rearing strategies.

Studies by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982), Kochanska, Kuczynski, and Radke-Yarrow (1989), and Kochanska (1990) have shown that child rearing beliefs, as endorsed by mothers, were correlated with parental practices, indicating that parents have beliefs about the child's personal-social development, which they translate into practices. McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1985), in her study, drew a link between mothers' global beliefs about the child as an "active constructivist" and her

authoritative parenting strategy (acknowledging the child's need for autonomy and control).

With regards to the relationship between global beliefs and child rearing strategies, in their study, Dix, Ruble, Grusec, and Nixon (1986) asked mothers how they would be most likely to discipline hypothetical child misbehaviors and it was found that power-assertive child rearing strategies rather than inductive techniques were favored by mothers when children were thought to "know better". In relation to specific beliefs, Dix, Ruble, and Zambarano (1989) demonstrated a relationship between attributions parents make for their child's behavior and their child rearing strategies. Mothers who were authoritarian in their child rearing strategies were shown to have higher expectations of their children than did non-authoritarian mothers.

In an extension of an earlier study, Rubin, Mills, and Rose-Krasnor (1989) demonstrated both the direct and indirect effects of mothers' attributions and expectations for the development of children's social skills and social competence. Mothers were asked how they believed social skills or behaviors (e.g. making friends, aggression) are developed and what they thought were the source of these social skills. Mothers were then asked the reasons why they thought children might succeed or fail in attaining these social goals and what they would or would not do to help their children learn the social skills. Socialization strategies were coded as high (punishments, threats), moderate (reasoning, modeling) or low in power assertion (nondirective – redirecting child's behavior) or as involving information seeking (consulting teacher) or planful strategies (arranging opportunities for peer play). Children's problem solving skills, strategies, and social competence were assessed

through direct observations. The results showed that mothers who placed a high priority on social goal attainment had children who demonstrated well-developed social competencies. According to Rubin et al. (1989), it may be that maternal socialization efforts were mediated by strong beliefs in the importance of social skills attainment and that such efforts were positively reinforced by the child's acquisition of social skills. Mothers, whose children were relatively socially competent, believed that social skills were caused by direct and indirect external factors to the child, such as parental strategies and the provision of opportunities for peer play. Finally, the analyses of preferred strategies for teaching social skills indicated that mothers seemed to choose strategies that matched their child's interaction style. Mothers who thought their children were non-assertive suggested strategies in which parents take primary control (direct teaching). In contrast, mothers of assertive and independent children did not choose to specifically direct their child's social activities.

A conclusion that can be drawn from these studies is that parents' global beliefs can be related to parents' child rearing strategies, as shown in the studies by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982), Kochanska et al. (1989), and Kochanska (1990). In turn, specific beliefs (attributions parents make for their children's behavior) can also be correlated with child rearing strategies (Rubins, Mills, & Rose-Krasnor, 1989). Further, studies have also shown that parental beliefs are related to child outcome. For example, the study by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982) demonstrated that there is a relationship between parents' global beliefs and child outcome and the study by Rubin, Mills, and Rose-Krasnor (1989) demonstrated that there is a relationship between parents' specific beliefs and child social competencies. This study will

examine the relationship between parents' global beliefs and specific beliefs and parents' child rearing strategies, as well as parents' global beliefs and specific beliefs in relation to child outcome.

2.2.2.6. Child's perception of parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies

Studies have illustrated that although children do not always accurately perceive parental beliefs, when they do, their own beliefs are more likely to be consistent with their parents' (Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985; Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987). Studies by Alessandri & Wozniak (1987) and Cashmore and Goodnow (1985) have also shown that a child's accurate perception is more likely when parents are in close agreement with each other. This study will therefore examine the child's perception of his/her parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies, and how this relates to parents' perception of their child's behavior. As suggested in the literature, few studies have examined and provided evidence for the latter.

In conclusion, the model for this study, as illustrated, is similar to those of Murphey (1992) and Stratton (1988) in that it considers both general (global) and specific beliefs in relation to parents' child rearing strategies. Where this model is innovative to the study of parental beliefs is in presenting a framework that examines the impact of parental agreement in relation to their child rearing strategies and, in turn, to the child's social behavior.

How do parents co-exist in a unified framework, imparting their own beliefs and values to their children and then using these beliefs to initiate child rearing

strategies? As suggested by Goodnow and Collins (1990), research must pay closer attention to the “connectedness” of parents’ beliefs – the consideration being not just of ideas in isolation but in the way in which parents both fit together in the overall fabric of parental thought.

2.3. General research questions

As the strategies parents use in their child rearing are related to their perception of their child’s development and personality characteristics (Rubin and Mills, 1992) and as parents use their own belief system as “an unseen criterion for evaluating their children’s responses and for selecting their own behavior” (Sigel, 1992, p. 8), the objective of this study will be to investigate concordance between parents on the nature and developmental processes of child development (global beliefs) and parents’ agreement on the attributions they make for their children’s behavior (specific beliefs) and, in turn, how this relates to their child rearing strategies and their child’s social behavior. Further, the relationship between mothers’ and fathers’ global beliefs and specific beliefs, as relating directly or indirectly to the child’s social behavior, will be examined.

As few studies have examined the child’s perception of his/her parents’ beliefs (global and specific), as well as their child rearing strategies, this research will also investigate the child’s perception of differences in his/her parents’ global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies, in relation to his/her parents’ perception of the child’s social behavior.

2.4. Empirical evidence

Several authors have reviewed the literature on parental beliefs. For example, Miller (1988) analyzed studies of the nature and origin of beliefs and the relation of beliefs to parental practices; Murphey (1992) analyzed the literature regarding the relationship between parental beliefs and child outcomes. Sigel (1992) discussed the connection between beliefs and behaviors at length, and Goodnow and Collins (1990) analyzed the consequences of parents' ideas for parents and children. For example, studies by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1982), Kochanska et al. (1989), and Kochanska (1990) have shown that child rearing beliefs, as endorsed by mothers, were correlated with parental practices, indicating that parents have beliefs about the child's personal-social development, which they translate into practices. As stated earlier, few studies have integrated both mothers' and fathers' beliefs. Even fewer studies have investigated mothers' and fathers' agreement on their beliefs. The following will provide empirical evidence for some of the studies that have been done on parent agreement.

This section will be subdivided in order to examine the literature on parental agreement on global beliefs, in relation to their child rearing strategies, and the child's social behavior; second, to examine parental agreement on specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior; third, to investigate the relationship between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs and how this impacts their child rearing strategies, and fourth, to examine how children perceive differences in their parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies and how this impacts their behavior.

An overview of the study will then be presented, to be followed by the research questions and hypotheses.

2.4.1. Agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies and to the child's social behavior

Few studies have investigated how concordance between mothers' and fathers' beliefs is related to their child rearing strategies. As a means of considering both parents' beliefs, it would be interesting to refer, as a starting point, to a study by McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1992). Although her study did not consider concordance between mothers' and fathers' beliefs, it did however attempt to investigate how mothers and fathers differ in their beliefs about children's personal-social development (Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ; McGillicuddy, 1992).

McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1992) conducted her study with mothers and fathers of children ranging in age from 6 to 11. Each parent was asked to indicate the extent of agreement with statements that were representative of seven categories of global beliefs (Constructivist, Psychoanalytic, Social Learning, Attributions, Biological, Operant Learning, and Gender Differences) of the PSDQ. With regards to inter-individual differences in parental beliefs, mothers and fathers differed from one another, in that mothers, as a group, endorsed nearly every type of global belief generated by the questionnaire, more so than did fathers. This suggests how much mothers differ in their beliefs about the nature of children.

2.4.1.1. Parental agreement on global beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies

Several studies have examined parental agreement on their beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies. Roberts, Block, and Block (1984), in a longitudinal study, considered both mothers' and fathers' child rearing values by investigating interparental agreement over time. Roberts et al. (1984) had both parents complete the Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1981) as a measure of child-rearing values when their child was 3 years of age and then again when their child was 12. The levels of mother-father agreement on the CRPR when the child was 3 years of age and when the child was 12 years of age was compared. The parental agreement index was obtained by correlating the independent CRPR responses of each parental dyad. The findings indicated considerable continuity in three-quarters of the descriptions of child-rearing values (CRPR), as offered by mothers and fathers for their children from age 3 to 12. As well, mothers and fathers who showed intra-individual stability in their responses over time were more likely to show agreement with each other on the CRPR for their child at age 12, resulting in the continuity and congruence in parental attitudes and values from early childhood to early adolescence.

In general, the study found a pattern of continuity in item clusters indicating a degree of control, investment in the child, and enjoyment of the child. Roberts et al. (1984) reported that when there was parental agreement (at ages 3 and 12), there was a continued strong emphasis on the rational guidance of the children with the use of praise and reasoning rather than the belief that physical punishment is best. As indicated by the large numbers of items showing continuity and stability over time,

Roberts et al. (1984) propose that the overall picture that emerges from the data is one of considerable continuity in the general attitudes, values, and goals of the parents across many areas. As well, it shows that parents, “have fundamental pervasive and enduring child-rearing orientations that colour their use of specific discipline techniques” (p. 595).

Gjerde (1988) examined the degree of concordance of parents' child rearing values and attitudes in relation to parental interactive behaviors. Mothers and fathers (n = 70) each completed the Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1981) as a measure of parental agreement on child rearing values. When the children were 3 years old, parental agreement-disagreement was estimated by correlating the independently obtained CRPR responses for mothers and fathers in order to examine the degree of parental agreement with regard to parents' child rearing values. Parent interactive behaviors were assessed by an examiner in a social situation when the children were 5, in which each parent had the opportunity to respond to the child's difficulties in a battery of tasks or problems. At the end of the parent-child interaction session, an examiner completed the 49-item Parental Interaction Q-sort (PIQ; Block & Block, 1971b) to describe parents' interactive style (parenting strategies). The 7 clusters making up the PIQ were insecurity/overcontrol of impulse, authoritarian control, intrusiveness/competition, directness of communication, permissive control, resourcefulness, task-oriented and interpersonally-oriented. In relation to the mother-daughter dyads and mother-son dyads, when parents concurred in their child rearing values, mothers were seen as more likely to use permissive control techniques in interacting with daughters and sons than did fathers. However, parental agreement was also related to mothers of

sons as being less likely to use authoritarian control techniques. In the father-daughter dyad, value concordance was unrelated to the interactive style of fathers, however value concordance was related to fathers of sons being more resourceful in their interactions and less intrusive and competitive in their interactive style.

2.4.1.2. Parental agreement on global beliefs in relation to the child's social behavior

Studies have examined how parental agreement on global beliefs are related to the child's social behavior.

A study by Deal, Halverson, and Wampler (1989) addressed the role that agreement on parenting values and practices plays in the family system. According to Deal et al. (1989), parental agreement may play a role in the family dynamics. When there are differences between parents, these differences create the potential for conflict (Minuchin, 1985) and parental conflict results in less effective parenting as demonstrated by its relation to problematic behaviors in children (Block, Block & Morrison, 1981).

Block, Block, and Morrison (1981) in a longitudinal study (over a 4-year age range, children ages 3 to 7) related parental agreement on child rearing values based on the Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1981) directly to the child's social behavior, as measured by the California Child Q-Set (CCQ-set; Block, Block, 1980). The CCQ-set consists of statements about psychological characteristics of children (children's ego-control and ego-resiliency). Block et al. (1981) proposed that the degree of parental agreement on values would be associated, at all time periods, with children's ego-control (from undercontrol to overcontrol of impulses)

and ego-resiliency (from resourceful adaptation to changing circumstances to inflexibility in the face of varying circumstances). It was hypothesized that children reared in homes with low agreement between mothers and fathers in child rearing values would be less in control of their impulses and behavior, and would exhibit less ego-resiliency.

The results demonstrated that for boys at age 3, agreement between parents was related to boys' greater ego control and coping abilities. At this age, parental agreement did not relate to girls' psychological functioning. At age 4, boys whose parents agreed on child rearing values continued to be task-oriented, autonomous, and open in their interpersonal relationships. Girls at age 4, whose parents were in agreement, were described as less empathic, less protective, less resourceful and more under-controlling of impulses. At age 7, gender differences remained for boys whose parents were more in agreement about child rearing values as they were described as more task-oriented and verbally facile and more interesting persons. Consistent with the way they were rated at age 4, the 7-year old girls, whose parents were in more agreement on child rearing values, were seen as less inhibited and less reserved. The study by Block et al. (1981) demonstrates that by the age of 7, there seemed to be a significant difference between the association of parental agreement with the level of impulse control for boys and girls.

In a follow-up study with adolescents of the sample first investigated by Block et al. (1981) at ages 3 through 7, Vaughn, Block, and Block (1988) further examined the relationship between early parental agreement on child rearing values in relation to the child's social behavior at ages 11, 14, and 18. At ages 11 and 14, examiners provided independent Q-sort descriptions of each child using a subset of

the California Child Q-set (CCQ; Block & Block, 1980). At age 18, examiners described the subjects using the California Adult Q-set (CAQ, Block, 1961/1978). At ages 14 and 18, subjects were also asked to describe themselves with a 43-item Q-sort to provide dimensions relevant to adolescent personality and finally, the Differential Personality Questionnaire (DPQ; Tellegen, 1982) was administered to evaluate facets of psychological adjustment and their relations to the earlier-expressed values of parents.

The results of the study by Vaughn et al. (1988) demonstrate that parental agreement on child rearing values was associated with the competent development of both boys and girls from the ages of 11 to 18. With regards to the girls, value-concordance promoted a “free and open expression of behavior, affect, and impulse control” (p. 1030) and adolescent girls coming from families earlier characterized as value-concordant were seen by observers (and described themselves) as “relatively more self confident, independent, responsible, helpful, socially skilled and able to cope with adversity and anxiety” (p. 1031). By the age of 18, girls, whose parents were in agreement 15 years earlier, were judged by observers to be well-adjusted psychologically, whereas boy were seen to have more impulse and behavior control.

In sum, the studies on parent agreement on beliefs and values have shown that when parents are in agreement on their beliefs or values, both mothers and fathers use guidance techniques that emphasize rationality and de-emphasize authoritarianism (Roberts, Block, & Block, 1984; Gjerde, 1988) and discipline that involves less importance being given to punishment by isolation and more to praise as an effective parenting strategy (Roberts et al., 1984).

With regards to the child's social behavior, studies on parental agreement on beliefs and values was related to the psychological functioning and social behavior of boys and girls ages 3 to 7 (Block, Block, and Morrison, 1981) and more responsible behavior and psychological adjustment in boys and girls between the ages of 11 through 18 (Vaughn, Block, and Block, 1988). As well, from the studies by Block et al. (1981), Vaughn et al. (1988) and Gjerde (1988), parental agreement on beliefs and values is more implicative for the psychological functioning of boys than girls. In particular, for boys, parental agreement resulted in more impulse and behavioral control in adolescence (Vaughn et al., 1988).

Parental agreement on beliefs and values was also related to parent-child dynamics in general, in that, Gjerde (1988) reported a more positive home environment and less emphasis on rules within the family; and Block et al. (1981) showed that parental agreement resulted in a more structured, predictable, controlled home environment. In particular, parental agreement resulted in mothers with their sons and fathers with their sons being more resourceful in their interactions (task-oriented) (Gjerde, 1988), mothers with their daughters being less intrusive (Gjerde, 1988) and fathers with their sons being less intrusive and competitive in their interactions (Gjerde, 1988). Finally, Roberts et al. (1984) reported that parental agreement resulted in the continuity and congruence in parental attitudes and values from early childhood to adolescence.

2.4.2. Agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior

In this section, studies that have examined parents' specific beliefs in

relation to their child rearing strategies and, in turn, to the child's social behavior will be reviewed.

In his review of studies on the attributions parents make for their children's behavior, one of the questions Miller (1995) asked was "Do mothers and fathers hold similar or different specific beliefs about their children?" Miller (1995) reported that although nine studies report data on the attributions both parents make for their children, not one of the studies provided any information about concordance between spouses. According to Miller (1995), "the consistency or inconsistency of the attributional messages available to children seems likely to mediate the impact that attributions have on children's behavior" (p. 1579) Miller (1995) further proposes that this question is important "because of its implications for messages being transmitted to children" (p. 1568).

Rubin and Mills (1990, 1992), Rubin, Mills, and Rose-Krasnor (1989), Mills and Rubin (1992), Dix, Ruble, Grusec, and Zambarano (1986), Dix, Ruble, and Zambarano (1989), and Normandeu and Larivee (1997) have made a prodigious effort to understand parents' specific beliefs. However, in the majority, this research primarily investigates mothers only. Studies that focused on mother's and father's attributions in relation to their child rearing strategies (Mills & Rubin, 1990) and parents' attributions in relation to the child's social behavior (Dix, Ruble, Grusec & Nixon, 1986; Normandeu & Larivee, 1997) will be examined.

2.4.2.1. Parental agreement on specific beliefs in relation to child rearing strategies

Although as previously stated, many studies considering parents' specific beliefs have included mothers only, an overview of a study conducted by Dix, Ruble, and Zambarano (1989), with only mothers, may prove useful in understanding the causal connection between attributions parents make for their children's behavior and parents' child rearing strategies. In the study, mothers of children ranging from preschool to sixth grade were asked to complete the Attribution Questionnaire to assess their child's competence and responsibility in relation to misdeeds and the Response Questionnaire to evaluate how mothers would respond to the misdeeds as described in the Attribution Questionnaire. Mothers were also asked to complete Block's Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1981) to determine their parenting strategies. Mothers who were designated as authoritarian in their discipline strategies were shown to have higher expectations of their children and inferred higher levels of knowledge, capacity, and responsibility than did non-authoritarian mothers. The results of this study demonstrate that the attributions mothers made for their children's behavior were related to the type of discipline strategies mothers reported that they would use to handle misbehavior, in that, when mothers thought that their child was capable and responsible for his/her own behavior, their choice of discipline strategies would be more severe. As children got older, mothers attributed their misbehaviors as being more due to dispositional factors, as mothers expected their children to be able to control their behavior and to understand the potential consequences.

In their study, Mills and Rubin (1990) attempted to discern how mothers and fathers differ in their causal attributions for their children's behavior and their reactive socialization behavior. According to Mills and Rubin (1990), "if parents' beliefs guide their behaviors, then their choice of socialization strategies may be the cognitive variable most closely related to actual socialization behavior" (p. 139). Both mothers' and fathers' attributions were assessed in relation to their 4-year olds' display of aggression and social withdrawal. Parents' causal attributions and behavioral responses to children's peer-directed aggression and social withdrawal were assessed by providing parents with brief descriptions of hypothetical incidents describing children perpetrating aggressive acts with peers, as well as children being socially withdrawn. Mothers and fathers were asked how they would explain the behavior and what they would do about it. Distinctions were drawn between attributions made to internal stable factors (traits or dispositions having the quality of consistency over time), internal unstable factors (temporary or changeable conditions, including age-related factors, i.e. passing stage), transient states (i.e. mood or fatigue) and external factors referred to as situational influences. Parenting strategies were labeled as either high in power assertion (i.e. punishments), moderate in power assertion (i.e. reasoning) or low in power (i.e. asking the child for information or redirecting the child).

Results demonstrated that both mothers and fathers were similar in their causal attributions and child rearing strategies they thought they would implement in response to children's display of aggression and social withdrawal. Mothers and fathers attributed aggressive behavior to transient states in their child and said that they would deal with it by using moderate-power strategies (reasoning). Both

parents attributed social withdrawal to transient states, and said that they would respond to it with low-power strategies (talking to the child). As shown by the latter, it would seem that both parents were in agreement not only in their causal attributions but also in their choice of parenting strategies.

2.4.2.2. Parental agreement on specific beliefs in relation to the child's social behavior

As reported earlier, in his review on the attributions parents make for their children's behavior, Miller (1995) reported that not one study has reported parent agreement or disagreement on the attributions (specific beliefs) they make for children's behavior. However, to create a better understanding of the literature on parents' specific beliefs (attributions parents make for their children's behavior), for this study, a series of credible studies that at least reported on both parents as subjects will be documented.

Dix, Ruble, Grusec, and Nixon (1986) investigated whether parents' decisions to punish misconduct relates to their attributions for misconduct. Mothers and fathers of 4 to 13 year boys and girls were asked to read short descriptions of hypothetical misbehaviors (norm violations: stealing, fighting) and failure to be altruistic (characterizing children as failing to help, sharing or being sensitive to another child). The children in the scenario were of the same age and sex as their own. Following each description, parents completed measures of social inferences (i.e. dispositional causation, intentionality) and two variables related to socialization (negative affect, importance of response).

Parents were asked to indicate their beliefs about the development of knowledge of relevant rules by estimating the age at which most children understood that this type of behavior was wrong or improper. Parents were also asked how important they thought each of the four types of causes was as a determinant of misconduct: a) lack of self control; b) dispositional causation; c) knowledge of what to do in situation; d) external causation – pressure to act in a certain way.

The results demonstrated that as the child got older, both mothers and fathers changed from showing little preference for dispositional attributions to dispositional attributions commonly shown for adults. The older the child, the more likely were parents to infer that the child understood that certain behaviors were wrong, that transgressions were intentional, and that behaviors indicated negative dispositions of the child. In addition, when parents inferred that the child was capable of self-control and that the behavior was intentional, they were more upset with the child and thought punishment rather than discussion was an appropriate response.

A study by Normandeau and Larivee (1997) attempted to examine similarities and differences between mothers' and fathers' beliefs concerning the child's school outcome and the child's aggressive and prosocial behavior. Mothers and fathers of 7 to 8 year olds were asked to complete two measures of attributional beliefs in relation to their child's school outcome and prosocial and aggressive behaviors. On a Likert-type scale, parents were asked to indicate if they perceived causes of their child to be internal or external to the child (locus of causality), controllable or uncontrollable by the child (controllability), stable or not over time (stability), and specific to that particular situation or general to other contexts (globality).

Results of the study showed that parents perceived their children's success or failure with regards to school outcome as resulting from dispositional factors, under the child's control, stable over time, and global and their child's aggressive behavior towards adults or children as a result of internal factors, uncontrollable by children, relatively unstable over time, and global. In contrast, children's prosocial behaviors were perceived as dispositional, controllable by the children, stable over time, and global. The findings also indicated more similarities than differences between mothers' and fathers' beliefs concerning their child's behaviors. Nevertheless, few differences were generated. Mothers attributed their daughters' aggressive behaviors towards adults to more external factors than did fathers, whereas fathers attributed their sons' aggressive behaviors toward adults to more external factors than did mothers. The authors propose that the differences in parents' attributions may be attributed to a "gender bias", in that, parents have a more favorable view of the same-sex child.

The studies that examined parental agreement on specific beliefs, in relation to child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior, provide little evidence for the relationship between parental agreement in relation to child rearing and child outcome. Studies, however, do report more similarities than differences in parents' attributions in relation to their child rearing strategies (Mills & Rubin, 1990) and parents' attributions in relation to the child's social behavior (Dix, Ruble, Grusec, & Nixon, 1986; Normandeau & Larivee, 1997).

To summarize the studies, Mills and Rubin (1990) demonstrated that mothers and fathers were similar in their causal attributions for their children's behavior (aggression and social withdrawal) and their child rearing strategies. The study by

Dix et al. (1986) showed that parents viewed their child's misconduct as increasingly intentional, dispositionally caused, and understood by the child to be wrong, as their child got older. Furthermore, parents both stated they would punish negative behaviors they thought were intentional, controllable, and dispositional more than negative behaviors they thought were not. Finally, the study by Normandeau and Larivee (1997) indicated more similarities than differences between mothers' and fathers' beliefs concerning their child's social behavior.

Although there have been many studies examining parents' specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies, there are areas that need further investigation. Three main areas can be suggested: 1) In the majority, studies have been done with only young children (between 3 to 8 years of age), 2) research on parents' specific beliefs has had a strong concentration on mother's beliefs only, in recognition that mothers have traditionally assumed the primary responsibility for child care. Mills and Rubin (1992) explain the lack of inclusion of fathers, in that "fathers may muddle up the relationship picture, and the inclusion of both mother and father may make it difficult to analyze and interpret data about the significance of parental beliefs and parental behaviors for child development" (p. 322). However, Goodnow and Collins (1990) assert that, "including the fathers whenever possible is a step towards generalizability and social justice" (p. 157), as it is both parents that contribute to their child's make-up and directly shape their child's experiences (Bornstein, Tamis-LeMonda, Pascual, & Haynes, 1996); and 3) as demonstrated by the study conducted by Dix, Ruble, Grusec, and Nixon (1986), although mothers' and fathers' beliefs were taken into consideration, the authors did not investigate if

parents agreed or disagreed on the attributions that they make for their children's behavior.

2.4.3. Children's perception of their parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies

Few studies have examined children's perception of the messages that they receive from their parents. Studies have shown that although children do not always accurately perceive parental beliefs, when they do, their own beliefs concerning the causes of children's behaviors are more likely to be consistent with their parents' beliefs (Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987, 1989; Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985). It may be that intrafamilial agreement may serve an important function role in the family. According to Terborg, Castore, and DeNinno (1976, cited in Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987), "just as a set of shared beliefs, values, and practices may bind together the members of a small group, consensual familial beliefs may bind family members into a small unit" (p. 321). A co-parenting alliance could provide for the child a relationship centered on a mutual coordination of beliefs and goals.

In their study on parents and their firstborn 12- to 14- year old children, Cashmore and Goodnow (1985) examined agreement between mothers and fathers. Parents were asked to rate the importance of certain qualities in children and disciplinary rules to follow (expressed as proverbs). In turn, the children were asked their perception of the qualities and disciplinary rules their parents would choose. The study by Cashmore and Goodnow (1985) confirmed that children whose parents were in agreement on their beliefs, with regards to the qualities in children and child

rearing strategies, were more accurate in their perception of their mothers' and fathers' beliefs.

Alessandri and Wozniak (1987) also conducted a study exploring the child's awareness of the beliefs that parents hold regarding them by examining patterns of agreement between parents and between parents and children concerning the child's likely behavior in a variety of situations. Forty-eight intact families of pre-adolescents (10-11 years) and adolescents (15-16 years) participated in the study. Parents were asked to describe how they each thought their child would react in hypothetical situations encountered at school or at home (i.e. Imagine that a boy/girl started a fight with your child at school. What do you think he/she would do?). Children, in turn, were asked to take each of their parents' perspectives and predict what they would each say in each of the situations.

The results demonstrated that when a) agreement between parents was high, children were more accurate in predicting mothers' and fathers' beliefs about themselves; and, b) children who were accurate in predicting their mother's beliefs were more accurate in predicting their father's beliefs.

In a two-year follow-up study with the same subjects, Alessandri and Wozniak (1989) found that families who had previously been high or low in agreement remained high or low in agreement. However, it was found that the accuracy of the child's predictions of parental beliefs with regards to predicting children's behavior increased between 10-11 years and 12-13 years but not between 15-16 years and 17-18 years. The authors suggest that this may be due to the emergence of formal operational thinking and correlated with changes in perspective taking.

It is evident that a better understanding of how children perceive parents' belief systems and child rearing studies is warranted. After all, it is the aspects of agreement and divergence that hold promise into gaining insight into the way the two generations may come to hold different views of each other or of the nature of the family (Goodnow, 1988).

As suggested by Reiss and colleagues (Reiss & Olivieri, 1981; Reiss, Olivieri, & Curd, 1983) family problems may arise when family members do not share similar ideas and beliefs regarding the family. For example, studies by Davey (1993, 1994) found discrepancies in perceptions of adolescent-parent communication to be linked to adolescent deviance. A study conducted by Ohannessian, Lerner, Lerner, & von Eye (1995) found adolescent-parent discrepancies in perception of family functioning to be related to higher levels of anxiety and depression, especially in girls. Few studies, however, have examined discrepancies in adolescent-parent perceptions in early adolescence (Ohannessian, Lerner, Lerner, & von Eye, 2000).

In line with previous studies, this research will investigate the child's perception of his/her parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies. If children perceive differences in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, or child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative), will this have an impact the child's social behavior? As well, if children are accurate in predicting their mothers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies, will they also be accurate in predicting their fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies?

2.5. Overview of the study

As has been shown, parents' beliefs are complex. This research will examine how parents have organized a system of beliefs that appear to be a source of their parenting behavior. According to Sigel (1992), parents use their own belief system to evaluate their children's responses and for selecting their own behavior.

Studies on parental beliefs have demonstrated that agreement between parents creates a more structured, predictable environment than those where there is disagreement (Block et al., 1981; Gjerde, 1988; Jouriles et al., 1991; Platz et al., 1994; and Vaughn et al., 1988). Minuchin (1985) further proposed that mothers and fathers who establish an interparental relationship characterized by concordance of beliefs and behaviors may better be able to form harmonious and responsive relationships with their children. For example, Gjerde (1988) found that parental agreement on beliefs and values resulted in a more positive home environment and less emphasis on rules within the family; Block et al. (1981) demonstrated that parental agreement resulted in a more structured, predictable, controlled home environment; Roberts et al. (1984) reported that parental agreement resulted in the continuity and congruence in parental attitudes and values from early childhood to adolescence. Further studies would enhance the present literature on parental beliefs and provide more insight into the relationship of parental agreement to child rearing and child behavior.

Few studies have examined the child's perception of his/her parents' beliefs (global and specific) and child rearing strategies. In order to investigate how the child perceives his/her mothers' and fathers' parental beliefs (global and specific), as well as their child rearing strategies, the child's perception of differences between

his/her parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs and child rearing strategies will be considered in this study and how, in turn, this impacts their social behavior.

Although, there has been a plethora of research on parental beliefs, there are several limitations that exist in the literature and these will be addressed:

First, fathers' beliefs will be considered. The research on parental beliefs has had a strong concentration on mother's beliefs only, in recognition of the fact that mothers have traditionally assumed the primary responsibility for child care. With increasing changes in our industrialized society and more women entering or re-entering the workplace, attention is being shifted to fathers and the more active role they play in child rearing. It would therefore be beneficial to understand father's beliefs. According to Goodnow and Collins (1990), "including the fathers whenever possible is a step towards generalizability and social justice" (p. 157), as it is both parents that contribute to their child's make-up and directly shape their child's experiences by virtue of each parents' relationship to each other (Bornstein, Tamis-LeMonda, Galperin, & Pecheux, 1996, p. 350).

Second, the child's perception will be considered. As mentioned earlier, few studies have examined the child's perception of his/her parents' beliefs. This will serve an important component in this study for the following reasons: a) Even though children do not accurately perceive parental beliefs, when they do, their own beliefs are more likely to be consistent with their parents (Murphey, 1992); and, b) a child's accurate perception is also more likely when parents are in close agreement with each other (Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987; Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985).

Third, although studies have examined either parents' global beliefs (i.e.

Goodnow, 1992; Kochanska, Kuczynski, & Radke-Yarrow, 1989; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1982, 1985, 1991; Sigel, 1985, 1986) or specific beliefs (i.e. Dix et al., 1985, 1986, 1989; Mills et al., 1990, 1992; and Rubin et al., 1989, 1990), few studies have simultaneously examined both.

Fourth, a limitation of previous studies has been that researchers have investigated parental beliefs by using instruments that are a mixture of values, beliefs, and rearing strategies. The intention of this study is to clearly categorize and define each of the variables and discriminate carefully the instruments used for measurement.

Fifth, agreement on mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (attributions) in relation to the child's social behavior, to date, has not been tested (Miller, 1995) and will be investigated in this research.

2.5.1. Research questions and hypotheses

The objective of the present study is to test a theoretical model (Figure 3) that proposes interconnected features. The research questions and hypotheses will be guided by the proposed research model. As certain aspects of the model have been previously studied and others have not, certain results can be predicted while the remaining links can only be explored.

Based on the proposed research model, the first aim of this study is to investigate the associations between agreement-disagreement between mothers and fathers on their global beliefs and their specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies and, in turn, to the child's social behavior. Further, to investigate the child's perception of his or her parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, child

rearing strategies, in relation to parents' perception of the child's behavior.

Agreement between parents' global beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies?

How do parents co-exist in a unified framework, imparting their own beliefs and values to their children and then using these beliefs to initiate child rearing strategies? Goodnow and Collins (1990) proposed that research must pay closer attention to the "connectedness" of parents' ideas – the consideration being not just of ideas in isolation but in the way in which parents both fit together in the overall fabric of parental thought. According to Schweder and Bourdieu (cited in Goodnow, 1995), "in order to provide an account of behavior, one must first establish a correspondence between behavioral patterns and the preferences, values, and causal beliefs exhibited in those behaviors, the locus of where the constituents of the mind merge as practices" (p. 115).

Parental agreement on global beliefs plays an important role in parent-child relations, especially on the impact agreement (or disagreement) has on parent child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior. Based on a longitudinal study led by Roberts et al. (1984), parental agreement on child rearing values was shown to be consistent over time. Parental agreement on child rearing values also resulted in a strong emphasis on the rational guidance of the children (authoritative child rearing), with the use of praise and reasoning, rather than the belief that physical punishment is best. Further, the study by Gjerde (1988) found that parental agreement on child rearing values was related to child rearing strategies emphasizing rationality and de-emphasizing authoritarianism.

The first hypothesis is that parents who are in agreement on their global beliefs, with regards to their children's personal-social development, will be more likely to use an authoritative child rearing strategy than authoritarian child rearing strategy.

Parental agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs and how this relates to their child rearing strategies?

Most studies investigating the attributions parents make for their children's behavior have examined only mothers' beliefs. Although Dix, Ruble, Grusec and Nixon (1984, 1986) in their studies did not examine parental agreement on the attributions parents make for their children's behavior, they did find that mothers and fathers both stated that they would punish behaviors that they thought were intentional, controllable, and dispositional. Mills and Rubin (1990) examined both mothers and fathers beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies. Results demonstrated that mothers and fathers were similar in their causal attributions for their children's behavior, attributing their child's aggression and social withdrawal to transient states in their child's behavior, and they were similar in their support of discipline strategies that involved reasoning (authoritative child rearing).

Based on these studies, there are two hypotheses. The first hypothesis (Hypothesis 2a) proposes that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to internal factors being a cause for their child's aggression, will be more likely to use an authoritarian child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to external factors being the cause for their child's aggressive behavior, will be more likely to endorse an

authoritative child rearing strategy. It is also hypothesized (Hypothesis 2b) that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to the child's prosocial behavior and who attribute high competence and responsibility to their child in being able to control his/her own behavior, will be more likely endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to their child's prosocial behavior, and who attribute little competence and responsibility to their child in their inability to control their own behavior, will be more likely to endorse an authoritarian child rearing strategy.

Relationship between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs and how this impacts their child rearing strategies.

Murphey (1992) suggested that global beliefs and specific beliefs are reciprocally related rather than independent constructs. Although very little evidence has been established to link mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs, Dix and colleagues (1986; 1989) found that parents' responses to a child's behavior are influenced by the degree to which they see the child as responsible for his/her behavior (specific beliefs), that rests on the inferences parents make for their child's competence to understand his/her own actions (global beliefs). The type of parenting strategy, in turn, was related to the child's understanding of the situation or event.

Consistent with the first and second hypotheses proposing that parental agreement on global beliefs and specific beliefs will be related to their child rearing strategies, this study will examine whether concordance between mothers' and

fathers' global and specific beliefs will be related to their child rearing strategies. It is hypothesized (third hypothesis) that parents who are in agreement on their global beliefs and specific beliefs will more likely be concordant in their parenting strategies (authoritarian and authoritative).

Mothers' and fathers global or specific beliefs in relation (directly) to the child's social behavior

Studies by Block, Block, and Morrison (1981) and Vaughn, Block, and Block (1988) have shown that parental agreement on their values about child rearing is related to children being more socialized, more in control of their impulses, with fewer behavioral problems than low agreement parents. The fourth hypothesis is that parental agreement on global beliefs will relate to parents' perception of children having fewer behavioral problems.

As the strategies that parents use in rearing their children are mediated by their perceptions (specific beliefs) of their child's development and personality characteristics (Rubin and Mills, 1992), and, as often mothers and fathers have different perceptions, a limitation of the research on parental beliefs has been that few studies have examined mothers' and fathers' agreement on the attributions they make for their children's behaviors (Miller, 1995; Mills and Rubin, 1992; Rubin and Mills, 1992). Further, Normandeau and Larivee (1997) have reported more similarities than differences between mothers' and fathers' beliefs concerning the child's social behavior.

It is hypothesized (fifth hypothesis) that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs with regards to the cause of their child's aggressive behavior

will be more in agreement on their perception of their child as having fewer behavioral problems. Furthermore, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs with regards to the cause of their child's prosocial behavior and the child's ability to control his/her prosocial behavior will be more in agreement on their perception of their child as having fewer behavioral problems.

Child's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies in relation to mothers and fathers' perception of the child's social behavior.

According to the studies by Alessandri and Wozniak (1987, 1989) and Cashmore and Goodnow (1985), intrafamilial agreement may serve an important role. Although children do not always accurately perceive their parents' beliefs, when they do, their own beliefs concerning the causes of their own behaviors will be more likely to be consistent with their parents' beliefs.

As the adolescent's perception of his/her parents' beliefs is an important predictor of the child's own beliefs, a child's perception is more likely when parents are in close agreement with each other (Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987; Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985). Although the studies by Alessandri and Wozniak (1987) and Cashmore and Goodnow (1985) examined parental agreement in relation to their child rearing strategies, these studies, however, did not investigate how parental agreement relates to the child's social behaviors. This study will explore the child's perception of their parents' beliefs.

It is hypothesized (sixth hypothesis) that if children perceive differences in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, or child rearing strategies

(authoritarian and authoritative), this will have an impact on the child's social behavior. Parents will notice differences in dimensions of their child's social behavior (anxious-depressed behavior, aggressive behavior).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Subjects

Participants were recruited from several private schools located in the West Island area of Montreal, including the Hebrew Foundation School, Hebrew Academy School, and Jewish People's Schools. A small number of subjects came from selected West Island public elementary schools.

Sixty intact couples with their firstborn children volunteered to participate in the study. There were 29 boys and 31 girls in Grades 5 and 6 (mean age of 11.3 years, $SD = .76$). Parents' average age was 44.8 ($SD = 4.9$) for fathers and 42.3 years ($SD = 4.0$) for mothers. The average family size was 4 ($SD = .78$) and families could best be described as middle to upper class with a mean annual income between \$60,000 to \$69,999.

3.2. Procedures

Subjects were recruited through several schools, following permission by the school administration to conduct the research study. The principals from the selected schools each fully supported the research. Children were sent home with an envelope which contained the letter from the school principal (Appendix A), an information letter outlining the purpose of the study (Appendix B), as well as a consent form (Appendix C). If parents and children mutually agreed to participate in the research study, then parents and children were asked to sign the consent form and return it to the school. The children's signature demonstrated their willingness to participate in the actual study. Pertinent details with regards to the number of persons in the family, mothers' and fathers' employment and academic status,

number of years married, as well as mailing address, telephone number and a convenient time that families could be reached were completed in an attached form (Appendix D).

Only parents with an intact marriage were selected for the study. Children selected for the study were the eldest in their family with at least one sibling. This decision was made in order to control for the effects of birth order.

Prior to conducting the actual study, a small pilot study (20 participants) was conducted to ensure that all questionnaires were easily understood, that all directions could properly be followed, and to calculate the time frame needed to complete the questionnaires. Participants in the pilot study were similar in all facets to parents in the research study.

The author of the study visited each family that agreed to participate in the research study and oversaw that all questionnaires were completed over the course of one session. First, a general information form providing detailed familial information, such as parents' occupation, employment, family income, and marital status was completed (Appendix E). Then the questionnaires were completed by the parents always in the following order: a measure of global beliefs, a measure of specific beliefs (consisting of vignettes depicting children's aggressive or prosocial behavior), a measure of child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative), the Child Behavior Checklist, and the Quality of Marriage Index. In turn, children completed the questionnaires in the same order, however, children were not asked to complete the Child Behavior Checklist. The measures took approximately 2 ½ hours per family. However, due to the time requested to visit with the family (usually in

the evening), several children could not complete the questionnaires and a second appointment was set up. Both mother and father completed the questionnaires individually and not within proximity of each other.

3.3. Measures

All measures derived for this research study, including the measure of control variables, were carefully selected and can be found in Appendix F.

3.3.1. Measure of global beliefs

Parents' global beliefs about their child's personal-social development, as well as the child's perception of his or her mother's and father's beliefs regarding the child's personal and social development were assessed with the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992). All items were responded to on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). The higher the response on each of the items, the greater the belief that the statements represent truths about children's personal-social development. On the other hand, the lower the response, the less the agreement with the statements. Instructions were given to both parents (mothers and fathers individually) to indicate the extent of their agreement with each of the statements on the PSDQ. The mean of their responses across the relevant items in each subscale were then calculated.

The Personal-Social Developmental Questionnaire (PSDQ) consists of 53 items grouped into seven scales representing different perspectives of child development: 1) the Constructivist perspective has 8 items considering parents' beliefs that children actively construct their knowledge of the world and build their

cognitive structures through their activities; 2) the Psychoanalytic scale consists of 7 items considering parents' beliefs that children's personalities are generated by unseen, unconscious mental forces; 3) the Social Learning scale consists of 8 items demonstrating parents' beliefs about children being socialized through modeling and imitation of role models; 4) the 8 items on the Attribution scale represent parents' explanations for children's behavior and attitudes; 5) the Biological perspective consists of 8 items and examines parents' beliefs about the genetic factors underlying children's behaviors; 6) the Operant Learning scale contains 7 items examining parents' beliefs that the child's personality and learning is affected by a pattern of rewards and negative consequences; and 7) the Gender differences scale consisting of 7 items demonstrates differences in children's traits, attitudes, and behaviors as attributed to gender.

According to McGillicuddy-DeLisi (1992), Cronbach alphas computed on the items comprising each scale indicate moderate to good internal consistency, ranging from .52 to .76. For the present study, the following Cronbach alphas were found on the representative scales: Biology = .67; Constructivist = .61; Attribution = .56; Psychoanalytic = .54; Operant Learning = .60; Social Learning = .60; and Gender Differences = .46. One item from each of the Biology, Attribution, Social learning and Gender subscales, however, had low item loadings – total correlations ($r < .10$) and were therefore removed from the calculation of the respective subscales in order to ensure stronger reliability of the measure.

For purposes of the present study, only the Constructivist, Social Learning, Operant Learning, and Attribution subscales of the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire will be integrated as subscales of the measure of the parents' global

beliefs about their children's personal-social development. The Biology, Psychoanalytic, and Gender Role subscales have been eliminated as conceptually they do not relate neither to the purpose nor to the questions being posed in this research. The mean ratings of mothers and fathers for each of the four (4) subscales are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1
Means and standard deviations for mothers and fathers on measure of global beliefs

<u>Subscales</u>	<u>Father (n=60)</u>				<u>Mother (n=60)</u>			
	<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>		<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
Constructivist	4.73	.42	4.56	.42	4.83	.44	4.63	.44
Social Learning	4.46	.58	4.54	.49	4.57	.46	4.67	.48
Operant Learning	4.66	.58	4.45	.50	4.77	.53	4.65	.57
Attribution	4.58	.49	4.54	.45	4.78	.37	4.72	.49

Children were given the same instructions as their parents and completed the PSDQ, once for their mother and once for their father. The version of the PSDQ that the child completed was reworded so that it considered the child's perception of each of their parents' beliefs. Cronbach alphas for the children's perception of their mothers and fathers were computed separately on the PSDQ and are as follows: Constructivist perspective for fathers = .72 and for mothers = .81; Social Learning for fathers = .65 and for mothers = .64; Operant Learning for fathers = .57 and for mothers = .67; Attribution scale for fathers = .62 and for mothers = .71. Based on the same scales identified for the parents, means and standard deviations

for the boys' and girls' perception of their mothers' and fathers' on each of the global beliefs subscales are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2
Means and standard deviations for boys' and girls' perception of mothers' and fathers' global beliefs

	Boys (n=60)				Girls (n=60)			
	<u>For Father</u>		<u>For Mothers</u>		<u>For Fathers</u>		<u>For Mothers</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Subscales</u>								
Constructivist	4.33	.68	4.57	.83	4.25	.60	4.46	.51
Social Learning	4.49	.73	4.47	.89	4.18	.65	4.36	.64
Operant								
Learning	4.63	.69	4.73	.65	4.41	.58	4.54	.72
Attribution	4.25	.76	4.41	.78	4.34	.49	4.50	.56

3.3.2. Measure of specific beliefs

Following the studies of Dix et al. (1986, 1989), Mills and Rubin (1990, 1992; Rubin and Mills, 1990), and Normandeau and Larivee (1997), we developed a measure of attributions parents make in explaining their child's aggressive and prosocial behaviors.

Mothers and fathers were individually asked to imagine their child behaving as described in each of the six short vignettes depicting two hypothetical incidents of peer-directed aggression, two incidents of adult-directed aggression, and two incidents of prosocial behaviors. Parents were asked to respond to questions related to the causality of the behavior by the child, the controllability of the behavior by the child, and the parents' ability to change the child's behavior (changeability).

- . Is the cause (of the behavior) due to something about your child or is it due to other people or circumstances? (causality)
- . Is the cause of the behavior controllable or uncontrollable by your son/daughter? (controllability)
- . As a parent, is it possible for you to change the child's behavior? (changeability)

Individually, mothers and fathers were asked to respond to these questions each evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale. When computing the scores, a score of 1 on each causal dimension indicated that parents perceived the cause of the behavior to be external to the child (situational), uncontrollable by the child, and impossible to change by the parent. A score of 7 indicated that parents perceived the cause of the behavior to be internal to the child, controllable by the child, and easy to change by the parents. Mean and standard deviations for mothers and fathers on each of the questions are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3
Means and standard deviations for measure of mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality, controllability, changeability of child's behavior)

	Father (n=60)				Mother (n=60)			
	<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>		<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Peer-Directed</u>								
<u>Aggression</u>								
Causality	3.90	1.45	3.98	1.19	3.83	1.46	4.53	1.17
Controllability	5.02	1.08	4.79	1.03	4.91	1.35	4.81	1.22
Changeability	4.34	1.07	4.44	.95	4.22	1.18	4.24	1.06
<u>Adult-Directed</u>								
<u>Aggression</u>								
Causality	3.23	1.56	3.73	1.44	3.60	1.38	4.08	1.36
Controllability	4.79	1.46	4.55	1.22	4.05	1.58	4.27	1.12
Changeability	4.57	1.18	4.27	.74	4.09	1.51	4.08	.93
<u>Prosocial</u>								
<u>Behavior</u>								
Causality	5.72	1.11	5.53	1.07	5.19	1.31	5.39	1.47
Controllability	5.50	1.00	5.16	1.14	5.38	1.03	4.92	1.41
Changeability	3.86	1.15	4.18	.87	3.98	1.24	3.37	1.13

Children were provided with the same hypothetical vignettes as were their parents and asked to rank on a 7-point Likert scale their perception of how they thought their mother and their father had responded to each of the hypothetical vignettes in relation to their own behaviors. The questions, however, were reworded so that it considered the child's own perception of each of their parents' views. Means and standard deviations for children on each of the questions in relation to each of the vignettes are displayed Table 4.

Table 4
Means and standard deviations for boys' and girls' perception of mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality, controllability, changeability of child's behavior)

	Boys (n=30)				Girls (n=30)			
	<u>For Fathers</u>		<u>For Mothers</u>		<u>For Fathers</u>		<u>For Mothers</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Peer-Directed</u>								
<u>Aggression</u>								
Causality	4.15	1.93	4.05	1.97	4.11	1.62	4.37	1.44
Controllability	5.00	1.41	5.36	1.60	4.97	1.48	5.16	1.23
Changeability	5.00	1.38	5.09	1.48	4.84	1.24	4.71	1.18
<u>Adult-Directed</u>								
<u>Aggression</u>								
Causality	3.97	1.45	3.93	1.73	3.74	1.59	3.70	1.50
Controllability	4.84	1.35	4.97	1.22	4.53	1.45	4.63	1.38
Changeability	4.60	1.05	4.76	1.21	4.37	1.03	4.34	1.14
<u>Prosocial</u>								
<u>Behavior</u>								
Causality	5.47	1.30	5.17	1.34	5.24	1.31	5.13	1.45
Controllability	5.50	1.34	5.28	1.39	5.26	1.20	5.10	1.34
Changeability	4.79	1.32	4.53	1.45	4.52	1.48	4.48	1.17

3.3.3. Measure of child rearing strategies

In order to examine parents' child rearing strategies, a 35-item scale by Kochanska, Kuczynski, and Radke-Yarrow (1989) was integrated into this study. Kochanska et al. (1989) selected for analyses those factors from the Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1981) that have been identified in the literature as components of more comprehensive child rearing patterns: authoritarian and

authoritative child parenting styles (Baumrind, 1971). These are represented by the 19-item Authoritative scale and the 16-item Authoritarian scale (Kochanska et al., 1989). For purposes of this study, the questionnaire will be entitled the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire(CRSQ) and will consist of the Authoritative scale and Authoritarian scales as outlined by Kochanska et al., 1989.

According to Baumrind (1971) authoritarian parents value respect for authority and strict obedience to their commands and rely on coercive techniques, such as threats or physical punishment, rather than reasoning and explanation to regulate their children's actions. In addition, authoritarian parents display a low level of nurturance. On the other hand, authoritative parents typify parents who are warm and supportive in their interactions with their children. They tend to use rewards more than punishments to achieve their ends, communicating their expectations clearly and providing explanations to help their children understand their reasons for their requests. Authoritative parents listen to what their children say and encourage an ongoing dialogue.

Dekovic, Janssens, and Gerris (1991) provided evidence that the 35 items (19-item authoritative scale and 16-item authoritarian scale) as utilized by Kochanska et al. (1989) can be used to form reliable scales for assessing authoritarian and authoritative child rearing dimensions. The internal consistencies of the scales were computed and the scales showed acceptable reliabilities (authoritarian = .71; authoritative = .65).

In the present study, mothers and fathers were independently asked to indicate the degree to which they thought the statements were true of themselves with regards to child rearing strategies. Pursuant to the study by Kochanska et

al. (1989), the 35-item questionnaire utilized a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) not at all descriptive of me to highly descriptive of me (6). The higher the score, the more likely the mother or father were to adopt that particular child-rearing strategy. Means and standard deviations for mothers and fathers on the authoritarian and authoritative scales are represented in Table 5. For the present study, Cronbach alphas were determined for the parents as .75 for the authoritarian scale and .79 for the authoritative scale.

Table 5
Means and standard deviations for mothers' and fathers' perception of their child-rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative)

	Father (n=60)				Mother (n=60)			
	<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>		<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
Authoritarian	3.38	.68	3.37	.60	3.45	.69	3.46	.57
Authoritative	4.77	.36	4.55	.53	5.01	.34	4.85	.37

Children followed the same procedure and were given the same instructions as their parents to complete the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire once for their mother and once for their father. As with the other measures, the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire was modified so that it considered the child's perception of each of the parents' child rearing strategies. Cronbach alphas for the children on the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire (CRSQ) were determined as .74 for mothers on the authoritarian scale and .85 for the authoritative scale; and for fathers .76 on the authoritarian scale and .86 for the authoritative scale. Based on the scales

identified for the parents, means and standard deviations for children's perception of mothers' and fathers' authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Means and standard deviations for children's perception of mothers' and fathers' authoritarian and authoritative child-rearing strategies

	Boys (n=30)				Girls (n=30)			
	<u>For Fathers</u>		<u>For Mothers</u>		<u>For Fathers</u>		<u>For Mothers</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
Authoritarian	3.82	.76	3.43	.60	4.01	.67	3.72	.62
Authoritative	4.60	.52	4.36	.62	4.78	.45	4.42	.54

3.3.4. Measure of child's behavior

In order to examine mothers' and fathers' perception of their child's social behavior, parents independently completed the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1986).

The CBCL is an 118-item checklist that contains a list of behavioral problems and social competencies which are rated by parents for their 4 to 16 year old children. The scale is considered useful in providing a broad overview of a child's behavior from the parents' perspectives. The CBCL is well standardized and has adequate reliability and validity (Sattler, 1990) and is able to discriminate between clinical and non-clinical populations.

The CBCL uses a three-point scale (0 = not true; 1 = somewhat or sometimes true, 2 = very true or often true) to assess parental perception of their child's social

competence and behavior problems. The social withdrawal, anxious-depressed, social problems, attention problems and aggressive behavior subscales were used for this study as they address the pertinent questions being investigated.

Means and standard deviations for mothers' and fathers' perception of the child's social behavior, based on the Child Behavior Checklist, are shown in Table 7. In the present study, reliability on these subscales were demonstrated with Cronbach alphas. Results indicate - withdrawn (.65), anxious-depressed (.77), social problems (.67), attention problems (.76), aggressive behavior (.84).

Table 7
Means and standard deviations for mothers' and fathers' perception of child's social behavior

<u>Subscales</u>	<u>Father (n=60)</u>				<u>Mother (n=60)</u>			
	<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>		<u>For Boys</u>		<u>For Girls</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Social</u>								
Withdrawal	.20	.19	.27	.32	.13	.17	.23	.25
Anxious- Depressed	.19	.18	.25	.20	.21	.17	.30	.29
Aggressive Social	.34	.22	.36	.29	.29	.25	.36	.29
Problems	.23	.21	.28	.34	.22	.23	.24	.26
Attention Problems	.33	.32	.30	.28	.30	.27	.22	.25

3.3.5. Measure of control variables

The Quality of Marriage Index (QMI; Norton, 1983) is a six-item inventory that assesses marital satisfaction in a very global sense as determined from self-report data. Individuals were asked to respond to a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging

from very strong disagreement (1) to very strong agreement (7) their agreement on questions relating to marital attitudes and behaviors. Scores on the QMI can range from 6 to 42 with higher scores representing greater satisfaction. The children also completed a modified version of the QMI to offer their perception of their parents' marriage and to determine if there was agreement-disagreement between parent and child responses. Cronbach alphas for this study are parents .95; children .94.

Heyman, Sayers, and Bellack (1994), in comparing the QMI to other marital satisfaction and marital adjustment scales, notes that "although the QMI is made up of only six questions, it avoids repeatedly asking the same questions as other scales do" (p. 434).

Family income was computed by taking an average of each of the categories designated for this research (Appendix E). Parents were shown to have a mean between \$60,000 and \$69,000, this representing the highest category itemized.

Correlations between socioeconomic status and the major variables represented in this study were computed. As well, correlations between marital satisfaction and the major variables were computed. As none of these correlations were significant, socioeconomic status and marital satisfaction were not used as control variables.

4. RESULTS

The results of this study are presented in two sections. First, preliminary analyses are presented. Next, in order to test the proposed research model, a series of investigations were conducted considering agreement between parents on several variables – parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies.

The Bonferonni correction was done for each analysis that proved significant wherein the overall alpha level (.05) was divided by the number of individual analyses.

4.1. Preliminary analyses

Several preliminary analyses were conducted to explore the maternal, paternal, and child variables. First, differences between the three schools used in this study were assessed to determine whether collapsing the data across schools was a viable option. One-way analyses of variance conducted on all the variables for the three schools revealed no significant differences on any of the variables across schools. Therefore, the data was collapsed across schools.

4.2. Agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies

Based on the first hypothesis, it was expected that parents who are in agreement on their global beliefs will be more likely to use authoritative child rearing strategies than authoritarian child rearing strategies. In order to test this hypothesis, it was important to first verify whether there were differences in mothers and fathers global beliefs.

In order to verify along which dimensions mothers and fathers may differ in their global beliefs regarding their child's personal-social development, a between-within mixed model MANOVA was conducted. The between-subjects factor was the child's gender, since numerous studies have indicated that parents differ in their

beliefs regarding their sons and daughters (Siegel, 1987). The within-subjects factor was mother's and father's global beliefs, including the Constructivist, Social Learning, Operant Learning, and Attribution subscales of the Personal Social-Development Questionnaire (PSDQ; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992) which were selected for this study. Means and standard deviations for mothers and fathers on each of the global belief subscales, in relation to child gender, can be seen in (See Table 1).

Examination of the correlations between mothers and fathers on their agreement on the four subscales of the global beliefs scale also verified that they were not redundant with one another. Absolute values of the differences between mothers and fathers were used thus creating a score, using a Likert scale with a range from 0 to 6.

Results of the MANOVA demonstrated that there were no systematic differences between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs in relation to their child's gender ($F(4,55) = .15, n.s.$). In addition, mothers and fathers did not differ in terms of their global beliefs, regardless of their child's gender ($F(4,55) = 2.27, n.s.$). A paired t-test was also administered to further examine differences between mothers and fathers on their global beliefs (Constructivist, Social Learning, Operant Learning, and Attribution subscales). The t-tests were conducted using a Bonferroni correction at the .05 level. T-tests confirmed that mothers and fathers did not significantly differ on the Constructivist, Social Learning, Operant Learning, and Attribution subscales.

In order to determine whether agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs is related to their child rearing strategies, four hierarchical multiple

regression analyses predicting the authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies of mothers and fathers were conducted. In the first step of all four analyses, the child's gender was entered in order to control for the effects of this variable. Difference scores between mothers and fathers on the Constructivist, Social learning, Attribution, and Operant Learning subscales of the global beliefs scale were entered on the second step. The means and standard deviations for the difference scores of parents' Global Beliefs are presented in Table 8.

Scores on the PSDQ were computed by first summing the scores of each of the Constructivist, Social Learning, Operant Learning, and Attribution subscales and then determining if mothers' and fathers' scores were concordant or discordant by subtracting the father's scores from the mother's scores.

Table 8
Means and standard deviations of difference scores between mothers and fathers on global beliefs

	Boys (n=30)		Girls (n=30)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Global Beliefs</u>				
Constructivist	.36	.74	.01	.60
Social Learning	.11	.64	.13	.56
Attribution	.19	.63	.18	.52
Operant Learning	.11	.71	.21	.58

In the first analysis, the relationship between the agreement of mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and father's authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 9).

In the first step, the child's gender was not a significant predictor of father's

authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the four subscales of the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992) was also not a significant predictor of father's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 9
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.01	.01	.16
Gender	-.00	-.01	.00	.03			
Step II					.15	.12	
Constructivist	-.09	-.26	.00	-.49			
Social Learning	-.15	-.26	.01	-.92			
Attribution	-.16	-.24	.02	-1.03			
Operant Learning	-.08	-.14	.01	-.57			

In the second analysis, the relationship between the agreement of mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and father's authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 10). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of fathers' authoritative child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the four subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of fathers' authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .24, p < .01$) with the Operant Learning scale adding uniquely ($sr^2 = .15, p < .01$). The latter suggests that the more mother and father are in agreement on their global beliefs, the more the father adheres to an authoritative child rearing strategy, especially with regards to utilizing Operant Learning strategies.

Table 10

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.10	.10	3.03
Gender	-.25	-.24	.06	-1.97			
Step II					.34	.24	3.78**
Constructivist	-.24	-.22	.03	-1.58			
Social Learning	-.16	-.25	.02	-1.15			
Attribution	.13	-.07	.01	.92			
Operant Learning	-.38	-.40	.12	-3.07**			

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the third analysis, the relationship between the agreement of mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and mothers' authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 11). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the four subscales of the global beliefs scale was not a significant predictor of mothers' authoritarian child rearing.

Table 11

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	1.20
Gender	.02	.01	.00	.18			
Step II					.18	.14	1.58
Constructivist	-.29	-.27	.05	-1.74			
Social Learning	-.08	-.17	.00	-.51			
Attribution	-.01	.02	.00	-.10			
Operant Learning	.17	.19	.02	1.22			

In the fourth analysis, the relationship between the agreement of mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and mothers' authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 12). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of mothers' authoritative child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the four subscales of the global beliefs scale was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritative child rearing.

Table 12
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.05	.05	1.52
Gender	-.23	-.23	.05	-1.74			
Step II					.09	.03	.69
Constructivist	-.02	.05	.00	-.09			
Social Learning	-.02	.04	.00	.09			
Attribution	-.11	.03	.01	-.70			
Operant Learning	.09	.07	.01	.58			

The results of these analyses suggest that parental agreement, with regards to parents' global beliefs, was not a significant predictor of fathers' authoritarian child rearing nor mothers' authoritarian or authoritative child rearing. The results of these analyses, however, do suggest that parental agreement on global beliefs is related to father's authoritative parenting, particularly with regards to the belief that the child's behavior is influenced by rewards or punishments (Operant Learning). The latter suggests that when parents are in agreement on their global beliefs, fathers adopt an

authoritative parenting style, especially with regards to exerting firm control and encouraging the child's independence.

This finding partly confirms the first hypothesis. When parents are in agreement on their global beliefs with regards to their children's personal-social development, fathers will be more likely to use authoritative child rearing strategies than authoritarian child rearing strategies, especially in the fathers' belief in the use of rewards and punishments as a disciplinary strategy. However, parental agreement on global beliefs did not prove influential for mothers in relation to their child rearing strategies.

4.3. Agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies

The second hypothesis (Hypothesis 2a) proposed that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs with regards to their dispositional attributions for the cause of their child's aggressive behavior will be more likely to parent with an authoritarian child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs with regards to their situational attributions (external) for the cause of their child's aggressive behavior will be more likely to endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy. Further, Hypothesis 2b predicted that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to the child's prosocial behavior, and who attribute high competence and responsibility to their child in being able to control their own behavior will be more likely endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to their child's prosocial behavior, and who

attribute little competence and responsibility to their child in their inability to control his/her own behavior will be more likely to endorse an authoritarian child rearing strategy.

In order to test these hypotheses, verification was made of differences between mothers' and fathers' beliefs with regards to the causality (internal/external), controllability, and changeability of their child's peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior, and three between-within mixed model MANOVAs were conducted, one for each of the three types of attributions. For the three MANOVAs, the between-subjects factor was the child's gender. The within-subjects factor was the mother's and father's specific beliefs regarding the child's peer-directed aggression, prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression.

Table 3 represents the means and standard deviations of the mothers' and fathers' perceptions of their sons' and daughters' peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior. There is little variation between fathers' and mothers' specific beliefs with respect to their perception of the causality, controllability, and changeability of their children's peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior.

The first MANOVA examined the differences between parents on peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior considering whether the behavior was due to their child's personality (internal) or due to other people or circumstance (external). The results of the MANOVA indicate no differences between mothers and fathers on peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior with regards to their perception of the causality of

their child's behavior ($F(3,54) = 1.63$, n.s.). In addition, there were no significant interactions between parents' with respect to their perception of their child's behavior and their child's gender ($F(3,54) = .63$, n.s.).

In the second MANOVA, with regards to the ability of the child to control his/her own behavior, parents differed in their attributions regardless of their child's gender ($F(3,54) = 3.27$, $p < .03$). A closer look at the univariate effects revealed that mothers and fathers differed in their perception of the controllability of their child's adult-directed aggression, whereby mothers ($M = 4.1$, $SD = 1.4$) perceived their child's aggression to be less controllable than fathers ($M = 4.7$, $SD = 1.3$).

In terms of the parents' perception of their ability to change the child's behavior, there was no significant main effect. However, there was a significant interaction, whereby, parents differed in their specific beliefs with regards to the child's gender ($F(3,54) = 2.70$, $p < .05$). A closer look at univariate effects revealed that mothers and fathers differed in their perspectives of the changeability of their daughter's prosocial behavior, whereby fathers judged that their daughters prosocial behavior was more changeable than did mothers.

In order to determine whether agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs is related to their child rearing strategies, twelve hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting the authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies of mothers and fathers were conducted.

In the first step of each analysis, the child's gender was entered in order to control for the effects of this variable. In the second step, difference scores between mothers and fathers on questions relating to the causality of their child's behavior, the controllability of the behavior by the child, and the ability of the parent

to change the child's behavior were considered. Means and standard deviations for the difference scores of parents' specific beliefs are presented in Table 13.

Scores on the vignettes relating to peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior were computed by first, summing the scores with regards to causality, controllability, and changeability and then determining if mothers' and fathers' scores were concordant or discordant by subtracting the father's scores on each of the questions from the mother's scores.

Table 13
Means and standard deviations of difference scores between mothers and fathers on specific beliefs

	Boys (n=30)		Girls (n=30)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Peer-Directed</u>				
<u>Aggression</u>				
Causality	-.01	1.65	.54	1.54
Controllability	-.10	1.47	.02	1.45
Changeability	-.12	1.13	-.19	1.44
<u>Adult-Directed</u>				
<u>Aggression</u>				
Causality	.30	.92	.28	1.73
Controllability	-.73	2.02	-.36	1.23
Changeability	-.48	1.30	-.20	1.16
<u>Prosocial Behavior</u>				
Causality	-.53	1.68	-.13	1.55
Controllability	-.12	1.56	-.24	1.68
Changeability	.12	1.43	-.80	1.22

In the first analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the cause of the child's behavior on

the vignettes related to peer-directed aggression, prosocial behavior, and adult-directed aggression and fathers' authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 14). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of the father's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to causality of behavior was not a significant predictor of father's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 14
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.00	.00	.00
Gender	-.01	-.01	.00	-.06			
Step II					.08	.08	.23
P-D Agg.	-.07	-.09	.01	-.46			
A-D Agg.	-.25	-.06	.01	.56			
P-S Behavior	-.08	-.27	.06	-1.83			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
 Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

In the second analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior on the vignettes related to peer-directed aggression, prosocial behavior, and adult-directed aggression and fathers' authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 15). In the first step, the child's gender was not a significant predictor of the father's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to the ability of the child to control his/her behavior did not prove to be a significant predictor of father's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 15
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.00	.00	.00
Gender	-.01	-.01	.00	-.06			
Step II					.10	.10	1.42
P-D Agg.	.08	.05	.00	.44			
A-D Agg.	.20	.11	.02	1.18			
P-S Behavior	-.33	-.21	.08	-2.22			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
 Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

In the third analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and fathers' authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 16). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of the father's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to the ability to change the child's behavior was not a significant predictor of father's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 16

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.00	.00	.00
Gender	-.01	-.01	.00	-.06			
Step II					.10	.10	1.50
P-D Agg.	-.13	-.19	.01	-.86			
A-D Agg.	.05	-.07	.00	.37			
P-S Behavior	-.29	-.29	.07	-1.96			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

In the fourth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and fathers' authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 17). In the first step, child's gender was a significant predictor of the father's authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .08$; $sr^2 = .08$, $\beta = -.28$; $p < .01$). This suggests that fathers are more likely to be authoritative with their sons than they are with daughters ($M = 4.76$; $M = 4.55$ respectively). In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to causality of behavior was not a significant predictor of father's authoritative child rearing.

Table 17
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.08*	.08	4.72*
Gender	-.28	.28	.08	-2.17			
Step II					.17	.09	2.70
P-D Agg.	.16	-.02	.02	1.10			
Ad-D Agg.	-.18	-.10	.03	-1.30			
P-S Behavior	-.28	-.27	.07	-2.18			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
 Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the fifth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and father's authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 18). As above, in the first step, child's gender was a significant predictor of the father's authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .08$, $sr^2 = .08$; $\beta = -.28$; $p < .01$), suggesting that fathers are more likely to be authoritative with their sons than they are with their daughters. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to the controllability of the child's behavior was not a significant predictor of father's authoritative child rearing.

Table 18
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.08*	.08	4.72 *
Gender	-.28	-.28	.08	-2.17			
Step II					.11	.04	1.70
P-D Agg.	.14	-.01	.01	.78			
A-D Agg.	-.08	-.11	.00	-.47			
P-S Behavior	-.19	-.15	.03	-1.29			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
 Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the sixth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and fathers' authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 19). In the first step, the child's gender was a significant predictor of the father's authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .08$; $sr^2 = .08$; $\beta = -.28$; $p < .01$) suggesting that fathers are more likely to be authoritative with their sons than their daughters. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to changeability of behavior was not a significant predictor of father's authoritative child rearing.

Table 19

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting father's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.08*	.08	4.72*
Gender	-.28	-.28	.08	-2.17			
Step II					.12	.05	1.88
P-D Agg.	-.18	-.20	.03	-1.20			
Ad-D Agg	-.06	-.18	.00	-.44			
P-S Behavior	-.01	.01	.00	-.07			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the seventh analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and mothers' authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 20). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of the mother's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to causality of behavior was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 20

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.00	.00	.00
Gender	.01	-.00	.00	-.01			
Step II					.08	.08	1.14
P-D Agg.	-.15	-.21	.02	-1.02			
A-D Agg.	-.06	-.11	.00	-.41			
P-S Behavior	-.19	-.21	.03	-1.38			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

In the eighth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and mother's authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 21). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of the mother's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement relating to the controllability of the child's behavior was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 21

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.00	.00	.00
Gender	-.01	-.00	.00	.01			
Step II					.07	.07	1.04
P-D Agg.	.13	.09	.01	.71			
Ad-D Agg	.15	.12	.01	.89			
P-S Behavior	-.28	-.16	.06	-1.83			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

In the ninth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and mothers' authoritarian parenting was investigated (Table 22). In the first step, child's gender was not a significant predictor of the mother's authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to changeability of behavior was not a significant predictors of mother's authoritarian child rearing.

Table 22

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritarian child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.00	.00	.00
Gender	.00	-.00	-.00	-.01			
Step II					.05	.05	.65
P-D Agg.	-.21	-.19	.03	-1.36			
Ad-D Agg	.10	-.02	.01	.63			
P-S Behavior	-.08	-.11	.00	-.50			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

In the tenth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior on the three types of vignettes and mothers' authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 23). In the first step, child's gender was a significant predictor of mother's authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .08$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.29$; $sr^2 = .08$) indicating that mothers tend to be more authoritative with their sons than with their daughters ($M = 5.01$; $M = 4.84$, respectively). In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to causality of behavior was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritative child rearing.

Table 23
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.08*	.08	4.97*
Gender	-.29	-.29	.08	-2.23			
Step II					.15	.06	2.26
P-D Agg.	-.01	-.01	.00	-.10			
Ad-D Agg	.20	.20	.03	1.42			
P-S Behavior	-.15	-.19	.02	-1.16			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
 Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the eleventh analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability of the child to control their behavior on the three types of vignettes and mother's authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 24). In the first step, child's gender was a significant predictor of the mother's authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .08$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.29$; $sr^2 = .08$) indicating that mothers are more authoritative with their sons than their daughters. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to the controllability of the child's behavior was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritative child rearing.

Table 24

Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.08*	.08	4.97*
Gender	-.29	-.29	.08	-2.23			
Step II					.09	.01	1.30
P-D Agg.	.00	-.05	.00	.02			
Ad-D Agg	-.02	-.09	.00	-.14			
P-S Behavior	-.08	-.07	.00	-.53			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the twelfth analysis, the relationship between the concordance between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change the child's behaviour on the three types of vignettes and mothers' authoritative parenting was investigated (Table 25). In the first step, child's gender was a significant predictor of the mother's authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .08$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.29$; $sr^2 = .08$) indicating that mothers are more authoritative with their sons than their daughters. In the second step, parental agreement on the questions relating to changeability of behavior was not a significant predictor of mother's authoritative child rearing.

Table 25
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis predicting mother's authoritative child rearing strategy from agreement between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their child's behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.08*	.08	4.97*
Gender	-.29	-.29	.08	-2.23			
Step II					.10	.01	1.39
P-D Agg.	-.05	-.08	.00	-.34			
Ad-D Agg	-.08	-.14	.01	-.57			
P-S Behavior	-.01	.05	.00	-.03			

Note: P-D Agg. = Peer-Directed Aggression; P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior
 Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

The results of the Manovas suggest that parents differ in their specific beliefs in two key areas. First, mothers perceive their child's aggression to be less controllable than fathers and second, fathers judged their daughter's prosocial behavior as more changeable than did mothers.

The results from the hierarchical regression suggests that mothers and fathers are more authoritative with their sons than with their daughters, however, they do not differ in their authoritarian parenting with their sons and their daughters. There is no indication, however, that child rearing strategies is related to the agreement between parents' perception of the causality, the child's ability to control their behavior, and the parents' perception of being able to change their child's peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, or prosocial behavior. The findings do not confirm Hypothesis 2a, in that, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs will be more likely to use authoritative or authoritarian child rearing strategies with regards to their perception of the cause of their child's behavior. The results also do not

confirm Hypothesis 2b, in that, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs with regards to their child's ability to control their own prosocial behavior will be more likely to endorse an authoritative or authoritarian child rearing strategy.

4.4. Relationship between mothers' and fathers' global and specific beliefs and its' impact on parents' child rearing strategies?

As Murphey (1992) proposed, global beliefs and specific beliefs are reciprocally related rather than independent constructs, meaning that the attributions parents make for their children's behavior may be influenced by what they feel is reasonably expected at a given age (global beliefs) and conversely, those expectations may be affected by the attributions parents make for their children's behavior (specific beliefs). An analysis was conducted to investigate whether parental agreement on global beliefs, in relation to children's personal-social development, and parental agreement on specific beliefs, with regards to causality, controllability, and changeability of the child's behavior, would predict parental agreement on child rearing strategies. In other words, it is suggested that parents who are in agreement on their global and specific beliefs will be in agreement on their child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative) (third hypothesis).

Prior to considering how mothers' and fathers' global and specific beliefs impacted their child rearing strategies, a mixed-model MANOVA was conducted in order to compare mothers' and fathers' authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies. Mothers and fathers did differ in terms of their parenting strategies regardless of their child's gender ($F(2,57) = 8.86, p < .001$). Closer examination of the univariate effects showed that mothers and fathers differed in their authoritative

child rearing strategy, whereby mothers showed more of an authoritative pattern ($M = 4.9$, $SD = .3$) than did fathers ($M = 4.7$, $SD = .4$). However, results showed that there were no systematic differences between mothers' and fathers' parenting strategies in relation to their child's gender ($F(2,57) = .10$, n.s).

As the goal was to determine whether agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs is related to their concordance on their child rearing strategies, six hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting the authoritarian and authoritative childrearing strategies of mothers and fathers were conducted. In the first step of the analyses, the difference scores between mothers and fathers on their global beliefs regarding Constructivism, Attribution, and Operant Learning were entered. On the second step difference scores between mothers and fathers on their specific beliefs regarding the causality, controllability, or the changeability of the child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior were entered. The means and standard deviations for the difference scores of parents' child-rearing strategies are presented in Table 26.

Means and standard deviations for mothers and fathers on the authoritarian and authoritative scales are represented in Table 5. Scores on the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire (CRSQ) were computed by first, summing the scores on the authoritarian scale and authoritative scale, then determining if mothers' and fathers' scores were concordant or discordant by subtracting the father's scores from the mother's scores on each of the scales.

Table 26
Means and standard deviations of difference scores between mothers and fathers on authoritarian and authoritative child-rearing strategies

	Boys (n=30)		Girls (n=30)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Child-Rearing Strategies</u>				
Authoritarian	.01	.55	.01	.63
Authoritative	.24	.45	.29	.54

As this study did not include a large number of subjects and as research principles requires multiple hierarchical regression analyses to be done with at least ten subjects per variable (Tabachnick & Fidell (1983), one variable (social learning) was removed from the first step and one variable was eliminated from the second step (peer-directed aggression). The remaining variables in both steps were more highly correlated with the dependent variables (child rearing strategies).

In the first analysis, the concordance between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and the concordance in their specific beliefs regarding the causality (internal/external) of their child's behavior on the two types of vignettes were investigated as predictors of the concordance between mothers' and fathers' on authoritarian parenting (Table 27). In the first step, parental agreement on the subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritarian child rearing ($R^2 = .17, p < .05$) with agreement regarding operant learning adding uniquely ($\beta = .29, sr^2 = .07$) suggesting the greater the

difference between mothers and fathers on their belief about operant learning for the child's personal-social development, the less likely were mothers and fathers to agree on authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the question relating to the causality of the child's behavior on the vignettes related to prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression (specific beliefs) was not a significant predictor of agreement of parents' authoritarian child rearing.

Table 27
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting agreement between mothers and fathers on authoritarian child rearing from agreement between mothers and fathers on global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.17	.17	3.66*
Constructivist Attribution	-.13	-.01	.01	-.99			
Operant Learning	.24	.29	.04	1.71			
Step II					.22	.05	2.97
P-S Behaviour	.29	.35	.07	2.16*			
Ad-D Agg	-.00	.05	.00	-.02			
	-.23	-.19	.05	-1.88			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the second analysis, the concordance between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and the concordance in their specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of concordance on mothers' and fathers' authoritative parenting (Table 28). In the first step, parental agreement on the three subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of parental

agreement on authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .23$, $p < .01$), whereby agreement on operant learning ($\beta = .43$, $sr^2 = .17$) and on constructivist beliefs ($\beta = .25$, $sr^2 = .06$) were significant univariate predictors of parental agreement, suggesting that the more parents disagreed on constructivist beliefs and operant learning for children's personal-social development, the more parents were in disagreement on authoritative child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the question relating to causality of the child's behavior on the vignettes related to prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression (specific beliefs) was not a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritative child rearing.

Table 28

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting agreement between mothers and fathers on authoritative child rearing from agreement between mothers and fathers on global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.23	.23	5.24**
Constructivist	.25	.24	.06	1.97**			
Attribution	-.19	.05	.03	-1.38			
Operant							
Learning	.43	.40	.17	3.40**			
Step II					.27	.04	3.75
P-S Behavior	.05	.11	.00	.40			
Ad-D Agg	.20	.24	.04	1.65			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the third analysis, the concordance between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and the concordance in their specific beliefs regarding the controllability of

their child's behavior on the two types of vignettes were investigated as predictors of parental agreement on authoritarian parenting (Table 29). In the first step, parental agreement on the subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of parents' authoritarian child rearing ($R^2 = .17, p < .05$) with agreement regarding operant learning adding uniquely ($\beta = .29, sr^2 = .07$), suggesting the greater the difference between mothers and fathers on their belief about operant learning for the child's personal-social development, the less likely were mothers and fathers to agree on using an authoritarian child rearing strategy. In the second step, parental agreement on the question relating to the controllability of the child's behavior on the vignettes related to prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression (specific beliefs) was not a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritarian child rearing.

Table 29
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting agreement between mothers and fathers on authoritarian child rearing from agreement between mothers and fathers on global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.17	.17	3.66*
Constructivist Attribution	-.13	-.01	.01	-.99			
Operant Learning	.29	.35	.07	2.16*			
Step II					.18	.01	2.29
P-S Behavior	.09	.06	.01	.63			
Ad-D Agg	.04	.01	.00	.30			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the fourth analysis, the concordance between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and the concordance in their specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of parental agreement on authoritative parenting (Table 30). In the first step, parental agreement on the three subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .23, p < .01$), whereby agreement on operant learning ($\beta = .43, sr^2 = .17$) and on constructivist beliefs ($\beta = .25, sr^2 = .06$) were significant univariate predictors of parental agreement suggesting that the greater the disagreement on constructivist beliefs and operant learning, the more parents were in disagreement on authoritative child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the question relating to the controllability of the child's behavior on the vignettes related to prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression (specific beliefs) was not a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritative child rearing.

Table 30

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting agreement between mothers and fathers on authoritative child rearing from agreement between mothers and fathers on global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.23	.23	5.24**
Constructivist Attribution	.25	.24	.06	1.97*			
Operant Learning	-.19	.05	.00	-1.38			
Step II					.23	.00	3.05
P-S Behavior.	.43	.40	.17	3.40*			
Ad-D Agg	.04	.08	.00	.26			
	-.02	.03	.00	-.12			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;

P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the fifth analysis, the concordance between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and the concordance in their specific beliefs regarding the changeability of their child's behavior on the two types of vignettes were investigated as predictors of parental agreement on authoritarian parenting (Table 31). As above, in the first step, parental agreement on the subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of parents' authoritarian child rearing ($R^2 = .17$, $p < .05$) with agreement regarding operant learning uniquely ($\beta = .29$, $sr^2 = .07$), suggesting that the greater the difference between mothers and fathers regarding their constructivist beliefs, the less likely were parents to agree on authoritarian child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the question relating to the changeability of the child's behavior on the vignettes (specific beliefs) was not a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritarian child rearing.

Table 31
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting agreement between mothers and fathers on authoritarian child rearing from agreement between mothers and fathers on global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.17	.17	3.66*
Constructivist	-.13	-.01	.01	-.99			
Attribution	.24	.29	.04	1.71			
Operant							
Learning	.29	.35	.07	2.16*			
Step II					.19	.03	2.50
P-S Behavior	.14	.18	.02	1.06			
Ad-D Agg	.06	.06	.00	.48			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the sixth analysis, the concordance between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and the concordance in their specific beliefs regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of the mothers' authoritative parenting (Table 32). In the first step, parental agreement on the three subscales of the global beliefs scale was a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritative child rearing ($R^2 = .23, p < .01$), whereby agreement on operant learning ($\beta = .25, sr^2 = .06$) and on constructivist beliefs ($\beta = .43, sr^2 = .17$) were significant univariate predictors of parental agreement suggesting that the greater the disagreement on constructivist beliefs and operant learning, the more parents were in disagreement on authoritative child rearing. In the second step, parental agreement on the question relating to the changeability of the child's behavior on the vignettes

related to prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression was not a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritative child rearing.

Table 32
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting agreement between mothers and fathers on authoritative child rearing from agreement between mothers and fathers on global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.23	.23	5.24**
Constructivist Attribution	.25	.24	.06	1.97**			
Operant Learning	-.19	.05	.03	-1.38			
Step II					.23	.00	3.05
P-D Agg.	.43	.40	.17	3.40**			
Ad-D Agg.	-.03	.03	.00	-.25			
	.02	.06	.00	.16			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In summary, the results of the Manovas suggests that parents differ in their authoritative child rearing strategies whereby mothers showed more of an authoritative pattern than did fathers.

The analyses further suggest that parental discordance on the subscales of global beliefs (constructivist, attribution, and operant learning) was a significant predictor of parents' disagreement on authoritarian child rearing. Parents disagreed on the issue of operant learning, suggesting that the greater the difference between mothers and fathers on their beliefs about operant learning, the less likely were mothers and fathers to agree on the use of authoritarian child rearing strategies.

Furthermore, parental disagreement on the subscales of global beliefs (constructivist, attribution, and operant learning) was a significant predictor of parents' disagreement on authoritative child rearing. Parents disagreed on their global beliefs with regards to constructivist beliefs and operant learning. This suggests that the greater the disagreement on constructivist beliefs and operant learning, the more parents disagreed on authoritative child rearing.

Parental agreement on specific beliefs (causality, controllability, changeability) did not prove a significant predictor of parental agreement on authoritarian or authoritative child rearing.

4.5. Mothers' and fathers' global or specific beliefs in relation to the child's social behavior

Based on the fourth hypothesis, it was expected that parental agreement on their global beliefs would be related to parents' perception of children having fewer behavioral problems. Furthermore, based on the fifth hypothesis, it was anticipated that parents who were in agreement on their specific beliefs with regards to the cause, the child's ability to control their behavior, and parents' ability to change their child's peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior would perceive that their children have fewer behavioral problems.

In order to test the latter hypothesis, it was first necessary to verify whether mothers and fathers differed in their perception of their child's social behavior. A mixed-model MANOVA was conducted to test for the differences in mothers' and fathers' perception of their child's behavior in the areas of social withdrawal, aggression, anxiety-depression, social problems, and attention problems. The

between-subjects factor was the child's gender. The within-subjects factor was mothers' and fathers' perception of their child's social competence and behavioral problems as assessed by the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1986). Results showed that there were no systematic differences between mothers' and fathers' perception of the child's social behavior on the Child Behavior Checklist in relation to the child's gender ($F(5,51) = .93, n.s.$). Mothers and fathers also did not differ in terms of their perception of their child's social behavior regardless of their child's gender ($F(5,51) = .18, n.s.$).

The fourth and fifth hypotheses in this study were to examine whether differences in mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs predicted mothers' and fathers' perception of their child's social behavior, particularly in terms of withdrawn, aggressive, and anxious-depressed behavior and social and attention problems. Because there was little disagreement between mothers' and fathers' perception of their child's behavior on these domains (correlations between mothers' and fathers' perception on these domains were above .6), only mothers' perception of their child's behavior will be reported. It is noted, however, that the same pattern of results was evident for fathers.

In order to investigate the fourth and fifth hypotheses, 15 hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of their child's withdrawn, aggressive, and anxious-depressed behavior, and social and attention problems were conducted. In the first step, difference scores in the global beliefs regarding constructivist, attribution, and operant learning beliefs of mothers and fathers were entered. The difference scores between mothers and fathers on the three questions regarding causality, controllability, changeability of the child's adult-

directed aggression and prosocial behavior were entered on the second step. Means and standard deviations for the difference scores of parents' on the child's social behavior are presented in Table 33.

Means and standard deviations for mothers' and fathers' perception of the child's social behavior, based on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1986), are shown in Table 7. In order to investigate the responses, each of the selected subscales on the CBCL were summed, individually, for both father and mother. Then correlations between mothers' and fathers' scores on each of the subscales was computed in order to determine agreement or disagreement between the spouses.

Table 33
Means and standard deviations of difference scores between mothers and fathers on child's behavior

	<u>Boys</u>		<u>Girls</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
<u>Father</u>				
Withdrawal	.20	.19	.27	.32
Anxious-Depressed	.19	.18	.25	.20
Social Problems	.23	.21	.28	.34
Attention Problems	.33	.32	.30	.28
Aggression	.34	.22	.36	.29
<u>Mother</u>				
Withdrawal	.13	.16	.23	.25
Anxious-Depressed	.21	.17	.30	.29
Social Problems	.22	.23	.24	.26
Attention Problems	.30	.27	.22	.25
Aggression	.29	.25	.36	.29

As this study did not include a large number of subjects and as research principles require multiple hierarchical regression analyses to be done with at least ten subjects per variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983), one variable (social learning) was removed from the first step and one variable was eliminated from the second step (peer-directed aggression). The remaining variables in both the steps were more highly correlated with the dependent variables (child rearing strategies) than were those that were eliminated.

In the first analysis, agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs in terms of the causality of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior (Table 34). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on questions relating to the causality of the child's behavior were not significant predictor of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior.

Table 34
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's withdrawn behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.06	.06	1.11
Constructivist	-.21	-.21	.04	-1.49			
Attribution	-.04	-.08	.00	-.30			
Operant							
Learning	.12	.08	.01	.84			
Step II					.09	.04	1.10
P-S Behavior	-.17	-.18	.03	-1.24			
Ad-D Agg.	.09	.09	.01	.70			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the second analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior (Table 35). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior. Similarly, in the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception on questions relating to the causality of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior.

Table 35

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's anxious-depressed behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.74
Constructivist	-.21	-.19	.04	-1.48			
Attribution	.07	-.01	.00	.45			
Operant							
Learning	.02	.01	.00	.11			
Step II					.06	.03	.72
P-S Behavior	.11	.10	.01	.81			
Ad-D Agg	-.11	-.13	.01	-.81			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the third analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's social problems (Table 36). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's social problems, likewise, in the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception on questions relating to the causality of the child's behavior did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's social problems.

Table 36

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's social problems from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.35
Constructivist Attribution	-.12	-.07	.01	-.82			
Operant Learning	.13	.08	.01	.82			
Step II					.04	.02	.44
P-S Behavior	.01	.04	.00	.06			
Ad-D Agg	-.01	-.03	.00	-.10			
	.15	.15	.02	1.06			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the fourth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior (Table 37). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior. In the second step, differences in the mothers' and fathers' scores relating to the causality of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior.

Table 37
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's aggressive behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.05
Constructivist Attribution	-.18	-.17	.03	-1.27			
Operant Learning	.02	-.02	.00	.12			
Step II					.04	.01	.43
P-S Behavior	.08	.06	.00	.55			
Ad-D Agg	.05	.04	.01	.39			
	.05	.04	.00	.35			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the fifth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the causality of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's attention problems (Table 38). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's attention problems. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception of the causality of the child's behavior was did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's attention problems.

Table 38

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's attention behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.44
Constructivist	.01	-.05	.00	.07			
Attribution	.15	.12	.02	.97			
Operant							
Learning	-.11	-.06	.01	-.77			
Step II					.04	.02	.46
P-S Behavior	-.03	-.04	.00	-.21			
Ad-D Agg	.13	.14	.02	.95			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the sixth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior (Table 39). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior.

Table 39

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's withdrawn behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.06	.06	1.11
Constructivist Attribution	-.21	.21	.04	-1.49			
Operant Learning	-.04	-.08	.00	-.29			
Learning	.12	.08	.01	.84			
Step II					.09	.03	1.02
P-S Behavior	-.14	-.17	.02	-.97			
Ad-D Agg	-.07	.11	.00	-.48			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the seventh analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior (Table 40). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior.

Table 40

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's anxious-depressed behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.74
Constructivist	-.21	-.19	.04	-1.48			
Attribution	.07	-.01	.00	.45			
Operant							
Learning	.02	.01	.00	.11			
Step II					.06	.02	.61
P-S Behavior	.12	.05	.01	.79			
Ad-D Agg	-.12	-.08	.01	-.77			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the eighth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's social problems (Table 41). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's social problems. In addition, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on questions relating to the controllability of the child's behavior did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's social problems

Table 41

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's social problems from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.35
Constructivist	-.12	-.07	.01	-.82			
Attribution	.13	.08	.01	.82			
Operant							
Learning	.01	.04	.00	.06			
Step II					.04	.02	.45
P-S Behavior	.00	.03	.00	.02			
Ad-D Agg	.15	.11	.02	1.00			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the ninth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior (Table 42). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior. In the second step, differences in the mothers' and fathers' scores relating to the controllability of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior.

Table 42

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's aggressive behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.65
Constructivist	.78	-.17	.03	-1.27			
Attribution	.02	-.02	.00	.12			
Operant							
Learning	.08	.06	.01	.55			
Step II					.05	.01	.49
P-S Behavior	-.04	-.01	.00	-.28			
Ad-D Agg	.11	.08	.01	.75			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the tenth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the controllability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's attention problems (Table 43). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's attention problems. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception of the controllability of the child's behavior did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's attention problems.

Table 43

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's attention problems from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.44
Constructivist	.01	.05	.00	.07			
Attribution	.15	.12	.02	.97			
Operant							
Learning	-.11	-.06	.01	-.77			
Step II					.05	.03	.57
P-S Behavior	-.05	.00	.00	-.31			
Ad-D Agg	.18	.13	.03	1.22			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the eleventh analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior (Table 44). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's withdrawn behavior.

Table 44
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of child's withdrawn behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.06	.06	1.11
Constructivist	-.21	-.21	.04	-1.49			
Attribution	-.04	-.08	.00	-.29			
Operant							
Learning	.12	.08	.01	.84			
Step II					.06	.01	.71
P-S Behavior	.03	-.01	.00	.18			
Ad-D Agg	-.08	-.06	.01	-.56			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the twelfth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior (Table 45). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception regarding the changeability of the child's behavior did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior.

Table 45

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.74
Constructivist	-.21	-.19	.04	-1.48			
Attribution	.07	-.01	.00	.45			
Operant							
Learning	.02	.01	.00	.11			
Step II					.04	.00	.46
P-D Agg.	.03	.00	.00	.23			
Ad-D Agg	-.05	-.06	.00	-.35			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the thirteenth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's social problems (Table 46). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's social problems. In addition, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on questions relating to the changeability of the child's behavior did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's social problems

Table 46

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of the child's social problems from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.35
Constructivist	-.12	-.07	.01	-.82			
Attribution	.13	.13	.01	.82			
Operant							
Learning	.01	.04	.00	.06			
Step II					.05	.03	.50
P-S Behavior	-.09	-.06	.01	-.65			
Ad-D Agg	.16	.12	.02	1.13			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the fourteenth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior (Table 47). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior. In the second step, differences in the mothers' and fathers' scores relating to the changeability of the child's behavior were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior.

Table 47

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of the child's aggressive behavior from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.65
Constructivist Attribution	-.18	-.17	.03	-1.27			
Operant Learning	.02	-.02	.00	.12			
Learning	.08	.06	.00	.55			
Step II					.09	.05	1.04
P-S Behavior	-.20	-.17	.02	-1.43			
Ad-D Agg	.18	.14	.04	1.33			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the fifteenth analysis, agreement between fathers' and mothers' global beliefs and specific beliefs regarding the changeability of the child's behavior were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of the child's attention problems (Table 48). In the first step, differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs scale were not significant predictors of mothers' perception of the child's attention problems. In the second step, differences between mothers' and fathers' perception of the changeability of the child's behavior did not significantly predict mothers' perception of the child's attention problems.

Table 48

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting mothers' perception of the child's attention problems from agreement between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior)

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.04
Constructivist Attribution	-.01	.05	.00	.07			
Operant Learning	.15	.12	.02	.97			
Learning	-.11	.06	.10	-.77			
Step II					.03	.01	.32
P-D Agg.	-.03	-.01	.00	-.23			
Ad-D Agg	.07	.04	.02	.52			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

The results of the analyses demonstrated that there was no relationship between parental agreement on global beliefs and parents' perception as children having fewer behavioral problems. Furthermore, there was no relationship between parental agreement on specific beliefs, with regards to the causality, controllability, and changeability and parents' perception of children having fewer behavioral problems. The fourth and fifth hypotheses are therefore disconfirmed.

4.6. Children's perception of differences in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs and child rearing strategies in relation to mothers' perception of the child's social behavior.

As adolescents' perception of their parents' beliefs is an important predictor of the child's own beliefs, a child's accurate perception is more likely when parents are in close agreement with each other (Alessandri & Wozniak, 1987; Cashmore & Goodnow, 1985). The sixth hypothesis proposed that if children perceive differences in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, or child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative), this will have an impact on the child's social behavior.

As this study did not include a large number of subjects and as research principles require multiple hierarchical regression analyses to be done with at least ten subjects per variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983), as in previous analyses one variable (social learning) will be removed from the first step of the multiple hierarchical regressions. Second, as there proved to be very few significant results when conducting the analyses for this question examining the child's perception, only two items, aggressive behavior and anxious-depressed behavior, were selected from the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1986) to represent parents' perception of their children's behavioral and social competencies.

In order to determine whether there were differences in children's perceptions of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, a between-within mixed model MANOVA was conducted, where the between-subjects factor was the child's gender and the within-subjects factor was the child's perception of his or her mother's and father's global beliefs (Constructivist, Operant Learning, and

Attribution). Results showed that there were significant differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs ($F(3,56) = 4.17, p < .01$). Analysis of the univariate effects suggested that children differed in their perception of their parents' constructivist and attributional beliefs, whereby children judged their mothers to endorse more constructivist and attributional beliefs than fathers' beliefs. However, results indicate that there were no child gender effects in relation to mothers' and fathers' global beliefs ($F(3,56) = .01, n.s.$)

Differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality (internal/external), controllability, and changeability of their own adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior were investigated using three between-within mixed model MANOVAs. The between-subjects factor for these analyses was the child's gender and the within-subjects factor was children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality, controllability or the changeability of their own behaviour. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' beliefs regarding the cause of their own adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior ($F(3,56) = 1.12, n.s.$), nor were there any child gender effects of these variables ($F(3,56) = 1.00, n.s.$). Results also indicated that there were no significant differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' beliefs regarding the controllability of their own adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior ($F(3,56) = .79, n.s.$), nor were there any gender effects of these variables ($F(3,56) = .41, n.s.$). Finally, there were no significant differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' beliefs regarding the changeability of their own adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior

($F(3,56) = .56$, n.s.), nor were there any gender effects of these variables

($F(3,56) = .73$, n.s.).

Differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' authoritarian and authoritative child-rearing strategies were investigated using a between-within mixed model MANOVA. The between-subjects factor was the child's gender and the within-subjects factor was children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' child-rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative). Results showed that there were significant differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' child-rearing strategies regardless of the child's gender ($F(2, 57) = 15.73$, $p < .001$). Analysis of the univariate effects suggested that children differed in their perception of their parents' authoritarian and authoritative child-rearing strategies, whereby children judged their mothers to be more authoritarian and authoritative than their fathers. However, results indicate that there were no child gender effects in relation to children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' authoritarian or authoritative child rearing strategies ($F(2,57) = .83$, n.s.)

Table 2, Table 4, and Table 6 represent the means and standard deviations of boys' and girls' perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies.

With regards to the Global Beliefs, scores on the Personal-Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ; McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992), scores on the PSDQ were computed by first, summing the scores of each of the Constructivist, Social Learning, Operant Learning, and Attribution subscales, then determining if mothers' and children's scores were concordant or discordant by subtracting the children's scores from the mothers' scores. The same procedure was followed to

measure agreement between fathers' scores and children's scores.

In relation to specific beliefs, scores on the vignettes relating to peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior were computed by first, summing the scores with regards to causality, controllability, and changeability and then determining if mothers' and children's scores were concordant or discordant by subtracting the children's scores from the mothers' scores. The same procedure was followed to measure agreement between fathers' scores and children's scores.

Finally, scores on the Child-rearing Strategies Questionnaire for children were tabulated by first, summing the scores of each individual case on the Authoritarian and Authoritative scales and then determining if mothers' and fathers' and daughters'/sons' scores were concordant or discordant by subtracting the child's score from the mother's or father's scores.

In order to determine whether differences between the child's perception of his/her mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and child-rearing strategies relate to the parents' perception of their children's social behaviour, four hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted predicting the child's anxious-depressed and aggressive behavior. Hierarchical regressions first investigated differences between the child's perception of his/her mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and authoritarian child rearing strategy in relation to the mother's perception of the child's social behavior, then the differences between the child's perception of his/her mother's and father's global beliefs and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's social behavior. Because mothers' and fathers' perceptions of their child's behaviour were so highly correlated (above $r = .6$), only

analyses referring to mothers' perceptions of their children's behavior are reported here. It is noted, however, that the same pattern of results were found in relation to fathers' perception of their children's social behavior. In the first step of each of these analyses, the difference scores in the child's perception of his/her mother's and father's global beliefs regarding constructivism, attribution, and operant learning were entered. The difference scores in the child's perception of his/her mothers' and father's authoritarian child rearing were entered on the second step, to be followed by analyses replacing authoritative child rearing for authoritarian child rearing.

In the first analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs (constructivist, attribution, and operant learning) and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated in relation to the mother's perception of her child's anxious-depressed behavior. There were no significant predictors of the child's anxious-depressed behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 49).

Table 49
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.05	.05	.95
Constructivist	-.04	-.01	.00	-.31			
Attribution	.07	1.31	.00	.51			
Operant Learning	.19	.21	.03	1.33			
Step II					.06	.01	.83
Authoritarian	-.09	-.07	.01	-.72			

In the second analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated in relation to the mother's perception of her child's aggressive behavior. However, there were no significant predictors of the child's aggressive behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 50).

Table 50
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.84
Constructivist Attribution	.07	.09	.01	.55			
Operant Learning	.16	.11	.02	1.11			
Authoritarian	-.17	-.11	.03	-1.23			
Step II					.05	.01	.75
Authoritarian	-.09	-.10	.01	-.71			

In the third analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated in relation to mother's perception of her child's anxious-depressed behavior. However, there were no significant predictors of the child's anxious-depressed behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 51).

Table 51
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.05	.05	.95
Constructivist	-.04	-.01	.00	-.31			
Attribution	.07	.13	.00	.51			
Operant							
Learning	.19	.21	.03	.33			
Step II					.05	.00	.71
Authoritative	.03	.05	.00	.18			

In the fourth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated in relation to mother's perception of her child's aggressive problems. However, there were no significant predictors of the child's aggressive problems on the two steps of the analysis (Table 52).

Table 52
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive problems

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.04	.04	.84
Constructivist	.07	.09	.01	.55			
Attribution	.16	.11	.02	1.11			
Operant							
Learning	-.17	-.11	.03	-1.23			
Step II					.05	.01	.71
Authoritative	.08	.11	.01	.60			

In order to determine whether the degree of agreement in the child's perceptions of his/her mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs and child-rearing strategies relate to the parents' perceptions of their children's social behavior, twelve hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted predicting the child's anxious-depressed and aggressive behavior. Because mothers' and fathers' perceptions of their child's behavior were so highly correlated (above $r = .6$), only analyses referring to mothers' perceptions of their children's behaviors are reported here. It is noted, however, that the same pattern of results were found in relation to fathers' perceptions of their children's social behavior.

In the first step of each of these analyses, the difference scores in the child's perception of his/her mothers' and fathers' global beliefs regarding the causality, controllability, or changeability of the child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior were entered. The difference scores in the child's perception of his/her mother's and father's authoritarian child rearing strategies, subsequently replaced by authoritative child rearing, were entered on the second step.

In the first analysis, differences in the children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perceptions of their children's anxious-depressed behavior. However, there were no significant predictors of the child's anxious-depressed behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 53)

Table 53

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior) and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior.

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.01	.01	.19
P-S Behavior	-.08	-.07	.01	-.59			
Ad-D Agg	.04	.02	.00	.26			
Step II					.01	.01	.24
Authoritarian	-.08	-.07	.01	-.59			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the second analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's aggressive behavior. However, there were no significant predictors of the child's aggressive behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 54).

Table 54

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior) and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.03	.03	.79
P-S Behavior	.12	.10	.01	.93			
Ad-D Agg	-.13	-.11	.02	-.97			
Step II					.04	.01	.68
Authoritarian	-.09	-.10	.01	.93			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the third analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's anxious-depressed behavior. The more children perceived differences in their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs with regards to the controllability of their prosocial behavior, the more mothers perceived their child to be anxious-depressed (Table 55).

Table 55
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior) and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.11	.11	3.36*
P-S Behavior	.32	.31	.01	2.52*			
Ad-D Agg	.11	.08	.00	.86			
Step II					.11	.00	2.22
Authoritarian	-.03	-.07	.00	-.21			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the fourth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of their children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's aggressive behavior. However, as above, there were no significant predictors of the child's aggressive behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 56).

Table 56
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior) and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.06	.06	1.76
P-S Behavior	.18	.19	.03	1.36			
Ad-D Agg	-.15	-.17	.02	-1.16			
Step II					.06	.00	1.17
Authoritarian	-.03	-.10	.00	.19			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the fifth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's anxious-depressed behavior. However, as above, there were no significant predictors of the child's anxious-depressed behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 57).

Table 57

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior) and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.70
P-S Behavior	-.05	-.08	.00	-.38			
Ad-D Agg	.14	.15	.02	1.03			
Step II					.03	.01	.56
Authoritarian	-.07	-.07	.01	-.55			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the sixth analysis, differences in children's perception of the mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritarian child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's aggressive behavior. The more the children perceived differences in their mother's and father's specific beliefs with regards to the ability to change their child's adult-directed aggression, the more the mothers perceived their child as having aggressive behavior (Table 58).

Table 58
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior) and authoritarian child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.34	-.12	3.81*
P-S Behavior	.13	.06	.02	.10			
Ad-D Agg	.34	.32	.11	2.71*			
Step II					.36	.01	2.69
Authoritarian	.12	.13	.02	.93			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the seventh analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perceptions of their children's anxious-depressed behavior. The more the children perceived differences in their mother's and father's specific beliefs, with regards to the causality of their children's prosocial behavior, the less mothers perceived their child as being anxious-depressed (Table 59).

Table 59

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior) and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.01	.01	.19*
P-S Behavior	-.08	-.07	.01	-.59*			
Ad-D Agg	.04	.02	.00	.26			
Step II					.01	.00	.14
Authoritative	.03	.05	.00	.18			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;

P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In the eighth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the causality of their child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's aggressive behavior. However, there were no significant predictors of the child's aggressive behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 60).

Table 60
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality of child's behavior) and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.03	.03	.79
P-S Behavior	-.12	.10	.01	.93			
Ad-D Agg	-.13	-.11	.02	-.97			
Step II					.05	.02	.95
Authoritative	.16	.11	.02	1.13			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the ninth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's anxious-depressed behavior. However, as above, there were no significant predictors of the child's anxious-depressed behavior on any of the four steps of the analysis (Table 61).

Table 61
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior) and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.11	.11	3.36
P-S Behavior	.32	.31	.01	2.52			
Ad-D Agg	.11	.08	.01	.86			
Step II					.11	.00	2.30
Authoritative	.06	.05	.00	.50			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the tenth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the controllability of their child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's aggressive behavior. However, as above, there were no significant predictors of the child's aggressive behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 62).

Table 62

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (controllability of child's behavior) and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.06	.06	1.76
P-S Behavior	.18	.19	.03	1.36			
Ad-D Agg	-.15	-.17	.02	-1.16			
Step II					.07	.02	1.49
Authoritative	.13	.11	.02	.98			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the eleventh analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's anxious-depressed behavior. However, as above, there were no significant predictors of the child's anxious-depressed behavior on the two steps of the analysis (Table 63).

Table 63

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior) and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's anxious-depressed behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.02	.02	.70
P-S Behavior	-.05	-.08	.00	-.38			
Ad-D Agg	.14	.15	.02	1.03			
Step II					.03	.00	.51
Authoritative	.05	.05	.00	.38			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

In the twelfth analysis, differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs regarding the ability to change their children's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior and mothers' and fathers' authoritative child rearing were investigated as predictors of mothers' perception of their children's aggressive behavior. The more the child perceived differences in his/her mother's and father's specific beliefs, with regards to the child's adult-directed aggression, the more the mother perceived the child as having aggressive behavior (Table 64).

Table 64
Hierarchical regression analyses predicting children's perception of differences between mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (changeability of child's behavior) and authoritative child rearing in relation to mother's perception of the child's aggressive behavior

Variable	β	r	sr^2	t	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step I					.12	.12	3.81*
P-S Behavior	.13	.06	.02	.10			
Ad-D Agg	.34	.32	.11	2.71*			
Step II					.14	.02	2.93
Authoritative	.13	.11	.02	1.08			

Note: Ad-D Agg. = Adult-Directed Aggression;
P-S Behavior = Prosocial Behavior

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

In summary, in investigating whether there were differences in children's perceptions of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, results showed significant differences in children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs. Children differed in their perception of their parents' Constructivist and Attributional beliefs, in that, children judged their mothers' Constructivist and Attributional Beliefs to be greater than their fathers. This demonstrates that overall children viewed their mothers, more so than their fathers, as having a Constructivist approach in their beliefs in the view that children actively construct their knowledge of the world and build their cognitive structures through their activities and an Attributional approach in the explanations mothers give for the child's behavior and attitudes.

When examining children's perception of the differences between their mothers and fathers in relation to their specific beliefs with regards to the causality, controllability, and changeability of their prosocial behavior and adult-directed aggression, there were no significant differences.

When investigating children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' authoritarian and authoritative child-rearing strategies, results showed significant differences, regardless of the child's gender. Results of the analyses suggested that children differed in their perception of their parents' authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies, wherein children judged mothers to be more authoritarian and authoritative than their fathers.

In considering whether there is a relationship between the child's perception of the differences between his/her mothers' and fathers' global beliefs and child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative) in relation to parents' perception of the child's social behavior (anxious-depressed and aggressive), no relationship was found.

In determining whether the degree of agreement in the child's perception of his/her mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs (causality, controllability and changeability of the child's behavior) and child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative) was related to parents' perception of their child's social behavior, the following was found. The more the child perceived differences in his/her mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs, with regards to the controllability of the child's prosocial behavior, the more mothers perceived her child as being anxious-depressed. Furthermore, the more the child perceived differences in his/her mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs, with regards to parents' ability to change the child's

adult-directed aggression, the more mothers perceived her child as having aggressive behavior. The more the child perceived differences in his/her mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs, with regards to the causality of the child's prosocial behavior, the less mothers perceived her child as being anxious-depressed. Finally, the more the child perceived differences in his/her mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs, with regards to the ability to change his/her child's adult-directed aggression, the more mothers perceived her child as being aggressive.

In summary, the sixth hypothesis was supported, in that, children who perceived differences in their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs with regards to the causality, controllability, and changeability of their child's adult-directed aggression and prosocial behavior proved a significant predictor of parents' perception of their child's prosocial behavior (anxious-depressed and aggressive behavior).

5. DISCUSSION

The first section of the discussion summarizes the results in relation to specific hypotheses. The relationship of the current results to past studies are also discussed. Finally, limitations and implications of the current study and directions for future research are outlined.

The main purpose of the present study was: (a) to examine how agreement between mothers' and fathers' global and specific beliefs relate to their child rearing strategies and their child's social behavior, and (b) to examine if children's perception of differences in their parents' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies have an impact on their own social behavior. With the use of a theoretical model, hypotheses were formulated that would examine each of the above objectives.

Despite the theoretical rationale guiding this research, overall there were few significant results that were borne out through the analyses. Lack of significant findings may have been as a result of a) the homogeneous sample; and, b) statistical shortcomings, as the small sample size may have limited the statistical power of the analyses. Both will be discussed later.

The first hypothesis proposed that parents who are in agreement on their global beliefs, with regards to their child's personal-social development, would be more likely to use authoritative child rearing strategies than authoritarian child rearing strategies was partially supported by the analyses. Although parental agreement on global beliefs was not a significant predictor of mothers' authoritarian or authoritative child rearing nor fathers' authoritarian child rearing, the findings did indicate that the more mothers and fathers were in agreement on their beliefs

about the role of Operant Learning in their child's development, the more fathers would adhere to an authoritative parenting style. Operant Learning demonstrates a belief that the child's personality and learning is affected by a pattern of positive and negative consequences. The results in this study are consistent, in part, with the findings by Roberts, Block, and Block (1984) and Gjerde (1988), in that, parental agreement on beliefs is related to parents using guidance techniques that emphasize rationality (authoritativeness) and de-emphasize authoritarianism.

Although there has been little research to investigate empirically the relationship between parental agreement on global beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies, in the majority, this research has been conducted with parents of younger children, between 3 and 7 years of age (Block, Block, & Morrison, 1981). A longitudinal study by Roberts, Block, and Block (1984), however, did include parents with children between the ages of 3 and 12. The latter study demonstrated that parents, who were congruent in their child rearing values in early childhood, continued to put a strong emphasis on rational guidance of the child (authoritative child rearing) with the use of praise and reasoning when the child was in early adolescence. Since previous studies (primarily with younger children) have shown a link between parental beliefs and their child rearing strategies, there was an expectation that there would be a stronger association between parents' global beliefs and their child rearing strategies.

Grusec, Rudy, and Martini (1997) may provide a clue of why there were few relationships between parent agreement on global beliefs and parents' child rearing strategies. As many parenting cognitions are automatic, rather than operative at a conscious, considered, or accessible level, cognitions may not always be

accessible through the use of the traditional questionnaire method that examines parents' attitudes, beliefs, and values (Grusec, Rudy, & Martini, 1997). It is reasonable, therefore, to question whether quantitative methods (paper-and-pencil) can capture what a parent thinks about children, child rearing, and parenting.

The subscales of constructivism, attribution, social learning, operant learning on the global beliefs measure may not have differentiated parents in their capacity to discern a critical age at which parents adopt views about a child's personal-social development. For example, from a constructivist perspective, do parents differ in their perception at what age children develop ideas about social relationships through their play with peers. From an attributional perspective, do parents agree or disagree on the age that children form ideas about the kinds of persons they are, based on their judgments about how other people behave towards them. Hypothetically, parents may differ for example, in that, fathers, more so than mothers, may have attributional beliefs (explanations) that children are older when they form their self-identity based on how others react towards them.

Similarity in parents' lifestyle, upbringing, and community may also have created more similarities than differences in responding to the global beliefs measure. As described earlier, this may have attributed to parents' assumptions and values that provide a frame of reference from which parents make decisions about how to socialize their children, often referred to as cultural practices (Harkness & Super, 1996). As outlined in the introduction, cultural practices may represent "a recurrent sequence of activities...engaged in by most or many members of a cultural group and that carry with them normative expectations about how things should be done" (p. 6).

Further, as parents are enmeshed with the child and serve not only as their caretakers but also as their socializers and regulators, responses on the measures of global beliefs and child rearing strategies may have been seen as a reflection of parents' competence as parents, resulting in parents providing socially desirable answers, in that they responded through a filter of what would make them "look good". Parents often do not want others aware of their true feelings – their own prejudices when judging their children.

Although parental agreement on parents' global beliefs may not be as relevant to the child's development in pre-adolescence, this study did make us aware that parental agreement on Operant Learning, in relation to the child's personal-social development, did relate to fathers adopting an authoritative parenting style. This may reflect the importance of including both mothers and fathers in understanding parents' perception of children's personal-social development.

The second aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between parents' agreement on their specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative). Hypothesis 2a predicted that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, in relation to the child's internal factors as being a cause of their aggressive behavior, would be more likely to use an authoritarian child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, in relation to external factors as being the cause of their child's aggressive behavior, would be more likely to endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy.

Further, Hypothesis 2b proposed that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to their child's prosocial behavior, and who attribute

high competence and responsibility to their child in being able to control his/her own behavior, would be more likely to endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy.

Conversely, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, in relation to the child's prosocial behavior and who attribute little competence and responsibility to their child in their inability to control his/her own behavior, would be more likely to endorse an authoritarian child rearing strategy.

Neither Hypotheses 2a nor 2b were supported. Agreement between mothers and fathers on their specific beliefs, in relation to the cause of the child's behavior and the child's perception of being able to control his/her own behavior, did not significantly predict mothers' and fathers' authoritarian or authoritative child rearing strategies. This finding is surprising since Mills and Rubin (1990) did find that parents of 4 year old children, who were in agreement on their causal attributions with regards to their children's display of aggression were also in agreement on their choice of child rearing strategies. However, methodological differences between the study by Mills and Rubin (1990) and the current study may account for this discrepancy. Although the study by Mills and Rubin (1990) and the present study both provided parents with hypothetical incidents describing children perpetrating acts, Mills and Rubin directly asked parents to verbally explain the child's behavior whereas in the present study parents were asked to respond to questions on a Likert scale. A study by Johnston, Reynolds, Freeman, and Geller (1998) showed how these two procedures may differ. Johnson et al. (1998) compared parents' responses of their causal attributions with open-ended questions as well as with a more traditional Likert-type measure and found that each contributed unique information concerning parents' causal reasoning. What the authors suggest is that traditional measures

(Likert-type scales) may constrain parents to think of and make ratings for a single cause. This may have relevance to the findings in this study. According to Johnston et al. (1998), when parents were allowed to provide attributional responses to open-ended questions, their responses typically allowed for multiple causal factors, however, these factors often proved contradictory.

In addition, in the present study, parents may not have related to the hypothetical vignettes that were developed for this study to measure specific beliefs. If this was the case, it would be difficult to confidently predict the relationship between parents' explanations for their child's behavior and their child rearing strategies, which may also account for the results in this study.

Although Hypotheses 2a and 2b were not supported, in examining the differences between mothers and fathers, with regards to their perception of the causality, controllability, and changeability of their child's peer-directed, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior, mothers and fathers differed in their perception of their child's ability to control their adult-directed aggression, whereby mothers perceived their child as being less able to control their adult-directed aggression than did fathers. According to Dix, Ruble, Grusec, and Nixon (1986), if parents infer that the child's behavior is controlled by external factors, they will perceive the effects of children's behavior to be unintended, reflecting developmental or situational constraints on children's control over behavior. As mothers in this study perceived their child as being less able to control their adult-directed aggression than did mothers, this may suggest that fathers believe that at pre-adolescence children have acquired the ability to control their own behavior

with regards to adults. This may subsequently have an impact on parents' child rearing practices, in that, fathers may be less likely to intervene when a situation with an adult (i.e. teacher) arises.

The findings from hypothesis 2b also showed that fathers judged that they would be more able to change their daughter's prosocial behavior than did mothers. This may validate the findings by Eisenberg (1990) who reported that fathers feel that they contribute to the child's upbringing and therefore feel they can more readily change the child's prosocial behavior. The results may also demonstrate that gender differences may reflect parents' conceptions of what boys and girls are supposed to be like, rather than how they actually behave (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998). The importance of prosocial behavior, therefore, is shown by parents to their children when they emphasize politeness and prosocial behavior more for their daughters than for their sons (Power & Parke, 1986; Power & Shanks, 1989).

When conducting the hierarchical multiple regression analyses with regards to parents' specific beliefs, the child's gender proved to be the only significant predictor of parents' child rearing strategies. As reflected in Table 5, the results suggest that mothers and fathers were more likely to be authoritative with their sons than with their daughters, however, they did not differ in their authoritarian parenting with their sons or their daughters. The finding that parents tend to be more authoritative with their sons than with their daughters contradicts previous findings, in that, parents more often use power-assertion, physical punishment, and verbal hostility more frequently with sons than with daughters (Lytton & Romney, 1991; Siegal, 1987).

There may be several reasons why mothers and fathers would be more authoritative with their sons than with their daughters. The finding may attest to socio-ecological factors with regards to parental beliefs and socialization strategies. With respect to the middle-class socioeconomic status of the present sample, mothers and fathers may be more educated with regards to theories of child rearing and may be more cognizant of their own socialization practices being mirrored in their sons. As typically boys are more aggressive than girls (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1980), parents may be aware that parenting with an authoritarian style may result in frustration and anger in their sons, which may lead to further aggression. Therefore, parents may opt for authoritative parenting with their sons, as children of authoritative parents are better able to control their aggressive urges.

The third hypothesis predicted that parental agreement on global beliefs and specific beliefs would be related to parental agreement on child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative). In fact, parental agreement on the global beliefs subscales, in relation to parental agreement on the specific beliefs measure, did not predict mothers' and fathers' agreement on authoritarian or authoritative child rearing strategies. Results, however, did indicate that the more parents disagreed on Constructivist beliefs (a belief that children actively construct their knowledge of the world and build their cognitive structures through their activities) and Operant Learning (a belief that child's personality and learning as affected by positive and negative consequences), the more parents were in disagreement on the use of authoritative child rearing. The findings also suggest that the greater the difference between mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, with regards to Operant Learning, the more likely were mothers and fathers to disagree on the use of authoritarian child

rearing as a parenting style. This finding proposes, to a certain extent, that parents who are in disagreement on their beliefs about their children's personal and social development were also in disagreement on the use of authoritative or authoritarian child rearing as a means of discipline.

Dix and Grusec (in Sigel, 1985) may have a clue about why agreement on global beliefs in relation to agreement on specific beliefs did not predict parents' child rearing strategies. In early adolescence, depending on parents' belief about the child's stage of development, mothers and fathers may differ in their beliefs about the child's personal-social development (global beliefs). For example, mothers' ideas about children may come from observing their own children, comparing their children to other children, talking to other parents, while fathers may use experiences such as teacher models they have been exposed to, notions of ability adopted from the workplace, trying out strategies and noting the results (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1990). Educational experience and the parenting experience may have differential effects for mothers and fathers. Furthermore, parents also may differ in the attributions (specific beliefs) they each make if they believe that factors controlling the child's behavior have changed or if they feel behavior is appropriate or inappropriate for their age. According to Collins, Schoenleber, and Westby (1987), beliefs about the age at which specific competencies and psychological orientations (global beliefs) should appear may engender parents' inappropriate or unrealistic expectancies. Mothers and fathers may then hold well-differentiated expectancies about the course of development in pre-adolescence (global beliefs) and make specific inferences (specific beliefs) about the implications of these changes for individual functioning.

The fourth hypothesis proposed that parental agreement on their global beliefs would relate to parents' perception of children having fewer behavioral problems. In turn, the fifth hypothesis predicted that parental agreement on specific beliefs with regards to the cause of the child's behavior, the child's ability to control his or her behavior, and parents' belief in their ability to change their children's peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior would relate to parents' perception of children having fewer behavioral problems.

The results demonstrated that differences between mothers' and fathers' scores on the subscales of the global beliefs measure and questions relating to specific beliefs were not significant predictors of mothers' or fathers' perception of the child's social behavior. Although the fourth hypothesis was not supported, studies by Block, Block, and Morrison (1981) demonstrated that parental agreement on parents' values about child rearing was related to children being more socialized, more in control of their impulses, with fewer behavioral problems than low agreement parents. The study by Block et al. (1981), however, was conducted with a sample of children that were between 3 and 7 years of age, far younger than the subjects in this research. In this study the weak relationship between parents' agreement on global beliefs, in relation to the child's social behavior, may have been due to the stage of development of the child under investigation. Whereas agreement between parents for younger children may be more influential and may predict children exhibiting fewer behavioral problems, children in pre-adolescence may encounter other influences (peers, other adults, teachers) that impact their social behavior. Furthermore, the lack of variability in the sample may explain the weak

relationships between parents' beliefs and their children's behavior. Very few of the children in this study were rated as having significant behavioral problems.

In addition, for the fifth hypothesis, agreement between parents on their specific beliefs, with regards to the causality, controllability, and parents' ability to change their children's peer-directed aggression, adult-directed aggression, and prosocial behavior did not significantly predict parents' perception of children having fewer behavioral problems. It may be that parents could not relate their experiences with their own children to the hypothetical vignettes that were outlined for this study.

The work by Dix, Ruble, Grusec, and Nixon (1986), as well as Normandeau and Larivee (1997), may provide some insight into why there was very little difference in parents' perception of their children's behavior. Considering the age of the children in this study, it may reflect that parents of children in this age group (pre-adolescence) may be more similar than different in their beliefs that children are responsible for their own behavior and that children are capable of self-regulation (self-management). Parents' beliefs may also not be related directly to the child's social behavior, but rather indirectly through "a variety of practices that are used as unfolding circumstances arise in the flow of parent-child interaction" (Youniss, 1994, p. 41). Although Hypothesis 3 did establish a link between the Operant Learning and Constructivist subscales of the global beliefs measure, in relation to parents' child rearing strategies, due to the limited sample size in the present study, parental agreement on global beliefs as affecting child outcomes indirectly, through their influence on parents' child rearing strategies, could not be investigated.

The final aim of this study (sixth hypothesis) was to examine children's perception of differences in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child-rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative), in relation to their parents' perception of the child's social behavior. It was suggested that children's perceived discrepancies in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies (authoritarian and authoritative) would have an impact on the child's social behavior, as perceived by their parents.

The results in this study demonstrate that, to a certain extent, differences in children's perception of mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, and authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies did prove to be significant predictors of dimensions of the child's social behaviors (anxious-depressed and aggressive behavior). Because mothers' and fathers' perception of their child's behaviour were so highly correlated (above $r = .6$), only analyses referring to mothers' perception of the child's behavior are being discussed here.

With regards to children's perception of their mothers' and fathers' beliefs, results did indicate that children judged their mothers' Constructivist and Attributional beliefs to be greater than their fathers' beliefs. This may relate to children being more aware of the views that mother's hold about their own personal-social development. It may also attest to the greater salience of mothers in the lives of their children and therein the child's perception that mothers have more direct experience with them. This ongoing interaction may broaden the child's awareness of their mothers' beliefs. Finally, the findings may also have been as a result of men and women differing in their role expectations and socialization for their children (McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992).

Children also differed in their perception of their parents' authoritarian and authoritative child rearing strategies, in that, children judged mothers to be more authoritarian and authoritative than their fathers. Although this may be a contradictory finding, a possible explanation for this finding may be that as mothers may spend more time with their children, and thus be available to not only discuss issues that are relevant as well as provide disciplinary measures, hence children may have the realization that mothers, when needed, may take on an authoritative parenting strategy and, at other times, as needed, an authoritarian parenting style.

When considering whether differences in the child's perception of his or her parents' specific beliefs, as related to the mother's perception of the child's social behavior, the results point to several findings. Children who perceived differences in their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs, with regards to how mothers perceived the cause and the child's ability to control his or her prosocial behavior, were rated by their parents as more anxious-depressed. Children who discern differences in their parents' beliefs may feel some ambiguity about their parents and this may be reflected in the children exhibiting symptoms of anxiety or depression. Cognitive theorists suggest that anxiety is maintained by thinking that one is in a terrible situation and helpless to change it (Rathus & Nevid, 1998).

Children who perceived differences in their mothers' and fathers' specific beliefs, in relation to parents' being able to change their child's adult-directed aggression, resulted in mothers' perception of their children as exhibiting more aggressive behavior. Given a situation that deals with a child perpetrating an aggressive act directed towards an adult, children may be aware that their mothers and fathers differ in their perception of how they each would change the child's

behavior. How parents coordinate their roles may have a direct impact on their interactions with their children and such processes are likely to affect children's functioning outside the family (Lindsey & Mize, 2001). The child may exhibit aggressive behavior as they do not perceive uniformity nor consensus in their parents when they perpetrate an aggressive act. Children may sense that parents are inconsistent in their beliefs on how to change this behavior. The child's perception of his/her parents' reaction may breed confusion, frustration, and, in turn, aggression on the part of the child.

From an interdisciplinary perspective, several conclusions can be drawn from the findings in this study. According to Milkie, Simons, and Powell (1997), "sociologists' inattention to children's evaluation of familial relations is misguided because core assumptions of social psychological frameworks on socialization and social relations dictate that we attempt to understand the perspectives of all actions involved in role relationships. According to these social psychological frameworks, the subjective perception and evaluations of all participants in role relationships must be included because they may differ from one another in important ways" (p. 3). As shown in this study, in order to understand the family unit, children represent important participants in research. As well, this study reflects the cross-generational validity of reporting the children's perception of differences in parents' global beliefs and child rearing strategies and this may show how socialization practices are being transmitted and received by children.

As this study did not confirm that parents differed substantially on their global beliefs and specific beliefs, the results may validate that culture and the ethnic community may have served as a source of information about the facts of child

rearing, that is, what children are like at various ages, what parenting techniques work, and what goals parents should value (Goodnow, 1988). To reiterate, the assumptions and values in ethnotheories provide a frame of reference within which parents make decisions about how to socialize their children (Harkness & Super, 1996).

5.1. Implications

The goal of the present research was to investigate the relationship between parent agreement on global beliefs and specific beliefs, in relation to parents' child rearing strategies and, in turn, to the child's social behavior. This study adds to the research literature because it has provided the opportunity to integrate both parents in deriving unique information not always readily available from individual parental assessment. For example, the finding that parental agreement on Operant Learning was linked to father's authoritative child rearing demonstrates the importance of considering fathers when trying to understand parenting and child rearing. As pointed out, studies on parents' beliefs historically have had a strong concentration on mothers' beliefs only. Hirsjarvi and Perala-Littunen (2001) suggest that this may have something to do with researchers themselves, in their beliefs about Western culture "with its presently valued nuclear family ideology and myths of motherhood" (p. 111). Finally, to reiterate, in the words of Goodnow and Collins (1990) including fathers whenever possible may be a step towards "generalizability and social justice" (p. 157).

As well, Miller (1995), in his review on the attributions parents make for their children, reported that few studies have provided any information about

concordance between spouses. Although parental agreement on specific beliefs, in this study, did not predict parents' child rearing strategies, the analyses resulted in pertinent information, in that, fathers, more than mothers, were likely to believe that they could change their daughters' prosocial behavior and fathers, more so than mothers, felt that their children would be more able to control their aggression directed towards adults.

In turn, taking into consideration the child's perception of parents' beliefs and child rearing strategies has bearing on the family as being made up of multiple subsystems, a gestalt, such that individual and family functioning can never be understood independently of those systems (Minuchin, 1985). The perception that one generation has of another is important as it has a prominent place in accounting for socialization and family development (Minuchin, 1985). Several authors have alluded to the latter, in that children are influenced by their own perception of parental attitudes and behaviors rather than actual parental attitudes and behaviors as reported by their parents (Demo, Small, & Savin-Williams, 1987). Parental behaviors are also most likely to produce intended consequences only if they are perceived or defined similarly by the child and the parent (Tein, Roosa, & Michaels, 1994).

With regards to the model established for this study, the model provided a framework to bring together a variety of constellations, in order to bridge the gap between several different but interconnected variables in understanding the relationship between parental agreement and its impact on child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior. The objective was to develop a further understanding of the processes between families. The part of the model that was confirmed, to a

certain extent, was the relationship between parental agreement on global beliefs on the Operant Learning subscale in relation to fathers' authoritative child rearing.

Although the model proved useful in that it considered mothers', fathers' and children's views, this model could be modified in several ways. First, by integrating a behavioral measure that could also be completed by the children, as well as their parents, and then investigating how parents' responses and the child's self-reports are similar or different with regards to the perception of the children's behavior. Further, rather than only looking at parental agreement, the model could propose that, individually, mothers' and fathers' beliefs could be investigated as a predictor of their child rearing strategies and as reflected in the child's social behavior. This would prove interesting as fathers' beliefs would be investigated as well. Finally, parenting is not only affected by the parents' cognitive state and the characteristics of the particular child, but also by the parents' affective state. Therefore, further research could focus not only on parental cognitions but also how parents' emotions play a role in the process.

The framework of the model for the present study could also be modified to consider inverse relationships between the hypotheses being tested. The following summarizes each of the suggested relationships.

The first hypothesis in this research proposed that parents who are in agreement on their global beliefs would be more likely to use an authoritative rather than an authoritarian child rearing strategy. An inverse relationship could also be investigated, in that, parents who are more authoritative than authoritarian in their child rearing strategies would be more likely to be in agreement on their global beliefs.

With regards to the two hypotheses examining the relationship between parents' specific beliefs and child rearing strategies, it was suggested that parents in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to internal factors being a cause of their child's aggression, would be more likely to use an authoritarian child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to external factors being the cause for their child's aggressive behavior, would be more likely to endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy. Inverse relationships of the latter could propose that parents who endorse an authoritarian child rearing strategy would be more likely to agree that it is internal factors that cause the child to be aggressive, whereas, parents who use an authoritative child rearing strategy would be more likely to agree that external factors causes the child's aggressive behavior.

It was also proposed that parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, in relation to their child's prosocial behavior, and who attribute high competence and responsibility to their child in being able to control his/her own behavior, would be more likely to endorse an authoritative child rearing strategy. On the other hand, parents who are in agreement on their specific beliefs, with regards to their child's prosocial behavior, and who attribute little competence and responsibility to their child in being able to control his/her own behavior, would be more likely to endorse an authoritarian child rearing strategy. Inverse relationships of the latter hypotheses could be examined, in that, parents who use an authoritative child rearing strategy would be more likely to agree that their child is competent and responsible in being able to control his/her own behavior. However, parents who endorse an authoritarian child rearing strategy would be more likely to agree that

their child is not competent nor responsible in being able to control his/her own behavior.

Finally, it was hypothesized that if children perceive differences in their mothers' and fathers' global beliefs, specific beliefs, or child rearing strategies, this would have an impact on the parents' perception of the child's social behavior. An inverse relationship of the latter could also be investigated within the proposed research model, in that, children who exhibit difficult behaviors (anxious-depressed or anxious) would be more likely engender parents to have differences in their global beliefs, specific beliefs, and child rearing strategies.

Studies such as the current one could have an important impact on parent education. Although there were few significant results gleaned from the present study, this research nevertheless still promotes the importance of examining parent beliefs. As suggested earlier, as many parenting cognitions are automatic, rather than operative at a conscious level, mothers and fathers becoming more aware of each other's beliefs may produce changes that would benefit their children. Further, Holden and Miller (1999) proposed that beliefs may serve as a guiding principle, in that, if a belief is sufficiently strong, such that it becomes a guiding principle or it colors the quality of interactions with the child, then that cognition provides a potent determinant for similarity. In other words, figuring out the assumptions, beliefs, and rules of one generation may help to transmit these beliefs in socializing their children and subsequent generations.

5.2. Limitations of the Present Study and Directions for Future Research

A shortcoming of the current study is the relatively small sample,

constraining the power of the analyses and limiting the conclusions that can be drawn. As well, the study focused only on intact, white families with pre-adolescents drawn from one ethnic group, from middle to upper social class. All these constraints may account for the lack of variation between mothers and fathers. Similarity in parenting may have been a result of the homogeneous sample. Baldwin (1955, cited in Youniss, 1994), however, does suggest that child rearing practices be studied “within a culture” and examined as patterns that “commonly occur within the culture” as child rearing practices are fundamental to the maintenance of a culture and its’ beliefs. Further, according to Holden and Miller (1999), “membership in a social class, ethnic, or a religious group provides implicit or explicit models of child rearing and constraints on individual variation in parenting” (p. 223).

A replication of this study with a larger, more heterogeneous sample, with different demographic characteristics (i.e. lower socioeconomic status, other ethnic origins) could also make contributions to research. A study could compare parents from a higher socioeconomic status with parents from a lower socioeconomic status in order to examine how parents from different social strata differ in their global and specific beliefs in relation to their child rearing strategies, and in turn, to the child’s social behavior. This type of study may also show us how parents transmit their beliefs to their children.

Another type of comparative study could consider the differences between Sephardic and Ashkenazi Jews and, therein, provide for a more heterogeneous sample. In contrast to Ashkenazi cultures, whose origins were from Eastern European countries, the Sephardic religious and cultural life were developed in

concert with the Arab cultures (i.e. North Africa). The tenor of Sephardic life is therefore fundamentally different from that of Ashkenazim. Historically, differences exist between these two groups because on their arrival in North America, Sephardic Jews made an effort not to be absorbed within Ashkenazi Schools and synagogues and by doing that inevitably lose their own history, cultural practices, and traditions. As within other communities, there are many synagogues and schools in the Montreal area that still serve separately the Sephardic and Ashkenazi communities, as a means of helping them to uniquely frame and understand their own Jewish identity.

An exploration of parents in these two groups could provide new insight into parents' beliefs with regards to their own unique historical, cultural, and religious traditions that reflect their Jewish diversity. For examples, questions could examine how parents within these two groups are similar or different with regards to their child rearing goals and strategies or how these communities differ with regards to fostering religious practices and traditions and trying to maintain their own unique identities.

Methodological issues may also constitute an additional set of limitations within this study. For example, the subscales of the global beliefs measure may have been too similar, which may have proven difficult in discriminating between parents' beliefs. For example, both Social Learning and Operant Learning theories assume that it is the environment (or the external) that shapes learning. Operant Learning determines that a response will occur depending on its consequences and Social Learning assumes that behavior is maintained through observation and imitation of others' behaviors. With regards to the specific beliefs measure, with the use of

hypothetical vignettes, parents were asked to respond to questions about these hypothetical vignettes that may not necessarily have been representative of situations or behaviors that parents have actually encountered with their own children. Finally, social desirability may have also been a factor in that parents may have seen their responses on the measures as a reflection of their competence as parents.

With regards to methodological limitations, as stated earlier, the use of a quantitative procedure (paper-and-pencil), invariably, may not have been able to truly capture the parents' beliefs about their child rearing. It is therefore reasonable to suggest that a combination of a paper-and-pencil procedure, in addition to an interview, could provide a better understanding of parents' beliefs and their child rearing strategies.

Is agreement between mothers and fathers on their beliefs and child rearing strategies so important? This can be viewed in two ways. On the one hand, while bitter and acrimonious confrontations between parents can be alarming to children, it is perhaps really not necessary for parents to agree with each other on all matters. It may be more important for parents to coordinate their roles as situations with their children arise. Further, parents' awareness of their own beliefs (schemas) about child rearing and being aware of their children's thoughts may result in greater coherence in the family.

Although the present study did not find that parental agreement was a strong predictor of parents' child rearing strategies and the child's social behavior, studies, however, do suggest that high agreement between parents indicates more adaptive functioning than low agreement, which often is related to conflict and familial disorganization (Simons, McCluskey, & Mullett, 1985). As suggested by Minuchin

(1985), when parents have major disagreements over parenting, less effective parenting is often the result. Major parental disagreement may serve as a source of mixed messages and confusion that may undermine the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors parents hope to teach their children. Most revealing is the study by Deal, Halverson, and Wampler (1989) wherein parents who were in agreement were most often characterized as having positive interactions between themselves and their children, as well as having a greater ability to confront problems in a positive way, more effective communication, and the use of rational discipline techniques.

In light of the results of the present study, parental agreement may be a critical factor in child rearing when children are younger as evident in the research studies. By pre-adolescence, the link between parental agreement and child rearing strategies may not be as important, however, this still mitigates the importance of parents presenting a unified front. A study done with sixteen year olds, at a later stage of development than subjects in this study, found that children's perception of incongruent parenting patterns was found to be associated with lower self-esteem, school adaptation, and school achievements. Parents therefore need to present to their children a unified front because when children are witness to mothers and fathers undermining each other, the children may get caught in the crossfire. For example, conflicts inevitably arise between mothers and fathers over how to discipline, because each of their approaches is influenced by deep-seated factors such as how they were disciplined as children and their individual temperaments. It would seem that these irreconcilable differences need to be addressed. If not, research indicates that there are serious repercussions for the children and the family.

Finally, the great Russian novelist, Tolstoy, summed up parenting and child rearing when he claimed that, “all happy families resemble one another; every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way”.

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APPENDIX A: PHASE 1

LETTER FROM SCHOOL TO PARENTS

Hebrew
Foundation
School



Ecole
de Formation
Hebraïque

2 Hope Drive • Dollard Des Ormeaux, Quebec H9A 2V5 • 684-6270

December 1, 1999

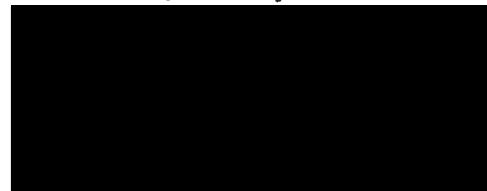
Dear Parents:

I would like to bring to your attention the attached letter regarding a research project which is being conducted by Zina Suissa through the University of Montreal, School of Psychoeducation. Our school strongly believes in supporting this kind of research effort and over the past few years we have participated in a number of studies which have yielded important results. I have reviewed Mrs. Suissa's project and wholeheartedly endorse it. We encourage your family's participation and, as the attached letter indicates, the interviews will be conducted without a disruption to your child's instruction.

Please give careful consideration to your child's participation. The nature of the study is non-invasive and the results will certainly be beneficial to furthering our understanding of child rearing.

For further information, please call Zina Suissa at 421-5485 as per the letter attached.

Sincerely,



Rabbi Zev Lanton
Principal

/hm

ref: lanton/suissa ref



HEBREW ACADEMY OF CONGREGATION BETH TIKVAH
136 Westpark Blvd., Dollard des Ormeaux, QC H9A 2K2

November 30th 1999

Dear Parents:

We would like to bring to your attention the attached letter regarding a research project which is being conducted by Zina Suissa through the University of Montreal, School of Psychoeducation.

Our school strongly believes in supporting this kind of research effort which we hope will yield important results.

We have reviewed Mrs. Suissa's project and wholeheartedly endorse it. We encourage your family's participation and as the attached letter indicates, the interviews will be conducted without a disruption to your child's instruction.

Please give careful consideration to your child's participation. The nature of the study is non-invasive and the results will certainly be beneficial to furthering our understanding of child rearing.

For further information, please call Zina Suissa at 421-5485 as per the letter attached.


Rabbi Dr. Mordecai E. Zeitz


Miri Flakowicz
Principal

APPENDIX B: GENERAL INFORMATION LETTER



Study on Parenting and Child Rearing Practices

To the Parents of Hebrew Foundation School,

As you well know, parents bring their own beliefs, goals, and values to the task of child rearing. As a doctoral candidate, I am conducting a research project examining the relationship of parenting values and goals to their child rearing practices. My thesis advisor is Dr. Sylvie Normandeau, Professor at the Université de Montréal, School of Psychoeducation.

This study has been endorsed by the school in recognition of the potential value of such a research project. In addition, the Fonds pour la Formation de Chercheurs et l'Aide à la Recherche (FCAR) of the Government of Quebec has honored me with a grant in recognition of the importance of such a study.

As a member of this community, I feel it is a privilege to be able to conduct such a study with the parents and children in the fifth and sixth grades of the Hebrew Foundation School and Hebrew Academy. For your information, I am a licensed psychologist and a member in good standing of the Order of Psychologists of Quebec.

As the family is a system that is mutually interdependent and in order to make the results of the study as meaningful as possible, I invite both parents and your child to participate. It is not my goal to disrupt your child during his/her classes or activities. The research will be conducted either in the evening at the school or in the privacy of your home and will take approximately one and a half hours to complete. Both you and your child can withdraw from the study at any time.

In return for your participation, you will be offered to attend several prominent guest speakers discussing issues prevalent to children in the transitional years to high school. The latter will be of no charge to you.


.../2

I greatly appreciate your collaboration with this important project. Please return the attached Consent Form and General Information Questionnaire duly signed by both parents and your child in the addressed stamped envelope. In addition, should you want to know the results of this study, please complete the attached form and the results will be made available to you once the research has been completed.


Please allow me to assure you that all the information that will be gathered in this study will only be used for research purposes and will be treated with the strictest of confidence. If you have any concerns or require any further information, please feel free to contact me, Zina Suissa, at (514) 421-5485.

Thank you very much for your consideration of this project.

Sincerely,



Zina Suissa, M.Ed.
Psychologist
Doctoral Candidate
Universite de Montreal



Sylvie Normandeau, Ph.D.
Thesis Advisor
Professor, School of Psychoeducation
Universite de Montreal



Study on Parenting and Child Rearing Practices

To the Parents of Hebrew Academy,

As you well know, parents bring their own beliefs, goals, and values to the task of child rearing. As a doctoral candidate, I am conducting a research project examining the relationship of parenting values and goals to their child rearing practices. My thesis advisor is Dr. Sylvie Normandeau, Professor at the Université de Montréal, School of Psychoeducation.

This study has been endorsed by the school in recognition of the potential value of such a research project. In addition, the Fonds pour la Formation de Chercheurs et l'Aide à la Recherche (FCAR) of the Government of Quebec has honored me with a grant in recognition of the importance of such a study.

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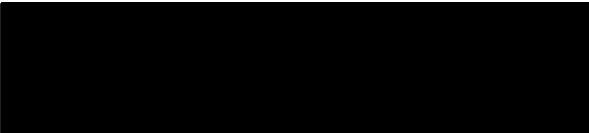
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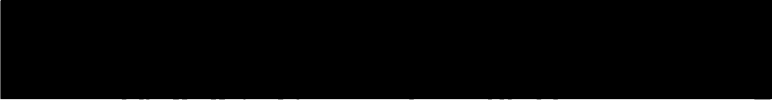
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Thank you very much for your consideration of this project.

Sincerely,



Zina Suissa, M.Ed.
Psychologist
Doctoral Candidate
Universite de Montreal



Sylvie Normandeau, Ph.D.
Thesis Advisor
Professor, School of Psychoeducation
Universite de Montreal

APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITE DE MONTREAL

**Study on
Parenting and Child Rearing Practices
Consent Form**

I _____ and _____ agree to participate in the
(Father: please print) (Mother: please print)
project on Parenting and Child Rearing Practices conducted by Zina Suissa, M.Ed. and
Dr. Sylvie Normandeau of the Universite de Montreal.

(Signature of Father)

(Telephone Number)

(Signature of Mother)

(Telephone Number)

I _____ agree to participate in the project on Parenting and
(Student: please print)
Child Rearing Practices conducted by Zina Suissa, M.Ed. and Dr. Sylvie Normandeau of
the Universite de Montreal.

(Signature of Student)

(School and Grade)

____ Yes, I would be interested in knowing the results of this study.
____ No, I would not be interested in knowing the results of this study.

- Please note that for families who specify "Yes" to the above, the findings of the study will be mailed directly to their home.

APPENDIX D: PERTINENT INFORMATION DETAILS

**Study on
Parenting and Child Rearing Practices
General Information Questionnaire**

Confidential

To be completed by Mother and Father

Please complete the following questions.

1. Including yourself, how many children and adults live in the household? _____

2. Is mother employed? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____
 Is mother attending school? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____

Is father employed? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____
 Is father attending school? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____

3. How long have you been married with your current spouse? _____

4. For each person in your home, could you please tell me their name, age, gender, and relationship to you.

	Name	Age	Gender	Relationship to you
Yourself	_____	_____	_____	_____
Person 2	_____	_____	_____	_____
Person 3	_____	_____	_____	_____
Person 4	_____	_____	_____	_____
Person 5	_____	_____	_____	_____
Person 6	_____	_____	_____	_____
Person 7	_____	_____	_____	_____

5. Phone number(s) and address where you can be reached. _____

APPENDIX E: PHASE II

GENERAL INFORMATION SHEET

General Information

Father's Name _____ I.D. No. _____

Mother's Name _____ I.D. No. _____

Child's Name _____ I.D. No. _____

Name of your child's school _____

How many children and adults live in the household? _____

Mother:

Are you employed? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____

Are you attending school? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____

What is your occupation? _____

What is the highest level of your education? _____

Father:

Are you employed? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____

Are you attending school? _____ Full-time or Part-time _____

What is your occupation? _____

What is the highest level of your education? _____

Where would you place your combined family income?

From \$20,000 to \$29,999	1
From \$30,000 to \$39,999	2
From \$40,000 to \$49,999	3
From \$50,000 to \$59,999	4
From \$60,000 to \$69,999	5
From \$70,000 to \$79,999	6
- \$80,000 and up	

Father: Is this your first marriage? _____ Mother: Is this your first marriage? _____

How long have you been married with your current spouse? _____

Are the children a product of this marriage? _____

Phone number(s) and address where you can be reached:

APPENDIX F: MEASURES

UNIVERSITE DE MONTREAL

Study on

Parenting and Child Rearing Practices

Mother/Father

Once again, thank you for participating in this important study. Before completing the attached questionnaires, please read the following.

In each of the questionnaires, you will find a notation on the top right hand corner indicating I.D. Number, Name, Spouse's Name. Please note that once you have completed the questionnaires, your name will be voided and an identification number will take its place. This is to ensure anonymity and the utmost confidentiality.

As the research is concerned with group effects, all data is examined for the group as a whole. No individual scores will be kept on record by family names.

Mother

I.D. No. _____

Name _____

Spouse's Name _____

**Personal-Social Development Questionnaire
(McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 1992)**

Please indicate the degree to which you think each of the following statements is true of children's personal-social development.

- 1) strongly disagree
- 2) disagree
- 3) moderately disagree
- 4) moderately agree
- 5) agree
- 6) strongly agree

- 1. Children's social and personality development depends on their level of thinking about their social experiences. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 2. Children will behave toward others the same way they see their parents behave toward others. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 3. Almost from birth, differences in children's personalities can be seen. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 4. Children formulate ideas that help them explain and predict events in their world. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 5. Children learn that being kind and nice to others brings its own rewards. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 6. Little girls want to be like their mothers and little boys like their fathers. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 7. A child who expects to succeed is more likely to do well than a child who expects to do poorly. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 8. Children imitate people whom they admire. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 9. Without adult control, children would be naturally wild and unruly. 1 2 3 4 5 6

- 1) strongly disagree
- 2) disagree
- 3) moderately disagree
- 4) moderately agree
- 5) agree
- 6) strongly agree

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. Children mentally organize their experiences to make sense of their social world. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. Children learn social behaviors because they imitate grown men and women. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. Children seek explanations for other people's behaviors. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. Time-out (i.e. removing the child to a quiet place) teaches that certain behaviors will not be allowed or rewarded. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. Children learn masculine and feminine behavior through imitation of men and women. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. Some children are more sociable than others by nature. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. Children's early ideas about people and relationships change because of experiences that contradict those ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. Children have basic drives that they need to learn to control. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. Children first develop a close relationship with their mothers and later their fathers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. As children have social experiences, they form and revise their conceptions of themselves. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 20. Children's preferences for certain kinds of toys and activities develop no matter how they are raised. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. Boys are more active than girls from birth. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 22. Praise helps develop pleasant behavior and personality in a child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

- 1) strongly disagree
- 2) disagree
- 3) moderately disagree
- 4) moderately agree
- 5) agree
- 6) strongly agree

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 23. Personality is largely inborn. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 24. Children's ability to interpret other people's personalities and actions increases with age. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 25. Children are aggressive, but learn self-control through their parents' enforcement of social values. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 26. Children's feelings of pride or failure determine whether they will try new activities or ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 27. Children take in much of what they see and the behavior occurs later in play or interactions with other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 28. Sex hormones may be important in producing differences in boys' and girls' behaviors. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 29. Firm enforcement that backs up rules leads to good behavior. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 30. Children reach a stage where they want to be like their mothers or like their fathers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 31. Children conclude that they are a certain type of person by comparing their behavior to that of other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 32. Children generate their own ideas about appropriate behavior for males and females. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 33. Children show the personality traits they are told they possess. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 34. Children, as they grow, develop an appreciation that other people have perspectives and feelings different from their own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

- 1) strongly disagree
- 2) disagree
- 3) moderately disagree
- 4) moderately agree
- 5) agree
- 6) strongly agree

35. Much of a child's behavior is caused by inner forces of which they are not aware. 1 2 3 4 5 6
36. Direct rewards and punishments are responsible for children's knowledge of appropriate conduct. 1 2 3 4 5 6
37. Children learn that certain behaviors are appropriate for girls and others are appropriate for boys by watching adults. 1 2 3 4 5 6
38. Children create theories about themselves and others in order to make sense out of what they see. 1 2 3 4 5 6
39. Unacceptable behaviors become less likely if rewards or privileges are taken away when those behaviors occur. 1 2 3 4 5 6
40. Children behave well to please their parents and other authorities. 1 2 3 4 5 6
41. Experiences that are just a little more advanced than the child's current level of understanding provide "food for thought" for the child. 1 2 3 4 5 6
42. Children develop ideas about social relationships through play with peers. 1 2 3 4 5 6
43. Children identify with a parent because they perceive that parent as powerful. 1 2 3 4 5 6
44. Children will copy complex behaviors of others simply because it is fun. 1 2 3 4 5 6
45. Children form ideas about the kind of person they are, based on judgments about other peoples' behaviors toward them. 1 2 3 4 5 6

- 1) strongly disagree
- 2) disagree
- 3) moderately disagree
- 4) moderately agree
- 5) agree
- 6) strongly agree

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 46. Children will copy other people who are successful or are rewarded for their performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 47. Few differences in personality or social development are biologically rooted. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 48. Girls like different toys and activities than boys. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 49. Sex hormones may play a role in differences in children's behavior. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 50. Children differ in their inborn motivation to master activities or ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 51. Children learn that certain behaviors are appropriate through their observation of skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 52. Personality characteristics have a strong genetic component. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 53. Children's behavior is guided by the consequences they anticipate for their actions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Mother

I.D. No. _____

Name _____

Spouse's Name _____

Date _____

**Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR; J.H.Block, 1965)
(adapted by Kochanska, Kuczynski, and Radke-Yarrow, 1989)**

Please indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true of yourself with regards to child rearing.

- 1) Not at all descriptive of me.
- 2) Quite undescriptive of me.
- 3) Fairly undescriptive of me.
- 4) Fairly descriptive of me.
- 5) Quite descriptive of me.
- 6) Highly descriptive of me.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him/her to express them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. If my child gets into trouble, I expect him/her to handle the problem by him/herself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I feel a child should be given comfort and understanding when he/she is scared or upset. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I try to keep my child from playing rough games or doing things where he/she might get hurt. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. I believe physical punishment to be the best way of disciplining. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. I express affection by hugging, kissing, and holding my child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. I usually take into account my child's preferences when making plans for the family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

- 1) Not at all descriptive of me.
- 2) Quite un-descriptive of me.
- 3) Fairly un-descriptive of me.
- 4) Fairly descriptive of me.
- 5) Quite descriptive of me.
- 6) Highly descriptive of me.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. I let my child make many decisions for him.herself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. I do not allow my child to say bad things about his/her teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. I teach my child that in one way or another punishment will find him/her when he/she is bad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. I do not allow my child to get angry with me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. I am easy going and relaxed with my child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. I talk it over and reason with my child when he/she misbehaves. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. I joke and play with my child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. I give my child a good many duties and family responsibilities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. My child and I have warm, intimate times together. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. I have strict, well-established rules for my child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 20. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, and to question things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. I believe in praising a child when he/she is good and think it gets better results than punishing him/her when he/she is bad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 22. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate him/her when he/she tries or accomplishes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 23. I encourage my child to talk about his/her troubles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 24. I believe children should not have secrets from their parents. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

- 1) Not at all descriptive of me.
- 2) Quite un-descriptive of me.
- 3) Fairly un-descriptive of me.
- 4) Fairly descriptive of me.
- 5) Quite descriptive of me
- 6) Highly descriptive of me.

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25. I teach my child to keep control of his/her feelings at all times. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 26. When I am angry with my child, I let him/her know it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 27. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 28. I teach my child that he/she is responsible for what happens to him/her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 29. I do not allow my child to question my decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 30. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he/she misbehaves. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 31. I want my child to be independent of me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 32. I make sure I know where my child is and what he/she is doing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 33. I instruct my child not to get dirty while he/she is playing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 34. I control my child by warning him/her about the bad things that can happen to him/her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 35. I believe it is unwise to let children play a lot by themselves without supervision from grownups. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Mother
Father

Name: _____
I.D. No. _____

Your daughter/son is playing a board game with a friend. Your daughter/son, having considerable experience in playing this game, easily wins each game. Your daughter/son notices that her/his friend is feeling sad at continuously losing and so she/he allows her/his friend to win the last game that they play. Your daughter/son later reveals to you that they had purposely decided to let the friend win that final game.

Identify one major characteristic of your child or the situation that would explain why your child behaved in the way that she/he did.....**BEING CONSIDERATE**.....

Please circle one number on each scale that reflects your perception of this situation.

a) Is the cause (**being considerate**) due to something about your child or is it due to other people or circumstances?

	Totally due to others.....	Sometimes due to others.....	Sometimes due to my child.....	Totally due to my child				
Totally due to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Totally due to my child

b) In the future, will this cause (**being considerate**) still be there again?

	Never.....	Sometimes.....	Always					
Will never be present	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Will always be present

c) Does this cause (**being considerate**) affect only this type of situation or influences other areas of your child's life?

	This situation.....	Some situations.....	All situations					
Only this situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	All situations

d) Is this cause (**being considerate**) controllable or uncontrollable by your child?

	Uncontrollable by my child		Somewhat ...controllable by..... my child			Controllable by my child		
Uncontrollable by my child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Controllable by my child

e) As a parent, is it possible to change the cause (**being considerate**) of this behavior?

	Impossible to change.....		Somewhat able to change.....			Easy to change		
Impossible to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Easy to change

f) Does this behavior correspond to what you would expect of your child in a similar situation?

	I would expect it.....		I would somewhat expect it.....			Never expect it... I would be surprised		
I would expect it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I would be surprised

g) Does your child think this behavior is acceptable or unacceptable?

	She/he thinks it is unacceptable.....		Somewhat acceptable.....			She/he thinks it is acceptable		
She/he thinks it is unacceptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	She/he thinks it is acceptable

Mother

I.D. No. _____
Name _____

In the following, you will read several descriptions of situations that involve children. Imagine that the child being referred to in each scenario is your child, your son or daughter, that is a participant in this study.

Your son/daughter has just arrived at a party with his/her best friend and does not know anyone else at the party. Without any warning, the friend leaves your son/daughter and walks to another area of the room striking up a conversation with another person. After waiting a long while, your son/daughter walks over to his/her friend and says, "How could you be such a retard! Leaving me alone like that! Would you like it if I did that to you?" Without waiting for a reply, your son/daughter then storms out of the house.

Identify one major characteristic of your child or the situation that would explain why your child behaved in the way that he/she did _____

Please circle one number on the scale that reflects your perception of this situation.

a) Is the cause due to something about your child or is it due to other people or circumstances?

Totally due to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Totally due to my child
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------------

b) In the future, will the cause still be there again?

Will never be present	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Will always be present
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------------------

c) Does this cause affect only this type of situation or influence the other areas of your child's life?

Only this situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	All situations
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

d) Is this cause controllable or uncontrollable by your child?

Uncontrollable by my child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Controllable by my child
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------

e) As a parent, is it possible for you to change the cause of this behavior?

Impossible to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Easy to change
----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

f) Does this behavior correspond to what you would expect of your child in a similar situation?

I would expect it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I would be surprised
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------------

g) Does your child think that this behavior is acceptable or unacceptable?

She/he thinks it is unacceptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	She/he thinks it is acceptable
-------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------------

Mother

I.D. _____
Name _____

For many weeks your son/daughter has been anticipating attending a rock concert with his/her three best friends. Your son/daughter has purchased all 4 tickets with his/her own money. The evening of the concert arrives and your son/daughter waits anxiously for his/her friend's parents to pick him/her up but they do not arrive. Your son/daughter calls his/her friend's home and the parents express their concern because their son/daughter has not called home in the last three hours. Without any hesitancy your son/daughter offers to go look for his/her friend knowing full well that he/she may miss the concert. In addition, the money for the tickets cannot be reimbursed.

Identify one major characteristic of your child or the situation that would explain why your child behaved in the way that she/he did _____

Please circle one number on the scale that reflects your perception of this situation.

a) Is the cause due to something about your child or is it due to other people or circumstances?

Totally due to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Totally due to your child
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------------------

b) In the future, will the cause still be there?

Will never be present	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Will always be present
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------------------

c) Does this cause affect only this type of situation or influence the other areas of your child's life?

Only this situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	All situations
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

d) Is this cause controllable or uncontrollable by your child?

Uncontrollable by my child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Controllable by my child
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------

e) As a parent, is it possible for you to change the cause of this behavior?

Impossible to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Easy to change
----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

f) Does this behavior correspond to what you would expect of your child in a similar situation?

I would expect it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I would be surprised
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------------

g) Does your child think that this behavior is acceptable or unacceptable?

She/he thinks it it is unacceptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	She/he thinks it is acceptable
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------------

Mother

I.D. No. _____
Name _____

You have been made aware that your daughter/son's friends got together for activities after school and that your daughter/son was left out. In the past your daughter/son has always been included in these activities. Your daughter/son suspects that it may be one of her/his close friends that put the others up to this. How could this be possible! They have known each other for such a long time. Your daughter/son decides to call this person to tell her/him exactly how she/he feels. The moment your daughter/son hears her/his voice on the other end of the phone, she/he blurts out, "You are such a loser! You are such a moron! You can be sure that the next time that we get together for activities, I will make sure that you are left out."

Identify one major characteristic of your child or the situation that would explain why your child behaved in the way that she/he did _____

Please circle one number on the scale that reflects your perception of this situation.

a) Is the cause due to something about your child or is it due to other people or circumstances?

Totally due to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Totally due to my child
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------------

b) In the future, will this cause still be there again?

Will never be present	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Will always be present
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------------------

c) Does this cause affect only this type of situation or influence the other areas of your child's life?

Only this situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	All situations
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

d) Is this cause controllable or uncontrollable by your child?

Uncontrollable by my child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Controllable by my child
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------

e) As a parent, is it possible for you to change the cause of this behavior?

Impossible to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Easy to change
----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

f) Does this behavior correspond to what you would expect of your child in a similar situation?

I would expect it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I would be surprised
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------------

g) Does your child think that this behavior is acceptable or unacceptable?

She/he thinks it it is unacceptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	She/he thinks it is acceptable
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------------------------------

