University College London

The Parenting Dimensions of British Pakistani and White Mothers of Primary School Children

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Abstract

Educational Psychologists (EPs) need to prepare to work with parents in line with the British Government's push towards providing universal support centred around schools, (Department for Education and Skills, [DfES] 2003). Moreover, studies in the USA have shown there to be a link between parenting styles/practices and children's social competence (Kennedy,1992). Without knowing whether these findings can be generalized to British populations, EPs will have limited guidance into planning and delivering parenting programmes. This study therefore sets out to investigate the parenting dimensions (styles and practices) of British Pakistani and White populations.

Thirty-four British Pakistani and 34 White mothers of primary aged children between the ages of 7 and 11, comprising equal numbers of males and females participated with English and Urdu versions of questionnaires being posted to their homes. Participants were recruited via their child's head teacher releasing the addresses of Pakistani and White mothers who had a child attending key stage 2 of the same school. Before the administration of the Parental Dimensions Inventory - Short Version (PDI-S), (Power, 2002), which was developed in the USA, it was piloted and adapted for use with British Asian and White populations. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Goodman, 1997), also completed by mothers, was used to assess children's social difficulties.

There were more similarities than differences between the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers. However, Pakistani mothers reported 'following through on discipline' more than White mothers. Responses to the PDI-S were not found to differ by child's gender.

In addition, the more Pakistani mothers reported employing the 'inconsistency' parenting dimension and White mothers reported 'letting the situation go', the more they reported their children had social difficulties. Implications for theory, research and EP practice are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1.1 Introduction

The British Government continues to place great importance on parenting education. The Every Child Matters Consultation paper outlined parenting and family support through universal services and compulsory action centred around schools, such as, parent information meetings and family learning programmes (DfES, 2003). More recently, Prime Minister Tony Blair in his January 2006 'respect action plan', unveiled plans for a new national parenting academy to be set up to train professionals on giving parents advice on managing their children (www.respect.gov.uk). Coupled with this is the recurring push for professionals to work in, 'partnership with parents'.

> *'It is essential that all professionals ...actively seek to work with parents and value the contribution they make'. (The Code of Practice - DfES, 2001, p.16).*

Parents themselves report wanting increased working between Educational Psychology Services (EPSs) and Parent Partnership Services to provide parent workshops. EPSs also report seeing a greater role for themselves in working with families, including undertaking home visits (Department for Education and Employment [DfEE], 2000).

Parent training has been recognized as one of the most effective approaches to preventing and reducing conduct problems (Brestan and Eyberg, 1998) and in order to deliver such programmes, EPs will need to develop their own

knowledge base and understanding of the implications of particular parenting dimensions on children and young people.

Further, EPs have a responsibility to extend their knowledge base of different ethnic groups. Researchers, for example, have described differences in parenting styles and practices across minority groups (Forehand and Kotchick, 1996), some of which will be discussed in more detail later in this paper. Many have also stressed the importance of addressing these differences when designing and implementing parenting programmes and have suggested that minority parents may not fare well in programmes that were originally validated with White samples (Forehand and Kotchick, 1996; Hill, Soriano, Chen and LaFromboise, 1994; Wood and Baker, 1999).

This chapter will consider the literature on the origins of parenting styles and discuss an alternative approach, namely the study of parenting dimensions. There will be an evaluation of some of the popular instruments employed by researchers to assess aspects of parenting and children's social behaviours. There will also be a review of the literature on differences in parenting styles and practices of minority ethnic groups, with some consideration of theories that have been advanced to explain these differences. Further, there will be a closer inspection of British parenting studies, with a focus on Asian populations and in particular Pakistanis.

1.2 Parenting styles and practices

The distinction between style and practice is relatively recent. Darling and Steinberg, (1993) argued that parenting practices were those techniques that

had, 'a direct effect on the development of specific child behaviours...and characteristics' (p.493). Practices are also defined as strategies undertaken by parents to achieve specific academic, athletic, or social competence goals in specific contexts and situations (Darling and Steinberg, 1993; Grusec and Goodnow, 1994). Darling and Steinberg, (1993) defined style as, 'a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviours are expressed...tone of voice, body language, inattention, bursts of temper and so on' (p.493). In summary, parenting practices encompass what parents do (e.g. hug, spank) and style implies how they do it (e.g. warmth or hostility). Mahtani Stewart and Bond (2002), argued against this distinction being drawn unless it was possible for all parenting styles to be measured without practice items on parenting instruments. However, it could also be argued that just because researchers have not yet managed to assess parenting styles and practices separately, does not necessarily mean that the distinction between the two is of no use.

1.3 Parenting styles and developmental outcomes

Researchers have attempted to identify the relationship between parenting styles and developmental outcomes since the 1950s, with the aim of establishing whether a particular parenting style was in some way more effective than another. The most influential and frequently cited model of parenting style was proposed by Baumrind (1966; 1967). Baumrind (1966) assessed parenting through direct observations of parents interacting with their children, questionnaires and interviews, resulting in her classifying parenting style into three categories: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive. A

revision of this categorization was suggested by Maccoby and Martin (1983) who argued for the need to distinguish between indulgent and neglectful parenting, both of whom were referred to as permissive by Baumrind (1966). This is a useful distinction, as essentially it captures two distinct types of parenting at opposite ends of the permissive parenting style continuum. This distinction refers to the tendency for parents to indulge their child with his or her every need on the one hand and giving them excessive freedom to make decisions, which they may struggle to make independently (neglectful), on the other.

According to Baumrind (1966, p.890), the authoritarian parent, 'values obedience and restricts autonomy'. These parents are seen to believe in strict adherence to rules, are unlikely to discuss rules with their children and emphasize discipline and obedience. Typically they are seen to score low on measures of parental warmth or responsiveness.

By contrast, the authoritative parent scores highly on both acceptance and control, retains, 'firm control at points of divergence, but recognizes the child's interests and special ways' (Baumrind, 1966, p.891). Rules are established, however they are subject to discussion and revision, based on the situation as well as the child's opinions. These parents give preference to explaining rules and helping their child to understand the reasons behind these rules.

Permissive parents are seen to engage in an indulgent style of parenting and are typically characterised by low demandingness and high responsiveness. These parents are warm and accepting but exercise little authority, make few

demands for mature behaviour and allow considerable self-regulation by the child.

Baumrind's (1967) early research identified the superior outcomes of authoritative parenting over authoritarian and permissive parenting, by showing that the most well socialized and independent pre-schoolers were raised in authoritative households. Most research has been found to be consistent with this finding and will not be reviewed in detail in this paper. Maccoby and Martin, (1983) for instance, found that children whose interactions with their mothers were warm and involving were more likely than other children to be socially competent and less likely to exhibit behaviour problems. Kennedy (1992) also found the mothers of popular children were more likely to teach their children about social skills, use less punishment and more reasoning or explanation in disciplining them. Dekovic and Janssens (1992) too found children who had experienced authoritarian parenting tended to be less popular and behaved less helpfully towards their peers. It can be seen that the effects of different parenting styles and practices have often been discussed in relation to associated differences in social competence. The definition of social competence will therefore be considered in more detail at this point.

It is often argued that much of the research on social competence lacks focus as the literature fails to provide a clear definition or common understanding of where social competence begins and ends. Many researchers consider social competence as an umbrella term covering a number of skills, including social skills. Gresham and Reschly (1986) view social competence as encompassing social skills and adaptive behaviour. In this context, social skills include

appropriate play behaviour and cooperativeness, expression of feelings, positive self-concept and conversational skills. Adaptive behaviour is seen to include language development, academic functioning, physical development and self-care skills and according to some researchers influence peer decisions relating to peer acceptance (Hortascu, 1994; Adams and Roopnarine, 1994). Recognition also needs to be given to the importance of non-social skills in achieving peer acceptance. Hops and Finch (1985) highlight that a child's ability to throw a ball well, (his or her motor skills) are among the leading predictors of acceptance in boys' groups. For the purpose of this thesis, social competence will be considered in terms of the child's social difficulties, covering a wide range of behaviours, including emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity, inattention and peer relationship problems.

The majority of research on social competence has focused on the behaviours or features leading to peer acceptance and rejection. It needs to be acknowledged that social competence has multiple roots and is not just the product of the parenting styles or practices to which children are subject. Other factors found to influence children's social competence include one's birth order (Abramovich, Corter, Pepler and Stanhope,1986), peer influences (Harris, 1998) and there being a significant inherited component in the origin of emotionality, activity and sociability traits (Buss and Plomin, 1975). This thesis will not be dealing with any of these additional factors.

1.4 Parenting dimensions

An alternative approach to the study of parenting styles is to dismantle Baumrind's (1966) typologies into their component parts, as proposed by

Darling and Steinberg (1993). These component parts are referred to as, 'parenting dimensions'. Therefore instead of assessing the effect of the authoritative parenting style, the effects of warmth, involvement and inductive reasoning would be examined separately (three dimensions).

There are a number of advantages to be gained from investigating parenting dimensions compared to parenting styles, particularly when considering the study of minority groups. Firstly, this strategy eliminates the need to be concerned about whether the particular combination of parenting characteristics captured by Baumrind's (1966) typologies exist in minority cultures, as these were originally derived from studying parenting in White American populations. Secondly, there is general acceptance that the basic dimensions that make up the typologies are universal in their effects and therefore offer a useful approach in which to understand parenting in minority groups (Mahtani Stewart and Bond, 2002). Finally, the latter researchers rightly point out that the relationship between single dimensions and outcomes is easier to interpret, whereas with typologies it is unclear which component of the combination was responsible for the outcome.

Unless parenting dimensions are investigated and measures developed and standardized specifically with minority groups, very little can truly be learnt about the parenting of these populations and their effects on young people. There are a growing number of researchers supporting this line of argument and challenging the applicability of Baumrind's (1966) parenting typologies with non-western groups (Chao, 1994; Mahtani Stewart, Bond, Kennard, Ho and Zaman, 2002). Mahtani Stewart et al, (2002) make the distinction between

Western culture valuing the child's autonomy and self-direction, in contrast to traditional non-Western cultures, where obedience and conformity are valued. Chao (1994) argues that 'authoritarian' control is not a valid construct when applied to Asian families, as American culture is seen to equate control with domination and negative outcomes whereas Confucian culture views control in 'organizational' terms (Lau and Cheung, 1987) contributing to the harmonious function of the family and giving rise to positive connotations.

Chao (1994) was the first to introduce the Chinese term 'guan' which translates to 'training' in the international parenting literature. Central to the concept of 'guan' is the willingness of parents to be directive in contrast to Western parenting ideals where parents are seen as facilitative. Chao (1994) found that when Chinese parents were asked to describe their beliefs about parenting, they stressed the importance of high self-discipline and obedience to parents, but also described the importance of high parental involvement. On a scale developed to measure 'guan', Chinese parents scored higher than White American parents.

Instead of investigating the universality of a construct that originated in the West to non-Western cultures, Mahtani Stewart et al (2002) took the rare step of investigating the construct of 'guan' with Western and other non-Western cultures. They matched groups selected from three cultures, 118 American participants, (Western culture), 171 Participants from Hong Kong (Confucian Asian culture) and 171 Pakistani participants (non-Confucian Asian culture). Each of the three groups of participants comprised female nurses living in their country of origin and all members of mainstream cultures. Sets of

questionnaires were administered to participants requiring them to assess their mothers' and fathers' parenting styles separately, namely parental warmth, discipline and dominating control using, 'guan' items from Chao's (1994) inventory. Scales were also employed in order to ascertain the relationship between the parenting measures and participants' developmental outcomes, (e.g. participant's general well-being, life satisfaction, self-esteem and interpersonal harmony).

The researchers firstly established that the behaviours that had been described as reflecting 'guan' showed internal reliability and thus a high level of coherence in all three cultural samples of their study. The 'meaning' of these behaviours was then examined to ascertain whether they associated positively with the universal positive dimension of parental warmth or the dysfunctional dimension of dominating control. The guan scale was seen to associate with parental warmth. Further information about the meaning of these behaviours was sought by asking participants to assess their perception of the ideal parent. The ideal parent was seen as showing high levels of guan practices in Hong Kong, Pakistan and the United States. Further analysis revealed that scores on the guan scale were positively related to various outcomes in both the Asian samples, but not the Western sample.

In summary, Mahtani Stewart et al (2002) found evidence for Chao's (1994) proposal that the Chinese parent whose practices are characterized by guan is perceived as loving rather than dominating. However, their study was limited by the fact that the measures were administered in English to the Pakistani population and in Chinese to the participants from Hong Kong. The reason

given for the use of English in Pakistan was because, 'the study was conducted in Karachi, a large urban centre where individuals do not share a common first language' (p.77). The fact that the researchers themselves argue that individuals fail to share a common first language in Karachi goes against their rationale to use one language, English.

Mahtani Stewart et al (2002) further argued for the use of English measures with the Pakistani participants as, 'all participants had received their secondary school education in the English medium and as is common among the educated classes in South Asia, were fluent in the use of English' (p.77). However, the level of English and terminology employed with secondary school pupils may well be less sophisticated than that used with adults (the age range of Pakistani participants in this study was 18.33 years to 23.58). It is possible therefore that some of the Pakistani participants struggled to follow the measures in English and would have benefited from having the opportunity to respond in.

In line with Mahtani Stewart et al's (2002) study, Rohner and Pettengill (1985), found that monitoring and controlling practices were associated with parental hostility and rejection for Western teenagers and parental warmth for Korean teenagers, where 'control' was defined as 'the extent to which parents place restrictions or limits on children's behaviour and the extent to which these restrictions are enforced' (p.525-526). Both studies therefore provide evidence for the argument that Baumrind's (1966) typologies cannot be assumed to hold validity for all non-Western populations.

1.5 Parenting measures

There is a shortage of discussion of practical issues related to parenting in the literature. There is also great variability in parenting scales purporting to measure the same constructs:-

> *'Two researchers using different items to measure a construct they call by the same name may not be tapping this construct equally effectively, and may even be measuring different constructs. Furthermore, those researchers embarking on studies where they wish simply to assess a construct using a well-established method should be able to do so using a common language and readily available scales'. (Mahtani Stewart and Bond, 2002, p. 383).*

The field has produced many measures of parenting, primarily relying on questionnaire format but also on structured interview and systematic observational methods (Locke and Prinz, 2002). Compounding matters is the fact that these measures vary greatly with respect to construct definition, item content and emphasis and there is no accepted standard for the measurement of parenting styles, practices or dimensions.

1.5.1 A review of parenting measures

A small selection of the parenting measures employed by researchers in the field will now be reviewed (refer to Table 1.1), with the aim of identifying a parenting measure that might be practically used in this study. The focus of this review is on locating a parenting measure that will be least disruptive to schools and least costly on time, as this study will need to be carried out alongside the researcher undertaking full time EP practice. Therefore parental questionnaires have been favoured over interviews or observational techniques. Although the latter two methodologies also have strengths, such as giving the

researcher the opportunity to gather information at one sitting (as is the case with interviews) or to view parenting practices taking place (as is the case with observations), limitations include participants' behaviours being construed in a subjective and narrow light, particularly when there is only one observer involved. There is also the danger that participants' behaviours could be affected by the knowledge that they are being observed, although it is recognized that both interviews and questionnaires too run the risk of being limited in this way, namely, by participants responding in a socially desirable manner.

As can be seen from Table 1.1, the review focuses on the specific variables measured by each tool, including standardisation, reliability and validity properties. The former was considered an important aspect of the review in order that the parenting practices, styles or dimensions being assessed could be highlighted at the onset. Standardization properties were also considered a necessary component of the review in order to establish whether the tools were developed on American or British populations and to ascertain whether participants belonged to a clinical or normal sample. Information on validity and reliability is considered central to any thorough review and was also therefore included. Validity tells us the degree to which a tool assesses what it purports to measure and reliability the extent to which a tool yields the same approximate results when used repeatedly under similar conditions.

Table 1.1 A review of parenting measures

(a) Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) - Parker, Tupling and Brown (1979)

Variables measured

Two scales termed 'care' and 'overprotection or control', measure fundamental parental styles as perceived by the child. The measure is 'retrospective', meaning that adults (over 16 years) complete the measure for how they remember their parents during their first 16 years of life. The measure is to be completed for both mothers and fathers separately. There are 25 item questions including 12 'care' and 13 'overprotection' items.

Standardization, Reliability and Validity

Original data (1979) were generated from 150 British subjects including students and nurses. The researchers report that numerous other populations have been studied subsequently.

The PBI has been found to have good reliability and validity based on several studies. In the original study (1979) the PBI possessed good internal consistency and re-test reliability. The scale is reported to demonstrate considerable stability over an extended period (Wilhelm and Parker, 1990) and has been reported to be valid and reliable for the use of adolescent populations (Klimidis, Minas and Ata, 1992a). The PBI has been shown to have satisfactory construct validity and to be independent of mood effects.

Advantages

✓ This measure was originally standardized on a British population.

Disadvantages

✖ The original standardization data was gathered in 1979, which raises questions about its reliability and validity.

✖ As far as is known, the first time it was administered to a British Asian sample was in 1995, (Shams and Williams, 1995) and therefore its validity for Asian populations needs careful examination.

✖ The retrospective nature of this instrument is dependent on participants having the ability to retrieve their childhood experiences accurately.

✖ It has a narrow focus of measurement, comprising only two scales.

(b) Parental Dimensions Inventory (PDI) - Slater and Power (1987)

Variables measured

The PDI is a self-administered parenting instrument that assesses eight dimensions of parenting: three assessing parental support (nurturance, responsiveness to child input and non-restrictive attitude), three assessing parental control (type of control, amount of control and maturity demands) and two assessing parental structure (consistency and organization). It contains 47 items in total and is separated into six separate sections. The research manual outlines the PDI in greater detail (Power,1989) (see Appendix 1). A copy of the PDI can also be seen (see Appendix 2).

Standardization, Reliability and Validity

The PDI was originally administered to a sample of 112 middle-class American parents with at least one child between the ages of four to fourteen. Since then it has been used in numerous cross-cultural studies, including comparing the PDI responses of 164 middle-class Japanese mothers in Japan to the responses of 118 middle-class mothers from Houston, Texas. Kelley and Tseng (1992) administered the PDI to 36 middle-class Chinese immigrants living in Virginia along with a comparison group of 38 middle-class White American mothers.

In addition to the PDI development sample, Slater and Power (1987) administered the final version of the tool to a replication sample of 140 middle-class American parents of six to twelve years olds. It showed good reliability and acceptable levels of internal consistency. With regards to validity, the PDI has been shown to predict parent ratings of child behaviour problems and child social competence (Slater and Power, 1987). In addition, two studies involving multiple ratings of child and mother behaviour (Boggio, 1987; Sharp, 1988) found mothers' scores on the PDI to be significantly correlated with both fathers' and best friends' ratings of maternal behaviour.

Advantages

- ✓ It is based on well-established and recognised existing parenting questionnaires (Block, 1965).
- ✓ This measure assesses a variety of dimensions (eight in total), rather than focusing on parenting styles. Dimensions not only are easier to interpret, but there is general acceptance that the basic dimensions that make up typologies are universal in their effects and therefore offer a useful approach when studying minority groups. (Mahtani Stewart and Bond, 2002).
- ✓ It was used in a variety of parenting studies throughout the 1980s and 1990s, including investigation into different ethnic groups in the USA.
- ✓ Locke and Prinz', (2002) recent review on the measurement of parental discipline and nurturance over the past 20 years, recognized the PDI's contribution to the research literature and how it assessed 'emotional and instrumental nurturance with psychometrically sound scales'. (Hardy, Power and Jaedicke, 1993; Stormshak, Speltz, DeKlyen and Greenberg, 1997; Strayhorn and Weidman, 1988).
- ✓ It has been validated with the mothers of primary aged children.

Disadvantages

- ✖ This measure was originally developed on an American sample.

(c) Index of Parental Attitudes (IPA) - Hudson (1982)

Variables measured

The IPA measures parents' degree of contentment in their relationship with their child. The IPA has 25 items requiring parents to consider how much each statement reflects their relationship with their child, a seven-point likert scale that ranges from one (none of the time) to seven (all of the time). Examples of statements posed in the IPA are:- 'My child gets on my nerves; I really enjoy my child' and 'I feel ashamed of my child'. Higher scores indicate evidence of problems in the parent-child relationship.

Standardization, Reliability and Validity

The IPA was normed with 93 clinical respondents. The reliability coefficient for this instrument is reported to be 0.97 (Corcoran and Fischer, 1987). The IPA has excellent known-group validity, distinguishing between families identified by clinicians as having parent-child conflicts and those who do not (Hudson, 1982; Corcoran and Fischer, 1987; Hudson, 1992). The children belonged to no specific age range in the Hudson (1992) study.

Advantages

- ✓ This measure would take less than five minutes to complete, which would act as a 'selling point' to potential participants.
- ✓ It could be used to target primary aged children.

Disadvantages

- ✖ It was originally standardized on an American clinical sample.
- ✖ Rather than investigate parenting dimensions, this measure assesses parental degree of contentment in their relationship with their child and yields limited information, assessing how positive or negative the parent feels about his or her child.
- ✖ The problem with a seven-point rating scale is that it can suffer from individuals' over-reliance on the neutral response (Fife-Schaw, 1995).
- ✖ The fact that Hudson (1992) failed to specify the age range that the IPA had been validated for calls into question its validity.
- ✖ It asks fairly negative and sensitive questions and could potentially discourage potential participants from taking part.

(d) Primary Caregivers Practices Report (PCPR)-Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen and Hart (1995)

Variables measured

The PCPR assesses Baumrind's (1966) parenting style typologies: authoritarian (high control, low warmth), authoritative (high control, high warmth) and permissive (low control, high warmth).

The measure has 62 items that parents are required to respond to indicating how often the stated behaviour is used when interacting with their child. Examples include, 'I spank my child when my child is disobedient' (authoritarian); 'I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles (authoritative); 'I find it difficult to discipline my child' (permissive). Response choices range from 'almost never' to 'almost always' on a five-point Likert scale. A summed score may be tabulated as directed for each caregiver on each of the three parenting styles. The higher the score the more the caregiver exhibits that parenting style.

Standardization, Reliability and Validity

This measure is reported to have good internal consistency. The Cronbach alpha for the authoritarian items was 0.86, 0.91 for the authoritative items and 0.75 for the permissive items. It was validated on American (Robinson et al, 1995) and Russian populations (Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olsen and McNeilly-Choque, 1998).

Advantages

- ✓ It has good validity and reliability.
- ✓ It can be used with primary aged children.

Disadvantages

- ✖ The measure is restrictive in that it assesses parenting styles and not dimensions.
- ✖ It is assumed that each of the items neatly translates to one of the three dimensions.
- ✖ The measure was originally standardized on an American sample.
- ✖ The use of 'almost' at the two ends of the likert scale e.g. 'almost never and almost always', might be misleading to participants. More useful descriptors would have been 'always' and 'never'.

As is evident, from the evaluations offered in Table 1.1, each of the four parenting measures reviewed possess advantages and disadvantages. However, it is considered that three out of the four tools yield far too limiting information to be useful for this thesis. The PBI for example, (refer to Table 1.1a) only contains two scales, 'care' and 'overprotection or control', the IPA (refer to Table 1.1c) although containing 25 items, only assesses the parental degree of contentment with one's child and the PCPR, (refer to Table 1.1d)

assesses the three types of parenting styles. Section 1.4 of this chapter highlights the gains to be made from assessing parental dimensions, which the PDI does, as opposed to assessing parenting styles. The PDI also has the advantage of assessing up to eight dimensions of parenting.

Apart from the lack of information yielded by the PBI, the IPA and the PCPR, each are deemed unsuitable measures to use for further reasons. The fact that the PBI is a retrospective measure and relies on the participant's ability to retrieve their childhood experiences with accuracy is seen as limiting, as well as the original standardisation having taken place in 1979. The IPA is disadvantaged by the fact that it was standardized on a clinical population, a sample this thesis does not deal with. Further, the PCPR contains Likert scale descriptors that are open to much interpretation by participants. Although the PDI is limiting in that it was originally developed on an American sample, its advantages far out weigh its disadvantages. Its merits have also been recognised by other professionals in the field (Locke and Prinz, 2002). The PDI has therefore been selected for use for this thesis.

1.6 Non-British research into different ethnic groups

The vast majority of research on parenting has targeted predominantly White middle-class American populations, with relatively few researchers having examined the parenting styles and practices of other ethnic groups. The study of different ethnic groups would not only build better understanding into these populations, but also, as Last and Perrin (1993) highlight, would provide information about the appropriateness and value of empirically based interventions intended for multiple groups of individuals. One hypothesis for the

lack of research into minority groups is that this area of research yields sensitive data, which is at risk of being misinterpreted. Minority groups might also see it as an attempt by White Western researchers to create negative stereotypes of them. Spencer (1990) argues that when research into different ethnic groups has been conducted, parenting differences have been conceptualised within a culturally deviant framework. According to Kelley, Power and Wimbush (1992):-

> *A common problem with research on minority families is that models of child rearing developed on majorities have often been used as standards in evaluating minority parenting practices. When this has been done, the differences have often been interpreted as deficits. (p.573).*

1.6.1 Parental discipline across ethnic groups

African American parents have been characterized as having higher rates of physical discipline (Spencer, 1990) and a stricter parenting style, placing emphasis on respecting authority, while also displaying high levels of support and expression of emotions (Taylor, Chatters, Tucker, and Lewis, 1990). Further, whilst a strict parenting style has been linked to negative outcomes for White-American children, this association is less often observed among ethnic minority families in the USA (Baumrind, 1993; Lamborn, Dornbusch and Steinburg, 1996; Bates, Deater-Deckard, Dodge and Pettit ,1996).

Bates et al (1996) studied the relationship between harsh parental discipline (as assessed by mother's use of physical discipline) and externalising behaviour, (as assessed by teacher and mother rated externalising behaviour checklists, peer-rated aggression and peer rated teacher-child conflict) among White and

African American children. They monitored the progress of 466 White and 100 African American children from a broad range of socio-economic levels, (from reception class to Year 3) for four years, with annual assessments of child externalising behaviour problems being undertaken. The parents in this study had a 90 minute in-home open ended interview, which was conducted by a trained researcher. The teachers in this study were requested to fill in a 112 item Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL), after the six month in-home interviews had taken place and annually thereafter. In addition, peer socio-metric ratings were completed in the winter of each school year, which were based on the Coie, Dodge and Coppotelli's (1982) protocol.

It was found that harsher discipline was associated with higher externalising behaviour, as measured by teacher and peer-ratings, only for White American children. No such relationship was found for African American children. The positive correlation between mothers' reported use of physical discipline and mother-rated externalising behaviour was found to be similar between the two groups of mothers. One explanation for this finding might be that compared to teachers and other children, mothers have limited reference groups with which they can compare their own children, which may introduce some systematic bias in their reports. Further, it could be argued that the two groups of parents interpreted the meaning of 'physical discipline' differently, a concern voiced by a number of researchers (Barbarin,1993; Kelley, Power and Wimbush, 1992; Gutierrez and Sameroff, 1990). Indeed, Korbin, Coulton, Lindstrom-Ufuti and Spilsbury, (2000) found that African American parents were less likely to include physical acts in their definitions of maltreatment than did European American parents. Kelley et al (1992) also suggest that the presence of harsh

discipline may imply an out of control parent centred household to some White American parents, whereas a lack of physical discipline among African American parents may indicate an abdication for the parenting role.

The limitations of Bate et al's (1996) study merit discussion. Firstly, participants' interviews were not audio taped and it is therefore questionable whether the interviewer was able to record the mothers' responses accurately. Further, it is worth considering the methodology employed to gain mothers' views. This study involved mothers undergoing face-to-face interviews about their use of physical discipline with their child. This methodology offered interviewers the opportunity to safely gather their data at one sitting, rather than having to rely on postal questionnaires and run the risk of achieving a low return rate. Having an interviewer present would also allow participants to gain clarification on questions which postal questionnaires would fail to do. There would however be the need for interviewers to have a fixed script to adhere to once participants had asked for further clarification of questions, which there was no evidence of in Bates et al's (1996) study. A failure to do this, would very likely lead to different explanations being given to participants and therefore a failure to assess what the researchers were purporting to. However, face to face interviews also have their limitations, such as being costly on time and creating a situation where participants could quite easily respond dishonestly, due to the lack of anonymity available to them. Postal questionnaires may also fail to guarantee accurate and honest responses, unless participants are assured anonymity.

Secondly, this study failed to mention the protocol employed when a child was unable to cite three children that got into fights the most. There may have been an expectation that each child was required to cite three names and if this was the case, the child's response may have lacked accuracy, because the child may only have been able to think of two children but was required to pick a third child who they did not feel met the criteria. Coie et al's (1982) protocol further required each child to name up to three children who, 'got along well with the teacher' and up to three who, 'did not get along well with the teacher'. The difficulty with these questions is that they are dependent on each child's understanding and interpretation of the statement, 'get along well with'. This might have meant, 'never get into trouble' to some children, 'always finish their class work on time', 'offer to hand out stationery to the class', or 'always listen to the teacher'. This measure is therefore open to much interpretation and so it is debatable whether it established what it purported to assess.

Thirdly, this study covered a wide variety of geographical locations (five altogether). Had the researchers specified that there were equal numbers of participants from each of the five locations taking part, a significant finding would have indicated a generalised effect across locations. This information was absent, which made it difficult to ascertain whether the effect was significant to a specific geographical location. Past studies have found links between parenting behaviours and the geographical location to which parents belong. Pinkerton and Scarr (1995) found that parents in the South of the United States used more physical discipline than parents in the North, even after a number of demographic variables (ethnicity, socio-economic status, family structure) and child-rearing attitudes had been controlled for in the

analysis. Other researchers have noted the distinctions between urban and rural culture (Blank, Thompson, Deater-Deckard, Fox and Bond, 1996).

Despite its limitations, Bates et al's (1996) study provides some evidence that the parenting styles and practices of different ethnic groups may serve distinct functions for children belonging to those populations. A further interpretation of this finding is that:

> *'Parenting styles that are viewed as less than optimal in one cultural context may be necessary to cope with the realities of another cultural context'. (Fagan, 2000, p.592).*

Here it is suggested that as ethnic minority children, particularly African American live in poorer and more dangerous communities, authoritarian parenting is seen to serve as a protective function. In line with this argument, Julian, McKenry and McKelvey (1994) suggest that the stricter parenting style typically associated with African American parents and the greater emphasis on obedience and self-control may be necessary to teach children to cope with the harsh realities of racism and discrimination. In contrast, stricter parenting practices appear to restrict the psychosocial development of White American children who seem to generally live in safer and more affluent communities (Baumrind, 1991a; Bronfenbrenner, 1986). However, Lamborn, Dornbusch and Steinburg's (1996) study failed to provide support for this hypothesis. They found the positive impact of an authoritarian parenting style (as measured by student reports of their parents' unilateral parental decision making), was similar among African American adolescents living in predominantly White, more affluent communities, as well as in more disadvantaged, ethnically mixed neighbourhoods.

Differences have also been found amongst the parenting styles of Japanese and White American mothers. Research shows that Japanese mothers exhibit a more permissive approach to childrearing (Azuma, 1986; Bacon and Ichikawa, 1988) and are much less likely to resort to external threats or punishments (Kobayashi-Winata and Power, 1989). Power, Kobayashi-Winata and Kelley (1992) used the PDI to investigate cultural and individual differences in the parenting styles of middle class mothers of three to six-year-old children from Japan and the United States. This study comprised a much larger sample than past studies. A total of 282 mothers participated, comprising 118 White mothers in the USA and 164 Japanese mothers. The findings revealed that:-

- White American mothers reported setting many more rules for their children to follow, but also reported giving them more input into the socialisation process.
- White American mothers were more likely to report responding to their children's misbehaviour with material or social consequences than Japanese mothers.
- Japanese mothers reported being more likely to respond to their children's misbehaviour by reasoning or telling them off and reported employing physical punishments for situations involving direct confrontation toward maternal authority, such as the child being mouthy or lying.
- Japanese mothers reported being less overtly nurturing towards their children than did mothers from the United States.

To recap, this section highlights differences in parenting amongst different ethnic groups. It also indicates that parents' use of physical discipline in some

groups gives rise to different developmental outcomes in their children. One interpretation of this latter finding is that the parenting styles and practices of different ethnic groups may serve distinct functions for children belonging to these populations.

1.6.2 Parent adolescent decision-making across ethnic groups

Lamborn et al (1996) examined the impact of joint, unilateral parental and unilateral adolescent decision making, as reported by adolescents on a range of their behaviours and attitudes by deriving data from two sources. Three thousand five hundred and ninety seven self-report surveys completed by 14 to 16 year old students belonging to four ethnic groups, namely, Hispanic American, African American, Asian American, or White American backgrounds and census track data describing the communities in which the students lived were also used.

Students reported on the frequency of joint, unilateral adolescent and unilateral parental decision-making across 13 topics (e.g. choice of classes, choice of friends and latest time by which to be indoors) and three proportion scores were calculated for the three types of decision making employed. Different types of decision-making were investigated as these have been found to correlate with independent measures of general parenting styles, as conceptualised by Baumrind (1991a, 1991b). Unilateral adolescent decision-making has been found to correlate with a permissive parenting style and is associated with higher involvement in deviant behaviour and increased susceptibility to anti-social peer pressure (Dornbusch, Ritter, Mont-Reynaud and Chen, 1990). Unilateral parental decision-making has been found to be associated with

authoritarian parenting and is similarly correlated with relatively poor adolescent adjustment, whereas joint decision-making has been correlated with an authoritative parenting style and associated with higher achievement and less deviance.

It was found that in general, unilateral adolescent decision-making was found to be associated with diminished adjustment one year later and joint decision making with enhanced adjustment among adolescents from all backgrounds. When the effects of ethnic background and community context were examined jointly, variations in decision making had a stronger impact on deviance among Hispanic American youth living in ethnically mixed areas than predominantly White areas. However, among African American youth, the negative impact of unilateral youth decision making on psychosocial development was stronger in predominantly White communities in comparison to ethnically mixed communities. This suggests that African-American youth may be vulnerable to risks in what are considered to be more advantaged, predominantly White communities. One hypothesis for this is that although predominantly White communities provide more economic advantages, they also highlight African-American youth status as members of a different group, placing them at more risk and therefore requiring increased parental protection.

Although researchers such as Eccles, Furstenberg, McCarthy, Lord and Geitze, (1993) and Sampson, (1985) have found variations in the ethnic composition of communities to be associated with different levels of advantage (e.g. wealth, resources and safety), it is noteworthy that Lamborn et al's (1996) study failed

to disentangle these variables (e.g. ethnic composition and community advantage) to identify the relative influence of each.

1.6.3 Factors influencing within group variation in parental discipline

Kelley, Power and Wimbush (1992) investigated within-group variation based on certain socio-cultural factors such as, maternal education, father absence, maternal age and self-reported religious beliefs. Their study comprised 42 lower class black mothers or caregivers (three grandmothers) of three to six-year-old children (21 boys and 21 girls).

Open-ended interviews were employed to ascertain the degree to which mothers took a child-versus or parent-orientated approach to discipline. Mothers were asked open-ended questions to reveal their views on particular issues relevant to parenting, including recent disciplinary encounters with their children. Participants were also administered the PDI and a section of the Parenting Goals Questionnaire (Moll, 1987). The latter is a 14-item questionnaire employing a likert scale which assesses the importance parents place on encouraging various characteristics in their young children.

The mothers in this sample varied widely in their attitudes toward physical punishment. Mothers who used power-assertive techniques were as likely to take the child's perspective and give input into the socialization process as those who did not. Younger, less educated mothers, who raised their children alone and who were less involved in organized religion, placed more emphasis on respect and obedience and reported using a more parent orientated disciplinary approach.

It is of interest that Kelley et al's (1992) sample was described as lower class, although the criteria employed to make this distinction was unclear. In addition, their study had a relatively small sample size (42 mothers), which influences the degree to which the results can be generalised.

1.6.4 The influence of child's gender on parenting

The relationship between parenting styles and child's gender has yielded inconsistent results. Some large-scale studies have found no relationship between parenting styles and child's gender, such as that of Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1991). Lytton and Romney's (1991) meta-analysis of the literature revealed that parents tended to encourage sex-typed activities in each gender, although there was little evidence of systematic differences in the styles of raising girls and boys. Conversely, other researchers have found gender differences. Russell, Aloa, Feder, Glover, Miller, and Palmer (1998) concluded that reasoning styles were more likely to be used with female pre-schoolers, whereas authoritarian and controlling styles were used more with pre schoolboys.

Hill and Sprague (1999), investigated parenting in Black and White families and the influences of child's gender, based on 406 parental questionnaires, (202 from Black and 204 from White participants). The general structure of the questionnaire was based on Kohn's (1963) child-rearing studies, including issues raised in Black family studies and in-depth interviews with Black parents (Hill, 1999).

In each case, a child-rearing issue was posed and the parent was asked to rank the relative importance of each of their three positions on that issue. The data

gave rise to some gender-race effects, such as, White parents placing greater emphasis on obedience for their sons than daughters. This was not found to be the case with Black parents. Black parents also tended to report disciplining boys more than girls by withdrawing privileges, unlike White parents.

As no standardized parenting measure was used in this study, the validity of this measure for use with White participants is questionable. Further, both the respondents' age range (22 to 67 years) and their children (5 to 18 years) were wide ranging and as no analysis by age was conducted, a localised effect could not be confirmed.

Mahtani Stewart, Bond, Abdullah and Ma (2000), investigated the influence of child's gender on parental styles and practices as perceived by Muslim Bangladeshis living and brought up in Bangladesh. The sample comprised 130 boys and 82 girls aged between 14 and 15 years. Participants were recruited through three middle schools and two colleges (intermediate between middle schools and university). All students who were present at the school on the day of the assessment were asked to participate with the school's approval.

All three measures employed were translated into Bengali, using the forward/backward translation procedure. Typically, this involves the initial translation being carried out by translators independently of one another. Their translations are then compared and an initial draft is produced. This draft (Bengali in this case) is then translated back into the original language (English) by a different translator. This latter version and the original can then be compared and a final translated version developed upon discussion. Mahtani Stewart et al (2000) developed items to assess adolescents' perceptions of

parenting, with five items tapping parental warmth and three items assessing dominating control. Participants indicated their level of agreement with each on a 6-point likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, separately for mothers and fathers. Participants' academic achievement was assessed via their overall school rank, which was based on their performance on the national exams and their self-esteem was measured by the Rosenberg scale (1965).

Overall the findings suggested that there were no differences between girls' and boys' perceptions of parental warmth, although girls perceived their parents as being more dominating in their control and supervising them more. For both boys and girls, perceived dominating control was associated with self-derogatory ideation (a reflection of negative sense of self with some depressive ideation, e.g. 'at times I think I'm no good at all). Interestingly, however, boys' (but not girls') perception of low parental warmth was associated with higher levels of self-derogatory ideation, a symptom of depression. These differences might relate to different expectations between boys and girls as a result of the strong son preference in Bangladeshi culture (Mahtani Stewart et al, 2000). The thinking here is that sons who view their parents as unloving may stand out more in Bangladeshi culture than daughters with similar perceptions, as girls may have learnt to have lower expectations and therefore develop depressive symptoms.

Mahtani Stewart et al's (2000) study however was limited by the fact that it failed to employ well recognised parenting instruments, which in some respects is understandable when considering the paucity of standardized parenting

measures developed for use with minority populations. Further, the self-esteem measure they used was developed 35 years ago, which calls into question its validity and reliability. These researchers also recruited unmatched numbers of participants through different educational establishments and it cannot be assumed that they were operating in similar systematic ways, which may have created a possible confound.

1.6.5 Parenting within the South Asian population

Few research studies to date have focused on South Asian participants. For the purposes of this thesis, 'Asian' refers to individuals whose origins lie in the Indian sub-continent, namely, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. Research conducted on South Asian populations has originated from studies in clinical psychology or social services. Maiter, Alaggia, and Trocme (2004), professionals belonging to the latter field, investigated the perceptions of child maltreatment by parents from the Indian subcontinent living in Canada. Participants were administered questionnaires comprising vignettes of parenting behaviours and asked to rate these on a six-point Likert scale, ranging from, 'appropriate to a large extent' to 'inappropriate to a large extent'. Further, participants were divided into five focus groups altogether, three with mothers and two with fathers, comprising a total of 29 parents. A semi structured interview guide was used to direct the discussions, which had the advantage of being audiotaped and later transcribed.

The study findings revealed that South Asian parents' attitudes and perceptions regarding the use of physical discipline appeared to meet wider community standards for appropriate child-rearing practices as identified by others

(Dubowitz, Klockner, Starr and Black,1988; Portwood, 1999) that is, persistent and excessive use of discipline was considered to be inappropriate. Parent behaviours that were seen to have negative emotional consequences for children were recognized as inappropriate and lack of proper supervision of children was seen as a concern. What cannot be overlooked is the fact the participants may have responded in a socially desirable manner. Maiter et al (2004) argue that one piece of evidence that counteracts this argument is that participants provided concrete examples from their lives to show their parenting approach rather than just speculating on imaginary scenarios. However, it could be argued that these 'concrete examples' too failed to be based on actual parental practice. A further limitation to this study was the fact that 8 of the 29 questionnaires administered to participants failed to be employed in the analysis, as they were used in piloting the vignettes used in the questionnaire. The questionnaire data was therefore provided by 21 participants and not 29, as might be concluded upon reading the abstract of the journal article.

1.6.6 Perceptions of parenting by Pakistani adolescents in Pakistan

Mahtani Stewart, Bond, Ho, Zaman, Dar and Anwar (2000) conducted the first empirical investigation of Pakistani adolescents' perceptions of parenting. These researchers recruited 156 male and 148 female participants from four randomly chosen schools in Lahore, a large urban centre in Pakistan. Participants were given classroom time to complete questionnaires, all of which were translated in Urdu. Half the participants comprised adolescents (approximately 14 years old) and the other half young adults (approximately 19 years old). Participants in this study were requested to fill in a variety of questionnaires at one sitting, which comprised different instructions and scales.

Pakistani females were found to perceive themselves as being treated with more warmth and being provided with reasoned and consultative parenting more frequently than Pakistani males. Pakistani females also perceived their parents as having more knowledge about their whereabouts and activities than did males. Further, Pakistani females associated perceived parental knowledge positively with several outcomes and reported perceptions of warmer and more autonomy-granting parenting than males.

This study however failed to undertake an analysis of responses according to participants' age. It is therefore questionable as to how useful it was to study two widely ranging age groups, since the perceptions of parenting from an adolescent's perspective, compared to that of a 19-year-old is likely to be fairly different. It was also noticeable that the researchers failed to specify the criteria that they employed to compile the 'Life Satisfaction' scale which they administered to participants.

1.7 British research into parenting styles and practices

There are generally fewer British studies investigating parenting styles and practices than American. British studies often target adolescent informants, resulting in a gap in the research when considering parental interactions with primary aged children. A rare British study investigating the parenting behaviours of the mothers of primary aged children was conducted by Thompson, Raynor, Cornah, Stevenson and Songua-Barke (2002).

Table 1.2 Parenting style behaviours as identified by Robinson et al (1995)

Authoritarian
Uses physical punishment; shouts or screams at child; uses punishment more than reasoning; tells the child off in order to improve his or her behaviour; explodes with anger when the child misbehaves and isolates child without explanation.
Authoritative
Praises child for good behaviour; reasons after misbehaviour; explains consequences of behaviour; gives expectations before an activity; shows patience with child; apologises when wrong and channels behaviour into acceptable alternative.
Permissive
Gives into child's tantrums; ignores misbehaviour; allows child to annoy others; finds it difficult to discipline child and bribes child to comply.

These researchers investigated 67 UK mothers' reports on the range of behaviours used by them in the management of their children's challenging behaviour. Mothers reported on their use of authoritarian, authoritative and permissive strategies (as identified by Robinson et al, 1995) in response to difficult child behaviour in their 10-year-old children (refer to Table 1.2).

Thirty seven percent of mothers reported using physical punishment, while shouting was reported by 31%. The most frequently reported behaviour was reasoning, which was reportedly used by 42% of the sample. Permissive-type behaviours were far less frequently reported, with not following through on threats being the ninth ranked behaviour, volunteered by 19% of the sample. The researchers then investigated the association between parenting behaviours and found that the use of physical punishment was associated with lower levels of reasoning and inductive approaches, higher levels of shouting and far greater levels of inconsistency (e.g. not following through on threats). Mothers reporting reasoning were also less likely to shout and less likely to use

punishment. However mothers that reasoned and smacked their children were equally likely to give them praise.

Contrary to the bulk of research highlighting the negative impact that physical punishment has on children, this study revealed parents who reported using physical punishment were no more likely to have children with behaviour problems than those who did not. Similarly, parents who reported using reasoning were no less likely to have children with behaviour problems than their non-reasoning counterparts.

Moreover, parents who failed to follow through on threats appeared to have children at greater risk of having behaviour problems, than those who did not (this effect was restricted to 8-year-olds). The findings of this study therefore suggest that parental inconsistency, a characteristic often linked to childhood problems, rather than physical punishment, may be the key factor in the development of behavioural problems in primary aged children.

The limitations of this study merit discussion. Firstly, the researchers argue that the interview format allowed them to explore mothers' descriptions of their behaviour 'freed from the constraints of more structured procedures' (p.150). However, this argument is weakened by the fact that the researchers reported structuring their parental interviews by prompts 'to discuss common themes' (p.151). Further, mothers were the only source of information for this study and their perceptions of their child's behaviour problems may have lacked accuracy. Different outcomes may have been achieved had children's behaviour problems been rated by their class teachers. In addition, it is not known

whether these findings can be generalised to British minority populations, as the study failed to specify participants' ethnic background.

1.7.1 Research based on Asian adolescent informants

Very little is known about the parenting styles and practices of British minority ethnic groups, particularly Asian populations. The research that there is mostly targets clinical populations, teenagers and young adults and is limited by the fact that it views British Asians as a homogenous group, rather than researching individual ethnic groups, such as Pakistanis, Indians or Bangladeshis.

Shams and Williams (1995) investigated the differences in perceived parental care and protection and related psychological distress between British South Asian and non-Asian adolescents. The focus of this study was on parental care and protection as perceived by 14 and 15 year old British non-Asian and Asian boys and girls. Eight hundred and twenty four participants from nine secondary schools within Glasgow participated. These schools covered 94.3% of all Muslim, Sikh and Hindu pupils as recorded by the Education Department in 1991. A total sample of 331 was sought by targeting children with South Asian names. Non-Asian pupils in the same classes were then randomly sampled proportionately to their numbers in each school or alternatively taking random classes, which achieved a sample of 493. The study was carried out on the school premises with all participants taking part at one time.

Participants were asked to fill in a self-completion questionnaire containing items relating to various aspects of health and illness issues, as well as Parker et al's (1979) Parental Bonding Instrument (refer to Table 1.1a). Participants

were also administered the 12-item version of the General Health questionnaire (Goldberg, 1972) and the Anxiety-depression scale (Zung, 1965).

Overall, a significant difference was also found between British Asian and non-Asian respondents for both care and protection. British Asian pupils perceived themselves as having received less care and more protection than their non-Asian counterparts. In comparison to British non-Asians, British Asians were more likely to: see their parents as not liking them to make their own decisions; as trying to control everything they did; as tending to baby them; as not letting them decide for themselves; as trying to make them dependent on their parents; as not letting them go out as much as they wanted; as protecting them too much. In comparison to British Asian boys, British Asian girls were less likely to see their parents as able to understand their problems and worries and as able to make them feel better when upset on the care dimension of the PBI.

On the protection dimension of the PBI, boys perceived less protection than girls, irrespective of their ethnic origin. Both Asian and non-Asian girls were more likely to rate their parents as not letting them do the things they liked doing; as not liking them to make their own decisions; as not giving them as much freedom as they wanted and as not letting them go out as often as they wanted. However there were noticeable limitations to this study:-

- The Asian participants were targeted depending on whether they had South Asian names. This method however assumed that children's names were indicative of their country of origin, which may not have always been the case.

- All the measures used in this study were developed between 26 to 40 years ago, which raises concerns about both their validity and reliability.
- The sample was very heterogeneous. Participants in this study were mostly of South Asian origin, (countries of origin not specified) involving a variety of religious and cultural practices. Differences in outcomes might therefore be explained more in terms of religious and cultural variation in the Asian sample.
- The non-Asian sample comprised any group that was not Asian. The non-Asian group again was a very heterogeneous group and any differences between the Asian and non-Asian sample might have therefore been due to a whole host of factors.

1.7.2 Research into British Asian parents and young people

There is a noticeable paucity of British parental perspectives in the literature. Stopes-Roe and Cochrane (1990) are among the few researchers who have addressed this issue. Rather than investigating parenting styles and practices, they researched the child-rearing values of White British and Asian parents and their children (aged 18 to 21). This approach, although unearthing greater insight into parent-child interactions within British minority families, investigated a different area altogether, 'child-rearing values' and therefore failed to provide a tidy framework on which future studies investigating parenting styles, practices or dimensions might be mapped. Respondents were asked to rate the three most desirable of Kohn's (1969) 13 values in child rearing. Kohn made the distinction between conformist and self-directing values (see table 1.3).

For inclusion the Asian parents had to be born on the Indian subcontinent and the young people aged 18 to 21 had to be resident in Britain for at least 10 years. Random samples were derived from lists of school leavers kept by career officers, after the minimum school leaving age of 16 years. The sample consisted of 60 sons and 60 daughters of Asian British parents, with a resident in the UK. The parent sample comprised 54 fathers and 66 mothers. A White British comparison group of 40 families was derived in the same way and consisted of 20 sons and 20 daughters, 21 fathers and 19 mothers. Two interviewers surveyed parents and young peoples' opinions simultaneously at home, with the use of an identical survey. In order to give Asian parents better access and understanding of the questions being asked, they were interviewed in their own language by an Asian interviewer and Asian young people by an English interviewer.

Table 1.3 Kohn's (1969) 13 values of child rearing

Conformist values	*Self-directing values*	*Belonging to neither category*
Being honest	Being considerate	Being successful
Being obedient	Having good sense	Being friendly
Being good at school	Being responsible	
Having good manners	Being interested	
Having sex-role appropriateness	Having self-control	
Being neat and clean		

Stopes-Roe and Cochrane (1990) found that overall the Asian sample valued conformity more and self-direction less than the White British population and that this difference was more pronounced in the older than in the younger generation. However, this conclusion is dependent on whether one accepts Kohn's (1969) categorisation of child rearing values, as it could be argued for instance that, 'being considerate' is not a clear self-directing quality.

Nonetheless, differences in the responses between the two ethnic groups were found. Asian parents and young people most frequently named honesty and obedience as qualities they valued. Both generations of White British participants also named honesty most frequently, but thereafter differed. 'Consideration for others' was ranked second for parents and 'success' second for young people. Obedience ranked second for Asian young people and was chosen by less than half of them compared to two-thirds of their parents. Obedience showed a large ethnic group difference, with the White British population in general, but particularly the parents being less inclined to choose it. Interestingly, Asian parents more often chose the conformist quality of being good (well behaved) at school, whereas White British parents significantly more often chose the quality of having good sense and sound judgement, paying less attention to school behaviour. This finding could point towards Asian parents tending to emphasize the need for their children to be well behaved at school, more so than White parents.

Stopes-Roe et al's (1990) study was limited by the fact that it pooled together the responses of Hindu, Muslim, and Sikh individuals under the heading of Asian, with the rationale that there were no significant differences between these three groups on any of the variables tested, namely family type, socio economic status (SES), living standard of family, education of parents and education of young people.

Further, the researchers failed to outline whether there was a fixed script used by the interviewers when they explained the rationale of the study to participants, as a variation in accounts would have given participants a different

understanding of the study and likely to have influenced the way in which they chose to respond.

1.8 Research into British Pakistani populations

It is rare to find research on British Pakistani populations. The literature that does exist typically originates from studies in clinical psychology. There is yet no reliable body of educational psychology research in the UK that has investigated the parenting dimensions of Pakistani mothers of primary aged children.

1.8.1 The perceptions of British Pakistani adolescents and adults

Irfan and Cowburn (2004) reported having investigated the British Pakistani community's experience and perception of physical child abuse by means of a questionnaire that they designed and developed themselves. The researchers state that they 'developed the questionnaire from a review of the literature relevant to the research that considered demographic and family relationships, the circumstances and context of physical child abuse, what constitutes disciplining, chastisement and physical child abuse'(p.92). They also reported that the questionnaire examined the respondents' understanding and views on the definitions of child abuse and disciplining, through open-ended questions. Participants were invited to cite the methods that were used to discipline them in childhood, by whom, how frequently and asked to consider whether they perceived this treatment as abusive, or as a method of disciplining. Fifty-two out of the 150 questionnaires that were distributed to 16 to 25-year-olds through voluntary organisations (type of body unspecified), universities and one Asian video shop, were returned.

One of the main findings of this study was that, although serious child abuse was not experienced by most of the respondents, 75% of respondents reported experiencing some kind of physical punishment during childhood and 72% of this latter group accepted it as an appropriate disciplining method (e.g. slapping and smacking). The study also found that among those administering physical punishment that 35% (highest proportion) were siblings, 33% were mothers and 19% fathers. Based on these findings the researchers conclude that, 'there is a need to help parents to break the pattern of their learned behaviour of child rearing in order to develop healthy relationships.' (p.97). They also argue that this could be achieved by providing education into parenting skills and child rearing in the Pakistani community. However, Irfan and Cowburn's (2004) research study provides no strong research evidence for a need to implement parenting programmes, due to the fact that:

- Firstly, 72% of the participants in their study reported that they accepted their childhood punishment as an appropriate disciplining method. Therefore what may be seen as an acceptable method of punishment in one culture may be interpreted as unacceptable in another.
- Secondly, it was siblings who were seen to administer physical punishment more often than their parents.

Further this study relied on one measure, which was developed using a wide set of criteria, was not standardized on any populations beforehand and no reference was made to its validity or reliability. In addition, the two questionnaires filled in by male respondents were excluded as they were seen to offer insufficient information for any meaningful analysis. It can therefore be

argued that this study failed to investigate the views of the Pakistani community, as claimed by the researchers, but rather the views of a modest sample of Pakistani female teenagers and adults between the ages of 16 to 25. The researchers provided no further background on the participants, such as their socio-economic status, educational qualifications or their employment status. It is therefore not known how homogenous or heterogeneous this group may have been. Moreover the methodology employed to distribute the questionnaires was also limited in that it failed to use any means by which to monitor the numbers of participants who decided against taking part.

1.8.2 British Pakistani clinical populations

A small number of other clinical psychology investigations of Pakistani populations may be of relevance. One study found that scores on the EAT (a questionnaire designed to reflect a range of symptoms that reflect eating disorders by Garner, Olmstead, Bohr and Garfinkle, 1982), of second generation British Asian schoolgirls were higher than those of White British schoolgirls (Furnham and Husain, 1999; McCourt and Waller, 1995), and that these scores were positively correlated with parental over-protection, as assessed by the PBI (Furnham and Husain, 1999). One hypothesis for this finding is that eating disorders may be the result of a culture clash that occurs due to Asian parents being more over-protective of their daughters during adolescence and them disallowing separation-individuation (McCourt and Waller, 1995) and that Asian females express themselves by controlling something about themselves, such as their weight and body shape (Bruch, 1977).

Mujtaba and Furnham (2001) investigated the relationship between parental conflict, parental over-protection and EAT scores in 348, 19 to 20 year old female college students from three populations. The first population comprised White British participants, the second group, Pakistani British participants and the third group, a matched group of female adolescents brought up and living in Pakistan. Participants were requested to complete questionnaires, including the EAT-26 and the PBI. A similar procedure was reportedly used to recruit participants in Pakistan and Britain, by approaching participants in halls of residence, common rooms, libraries and asking them to fill out questionnaires for a study related to the family and food orientation. There was considerable variation in the response rates of British and Pakistani participants. The response rate overall was 96% in Pakistan and 65% in Britain, which the researchers suggested might have been due to a small percentage of the British sample avoiding participation in the study as a means of escaping discovery of their clinical eating disorders. No time limit was imposed and participants were able to complete the questionnaires at their leisure.

British Pakistani girls were found to have the highest EAT scores in comparison to the other two groups and perceived their mothers and fathers to be more over protective than the other two groups. Of interest was the finding that the Pakistani females, born and living in Pakistan, were also found to have significantly higher overprotection scores for mothers and fathers than White females, which points towards a culturally specific finding. However, the researchers point out that these results may have been biased as the entire Pakistani sample were taken from colleges or universities and that this

population were likely to have a high exposure to Western values and influences.

The pilot interviews with the British Pakistanis revealed that their parents' overprotective behaviour was considered affectionate by their children. This finding therefore revisits and overlaps Chao's (1994) argument, namely, that it is very difficult to compare and contrast particular typologies, such as control and in this case, 'over protection', as these have different connotations to different groups of people.

1.8.3 A review of parental tools assessing children's social behaviours

This literature review has so far detailed the way in which different parenting styles, practices and dimensions have been linked to associated differences in children's social competence and behaviour, with some variation in outcomes between the different ethnic groups being investigated (Lamborn et al, 1996; Bates et al, 1996; Power et al, 1992).

Past studies have investigated children's social behaviours in a variety of ways, including the use of in-home open ended parental interviews, teacher's responses on assessments such as the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) and peer socio-metric ratings. Each assessment procedure holds advantages and disadvantages. Indeed, Eliott and Busse (1991) point out that, 'A standard battery of tests or methods for assessing social skills does not exist (p.67)'.

In order for this study to investigate the links between parenting dimensions and children's social behaviours, a suitable measure needs to be located. A small selection of these measures will now be reviewed (refer to Tables 1.4 a, b, c

and d), with the aim of identifying a tool that might be practically used in this study. As it is planned that this study will be carried out hand in hand with the researcher undertaking full time EP practice, some assessment procedures that are considered costly on time have automatically been excluded from this review.

A decision was first made to focus on techniques that collect information from parents as opposed to teachers, peers or observers. It was considered desirable to have parents provide views on both their parenting dimensions and their children's social behaviours, as this allows for the target child's ethnic background to be matched to the respondent's. If the respondents' ethnic background is unmatched to the target child (e.g. White teacher reporting on Pakistani child's social behaviours), this may create a possible confound in relation to differences in cultural experiences. There is evidence that differences between teacher and parent expectations of behaviour and differences between children's behaviour at home and school can be subject to cultural influence. Keller (1988) compared parent and teacher ratings of the social behaviour of seven-year-old Black, Hispanic and White children in the USA. In line with the findings of past studies, low to moderate correlations were found between parent and teacher ratings. However, when the results of the three ethnic groups were analysed separately it was found that these conclusions only applied to the White pupils. No significant association was found between the behaviour ratings given by teachers and parents to Black and Hispanic children.

This thesis is concerned with those children's social behaviours that the EP is routinely requested to become involved in, such as, children's lack of attention, emotional and behavioural difficulties and peer relationship problems. Four parental instruments that focused on such aspects were located and selected for further appraisal, the outcomes of which are reported in Tables 1.4 a, b, c and d).

Although each has its strengths, the SDQ appears to offer the most convincing rationale for use in this thesis. Its standardisation was carried out on a large British sample and in practical terms it takes approximately five minutes to complete. It also targets social behaviours that the EP is routinely requested to become involved in. Although one of the disadvantages of the SDQ is that it places an uneven emphasis on the assessment of pro social behaviours (five items) versus social difficulties (20 items), this has limited relevance to this study. The focus of this thesis is on children's social difficulties, something EPs are often requested to become involved in, in their day to day work.

Table 1.4 A review of parental measures assessing children's social behaviour

(a) Social Skills Questionnaires (SSQs) (Spence, 1995)

Measure	Background	
Social Skills Questionnaires (SSQs) **(Spence 1995)**	The SSQs were designed for use with 8 to 18-year-olds and to focus on those social behaviours that are proposed to influence the outcome of social interactions. These questionnaires contain 30 items, comprising a series of statements which assess whether particular skills and competencies are partly, fully or not at all established.	**Advantages** ✓ The scales have been shown to have good psychometric properties in terms of reliability and validity and to be sensitive to change in response to social skills training with children who exhibit social phobia (Spence 1995; Spence, Donovan and Brechman-Toussaint, 2000). ✓ This tool was standardised on a British population.
	Respondents are expected to base their judgements on the young person's behaviour over the past four weeks. Items cover a wide range of social skills including the ability to deal with situations requiring an assertive response, the ability to handle conflict situations and the quality of peer and family relationships. SSQs have been developed for use by parents, teachers and pupils.	**Disadvantages** • The young person's behaviour is only based on the past four weeks, which may not be representative of their actual behaviour. • SSQs are designed for children and young adults aged between 8 and 18 years. This excludes participation of seven-year-olds who comprise a quarter of Key Stage 2. • Some of the SSQ items emphasise social skills which are raised infrequently as areas of concern for the attention of EPs, such as the ability for a child to deal with situations in an assertive manner.

b) Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Goodman, 2001)

Measure	Background	
Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) **(Goodman, 2001)**	The SDQ is a brief behavioural screening questionnaire targeting 3 to 16-year-olds. It consists of parent, teacher and pupil versions. All versions of the SDQ ask 25 psychological attributes, some positive and others negative. These 25 items are divided into five scales: emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity/inattention and peer relationship problems. In addition five items target children's pro social behaviours. The SDQ is assessed on a three-point scale ranging from (0) 'Not true', (1) 'some what true', and (2) 'certainly true' of the child.	**Advantages** ✓ This tool was standardised on a British population. ✓ The standardisation was carried out on a large national sample of 10,438 British 5 to 15-year-olds, obtaining SDQs from 96% of parents, 70% of teachers and 91% of 11 to 15-year-olds. ✓ It takes up to five minutes to complete which would be a major 'selling point' when approaching potential participants. ✓ The reliability and validity of the SDQ makes it a useful brief measure of the adjustment and psychopathology of children and adolescents (Goodman, 2001). Reliability is generally satisfactory, whether judged by internal consistency (mean Cronbach alpha: .73), cross-informant correlation (mean: 0.34), or retest stability after four to six months (mean: 0.62). ✓ The young person's behaviour is targeted over the past six months, which is likely to offer a representative picture of their true behaviour. ✓ The SDQ targets social behaviours that the EP is routinely requested to become involved in, such as, children's lack of attention, their emotional and behavioural difficulties and peer relationship problems. **Disadvantages** • The physical design of the SDQ is slightly dense, so participants would need to be careful when responding in order that they avoid any mix ups. • The SDQ places an uneven emphasis on the assessment of pro social behaviours (5 items) versus social difficulties (20 items).

c) Social Skills Rating System (SSRS): (Gresham and Elliott, 1990)

Measure	Background
Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) **(Gresham and Elliott, 1990)**	The SSRS is a nationally standardized series of questionnaires that obtain information on the social behaviours of children and adolescents. It targets 3 to 18 year-olds and takes up to 10 to 25 minutes to complete. The SSRS has been developed for use by parents, teachers and pupils. Prosocial behaviours are rated in terms of frequency of occurrence and target behaviours that are proposed to influence the quality of relationships with others on 3 dimensions relating to self-control, cooperation and assertion. The Social Skills Scale measures positive social behaviours: Cooperation, Empathy, Assertion, Self-Control and Responsibility. The Problem Behaviour Scale measures behaviours that can interfere with the development of positive social skills. It assesses behaviour in three subscales: Externalizing Problems, such as aggressive acts and poor temper control; Internalizing Problems, such as sadness and anxiety; Hyperactivity, such as fidgeting and impulsive acts. The Academic Competence Scale provides a quick estimate of academic functioning. **Advantages** ✓ The social skills subscale has been shown to have strong psychometric properties (Demaray, Ruffalo, Carlson, Brusse and Olson, 1995). **Disadvantages** • An examination of the items reveals that many relate to more general aspects of functioning, such as 'produces correct school work'; puts work materials away'. Although these are important areas of behavioural adjustment, they do not relate specifically to the interpersonal aspects of social skills. • Participants may be discouraged to take part in this study as the SSRS can take up to 25 minutes to complete. • The SSRS comprises a variety of scales, which may seem confusing to potential participants.

(d) The Child Behaviour Checklist for Ages 4-16 (CBCL/4-16) (Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1983)

Measure	Background	
The Child Behaviour Checklist for Ages 4-16 (CBCL/4-16) **(Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1983)**	The CBCL/4-16 records the behavioural problems and competencies of children aged 4 through to 16, as reported by their parents or close relatives who know the child well. The checklist comprises 113 items that are all scored on a 3-step scale, 0=not true, 1= somewhat true and 2 = very true. The instrument provides 3 scores: a total score and scores on internalizing behaviours (fearful, shy, anxious and inhibited) and externalizing behaviours (aggressive, anti-social and under controlled.	**Advantages** ✓ The CBCL/4-16 has sound psychometric properties. Test retest reliability is reportedly high, 0.84 to 0.97. **Disadvantages** • The tool was developed on American populations. • There are 113 items to complete, which may discourage participants from taking part. • Items comprising the internalizing scale are open to interpretation, such as how 'inhibited' is assessed.

1.8.4 A summary of the research findings

This chapter has covered a large body of literature which will now be summarised. To recap, most research has found particular parenting styles and practices to be associated with specific developmental outcomes in White American children (Strassberg et al, 1994).

Non British research provides evidence of both differences and similarities in the parenting styles and practices of different ethnic groups. Although, differences have been found in the parenting styles and practices of African and White American parents, these have been linked to different developmental outcomes in children according to the ethnic background to which they belong (Bates et al, 1996). Differences have also been found amongst the reported parenting styles of White American and Japanese mothers (Azuma, 1986; Bacon and Ichikawa, 1988). Further, findings reveal within-group variation amongst single ethnic groups, (Black American mothers) in their attitudes toward physical punishment (Kelley et al, 1992). Conversely, South Asian parents living in Canada report similar attitudes and perceptions regarding the use of physical discipline as wider community standards for appropriate child-rearing practices as identified by others (Dubowitz et al,1988; Portwood, 1999) that is, they consider persistent and excessive use of discipline to be inappropriate.

British research on parent-child interactions points towards differences amongst ethnic groups. British Asian adolescents perceive themselves as having received less care and more protection than their non-Asian counterparts

(Shams and Williams, 1995). Similarly, British Pakistani girls also perceive their mothers and fathers as more over protective than both Pakistani participants living in Pakistan and White British girls (Mujtaba and Furnham, 2001).

In addition, studies reveal that what maybe seen as an acceptable method of parenting in one culture may be interpreted as unacceptable in another. Irfan and Cowburn (2004), for example found the majority of British Pakistani young people and adults who experienced physical punishment as part of their childhood (comprising 75% of their sample) reportedly considered it as an appropriate disciplining method.

Finally, the relationship between parenting style and child's gender has yielded inconsistent results. Some studies have found no relationship (Lamborn, et al 1991) whereas others have (Russell et al, 1998).

1.8.5 Gaps in the research

There are noticeable gaps in the research literature on parenting styles and practices. The vast majority research has been conducted on White middle-class American populations (Mahtani Stewart et al, 2000) including the development of parenting measures (Chao, 1994). Further, there is a lack of research into the parenting styles of British minority ethnic groups. The research that there is tends to target the perspectives of Asian participants, as if they comprise a homogenous group. The research to date, has focused on clinical populations or the field of social services, dealing with issues related to child maltreatment.

In addition, the research literature has homed in on the views of adolescents and their parents rather than the views of parents of primary aged children. Further, existing research fails to take advantage of the benefits to be gained from investigating parenting dimensions as opposed to parenting styles and practices.

1.9 Purpose of the main study

This study therefore seeks to gain some insight into the parenting dimensions of White and Pakistani British mothers of primary school children by administering the PDI-S to them. It will also seek to gain these mothers' perspectives on their child's social difficulties, by administering them the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ), (refer to Appendix 3).

1.9.1 Research questions

(1) Are there any significant differences between the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children, and/or differences related to the child's gender, as assessed by:-

a) The first five scales of the PDI-S; Nurturance, Inconsistency, Following through on discipline, Organization and Amount of control employed.

b) The last six scales of the PDI-S that measure the type of control being employed; namely, Letting the situation go, Physical punishment, Material or Social consequences, Reasoning, Scolding or Reminding the child.

(2) Are there differences in the degree to which Pakistani and White mothers report the use of Reasoning, Scolding or Reminding, as types of control methods that they use with their child?

(3) Which PDI-S dimensions, as reported by participants, are related to their children's total difficulties score on the SDQ? Do these findings differ according to participants' ethnic group?

1.9.2 Research hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Pakistani mothers will score higher on the Parenting Dimensions Inventory – Short Version (PDI-S) scale assessing, 'amount of control', than White mothers. [The PDI-S [Power, 2002], will be discussed in more detail in chapters 2 and 3].

Rationale for hypothesis 1

Past studies have found differences in the parenting styles and practices of populations belonging to different ethnic groups, as measured by parental self-reports (Fagan, 2000; Power and Kobayshi-Winata, 1992). Very little is known about the parental perspectives of British Pakistani parents. However, British Asian adolescents have been found to perceive themselves as having received higher protection from their parents, compared to White British adolescents (Shams and Williams, 1995). A further study found greater eating disorders in British Asian girls, compared to White British girls, as measured by the EAT questionnaire and these scores were found to be positively related to parental over protection (Furnham and Husain, 1999). In addition, Mutjaba and Furnham (2001) found British Pakistani girls had higher EAT scores than White British girls and Pakistani girls brought up in Pakistan. British Pakistani girls

perceived their mothers and fathers to be more over protective than the other two groups.

Hypothesis 2

Mothers who report employing more reasoning with their children as a means of dealing with their misbehaviour in several situations, as measured by the PDI-S (Power, 2002) are less likely to report that their children exhibit social difficulties, as assessed by the SDQ, (Goodman, 1997).

Rationale for hypothesis 2

The majority of research indicates that parents who are involved with their children, who explain their thinking to them and who have democratic households, tend to have children who are socially competent (Schneider, 2000). Laird, Pettit, Mize, Brown and Lindsey (1994) found acceptance by peers was higher for children whose mothers' conversations included more emotion and more advice. Further, Kennedy (1992) found the mothers of popular children were more likely to teach them about social skills, spend more time in child-centred activities, use less punishment and use more reasoning or explanations in discipline.

1.10 Purpose of the pilot study

As has been demonstrated from the analysis of instruments for assessing parenting styles, practices and dimensions presented in section 1.5.1 of this chapter, the PDI has a number of key advantages for the purposes of the present study. It is a well recognised parenting questionnaire with psychometrically sound scales, which has been used in a variety of studies to

investigate parenting dimensions, including research into minority ethnic groups. However, it was developed with American populations, which raises questions about its applicability with British populations, an issue dealt with in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2

PILOT STUDY

2.1 Overview

This chapter reports the pilot study, which was methodological in nature and investigated the suitability of the Parental Dimensions Inventory (PDI) with a British population. The PDI (Slater and Power, 1987) is a self-administered parenting questionnaire which was developed using American samples.

Five White and five Asian mothers of primary aged children were interviewed. They were requested to work through the PDI, comment on its clarity, explain when they found particular questions unclear and consider whether they found any of the questionnaire scales confusing. It was necessary to investigate the views of both White and Asian participants as it was planned that both these groups would be administered the PDI in the main study.

This chapter describes the method employed to recruit participants and the interview procedure. It presents background information on participants, interview transcripts and the results of this study. The discussion section considers possible amendments to the PDI in light of the participants' responses. The limitations of this study are also considered.

2.1.1 Purpose of pilot study

- To investigate the applicability of the PDI with a British population, in terms of the ease with which participants are able to work through the

measure, understand the wording of questions being asked and respond to the scales employed.

- To respond to parents' feedback on the PDI, by making any necessary amendments to it.

2.1.2 Research question

Is the PDI an accessible and appropriate tool to employ, in order to investigate the parenting dimensions of a British population?

2.2 Method

2.2.1 Research design

Participants were individually interviewed whilst completing and commenting on the PDI. These interviews were taped and transcribed.

2.2.2 Participant recruitment

One local primary school was initially approached on the grounds that the head teacher was seen to be supportive of group projects run by the EPS. The head teacher was requested to select five White and five Asian (from countries forming part of the Indian sub-continent, namely, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka) to take part in the study, who had at least one child aged between 3 and 12 years. A second local primary school was approached to make up for the lack of Asian participants who took part from the first school (only three agreed to participate from the first school). The head teachers invited mothers individually and were encouraged to closely adhere to the information participant sheet provided when doing this (refer to Appendix 4).

2.2.3 Interview procedure

All participants were interviewed separately. They were read the instructions from the participant information sheet in order to ensure consistency and replicability. Participants were thanked for taking part in the study, explained the rationale of the pilot and what they needed to do. All the interviews were recorded on audiotape from the moment after the instructions had been read to the participants.

The participants worked through the PDI questions in sequence and discussed their responses with the interviewer before deciding on their final answer. They were encouraged to explain their thinking throughout the interview. Further, participants were asked to highlight any parts of the questionnaire that they found particularly difficult to understand or answer and to elaborate on their reasons. All participants were also requested to give their overall impression of the PDI's clarity after having completed it.

The parental interviews took place in the school libraries, as both head teachers suggested that these rooms would offer best working conditions with least distractions. No other individuals were given access to the room whilst the study was underway.

2.3 Ethical issues

Careful consideration was given to whether it was necessary to inform participants that the overall sample comprised two ethnic groups and indeed whether they would benefit from being given insight into the main study that was planned. It was felt that participants may have become preoccupied with

this information, had they been informed and enquired about the methodology and rationale of the main study rather than focus on the task at hand. Further, it was considered that some participants may have been discouraged from taking part in the pilot study had they known that the main study would be investigating the sensitive issue of parenting in two ethnic groups. The decision was therefore taken not to mention that half the sample was White and the other half Asian, or to discuss the main study with participants.

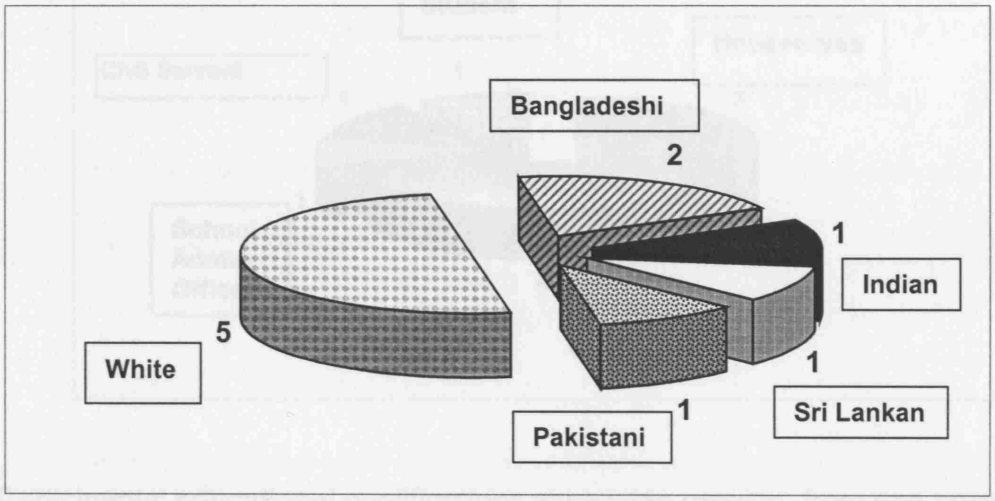
Participants were however informed that their responses would be kept confidential and their audio taped interviews erased once the study had been completed. They were also assured that their identities would be masked when the pilot was written up at the end of their interviews.

A further issue that was given consideration was whether it was ethical for the head teachers to physically approach parents inviting them to take part in the study rather than writing to them. Written invitations would have given parents the time to think about whether they in fact wished to take part in the study, whereas a face to face invitation from the head teacher may have left parents feeling under pressure to agree, although both methods to some extent may have placed parents under some pressure to take part. Both head teachers signalled a preference to physically approach parents to take part in the study reporting that they would find it practically more manageable. They did however emphasise that they would only approach those parents that were likely or willing to take part, based on their experiences with that parent.

2.4 Participants

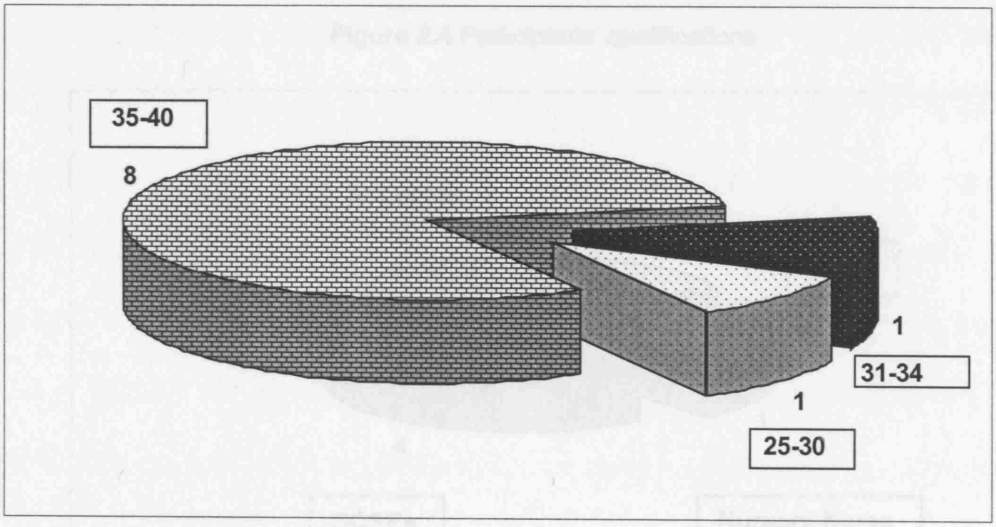
The final sample comprised a fairly heterogeneous group of 10 mothers (see figure 2.1 and Appendix 5). There were five White and five Asian participants altogether. The Asian participants belonged to four different ethnic groups.

Figure 2.1 Participants' ethnic background



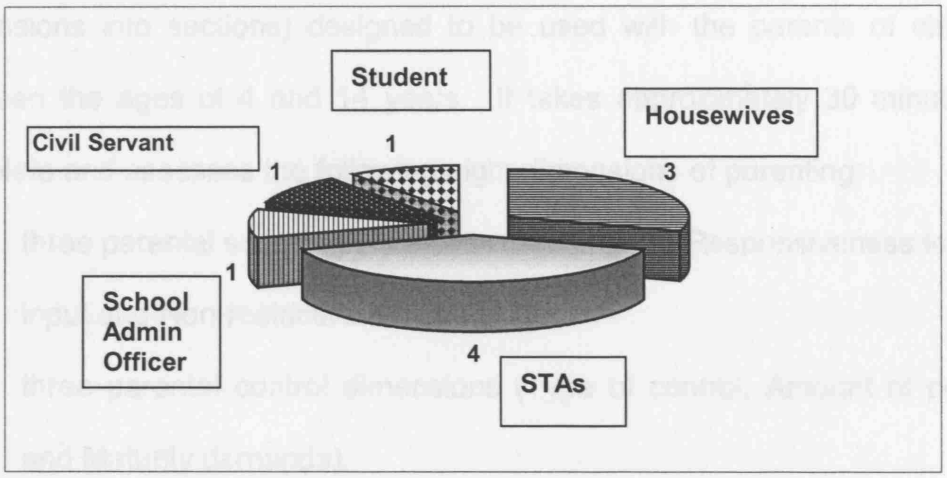
As can be seen from figure 2.2, eight of the participants were aged 35 to 40 and two belonged to a younger age group.

Figure 2.2 Participants' ages



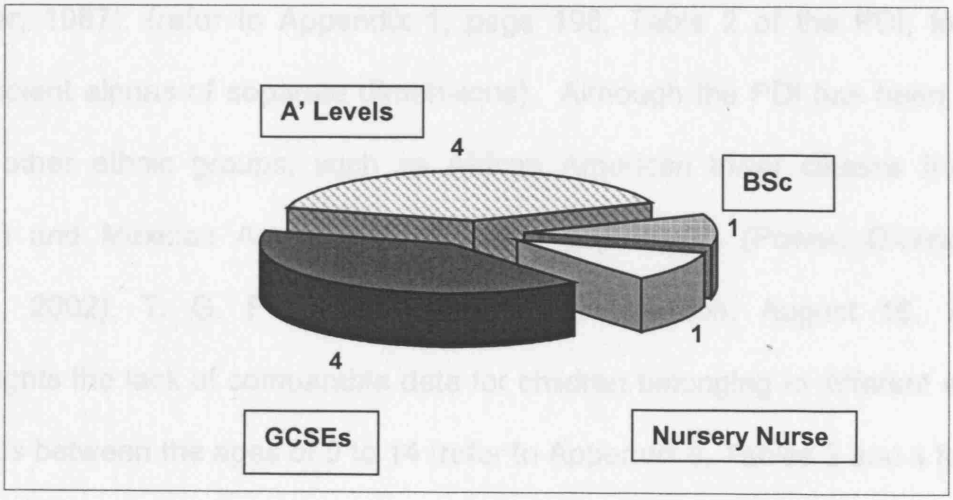
The participants were employed in five different types of occupations, (see figure 2.3) with the largest group comprising Primary School Teaching Assistants (STAs).

Figure 2.3 Participants' occupations



Participants' educational qualifications were wide ranging, from one possessing a BSc degree, four having A'levels, one being a qualified Nursery Nurse and four having studied to GCSE level (refer to figure 2.4). All, apart from one participant had at least two children.

Figure 2.4 Participants' qualifications



2.5 Measures

2.5.1 The Parental Dimensions Inventory (PDI)

The PDI (Slater and Power, 1987) is a self-administered parenting questionnaire (refer to Table 2.1 for an overview of the organisation of dimensions into sections) designed to be used with the parents of children between the ages of 4 and 14 years. It takes approximately 30 minutes to complete and assesses the following eight dimensions of parenting:

- three parental support dimensions (Nurturance, Responsiveness to child input and Non-restrictive attitude).
- three parental control dimensions (Type of control, Amount of control and Maturity demands).
- two parental structure dimensions (Consistency and Organization).

The PDI was developed on two samples of White middle-class American parents of 4 to 14 year olds (112 participants took part in the first study and 140 in the second). Acceptable reliability and internal consistency has been reported for the PDI with coefficient alphas ranging from .65 to .82 (Slater and Power, 1987), (refer to Appendix 1, page 198, Table 2 of the PDI, for the coefficient alphas of separate dimensions). Although the PDI has been used with other ethnic groups, such as African American lower classes (Kelley, 1988) and Mexican American low-income populations (Power, Olvera and Hays, 2002), T. G. Power, (personal communication, August 16, 2005) highlights the lack of comparable data for children belonging to different ethnic groups between the ages of 9 to 14 (refer to Appendix 8, Tables 3 and 4 for the co-efficient alphas of these samples).

The PDI has been validated by examining its correlation with parent teacher ratings of child behaviour problems (Boggio, 1987; Sharp, 1988; Slater and Power, 1987), children's behaviour observed in a stressful situation (Cox, 1987) and fathers' and close friends' ratings of the mothers' behaviour and attitudes (Boggio, 1987; Sharp, 1988).

Before the PDI was administered to the pilot sample, it was examined for spellings, words and phrases not in common usage in the UK and that might be misunderstood by participants. For example, the American spelling of 'behavior' was changed to the English spelling, 'behaviour' and the word 'garbage' was changed to the more familiar word 'rubbish'. In order to establish the degree of accuracy achieved by the changes made to the PDI, these were discussed with a British national who had been living in the USA for over 10 years. (Appendix 6 records the full list of changes made and Appendix 7 provides a copy of the adjusted PDI).

Table 2.1 An overview of the eight dimensions (comprising eight scales) of the PDI

Section I	This involves gathering preliminary information on the participants, e.g. child's age
Section II	This comprises 26 descriptive statements on a six-point scale for assessing Parental Nurturance, Inconsistency and Following through on discipline. The scale ranges from (1) 'Not at all descriptive of me' through to (6) 'Highly Descriptive of me'. ***Scale 1 - Nurturance contains six items (RSPI = 1-6)*, e.g. *'I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles'.*** ***Scale 2 - Responsiveness to Child Input contains five items (RSPI = 1-6)*, e.g. *'I believe it is not always a good idea to encourage children to talk about their worries because it can upset them even more'.*** ***Scale 3 - Non restrictive Attitude contains seven items (RSPI = 1-6)*, e.g. *'I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he or she misbehaves'.*** ***Scale 4 - Consistency (how inconsistent a parent reports to be) contains eight items (RSPI = 1-6)*, e.g. *'I always follow through on discipline with my child no matter how long it takes'.***
Section III	This comprises a series five opposing statements. Participants must choose the statement that they agree with most for assessing amount of control. They then indicate the degree to which they agree with the statement on a seven-point scale, which ranges from (1) Strongly agree more with A, through to (7) Strongly agree more with B. The mid point of the scale gives participants the opportunity to agree equally with both statements A and B. ***Scale 5 - Amount of Control contains 5 items (RSPI =1-7), e.g. 'Nowadays too much emphasis is placed on obedience for children' versus 'nowadays parents are too concerned about letting children do what they want'.***
Section IV	This assesses family organization by asking participants to respond to four statements on a six-point scale. The scale ranges from (1) 'Never', through to (6) 'Always'. ***Scale 6 - Organization contains 4 items (RSPI = 1-6), e.g. 'We get everything done around the house that needs to be done'.***
Section V	This assesses maturity demands by asking participants to circle the number of jobs their child does in six different areas, (meal times, house work, laundry, gardening, pet care and other) on a four-point scale, ranging from (0) None, through to (3) three or more. ***Scale 7 - Maturity Demands contains 6 items, (RSPI =1-4), e.g. 'Other' includes babysitting, watering the plants, washing the car, bringing in the post, etc.***
Section VI	This requires parents to indicate on a four-point scale how likely it is that they would use different types of discipline (e.g. letting the situation go, take something away or add an additional chore, spank or hit the child, talk to the child with rationale for correct desired behaviour, tell the child off or remind the child of the rule) in five disciplinary situations. The scale ranges from (0) 'Very unlikely to do' through to (3) 'Very likely to do'. ***Scale 8 - Type of Control contains six items, requiring 42 separate responses in total (RSPI = 0-3), e.g. 'Your child has gone outside without picking up his or her toys as you requested'.***

RSPI = Range of scores per item.

2.6 Results

2.6.1 Qualitative content analysis

Overall eight out of ten participants found the PDI to be straightforward to follow and user friendly. The two participants who reported otherwise lacked fluency in English and may have misinterpreted what was being asked of them. This finding was further supported by the number of questions participants failed to answer due to a lack of clarity. As can be seen from Table 2.2, two participants failed to respond to question 4, two failed to respond to question 12 and 3 participants failed to respond to question 21. Hence out of 830 questions (83 questions asked to each of 10 participants) only on seven occasions was the question not answered due to a lack of clarity, which is less than 1%.

Table 2.2 The questions from section 2 of the PDI that were unanswered as participants felt these lacked clarity.

	Question 4	Question 12	Question 21
Participant 1	✖		✖
Participant 3	✖	✖	✖
Participant 7		✖	✖

✖ = *Unanswered Questions*

2.6.1.1 Section 2 of the PDI

Participants raised issue with further questions that they found unclear. These are reported separately for different sections of the PDI below, with section 2 being revisited in more detail next.

The views of White and Asian participants (refer to Tables 2.3 and 2.10) have been presented separately in order to ascertain whether participants raised

issues about the PDI across the board, or more according to the ethnic background to which they belonged. Tables 2.4 to 2.9 report White participants' reasons for raising issue with particular questions in section 2, during discussion with the interviewer and Tables 2.11, 2.112 and 2.13 target Asian participants' reasons for raising issue with particular questions.

- As can be seen from Tables 2.3 and 2.10 the White participants raised noticeably more queries than the Asian.
- Further, similar queries were raised by participants regardless of the ethnic background to which they belonged.
- Participants offered the same rationale for querying questions 4 (refer to Tables 2.4 and 2.11) and 12 (refer to Tables 2.6 and 2.12).
- There were also occasions when participants (three White and one Asian) provided different reasons for querying the same questions, such as in the case of question 21. Two participants reported confusion as they felt the question seemed to ask about their child and not them, whereas another participant felt the scale would benefit from including the option of 'sometimes' (refer to Table 2.8). Another participant, although finding question 21 unclear was unable to say why (refer to Table 2.13).
- In addition, there were 2 occasions when only one participant raised a query with a question (refer to Tables 2.5 and 2.7).

White participants' responses to section 2 of the PDI

Table 2.3 Summary of issues raised by White participants

	No. of White Participants (out of 5) raising issue with particular questions
Qu 4	2/5
Qu 8	1/5
Qu 12	2/5
Qu 20	1/5
Qu 21	3/5
Qu 22	1/5

Table 2.4 One White participant's reason for raising issue with question 4

'I do not allow my child to get angry with me'

Participant 1

"I do not let my child to get angry with me? ***It's a tricky one isn't it?*** *It is - I wouldn't like him to but he does.* ***Is that something you are struggling to answer because of the actual question? Maybe that's something I need to look into?*** *Yes - because a child getting angry with you is not something you can always have control over is it?* ***I agree. I agree - yes!*** *You know I wouldn't like him to but he does so I don't know how to answer that one.* ***So maybe that's something I could look into because I agree with you, it's not as if - you know - children do get angry and it's not as if we have control over that.*** *That's right!* ***Ok shall we move onto the next one if you can't answer that one?*** *Yes".*

Participant 3

"I'd like her not to – but they do. Mind you, this one wasn't so much as the youngest one. Erm – so I do not allow? It's not really the right word is it? ***No – you're not the first person to pick that up. It's true because there is consistency there amongst people. It's tricky isn't it?*** *It is, because as I say all children get angry – you don't like them to particularly.* ***You don't necessarily have the option to allow or disallow – are you saying?*** *No, I mean sometimes it happens, as you say, even if you don't want it to.* ***But even that question then, I do not allow my child to get angry with me, what do you think about being asked that?*** *I just think it is a funny way of putting it really. To allow? I mean, does my child get angry with me, would be better wouldn't it?* ***I think so.*** *Yeah.* ***OK.*** *So am I leaving that one?* ***Erm, is there something you can come up with? If not then*** **we will move on – but it's more – I'm picking up the point you've made. If you can't answer that then we'll move on.** No I can't. **OK".**

Table 2.5 One White participant's reason for raising issue with question 8

'I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than other children'.

Participant 4

"I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than other children. *I don't know how to answer that one really cause they can only do as well as they can really - can't they? So you just encourage them. I don't know where I would put my answer.* ***That's fine because it's quite wide.*** *I would just encourage them themselves, not against another child.* ***Yeah – so you don't want them to be competitive.*** *No – not really just do their best.* ***No - exactly.*** *So should I tick there I wonder?* ***So that's a bit tricky that one – perhaps it's the wording. Perhaps that's something I could think about.*** *Yeah, erm, so I will just go half way on that one. No. I wouldn't do it at all actually – not against other children. That would be the answer then.* ***OK – so possibly it's something I could look into because it's actually not very specific is it? It could even mean the child is being encouraged to be too competitive.*** *Yeah.* ***And you're thinking another way aren't you? You're saying that.....*** *You can't make a child do better than that child can do anyway can you?* ***Yeah – you just want him or her to do the best they can.*** *Yeah and what's best for them.* ***Yeah –OK".***

Table 2.6 White participants' reasons for raising issue with question 12

'I don't think children should be given sexual information'

Participant 1

"Well now, that depends on what age group we are talking about – am I just talking about my age group specifically? ***Well it doesn't say does it? It is unclear, you obviously can only apply it to your child, who is 8.*** *That's right, so obviously not, he's too young. It's not that I disagree with children being given sexual information.* ***It's possibly a misleading question as it doesn't really clarify does it?*** *No.* ***Maybe that's something.***

Participant 3

*At what child's age are we talking about I mean? Like at my 9 year olds age, being given that information or? I don't think children...****It's not specific again.*** *No.* ***It's not very clear.*** *No – as I say my daughter's 9 years old and we are beginning to sort of explain. Yeah cause she does ask some questions, but obviously my 7 year old I wouldn't particularly.* ***No.*** *It would depend on age I think there.* ***OK".***

Table 2.7 One White participant's reason for raising issue with question 20

'I have little or no difficulty sticking with my rules for my child even when close relatives (including when grandparents) are there.'

Participant 2

"Oh – that's a tough one. ***Erm,*** *I do have difficulty- yes- with my grandparents and Mum. I would say..... Is that I have little or no difficulty?* ***Sticking to your rules.*** *I find that a little bit confusing - that – 'I have little or no difficulty'. I either have no difficulty or I do have difficulty. I would rather see that as a yes or a no there. That's sort of a bit.....I find that a little bit confusing because I am not sure which box to tick so I am going to go for number 4.* ***Thanks for that one".***

Table 2.8 White participants' reasons for raising issue with question 21

'When I let my child talk about his/her troubles, s/he ends up complaining even more.'

Participant 1

"You see again that would be a 'sometimes' answer – I don't know. ***So maybe an option would be sometimes as maybe you would find that more realistic.*** *Yeah, cause some of the questions are; Yes, No, or Sometimes.* ***A lot like me, not much like me – yes OK. So if you're finding it too difficult –you may want to leave it because obviously...*** *Because it's a sometimes question I can't answer it with what is up there.*

Participant 2

Erm.....it depends (long silence). This is about my child? ***Yes.*** *And this is about how I feel and not how my child feels.* ***Erm.*** *Do you understand that?* ***Yes I do. Yes.*** *Because - when I let my child talk about his or her problems she ends up complaining even more?* ***Right.*** *But that says somewhat descriptive of ME! and not my child.* ***Yes – I understand. When I let my child talk about his or her troubles he or she ends up complaining even more.*** *It's somewhat descriptive.* ***So it's not directly about you is it?*** *No No – I'm a bit .....erm.* ***Can you go with one?*** *I'll go with number 3.* ***So middle of the road – playing it safe?***

Participant 3

That's not really about me – when I let me child talk. It's about them isn't it really? ***Erm – so that's a bit confusing isn't it?*** *Erm – yeah. It's very descriptive of me and yet this is about the child.* ***I agree.*** *That's a weird one – I'll leave that one".*

Table 2.9 One White participant's reason for raising issue with question 22

'I expect my child to be grateful to his/her parents, and appreciate all the advantages he/she has.'

Participant 2

"See that's another one really isn't it? ***Erm.*** *Of course you would want them to appreciate you but it doesn't always work out because they are quite spoilt. You see I would want them all the time to feel that they appreciate me. I would go for number 4 but I find that that doesn't really go with the tallying.* ***Yes- OK. No it's good that you are pointing these out to me.*** *Oh right – yes.* ***So these are the sort of ideas I am looking for anyway. So not to worry it's really about how user friendly this can be and possible points that you are not finding easy as I do want to work with many many people later on in the year. OK let's move onto the next one".***

Asian participants' responses to section 2 of the PDI

Table 2.10 Summary of issues raised by Asian participants

No. of Asian Participants (out of 5) raising issue with particular questions	
Qu 4	1/5
Qu 12	1/5
Qu 21	1/5

Table 2.11 One Asian participant's reason for raising issue with question 4

'I do not allow my child to get angry with me'
Participant 8
"You're sort of pulling a face there. Is it a bit confusing that one? I do not allow my child to get angry with me? *That's normal because they get angry sometimes. It's normal emotions isn't it?* ***I think so – it's not necessarily about allowing. Middling or not sure?*** *2.* ***OK".***

Table 2.12 One Asian participant's reason for raising issue with question 12

'I don't think children should be given sexual information'
Participant 7
"Erm.....I think at a certain age they need to be told and especially with my older child cause the little ones - you know I can see him, you know, he is picking up things maybe from school or television. But he is not as informed and I don't think the time has come for him especially at the age of 6 to go into that but my older child is learning about this at school and he does come home and ask questions. And I feel that it is important to give him as much information as possible but also tell him that especially being of Asian origin there are certain things we don't discuss in front of the other members of the family. But I tell him that it is ok for him to ask me in private. ***It sounds like you're saying then that it is really to do more with age - which is more relevant.*** *Yes.* ***So maybe that question is one that I need to look at because it is very open?*** *It's open yes.* ***Because I don't think that children should be given sexual information, although you are saying that you think it is appropriate at a certain age.*** *At a certain age – yes.* ***So that's a bit misleading so I mean.....*** *I don't know what to put there actually – I'll point that out - that it depends on age.* ***OK".***

Table 2.13 One Asian participant's reason for raising issue with question 21

'When I let my child talk about his/her troubles, s/he ends up complaining even more.'
Participant 7
(Long silence) "I don't know about this one. I think that is, you know that is why we are asking them to talk about it and you want them to. ***You accept it quite possibly.*** *So how would I scale that? I don't find this very clear actually in order of scale, in order to mark.* ***Yes I understand, I understand that.*** *Because by letting them talk you are asking them to explain in detail you know whatever. (Long silence) I don't know. I'm not going to put anything there I'm going to put 'not very clear'.* ***OK that's fair enough because it's likely that if you are finding it unclear, other parents are likely to too".***

2.6.1.2 Sections 3 to 6 of the PDI

- One participant raised a query with section 3 of the PDI, arguing that it was difficult for her to consider what other people thought about child rearing and that the section should have offered a middling response, which it in fact did and this was pointed out to her.
- Overall, section four, which assessed family organization by asking participants to respond to four statements on a six point scale, was seen to lack most clarity. Three participants (two White and one Asian) reported that different parts of section 4 were unclear.
- One participant raised a query with section 5, which assessed maturity demands by asking participants to circle the number of jobs their child did in six different areas, such as house work and gardening.
- In addition, two participants wished that section 6 of the PDI would have allowed them room to expand their answers in order to explain their thinking more. To recap, section 6 assessed how likely it was that participants would use different types of discipline in five separate situations (refer to Table 2.14).

2.6.2 Quantitative analysis

Although the purpose of this pilot study was to investigate the suitability of the PDI with a British population comprising only five White and five Asian participants, it was considered a useful exercise to compare the pilot sample's means and standard deviations (sds) to past studies. Similar means and sds between the pilot and past studies would have provided further support

towards the PDI being an applicable parenting tool for use with a British population.

Table 2.14 Issues raised by all participants in sections 3 to 6 of the PDI

Section being queried	Participant Raising the query	Nature of query
3	8	*"I found this part a bit confusing.* ***Why do you find that bit confusing?*** *Because these things are different from one person to another isn't it?* ***Yes.*** *Not all people do that.* ***No.*** *Nowadays there is too much emphasis placed.* ***So page 4 - you found that a bit confusing because you were having to speak for others – you felt giving your general opinion was difficult?*** *Yes because there should be something in between these - both of them.* ***Because you could agree with both of them if you wanted?*** *Yes, yes. But still it was a bit tricky".*
4	3	*Qu 1.* ***"We have a regular dinner schedule each week.*** *What do you mean? The food we eat or when we eat? You don't mean the type of food we have each week?* ***It's timing more so I think here.*** *But we all eat together – is that it?* ***It can be a mixture of things. Some people think of it as timing – eating at certain times. Some people think of it as possible foods that they eat.*** *Oh right – yep.* ***I think here it's not about what you eat, but when you eat, timings. So that's perhaps something that isn't clear".***
4	4	*Qu 2. "Clean and orderly are two separate things".*
4	7	*Qu 3.* ***"Our family is organized and together.*** *This – it depends because we all have busy lifestyles and again it's not clear how you mean organized and I mean as a family we're united, organized I'm not so sure about. Most of the time I think.* ***You can just put a question mark there so I can think about that one".***
5	2	*"The number of regular assigned chores? Is that once a week? Twice?"*
6	4	*"Really reading this you couldn't tell what I would actually do. You need room for a bit of writing in between to make your point".*
6	5	*"Yes I wished it could be more detailed if it was sort of like – when you have answered one of these sets of questions at the back and if you let the situation go – and you ask them to quantify their answers".*

The Longano (1990) and Slater and Power's (1987) studies were selected as comparisons, as they were the two largest samples accessible to Professor Power for the PDI to be used, T. Power (personal communication, January 10, 2005). Also, the means and sds for these samples were similar, suggesting that they were likely to be fairly representative of White middle class American parents as a whole.

Table 2.15 Participants' mean and standard deviations (sds) on the PDI in comparison to American studies

	Asian (N=5)		**White (N=5)**		**Longano (1990) (N= 271)**		**Slater & Power (1987)(N= 140)**	
Participants' responses to the 8 PDI-S scales	**Mean**	**Sd**	**Mean**	**Sd**	**Mean**	**Sd**	**Mean**	**Sd**
Nurturance	31.40	9.35	33.60	3.62	31.15	4.74	31.28	4.14
Responsiveness to Child Input	21.00	8.53	24.53	5.68	24.44	3.55	24.67	3.59
Non Restrictive Attitude	21.70	12.57	32.27	8.55	29.42	5.75	30.80	5.83
Consistency	34.00	14.20	32.20	10.80	34.15	6.95	36.77	5.84
Amount of Control	25.80	7.39	26.40	6.18	(Not	used)	4.07	1.00
Organization	20.00	8.38	16.00	5.60	(Not	used)	17.47	3.27
Maturity Demands	9.00	4.79	7.40	4.37	6.74	3.41	7.94	3.30
Type of Control								
Physical Punishment	2.20	3.55	0.20	0.45	3.38	3.70	(Not	used)
Material/Social Consequences	22.60	14.56	11.00	13.27	15.07	7.59	(Not	used)
Reasoning	18.00	0.00	16.20	2.22	13.57	2.09	(Not	used)
Scolding	14.20	4.06	13.20	6.52	9.95	4.32	(Not	used)
Reminding	17.80	0.45	16.20	3.20	13.21	2.91	(Not	used)

NB. Both Slater and Power (1987) and Longano's (1990) studies based their means and sds on predominantly White middle class American mothers, T. Power (personal communication, August 27, 2004). Both were 'samples of convenience' and were recruited from a variety of backgrounds and sources, T. Power (personal communication, January 11, 2005). The Slater and Power (1987) sample comprised parents of children from youth clubs, parents responding to newspaper advertisements to participate and parents of children from a variety of schools. The Longano (1990) sample comprised the parents of children from 5 Catholic Schools.

As can be seen from Table 2.15, the means and sds are generally comparable to past studies. However, there is noticeable difference in the higher mean for 'Material and Social consequences' being reported by Asian participants in this pilot study. This meant that Asian Participants in the pilot study reported

dealing with their child's misbehaviour by taking something away from them or sending them to their room more so than White participants in Longano's (1990) study. This finding may be better understood in terms of the lack of fluency with English that a couple of Asian participants had, an issue that will be dealt with in more detail in the discussion of this chapter.

The pilot data also allowed for the internal consistency of the PDI scales to be analysed (refer to Table 2.16). Checking the internal consistency of scales measures the degree to which the items that make up the scales are measuring the same underlying construct, (Pallant, 2001, p.85). This is particularly useful information, in that if internal consistency between scales is found to be low, then this provides an argument for the possible deletion of items and in some cases whole scales. Further, the internal consistency of the PDI has been thoroughly investigated by the authors of the PDI so this provides a useful basis for judging comparability with the present sample.

Table 2.16 The internal consistency of the PDI scales for the pilot study sample

PDI scale	Cronbach's Alpha for the sample in this pilot study	Cronbach's Alpha for the sample in Longano's (1990) study
Nurturance	0.89*	0.85*
Responsive to Child Input	0.62	0.40
Non-restrictive Attitude	0.82*	0.60
Consistency	0.46	0.80*
Amount of control	0.22	0.62
Maturity Demands	0.66	0.72*
Organization	0.83*	0.76*
Type of Control		
Physical Punishment	0.37	0.83*
Material/Social Consequences	0.91*	0.82*
Reasoning	-	0.69
Scolding	0.79*	0.89*
Reminding	-	0.83*

- = No alpha co-efficient was produced as the scale had '2 non-zero variance items'.
* = This scale can be considered reliable, as it has an Alpha value above 0.7

As can be seen from Table 2.16, five of the PDI scales achieved alpha co-efficients above 0.7 for this pilot sample and can therefore be considered reliable, as compared to eight PDI scales from the Longano (1990) sample. Nurturance, Organization, Material or Social Consequences and Scolding are the four PDI scales that achieved alpha co-efficients above 0.7 in both this pilot as well as the Longano (1990) studies.

2.7 Discussion

Overall eight out of ten participants found the PDI to be a clear and accessible tool, describing it as, 'user friendly, easy to follow and self-explanatory'. The remaining two participants struggled to follow through with the PDI due to their lack of fluency in English. Six out of ten participants did however query at least one question on the PDI, with some consistency amongst them.

2.7.1 The six-point scale

One of the issues raised by three out of ten participants was the use of the 6-point scale in section two of the PDI being too complex to follow. Comments included:

- *'There was too much thinking involved and I don't think the answer is going to be as accurate as it should be'.*
- *'They're all fairly similar. There wasn't a big enough gap and I don't think that you needed all the categories. It could have been, 'Not at all', 'fairly' and 'highly' I think'.*

- *'You know on page 2 how the scale reads from 1 to 6 that threw me a little bit, not at all descriptive of me or highly descriptive of me'.*

The evidence indicates however that reliability increases with more scale points (Nunnally, 1978). It is also the case that individuals tend to avoid the extreme ends of scales, meaning that it is usually better to have at least five scale points, because having three or four points often results in many responses in the middle, (Barker, Pistrang and Elliot, 1995). The problem with a five or seven-point rating scale is that it can suffer from individuals' over-reliance on the neutral response rather than them committing themselves to expressing an opinion (Fife-Schaw, 1995). In addition, most participants find it difficult to discriminate more than approximately seven points (Barker et al, 1995). The 6-point scale used in the PDI also has the advantage of anchoring (having labelled points on the scale as well as numbers). Although participants might have their different interpretations of the scale, the steps have been defined explicitly so that participants are rating the same criteria. The six-point scale is therefore seen as a valuable asset and the decision was taken not to alter it.

2.7.2 Questions queried by participants in section 2 of the PDI

The participants in this study raised a number of queries about particular questions on the PDI. Each will be discussed and the implications of these points considered in the 'Implications for main study' section of this pilot.

It was understandable why question 4 of the PDI was queried by three participants. It required participants to consider the degree to which the

following statement, 'I do not allow my child to get angry with me' was descriptive of them, on a scale of 1 to 6. Participants quite rightly asked whether they had the choice to disallow their child from becoming angry with them. It was argued that their child's anger just happened regardless of their opinion. When this criticism was fed back to Professor Thomas G. Power, who developed the PDI with his colleague (Power and Slater, 1987), he confirmed that parents often used the phrase, 'I do not allow my child to get angry with me' in the USA, to mean they did not allow their child to treat them disrespectfully when the child was angry. T. G. Power (personal communication, May 29, 2003).

Question 12 of the PDI was also seen to lack clarity by three participants, who asked for elaboration on the child's age when it came to them needing to respond to the statement, 'I don't think children should be given sexual information'. Clearly, there would be the need for parents to give their child sexual information at some stage, however, this statement failed to make any reference to the child's age, which made it difficult for parents to answer. T. G. Power (personal communication, May 29, 2003) explained that this question, as well as question 4, raised in the previous paragraph, came from an old instrument that was written in the 1960s using the word 'children' to refer to individuals under the age of 13. This was at a time when parents in the USA did not think it appropriate to talk about sexual matters with their children until they reached their teen years.

Four participants queried question 21 of the PDI, which asked them to rate the degree to which they agreed with the statement, 'When I let my child talk about his/her troubles, s/he ends up complaining even more'. Participants understandably found this question unclear, arguing that it was more about the child than the parent's style of interaction with their child. T. G. Power (personal communication, May 29, 2003) accepted and agreed that this question lacked clarity.

2.7.3 Questions queried by participants in sections 3 to 6 of the PDI

Participants also queried questions belonging to sections 3 to 6 of the PDI. There were five separate occasions when individual participants raised issue with a particular question. All these points were considered valid, apart from the query raised by participant 8, who argued it was difficult to speak in general terms about others' parenting attitudes and that the scale should have allowed a middling response. The scale in section 3 did in fact offer the option of a middling response and so this query was not considered further.

Participants' other queries were considered in more detail. One participant asked what was meant by a 'regular dinner schedule each week' in question 1, (section 4) and whether it referred to the food she and her family ate, or when they ate. T. G. Power (personal communication, May 29, 2003) confirmed that the question referred to timing and that this may have been an expression more familiar in the USA. It was confirmed that this question could be clarified 'without jeopardizing the integrity of the subscale'.

Another participant correctly argued that question 2 (section 4) of the PDI asked two separate things when enquiring about the degree to which participants' houses were 'clean and orderly'. Further, although not an issue raised by the participants in this study, it could also be argued that 'orderly' might mean different things to different individuals. Even though in agreement with this point, T. G. Power (personal communication, May 29, 2003) argued that 'clean and orderly' was more a colloquialism in the USA, meaning that these two words often went together in discussion and that when wanting to assess family organization more thoroughly, that he would consult the organization subscale from the Family Environment Scale (Moos and Moos, 1981).

Question 3 (section 4) of the PDI was also queried by one participant. It was quite rightly pointed out that 2 separate things were being targeted when asking participants to rate the degree to which their family was 'organized and together'. Further clarification was also requested on the meaning of, 'organized'.

Only one query was raised in section 5 of the PDI. It was appropriately pointed out that no time period had been given in which to consider the number of regular assigned chores that their child was responsible for (e.g. was it how many chores the child did in a week or twice a week?).

Finally, two participants expressed frustration about not being given the opportunity to expand on their reasons for their responses in section 6 of the PDI. This is a valuable point, as investigating parenting dimensions is a

sensitive matter and could result in participants feeling negatively judged without them being given the opportunity to explain their parenting decisions fully. However, encouraging participants to expand on their responses would add to the amount of time it would already take to complete the questionnaire, which could discourage potential participants from taking part. There would also be the issue of establishing criteria by which to quantify participants' responses in a meaningful way. Further, it is considered that those participants who would want to expand their responses to the PDI would do so, even without being requested to. It was therefore decided that no separate section asking participants to elaborate on their responses would be added to the PDI.

The fact that the PDI was originally developed with the American population in mind means that it contains some culturally specific phrases, which makes part of it unsuitable for British populations. Fife-Schaw (1995) highlights that one side of the argument is that tampering with the item wording changes the nature of the scale so that it is no longer equivalent to the original and hence comparable with past studies. Conversely, it is considered poor research practice to administer questionnaires that contain phrases or assumptions that respondents are unlikely to be familiar with. Emphasis was therefore placed on striving to convey the same meaning of words as far as possible, when changes were made to the original PDI items.

2.7.4 Limitations of this study

Participants were required to focus on two separate issues, namely answering the PDI questions, as well as considering its general clarity. It is therefore

questionable whether they were able to donate equal amounts of attention to both these tasks. It is considered more likely that they tended to focus on one task more than another. Although, it could be argued that participants might only be able to identify questions that lacked clarity by working through and answering them themselves, another methodology might also have been employed. One group of participants could have followed the methodology employed in this study and a second group, be encouraged to specifically work through the PDI looking for questions that they thought lacked clarity, without needing to answer them. A comparison of participants' responses could then have been made.

What needs to be acknowledged however, is that although participants were expected to answer the questions, they were asked to focus on the clarity of the PDI. This was demonstrated by them feeling that it was acceptable to leave out questions that they felt lacked clarity (refer to Table 2.2). Further, the emphasis on encouraging participants to consider the clarity of the PDI was again demonstrated by asking them their overall views on how user friendly they found it to be when coming to the end of the questionnaire.

Although it is seen as a strength that participants were approached by the head teacher, a familiar person, the degree to which the head teachers adhered to the script entitled 'information for participants' is not known (refer to Appendix 4). It could be argued that as only three Asian parents agreed to participate from the first school, that they may have been approached in a way that allowed them to feel able to decline participation in the study. It is difficult to

know whether other participants were reluctant to take part in the present study due to the way in which they had been approached and 'sold' the study. Hence, it is considered necessary that participants are explained the rationale of the main study before taking part in it.

Another limitation to the present study was the failure to specify the level of proficiency in English that the Asian parents were expected to have. It was assumed that the head teachers would have ensured that the Asian participants would have been fluent enough with their English to have managed the task they had been set. However, two of the Asian participants had very little English, which raises questions about the degree to which they were realistically able to contribute to this pilot study. This latter finding may also explain why the Asian participants raised far fewer queries about the PDI, compared to White participants. The decision was therefore taken to translate all questionnaires into Urdu for the Pakistani sample in the main study and to give them the option of responding in their preferred language (e.g. English or Urdu).

2.8 Implications for the main study

Professor Tom Power reported having developed a short revised version of the PDI with increased reliability and validity, (T. G. Power, personal communication, May 29, 2003). He further reported that the majority of problems pointed out by the participants of this pilot had been dealt with in the new shorter version of the PDI, named the PDI-S. A second pilot study investigating the applicability of the PDI-S was not undertaken, as only old

items were eliminated from the original PDI and no new items were added (refer to Appendices 8 and 9, for a copy of the manual and the PDI-S).

Returning to the alpha values reported in Table 2.16, it was found that the 'responsiveness to child input' scale produced a low alpha value for this sample. This scale has been eliminated from the PDI-S. Although the 'non-restrictive attitude' scale has been dropped from the PDI-S for consistently yielding low alpha co-efficients, the alpha value was high (0.82) for this pilot sample. The 'maturity demands' scale for this pilot sample yielded a low alpha coefficient of 0.66. It has also been eliminated from the PDI-S. The 'amount of control' scale, (as was the case with this pilot sample) has tended to yield relatively low alpha coefficients. However, the PDI-S retained the items on this scale, because they have proven to be successful measures for differentiating between permissive and authoritative parenting styles (Power, 2002. p2).

Table 2.17 provides an overview of the questions reported to lack clarity by the pilot sample in this study and the way in which the PDI-S addressed these queries. As can be seen from this Table, five out of the seven queries raised by participants were dealt with by the PDI-S deleting the questions or the scale due to a lack of internal consistency and reliability across studies. In the 2 instances when the PDI-S failed to directly address the queries raised (questions 1 and 2 of section 4), it was concluded that changes would be made to the wording of these questions so they were clearer and more familiar to British samples.

Table 2.17 How the PDI-S addressed the pilot participants' queries

PDI questions considered unclear by the participants in this study	How the PDI-S addresses these issues
SECTION 2	
Question 4 *'I do not allow my child to get angry with me'*	This question has been eliminated from the PDI-S for consistently yielding low coefficient alphas across studies.
Question 12 *'I don't think children should be given sexual information'*	This question has also been eliminated from the PDI-S for consistently yielding low coefficient alphas across studies.
Question 21 *'When I let my child talk about his/her troubles, he/she ends up complaining even more'.*	This question has been eliminated from the PDI-S, as well as the scale from which it originated due to its low reliability.
SECTION 4	
Question 1 *'We have a regular dinner schedule each week'*	The PDI-S has retained this item. However, this statement will be changed to something that is clearer for UK respondents, namely, 'We eat dinner at a regular time throughout the week'.
Question 2 *'Our house is clean and orderly'*	The PDI-S has retained this item. However, this statement will be changed to something that is more familiar to UK respondents, namely, *'Our house is clean and tidy'.*
Question 3 *'Our family is organized and 'together"*	The PDI-S no longer includes this statement and now only asks if the participant's family is organized'.
SECTION 5	
This section did not specify the time period in which to consider the number of chores the child had responsibility for.	This scale has been abandoned from the PDI-S for failing to achieve validity for pre-schoolers.

2.9 Objectives achieved by this pilot study

Overall, eight out of ten participants found the PDI to be a clear and accessible tool, describing it as 'user friendly, easy to follow and self-explanatory'. Further support for the PDI comes from the means and sds of the pilot sample being

support for the PDI comes from the means and sds of the pilot sample being comparable to past studies as well as the internal consistency being achieved on five dimensions of the PDI. The second aim of this study was also achieved as the necessary amendments to the PDI were made in response to participants' feedback. Based on the small sample in this study, it is therefore considered that the PDI is a highly applicable tool to use with a British population.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Overview

This chapter will initially consider ethical issues. It will then focus on how participants were recruited, the procedure employed in this study, some background information about the participants and the questionnaires that were used.

3.2 Ethical issues

Ethical issues were considered throughout the study and will be revisited in the discussion chapter. Before this study was undertaken, permission was sought from University College London's Psychology Department Ethics Committee. Ethics approval was granted by the Chair and Department of Psychology Ethics Committee, R. Rawles (personal communication, January 23, 2004) upon successful completion of a rigorous procedure requiring the fulfilment of a number of criteria, such as outlining:

- how participants would be informed of the nature of their research and participation in it.
- whether participants would be participating on a 'fully voluntary basis'.
- whether any incentives would be given to participants for taking part and why.
- how the study findings would be communicated to participants and whether there would be a full debriefing at the end of the data collection phase.

The Local Education Authority (LEA) Research and Statistics team was requested to provide a breakdown of the schools attended by Pakistani pupils in key stage 2 of a London borough. Thirteen schools were identified altogether, although three schools were excluded due to them facing other pressures, such as inspections from the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) and internal systemic difficulties. A LEA member of senior management (MSM) initiated the first stage of recruitment by inviting schools to take part in this study, upon gaining consent from the Director of Education. The MSM was identified as someone who could safely assure schools that it was acceptable for them to release participants' sensitive personal data for the purpose of this study, in line with the Data Protection Act (1998). This Act prohibits the processing of, 'sensitive personal data', such as individuals' home addresses and their ethnic origins, unless:-

"..The processing is necessary for the purpose of identifying or keeping under review the existence or absence of equality of opportunity or treatment between persons of different racial or ethnic origins, with a view to enabling such equality to be promoted or maintained and is carried out with appropriate safeguards for the rights and freedoms of data subjects."

Schedule 3 (paragraph 9) of the Data Protection Act, (1998)

It was considered that this study satisfied the above requirement, as it:

- sought to promote equality of opportunity by researching a much understudied ethnic group, Pakistanis.
- would highlight that there was no obligation for participants to take part.
- would safeguard participants' personal details and ensure they would remain anonymous in any correspondence related to this study.

All 10 schools contacted by the MSM agreed to take part. The MSM assured schools that the Data Protection Act made it ethically possible for them to release parents' home addresses and ethnic origin, without there being any repercussions from this.

All participants were made aware of the strict ethical consideration that would be maintained throughout the study, ('these results will not reveal individual parenting styles or practices. You have my word that I will not share your contact details with anyone and that neither your name nor your child's name will be used in any research that is published. All your responses will be shredded at the end of this study'). It was also pointed out that there was no obligation for participants to take part and that feedback on the outcome of the study would be offered to participants upon request.

3.3 Participant recruitment

The MSM requested that all head teachers compile a list of names and the correct titles of all the Pakistani mothers with children in key stage 2 and to match these with White mothers, who also had children in key stage 2 of the same school. No mothers of children with whom the researcher had had any previous involvement were contacted, in order to avoid any confusion over the EP's role. Head teachers were requested to forewarn the targeted participants to expect a postal invitation for this study. The MSM followed up the telephone call to head teachers by letter, recapping on the rationale of the study and the action points required from them (refer to Appendix 10). Copies of the

questionnaires and participant information sheet were also enclosed for information.

This study targeted children in key stage 2, as there is a paucity of research into the parenting styles and practices of children of primary school age. It was practically easier for schools to compile a list of names of children in one key stage rather than across key stages. Not only is there already substantial British research into the adolescent age group, but both parents and adolescents note great variability in parenting styles and practices during adolescence (Paulson, Sputa and Cheryl, 1996). The adolescent age group was therefore not targeted in this study.

EPs at the EPS were alerted by email before their schools were contacted. Schools were contacted within one week of the MSM's phone call to head teachers and requested to send participants' contact details by fax within one to two weeks. The criteria employed to identify Pakistani and White participants was for mothers to have identified themselves as belonging to either of these 2 ethnic groups on their child's school entrance forms.

3.4 Procedure

Schools employed a matching process before contacting participants. They contacted Pakistani mothers of children between the ages of 7 and 11 attending the same school. All participants (116 Pakistani and 116 White) were then contacted by post via their home addresses and invited to take part in the study in an explanatory covering letter, (refer to Appendix 11). The letter outlined that the study was investigating the parenting styles and practices of Pakistani and

White mothers of primary school children and the rationale for this given, ('by taking part in this study, you will be helping psychologists to better understand parenting styles and practices in different groups of people and help to guide the development of parenting programmes in the future. You will also be helping to investigate a very under researched area').

Participants were requested to consider one of their children between the ages of 7 and 11 years and to spend approximately 20 minutes filling in the enclosed participant information sheet and two sets of questionnaires (the PDI-S and the SDQ) with this child in mind (refer to Appendices 3 and 12). They were then requested to return all three forms in the self-addressed envelope provided by the specified date, which amounted to approximately 10 days from the day participants had received the invitation.

Pakistani participants were sent both English and Urdu versions of the letter, the three forms and then given the choice of responding in their preferred language. Correspondence comprising a single sheet (e.g. the letter, SDQ, and participant information sheet) was translated into Urdu on the back (refer to Appendices 3, 13 and 14). However, two sets of the PDI-S were sent to Pakistani participants, one in English and the other in Urdu, (refer to Appendices 12 and 15) in order to avoid possible confusion over pages and the risk of some pages being mistakenly left out by participants when they were filling them in. It was further considered that a negative message may have been conveyed to Pakistani participants had the PDI-S been translated in Urdu on the back of the English version of the PDI-S, by possibly giving the fluent Urdu speakers less

prominence in this study. A contact phone number was provided for participants, in case they had any further questions about the study. Five participants made enquiries altogether, with no overall theme emerging (refer to Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 The five separate enquiries made by participants

❑ ***Data Protection Issues*** One White mother voiced disapproval of the school releasing her contact details to someone, 'that could be anyone'. Unfortunately, when calling the school to enquire about this study, she had spoken to a member of the secretariat who had misinformed her, claiming the school knew nothing about this piece of research.
❑ ***Mistaken Identity*** One parent made contact to say that she was of Spanish origin and not Pakistani (as the school had mistakenly stated). It was agreed that she return the blank questionnaires in the self-addressed envelope provided.
❑ ***Explanation of the PDI-S*** Two Pakistani parents required explanation of the PDI-S. One requested general clarification of the PDI-S in Urdu and the other an explanation of section IV of the English version.
❑ ***EP Advice*** One Pakistani parent enclosed a letter with her completed questionnaires, asking for EP advice about her child. She was contacted by phone in order to discuss matters.

Methods that have been effective in increasing the rate of return of postal questionnaires were employed:-

- Participants were given incentives to take part (Hayes, 2000). They were informed that their name would be entered into a draw to win a box of chocolates if they managed to return their questionnaires on time.
- Participants were given a specified deadline by which to return the questionnaires (Hayes, 2000; Dillman, 1978).
- They were provided with a pre-paid self-addressed envelope (Hayes, 2000).

- All letters had the official University College London letterhead, a high status establishment (Burns, 2000).
- Each letter was personally addressed to participants (Burns, 2000).
- Head teachers were encouraged to make prior contact with participants forewarning them about the invitation to take part in this study (Hayes, 2000).

As can be seen from Table 3.2, the rate of return fell within the common range of between 15 to 50% specified by Burns (2000) for postal questionnaires and exceeded Hayes' (2000) expectation of, 'generally something between 20 and 30%' (p87). The Table also reveals that 11% more questionnaires were returned by White participants compared to Pakistani. A closer examination of the Pakistani participants' questionnaire returns revealed that 85% of them (29 out of 34) chose to respond in English, whereas only 15% (5 out of 34) responded in Urdu. The two samples were matched for equal numbers of boys and girls upon receipt of the questionnaires.

Table 3.2 Participant invitations versus questionnaire returns

	Pakistani	White
Number of participants invited to take part	116	116
Number of participants who returned their questionnaires	41 (35%)	53 (46%)
****Number of questionnaire returns meeting the criteria for inclusion***	34	34

****Participants met the criteria for inclusion if they were White or Pakistani mothers of children between the ages of 7 and 11 attending the same school. The two samples were then matched for equal numbers of boys and girls.***

3.5 Participants

Although they were matched in terms of having at least one child attending key stage 2 of the same school, the Pakistani and White samples differed in a number of ways. For instance, the Pakistani participants were generally younger than White participants and all were married. Conversely, there was greater variation in White participants' status (refer to Table 3.3). In addition, more Pakistani participants had between three to four children than White participants, (41.2% compared to 14.7% respectively).

The fact that similar numbers of mothers from each group reported that their child received free school dinners offers one indicator that the two groups were fairly well matched in terms of their socio-economic status. However, more Pakistani mothers appeared to be in a position not to work than White mothers (47.1% Pakistani mothers reported being housewives versus 17.6% White mothers). In addition, more Pakistani participants had studied up to A' levels and achieved Bachelor degrees than White participants. Indeed the possibility that there were confounding effects of educational level or family affluence within the sample cannot therefore be discounted.

Table 3.3 highlights some similarities amongst the Pakistani sample. They all reported being married and being a housewife more than any other type of occupation. Pakistani participants may have differed in other ways however, such as some may have been born outside the UK or lived in the UK for varying amounts of time. This information was not collected from them, which may have influenced the overall outcomes reached. The discussion section

considers why this line of enquiry would have been valuable, under the 'implications of findings for future theory and research'.

Table 3.3 Background information on the 34 Pakistani and 34 White participants, expressed as a percentage (%).

	Pakistani	White
Age of Participants		
<30	11.8	2.9
31 - 40	67.6	47.1
41 - 50	20.6	50
Participants' Status		
Married	100	61.8
Divorced		14.7
Living with a partner		11.8
Single		8.8
Widowed		2.9
Number of Children Participants Had		
One	5.9	14.7
Two	52.9	70.6
Three	29.4	11.8
Four	11.8	2.9
Children Having Free School Dinners	14.7	11.8
Maximum Level of Educational Qualifications		
GCSEs/O' Levels	17.6	35.3
A' Levels	23.5	8.8
Bachelors Degree	17.6	14.7
Masters Degree	5.9	5.9
Professional Qualifications	5.9	5.9
Other	29.4	29.4
Participants' Occupation*		
Professional	2.9	26.5
Skilled	20.6	38.2
Unskilled	11.8	14.7
Housewife	47.1	17.6
Student	5.9	0
Unspecified	11.8	2.9

**** Participants' occupation was coded on the six-point scale used in the Youth Cohort study prior to 2002, (DfES, 2003). Two categories were added to the original coding system, namely 'student' and 'unspecified'. No participants reported being unemployed, resulting in the elimination of the 'unemployed' category from the original coding system.***

3.6 Materials

3.6.1 Parental Dimensions Inventory- Short Version (PDI-S): (Power, 2002)

The PDI-S is a self-administered parenting instrument that assesses 11 dimensions of parents' attitudes and behaviours towards their children. Each of the 11 scales measures a separate dimension of parenting. It includes 27 items altogether (refer to Table 3.4 for an overview of the organisation of dimensions into sections). The PDI-S can be used with parents of children between the ages of 3 to 12 years and takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. The PDI-S was developed from the PDI (Slater and Power, 1987), which is a parenting instrument based on established child rearing instruments, and used in a variety of parenting studies throughout the 1980s and 1990s. The PDI-S is a short version of the PDI. It retains the most reliable and valid components of the original PDI. In order to allow for comparisons with previous studies, new items were not developed for the PDI-S. The main differences between the original PDI and the PDI-S are as follows:-

- The Responsiveness to Child Input and Non-Restrictive Attitude scales were dropped as they yielded low alpha coefficients across studies.
- The Non-Restrictive Attitude scale and the Maturity Demands scale were not valid for pre schoolers.
- The Consistency scale of the PDI was broken down into two subscales: Inconsistency and Following through on Discipline.

As the wording and format of the items was not changed between the two versions (only the number of items), it is assumed that the PDI findings should apply equally well to the PDI-S. The reliability and validity of the PDI is

discussed in the previous chapter. Additional data on the reliability of the PDI-S comes from unpublished data collected as part of the Power, Olvera and Hays' (2002) study. These findings can be seen in Appendix 8, Table 4 of the manual.

Table 3.4 An overview of the 11 dimensions (comprising 11 Scales) of the PDI-S

Section I	This comprises 13 descriptive statements on a six-point scale for assessing Parental Nurturance, Inconsistency, and Following through on discipline. This scale ranges from (1) 'Not at all descriptive of me' through to (6) 'Highly Descriptive of me', e.g. 'I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles'. ***Scale 1 - Nurturance contains 6 items (RSPI = 1-6)*** ***Scale 2 - Inconsistency (how inconsistent a parent reports to be), contains 4 items (RSPI = 1-6).*** ***Scale 3 - Following Through on Discipline contains 3 items (RSPI = 1-6)***
Section II	This comprises four descriptive statements on a six-point scale for assessing Parental Organization. This scale ranges from (1) 'Never', through to (6) 'Always', e.g. 'We get everything done around the house that needs to be done'. ***Scale 4 - Organization contains 4 items (RSPI = 1-6)***
Section III	This comprises a series of five pairs of opposing statements concerning parents' attitudes towards child rearing. Parents must choose the statement that they agree with most for assessing amount of control, e.g. 'Nowadays parents place too much emphasis on obedience in their children', or, 'Nowadays parents are too concerned about letting children do what they want'. ***Scale 5 - Amount of Control contains 5 items (RSPI = 0-1)***
Section VI	This requires parents to indicate on a 4-point scale how likely it is that they would use six different types of discipline (the two scales comprising material or social consequences are combined into one, during the scoring) in 5 disciplinary situations. The scale ranges from 'Very unlikely to do' (0) through to 'Very likely to do' (3), e.g. 'After arguing over toys, your child hits another child'. ***Type of Control contains 6 items (RSPI = 0-3)*** ***Scale 6 - Letting the Situation go contains 5 items*** ***Scale 7 - Physical Punishment contains 5 items*** ***Scale 8 – Material or Social Consequences contains 10 items*** ***Scale 9 - Reasoning contains 5 items*** ***Scale 10 - Scolding contains 5 items*** ***Scale 11 - Reminding contains 5 items***

RSPI = Range of Scores Per Item

Power et al's (2002) study showed that all the alphas were greater than .70 (except for the Inconsistency and Organization scales). Moreover, the Nurturance, Inconsistency, Follow through on discipline and Organization scales were reported to have demonstrated remarkable stability over a three-year period. The first and second pages of Appendix 8, outline the research showing high levels of validity across studies. Further reliability and validity studies on the PDI-S are currently under way.

The format of the PDI-S was altered before distribution in the main study, in line with the research literature encouraging particular consideration to the general layout of postal questionnaires and enhancing general clarity (Burns, 2000; Hayes, 2000).

- The questionnaire items were spread out over five pages.
- The pages were numbered.
- The font was changed from Times New Roman to Arial, a font type that more of the participating schools used and one that participants were more familiar with.
- As was the case with the PDI used in the pilot study, before the PDI-S was administered, it was examined for spellings, words and phrases not in common usage in the UK and that might be misunderstood by participants. For example, the American spelling of behavior was changed to the English spelling, behaviour, and 'scold your child', was changed to a phrase more commonly used in the UK, (e.g. 'tell your child off'). In order to establish the degree of accuracy achieved by the changes made to the PDI-S, these were discussed with a British national

who had lived in the USA for over 10 years. The changes outlined in Table 2.17 were also made to the PDI-S.

The PDI-S was translated into Urdu by 2 bilingual Urdu-English speakers, one of whom was fluent in writing Urdu. Words and phrases were discussed at length, before final wording was agreed upon.

3.6.2 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ): (Goodman, 1997)

The SDQ is a behavioural screening questionnaire targeting 3 to16 year olds. It exists in several versions for completion by children, teachers and parents respectively. For the purpose of this study, only the parent version was used. The SDQ comprises 25 items that are divided into five scales, (refer to Table 3.5) and is assessed on a three-point scale ranging from (0) 'Not true', (1) 'some what true', and (2) 'certainly true' of the child. For each scale, except for prosocial behaviour, higher scores indicate more difficulties. A total difficulties score is computed by combining responses to all the scales (giving rise to a maximum achievable score of 40), except for the pro social behaviour scale, which produces its own score (giving rise to a maximum achievable score of 10).

Table 3.5 The 25 items of psychological attributes assessed by the SDQ

The 5 Scales of the SDQ	*Examples of scale items*
Total Difficulties Score	
5 items on emotional symptoms	'Many worries, often seems worried'
5 items on conduct problems	'Steals from home, school or elsewhere'
5 items on hyperactivity/inattention	'Constantly fidgeting and squirming'
5 items on peer relationship problems	'Rather solitary, tends to play alone'
Prosocial behaviour Score	
5 items on pro social behaviour	'Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill'

'The reliability and validity of the SDQ makes it a useful brief measure of the adjustment and psychopathology of children and adolescents' (Goodman, 2001). Goodman (2001) based this conclusion on the outcome of his nationwide epidemiological sample of 10,438 British 5 to 15-year-olds, obtaining SDQs from 96% of parents, 70% of teachers and 91% of 11 to 15-year-olds. He found the predicted five-factor structure (emotional, conduct, hyperactivity-inattention, peer and prosocial) was confirmed. Reliability was generally satisfactory, whether judged by internal consistency (mean Cronbach alpha: .73), cross-informant correlation (mean: 0.34), or retest stability after 4 to 6 months (mean: 0.62). It was also found that SDQ scores above the 90th percentile predicted a substantially raised probability of independently diagnosed psychiatric disorders. However, sensitivity has been described as, substantially poorer with single-informant rather than multi-informant SDQs.

The website (http://www.sdqinfo.com) provides access to the SDQ in a variety of different languages. The Urdu and English versions were used in this study. The Urdu version was examined for accuracy of translation before being used in the main study.

For the purposes of this study, only the total difficulties scale was used, as the focus was on investigating parenting dimensions in relation to children's social behaviour difficulties.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Overview

This chapter is organised with an initial presentation of descriptive statistics on both the PDI-S and SDQ. The research questions and hypotheses will then be considered. The statistical analyses of the research questions are considered in sequence of (1) the statistical test being employed and the variables being tested (2) an assessment of the preliminary assumptions of each test being used and (3) a presentation of the results. As the preliminary assumptions of tests are considered in line with the statistical analyses of the research questions, these are not detailed separately when testing the research hypotheses later in this chapter.

4.2 Descriptive statistics

Table 4.1 Participants' means and standard deviations (sds) on their PDI-S responses

			Pakistani		White	
Participants' Responses on the 11 PDI-S Scales	***Max Sc**	***Min Sc**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**
Nurturance	6	1	5.27	0.58	5.19	0.69
Inconsistency	6	1	2.66	1.26	2.22	0.67
Following Through on Discipline	6	1	5.04	0.85	4.29	0.94
Organization	6	1	4.59	0.68	4.63	0.84
Amount of Control	1	0	0.79	0.23	0.72	0.31
Type of Control						
Letting the Situation Go	3	0	0.16	0.38	0.24	0.52
Physical Punishment	3	0	0.14	0.32	0.12	0.27
Material or Social Consequences	3	0	0.51	0.48	0.82	0.51
Reasoning	3	0	2.10	0.67	2.02	0.54
Scolding	3	0	1.68	0.69	1.72	0.52
Reminding	3	0	1.98	0.63	1.60	0.53

Max Sc = The maximum mean score possible for each scale; Min Sc = The minimum mean score possible for each scale assuming participants answered all the questions.

Both Table 4.1 and figure 4.1 illustrate well the few differences between Pakistani and White participants' responses on the 11 PDI-S scales.

Figure 4.1 Bar graph of participants' responses on the PDI-S

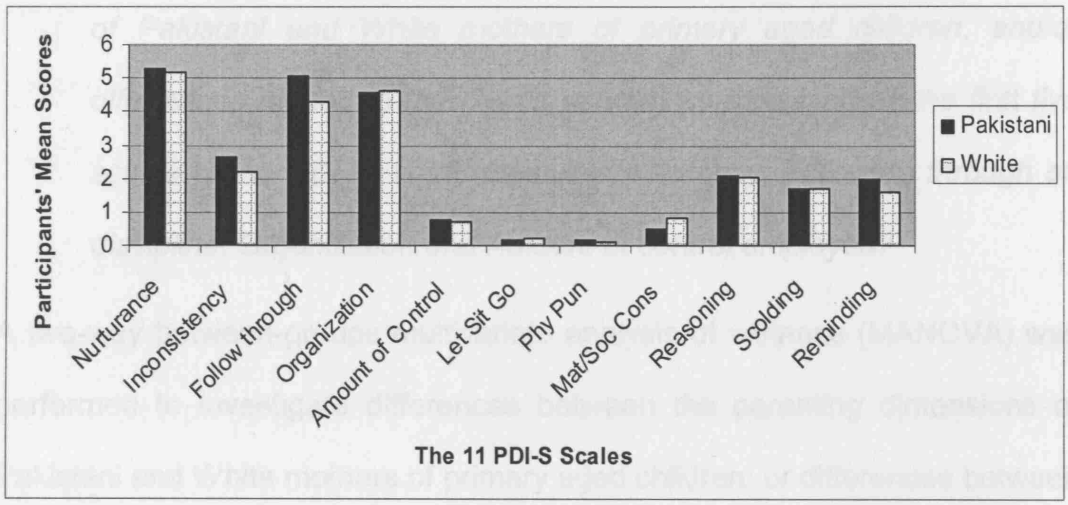


Table 4.2 Participants' means and sds on their SDQ responses

			Pakistani		White	
	*Max Sc	*Min Sc	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Participants' Responses on the 4 SDQ scales comprising the total difficulties score	40	0	7.15	3.54	6.85	4.65

Max Sc = The maximum score possible for each scale** ***Min Sc = The minimum score possible for each scale assuming participants answered all questions.

Table 4.2 reveals that Pakistani participants reported a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ compared to White participants. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the SDQ total difficulties scores for the Pakistani and White participants. There was no significant difference in the scores of Pakistani ($\underline{M}$=7.15, $\underline{SD}$=3.54) and White participants ($\underline{M}$=6.85, $\underline{SD}$=4.65), $\underline{t}$ (66)= -.294, $\underline{p}$=.77).

4.3 Statistical analyses of research questions

4.3.1 Research question 1a

Are there any significant differences between the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children, and/or differences related to the child's gender, as assessed by the first five scales of the PDI-S; Nurturance, Inconsistency, Following through on discipline, Organization and Amount of control employed?

A two-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to investigate differences between the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children; or differences between these two sets of mothers in relation to their child's gender.

Five dependent variables were included, all five were scales from the PDI-S, namely: Nurturance; Inconsistency; Following through on discipline; Organization and Amount of Control. The independent variables were ethnicity of mother (Pakistani or White) and gender of child.

4.3.1.1 Preliminary assumption testing: multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance and multicollinearity. No serious violations were noted apart from in the case of assumption 6, (the need to achieve homogeneity of variance), resulting in a more robust measure being used, as detailed later in this section.

Assumption 1 – Sample size

There were more cases in each cell than there were dependent variables, therefore this assumption was met. More specifically, there were 17 Pakistani males, 17 White males, 17 Pakistani females and 17 White females who comprised more cells than dependent variables being tested (five scales of the PDI-S).

Assumption 2 – Normality

The assumption that the distribution of the mean scores was normal for both groups was partially met. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 give the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, which tests the univariate normality of the distribution of scores. A non-significant result (significance value of more than .05) indicates normality and these can be seen in the shaded sections of both tables.

Table 4.3 Tests of normality according to participants' ethnic group for the first five PDI-S dimensions being investigated

PDI-S Dimensions	Ethnic Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Nurturance	White	.142	34	.082
	Pakistani	.146	34	.064
Inconsistency	White	.111	34	.200(*)
	Pakistani	.128	34	.176
Following through on discipline	White	.101	34	.200(*)
	Pakistani	.192	34	.003
Organization	White	.144	34	.071
	Pakistani	.169	34	.015
Amount of Control	White	.203	34	.001
	Pakistani	.209	34	.001

* This is a lower bound of the true significance. a Lilliefors Significance Correction

There are more instances when normality has been achieved than not. In the case of a failure to achieve normality, Pallant (2001, p.219) points out, 'although the significance tests of MANOVA are based on the multivariate normal distribution, in practice it is reasonably robust to modest violations of normality (except where the violations are due to outliers)', which the testing of assumption 3, confirms that it is not.

Table 4.4 Tests of normality according to child's gender for the first five PDI-S dimensions being investigated

PDI-S Dimensions	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Nurturance	Female	.133	34	.136
	Male	.128	34	.173
Inconsistency	Female	.103	34	.200(*)
	Male	.132	34	.189
Following through	Female	.175	34	.010
	Male	.144	34	.071
Organization	Female	.112	34	.200(*)
	Male	.204	34	.001
Amount of Control	Female	.230	34	.000
	Male	.201	34	.001

Assumption 3 – Outliers

There were no multivariate outliers in the data being analysed and hence this assumption was met. The data were checked for Multivariate normality by employing a procedure called 'Mahalanobis distances'. The maximum value obtained from this procedure was 16.96. The critical value for five dependent variables being analysed was 20.52. As the maximum value of Mahalanobis distances was lower than the critical value, this suggests that there were no multivariate outliers in the data being analysed.

Assumption 4 – Linearity

Very generally there was a straight-line relationship between each pair of the five dependent variables, according to ethnic group and gender of child, indicating that this assumption has been met. Refer to figures 4.2 and 4.3 for examples of such scatter plots.

Assumption 5 – Multicollinearity and singularity

Pallant (2001) highlights that MANOVA works best when the dependent variables are only moderately correlated. Both low and high correlations (multicollinearity) therefore need to be avoided. Although there were some low correlations, overall, this assumption was met. Pallant (2001) indicates that correlations around 0.8 and 0.9 are reason for concern and as can be seen from the data in Table 4.5, no correlations fall into this category.

Figure 4.2 Scatter plot of the Pakistani participants' PDI-S scores on the dimensions of Nurturance and Organization.

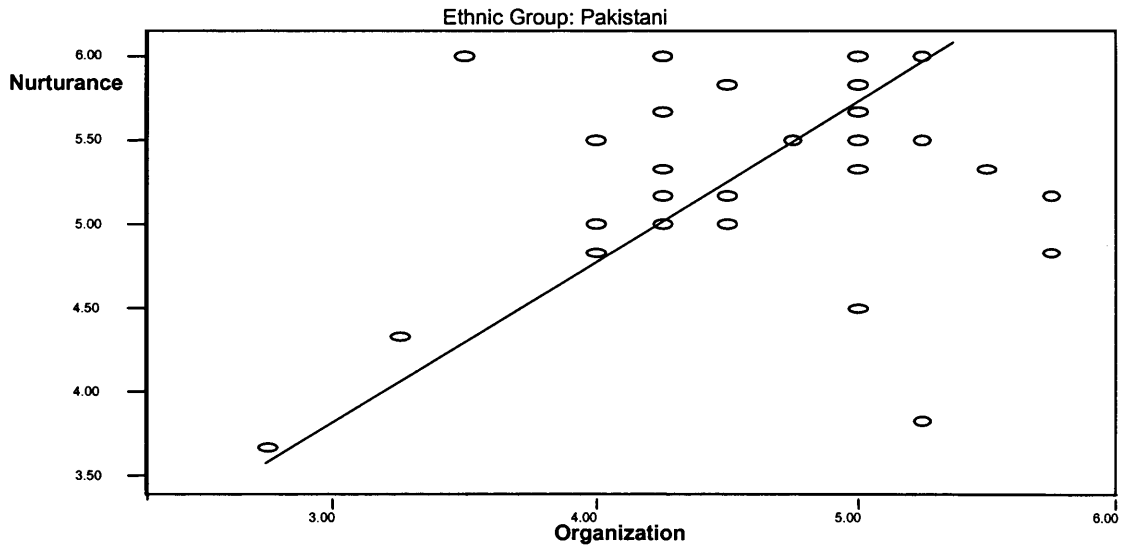


Figure 4.3 Scatter plot of the White participants' PDI-S scores on the dimensions of Nurturance and Organization.

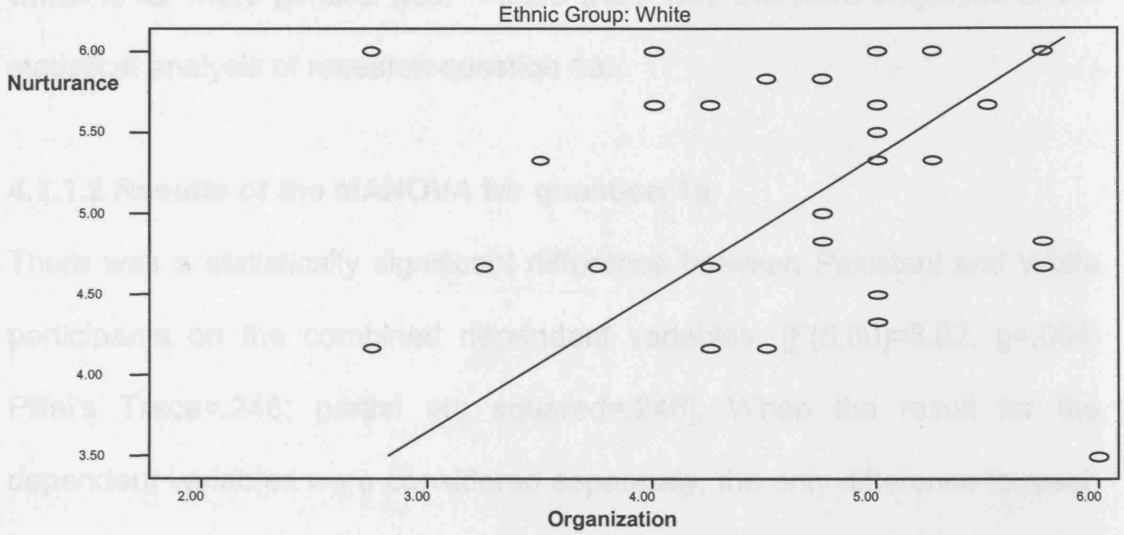


Table 4.5 Pearson's correlation co-efficient investigating the relationship between the first five dependent variables being investigated.

	Nurturance	Inconsistency	Follow through on discipline	Organization	Amount of Control
Nurturance					
Inconsistency	-0.53				
Follow through on discipline	0.37	-.149			
Organization	0.15	-.132	.24		
Amount of Control	0.52	-.147	.30	0.77	

Assumption 6 – Homogenity of variance-covariance matrices

The variance-covariance matrices of variables were not found to be homogeneous across groups and therefore this assumption was not met. The significant value in the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was lower than .001. In cases such as this, namely, the violation of an assumption, Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) recommend the use of Pillai's trace

which is considered a more robust measure, compared to Wilks' Lambda, which is for more general use. Pillai's trace was therefore employed in the statistical analysis of research question 1a.

4.3.1.2 Results of the MANOVA for question 1a

There was a statistically significant difference between Pakistani and White participants on the combined dependent variables: [F(5,60)=3.92, p=.004; Pillai's Trace=.246; partial eta squared=.246]. When the result for the dependent variables were considered separately, the only difference to reach statistical significance using the Bronferoni adjusted alpha level of 0.01, was 'following through on discipline'. An inspection of the mean scores indicated that Pakistani participants reported following through on discipline (M=5.04, SD=0.85) more than White participants (M=4.29, SD=0.94).

Pakistani and White participants' responses on the three items comprising the 'following through on discipline' scale, (questions 2, 6 and 11) were further analysed in order to establish whether the difference between responses were specific to particular items on the scale.

Question 2 = 'I always follow through on discipline for my child, no matter how long it takes'.

Question 6 = 'Once I decide how to deal with a misbehaviour of my child, I follow through on it'.

Question 11 = 'I believe that once a family rule has been made, it should be strictly enforced without exception'.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that the White participants' mean score for question 2 on the 'following through on discipline' scale (M=4.41, SD=1.30) was significantly different from question 6 of the same scale (M=4.80, SD=0.81). The mean score for question 2 on the 'following through on discipline' scale was also significantly different from question 11 on the same scale (M=3.82, SD=1.53). Conversely, Pakistani participants' mean scores for question 2 (M=5.09, SD=0.97), question 6 (M=4.89, SD=1.07) and question 11 (M=5.03, SD 0.90) did not differ significantly from each other. The Scheffe test was used, as it is considered the most cautious method for reducing the risk of Type 1 errors, that is, rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true (Pallant, 2001, p.175).

The main effect for child's gender: [F(5,60)=1.17, p=.336; Pillai's Trace=.089]; and the interaction effect of child's gender and participant's ethnic background [F(5,60)=1.909, p=.106; Pillai's Trace=.137]; did not reach statistical significance.

4.3.2 Research question 1b

Are there any significant differences between the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children, and/or differences in parenting behaviours related to the child's gender, as assessed by the last six scales of the PDI-S that measure the type of control being employed; namely, Letting the situation go, Physical punishment, Material or Social consequences, Reasoning, Scolding or Reminding the child?

A two-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to investigate differences between the type of control used by Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children and differences between these two sets of mothers, in relation to their child's gender.

Six dependent variables were used, which assessed type of control on the PDI-S, namely: Letting the situation go, Physical punishment, Material or Social consequences, Reasoning, Scolding and Reminding. The independent variables were ethnic group to which the mother belonged and gender of child. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance and multicollinearity, with no serious violations noted.

4.3.2.1 Preliminary assumption testing: multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

Assumption 1 – Sample size

There were more cases in each cell than there were dependent variables, therefore this assumption was met. More specifically, there were 17 Pakistani males, 17 White males, 17 Pakistani females and 17 White females who comprised more cells than dependent variables being tested (six scales of the PDI-S).

Assumption 2 – Normality

The assumption that the distribution of the mean scores was normal for both groups was partially met. Tables 4.6 and 4.7 give the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, which tests the univariate normality of the

distribution of scores. A non-significant result (significance value of more than .05) indicates normality and these can be seen in the shaded sections of both tables. There are more instances of normality having been achieved than not. As can be seen from Table 4.6, there are 7 out of 12 boxes indicating normality (shaded boxes). Table 4.7 indicates an equal number of instances of normality being achieved (6 out of 6 boxes are shaded). In the case of a failure to achieve normality, Pallant (2001, p.219) points out, 'although the significance tests of MANOVA are based on the multivariate normal distribution, in practice it is reasonably robust to modest violations of normality (except where the violations are due to outliers)', which the testing of assumption 3, confirms that it did. However, as can be seen from the discussion in assumption 3, further analyses were conducted to minimise the effect of violations due to outliers.

Assumption 3 – Outliers

There were multivariate outliers in the data being analysed and hence this assumption was not met. The data was checked for Multivariate normality by employing a procedure called 'Mahalanobis distances'. The maximum value obtained from this procedure was 26.43. The critical value for the six dependent variables analysed was 22.46. As the maximum value of Mahalanobis distances was higher than the critical value, this suggests that there were multivariate outliers in the data being analysed. Further analyses were undertaken to investigate these outliers (Pallant, 2001, p.222). As only two participants had a score that just exceeded the critical value, both participants were left in the data file.

Table 4.6 Tests of normality according to participants' ethnic group for the PDI-S dimensions investigating the six types of control

	Ethnic Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Letting the situation go	White	.385	34	.000
	Pakistani	.454	34	.000
Physical Punishment	White	.379	34	.000
	Pakistani	.492	34	.000
Mat/Soc Cons	White	.085	34	.200(*)
	Pakistani	.208	34	.001
Reasoning	White	.098	34	.200(*)
	Pakistani	.156	34	.035
Scolding	White	.149	34	.052
	Pakistani	.119	34	.200(*)
Reminding	White	.143	34	.075
	Pakistani	.139	34	.095

Table 4.7 Tests of normality according to child's gender for the PDI-S dimensions investigating the six types of control

	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Letting the situation go	Female	.364	34	.000
	Male	.471	34	.000
Physical Punishment	Female	.465	34	.000
	Male	.395	34	.000
Material/Social Consequences	Female	.117	34	.200(*)
	Male	.141	34	.084
Reasoning	Female	.162	34	.025
	Male	.111	34	.200(*)
Scolding	Female	.157	34	.033
	Male	.079	34	.200(*)
Reminding	Female	.111	34	.200(*)
	Male	.115	34	.200(*)

Assumption 4 – Linearity

Very generally there is a presence of a straight-line relationship between each pair of the six dependent variables, according to ethnic group and gender of child, indicating that this assumption has been met. Figures 4.4 and 4.5 provide examples of such scatter plots.

Assumption 5 – Multicollinearity and singularity

Pallant (2001) highlights that MANOVA works best when the dependent variables are only moderately correlated. Both low and high correlations (multicollinearity) therefore need to be avoided. Although there are some low correlations, overall, this assumption has been met. Pallant (2001) indicates that correlations around 0.8 and 0.9 are reason for concern and as can be seen from the data in Table 4.8 no correlations fell into this category.

Figure 4.4 Scatter plot of Pakistani participants' PDI-S scores on the dimensions of Reminding and Scolding.

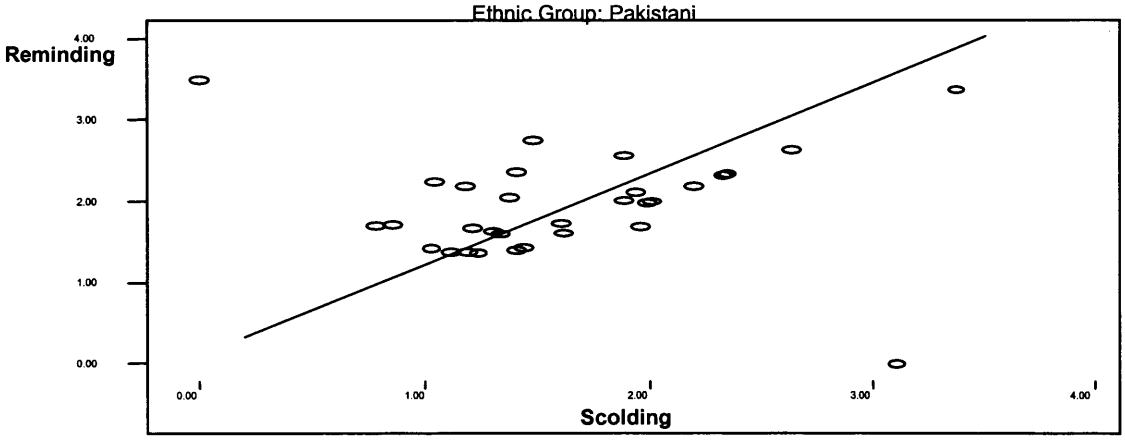
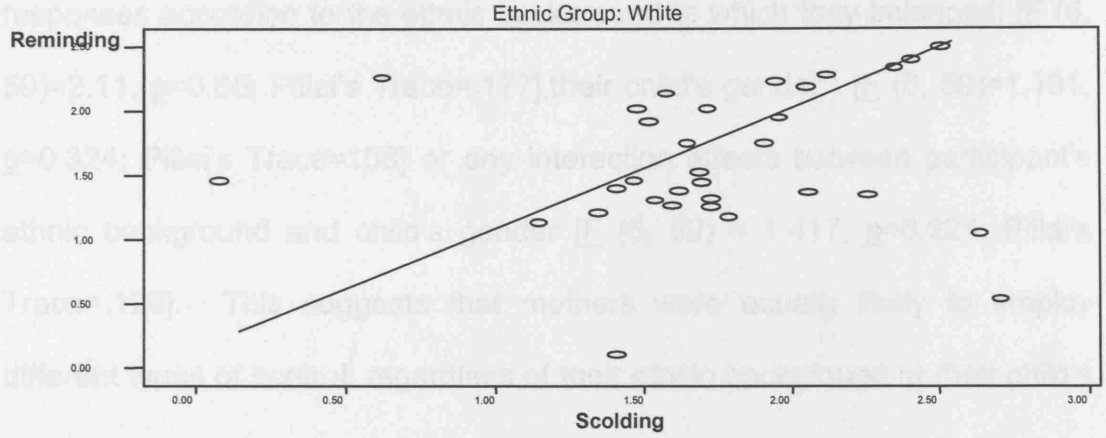


Figure 4.5 Scatter plot of White Participants' PDI-S scores on the dimensions of Reminding and Scolding.



Assumption 6 – Homogenity of variance-covariance matrices

The variance-covariance matrices of variables were found to be homogeneous across groups and therefore this assumption was met. The significant value in the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was larger than .001, it was in fact .017

Table 4.8 Pearson's correlation co-efficient investigating the relationship between the six PDI-S 'Type of Control' dependent variables.

	Letting Sit Go	Physical Pun	Mat/Soc	Reason	Scold	Remind
Letting Situation Go		0.33	0.02	-.21	-.17	.30
Physical Punishment			.05	-.33	-.13	-.18
Material/Soc				-.43	-.20	-.31
Reasoning					0.07	0.32
Scolding						0.07
Reminding						

4.3.2.2 Results of the MANOVA for research question 1b

There was no statistically significant difference between participants' responses according to the ethnic background to which they belonged: [F (6, 59)=2.11, p=0.65; Pillai's Trace=.177],their child's gender : [F (6, 59)=1.191, p=0.324; Pillai's Trace=108] or any interaction effects between participant's ethnic background and child's gender [F (6, 59) = 1.417, p=0.224; Pillai's Trace=.126]. This suggests that mothers were equally likely to employ different types of control, regardless of their ethnic background or their child's gender.

4.3.3 Research question 2

> *Are there differences in the degree to which Pakistani and White mothers report the use of Reasoning, Scolding or Reminding, as types of control methods that they use with their child?*

A Mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of participants' ethnic group on the three types of control reportedly employed with their child, namely, reasoning, scolding and reminding. Participants were divided into two groups according to the ethnic group to which they belonged, Pakistani or White (refer to Table 4.9).

4.3.3.1 Preliminary assumption testing: mixed between-within subjects ANOVA

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for acceptable levels of measurement, random sampling, independence of observations, normality, homogeneity of variance and intercorrelations, with no serious violations noted.

Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics for all participants on the PDI-S dimensions of Reasoning, Scolding and Reminding.

	Ethnic Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Reasoning 1	White	2.02	.54	34
	Pakistani	2.10	.67	34
	Total	2.06	.60	68
Scolding 2	White	1.72	.52	34
	Pakistani	1.68	.69	34
	Total	1.70	.61	68
Reminding 3	White	1.60	.53	34
	Pakistani	1.98	.63	34
	Total	1.79	.61	68

Assumption 1 – Level of measurement

The dependent variable is measured using a continuous scale, (interval level) rather than discreet categories and therefore this assumption was met.

Assumption 2 – Random sampling

The data scores were not obtained using a random sample. The sample needed to be of Pakistani origin, or White. The sample was also divided into equal numbers of boys and girls. This assumption was therefore not met.

Assumption 3 – Independence of observations

Each observation or measurement was not seen to be influenced by any other observation or measurement. Parents were sent questionnaires separately, as opposed to being asked to complete the questionnaires in groups. This assumption was therefore met.

Assumption 4 – Normal distribution

The population from which the samples were taken were normally distributed indicating that this assumption was met. Table 4.10 gives the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, which assesses the univariate normality of the distribution of scores. A non-significant result (significance value of more than .05) indicates normality and is indicated by the shaded boxes in the Table. Five out of the six boxes are shaded, indicating a normally distributed population.

Table 4.10 Tests of normality for the PDI-S dimensions of Reasoning, Scolding and Reminding for all participants

Types of Control	Ethnic Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Reasoning	White	.098	34	.200(*)
	Pakistani	.156	34	.035
Scolding	White	.149	34	.052
	Pakistani	.119	34	.200(*)
Reminding	White	.143	34	.075
	Pakistani	.139	34	.095

* This is a lower bound of the true significance. a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Assumption 5 – Homogeneity of variance

The variance-covariance matrices of variables were found to be homogeneous across some groups and therefore this assumption was partially met. A significant value of greater than .05, (as achieved and indicated in the two shaded boxes in Table 4.11) suggests that the test is not significant, and therefore provides evidence of equal variances. Pallant (2001, p172) highlights that Analysis of Variance is reasonably robust to violations of this assumption, provided the size of the groups are reasonably similar, which they were in this study.

Table 4.11 Levene's test of equality of error variances(a) for the PDI-S dimensions of Reasoning, Scolding and Reminding for all participants

Types of Control	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Reasoning	.438	1	66	.510
Scolding	4.122	1	66	.046
Reminding	.198	1	66	.658

Assumption 6 – Homogeneity of intercorrelations

The significant value in the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was larger than .001, it was in fact 0.52 indicating homogeneity of intercorrelations. This assumption was therefore met.

4.3.3.2 Results of the ANOVA for research question 2

There was a statistically significant main effect for type of control employed, [F (2,65)=9.21, p=.000; Wilks' Lambda=0.779, multivariate eta squared=0.221]. Using the commonly used guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988), this result suggests a large effect size. However there was no main effect of participants' ethnic group [F(1,65)=1.93, p =.17] or interaction effect between participants' ethnic group and the type of control that they reportedly employed [F(2,65)=2.51, p=.089; Wilks' Lambda=.928].

Post-hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that participants' mean score on the reasoning dimension (M=2.06, SD = 0.60) was significantly different to participants' mean score on the scolding (M=1.70, SD= 0.61) and reminding (M=1.79, SD=0.61) dimensions. Conversely, there was no significant difference between participants' mean score on the scolding and reminding dimensions.

4.3.4 Research question 3

Which PDI-S dimensions, as reported by participants, are related to their children's total difficulties score on the SDQ? Do these findings differ according to participants' ethnic group?

The relationship between all 11 parenting dimensions (as measured by the PDI-S) and children's total difficulties score on the SDQ, was investigated using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient.

4.3.4.1 Preliminary assumption testing: Pearson's product-moment correlation co-efficient

Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity.

Assumption 1- Normality

This assumption requires scores on each variable to be normally distributed. Normality was assessed by obtaining skewness (which provides an indication of the symmetry of the distribution) and kurtosis (which provides information about the 'peakedness' of the distribution) values. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p.157) suggest that skewness and kurtosis values divided by their standard error should be less than 3.29 as an indication of normality with the data. The shaded boxes in Table 4.12 all contain figures that are less than 3.29, indicating normality. Four out of twelve variables fail to achieve normality based on the skewness values and four out of twelve variables fail to achieve normality based on the kurtosis data. This assumption is therefore partially met.

There was the option of transforming the variables (e.g. mathematically modifying the scores using various formulas until the distribution looked more normal) but the decision was taken not to do this as, 'there is considerable controversy concerning this approach in the literature' (Pallant p. 78). Further, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p.80) highlight that 'transformations... are not universally recommended...as analysis is interpreted from the variables that are in it and transformed variables are sometimes harder to interpret'.

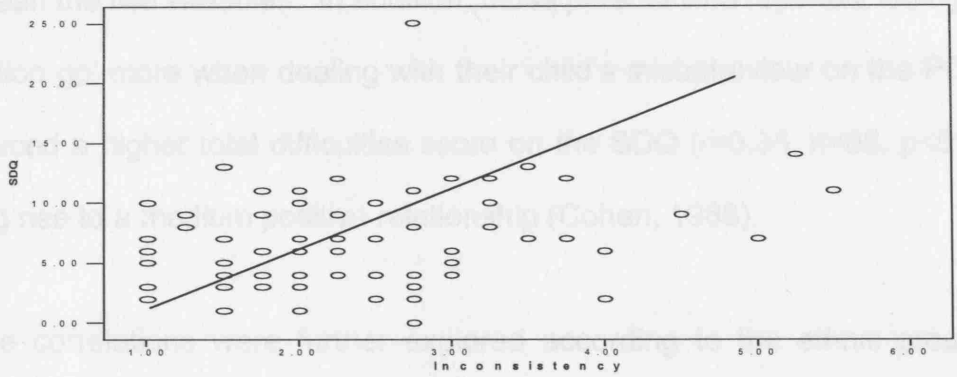
Table 4.12 Skewness and kurtosis values divided by their standard errors, to ascertain normality with the data

Variables (All eleven PDI-S Dimensions)	Skewness			Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Std.Error	Stat Std. Error	Statistic	Std.Error	Stat Std. Error
Nurturance	-.674	.291	-2.32	-0.89	.574	-1.55
Inconsistency	.879	.291	3.02	.835	.574	1.45
Follow through	-.504	.291	1.73	-.859	.574	-1.50
Organization	-.531	.291	-1.82	.085	.574	0.15
Amount of Con	-1.24	.291	-4.26	1.36	.574	2.37
Let Situation go	2.56	.291	8.80	5.77	.574	10.05
Physical Pun	2.46	.291	8.47	5.43	.574	9.46
Mat or Soc Con	.289	.291	0.99	-8.19	.574	-14.27
Reasoning	.072	.291	0.25	1.14	.574	1.99
Scolding	-.058	.291	0.20	1.07	.574	1.86
Reminding	-.118	.291	-0.41	1.47	.574	2.56
SDQ - Total Difficulties Score	1.30	.291	4.47	4.06	.574	7.07

Assumptions 2 and 3

Scatter plots of the variables being investigated confirmed linear relationships (assumption 2) and the variability in scores for variable X were similar at all values of variable Y providing evidence of homoscedasticity (assumption 3). Figure 4.6 shows one such scatter plot.

Figure 4.6 Scatter plot of participants reporting 'Letting the Situation go' and children's total difficulties score (TDS), as assessed by the SDQ.



4.3.4.2 Results of the Pearson's product-moment correlation co-efficient for research question 3

Table 4.13 Pearson's correlation between participants' responses on the 11 PDI-S dimensions and the Total Difficulties Score (TDS) achieved on the SDQ.

PDI-S dimensions	All participants N=68	Pakistani participants N = 34	White participants N = 34
Nurturance	-.150	.028	-.270
Inconsistency	.273*	.442**	.093
Follow through on discipline	.004	-.093	.045
Organization	-0.65	.145	-.194
Amount of Control	.046	-.096	.118
Letting the situation go	.350**	.165	.462**
Physical Punishment	.196	.272	.134
Material/Social	.037	-.085	.148
Reasoning	-.023	-.042	-.012
Scolding	-.147	-.186	-.116
Reminding	.085	.084	.075

. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed):
. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen from Table 4.13, two of the eleven correlations were found to be significant at the p=.05 level (the shaded boxes indicate statistical significance). Parents who reported employing the inconsistency parenting dimension more with their child also produced a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ (r=0.27, n=68, p<0.05). Using the commonly used guidelines

proposed by Cohen (1988), this result suggests a small positive relationship between the two variables. In addition, those parents who reported 'letting the situation go' more when dealing with their child's misbehaviour on the PDI-S, produced a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ ($r=0.35$, $n=68$, $p<0.01$), giving rise to a medium positive relationship (Cohen, 1988).

These correlations were further explored according to the ethnic group to which participants belonged, after preliminary assumptions were performed to ensure no violation of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity.

Only Pakistani participants who reported employing the inconsistency parenting dimension with their children produced a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ ($r=0.44$, $n=34$, $p<0.01$). Similarly, only White participants who reported 'letting the situation go' more when dealing with their child's misbehaviour on the PDI-S, produced a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ ($r=0.46$, $n=34$, $p<0.01$). Both these correlations gave rise to a medium positive relationship (Cohen, 1988).

4.4 Statistical analyses of research hypotheses

Beyond the general research questions being investigated, specific hypotheses were also explored.

4.4.1 Hypothesis 1

Pakistani mothers will score higher on the Parenting Dimensions Inventory – Short Version (PDI-S) scale assessing, 'amount of control', than White mothers.

No support was found for this hypothesis, which was tested by multivariate tests following on from the multivariate analysis of variance conducted to test research question 1a. The 'amount of control' reportedly employed by Pakistani (M=.788, SD=.225) and White mothers (M=.718, SD=.308) did not significantly differ from each other.

4.4.2 Hypothesis 2

Mothers who report employing more reasoning with their children as a means of dealing with their misbehaviour in several situations, as measured by the PDI-S (Power, 2002) are less likely to report that their children exhibit social difficulties, as assessed by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, (Goodman, 1997).

No support was found for hypothesis 2. The relationship between parenting dimensions (as measured by the PDI-S) and children's social difficulties, (as assessed by the SDQ) was investigated using the Pearson's product-moment correlation co-efficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. No significant correlation was found between mothers who reported employing reasoning as a means of dealing with their child's misbehaviour and their total difficulties score on the SDQ (r=-.02, n=68, $p>0.05$).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Overview

This chapter initially considers the main findings of this thesis and research questions, in light of the results obtained and the methods used. It then deals with the ethical issues and limitations concerning this study. It concludes with a discussion based upon the implications for future theory and research and finally for EP practice.

5.1.1 Following through on discipline

This study found more similarities between the parenting dimensions of British Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children, than differences. The only significant difference found between the two groups of participants was on the PDI-S dimension of 'following through on discipline'. Pakistani mothers reported following through on discipline with their children more than White mothers did.

Before considering the implications of this finding, it is worth recapping on how the PDI-S assessed the 'following through on discipline' dimension. Participants in this study were asked to award themselves a number ranging from 1 (not at all like me) through to 6 (exactly like me) on a scale for the 3 statements listed below:-

- Question 2 - I always follow through on discipline for my child, no matter how long it takes.

- Question 6 - Once I decide how I deal with my child's misbehaviour, I follow through on it.
- Question 11 - I believe that once a family rule has been made, it should be strictly enforced without exception.

It is noticeable that the first and second items of this dimension point towards parents dealing with their child's misbehaviour without involving them directly. The third item however, suggests that the child would be aware of a family rule having been made at one time. It could be argued that the PDI-S dimension therefore assesses two separate things.

Further analyses revealed that Pakistani and White participants responded differently to the 'following through on discipline' PDI-S scale. For example, Pakistani participants gave similar high ratings to all 3 items on the scale. White participants however responded differently. They gave their highest rating to question 6 of the scale. Question 2 achieved the next highest rating for White participants. Finally, White participants gave their lowest rating to question 11. This finding is interesting and warrants further investigation during future studies.

The fact that Pakistani mothers reported following through on discipline more than White mothers, could point towards them adopting a more authoritarian parenting style than White mothers. According to Baumrind (1966, p.890), the authoritarian parent, 'values obedience and restricts autonomy'. These parents are seen to believe in strict adherence to rules, are unlikely to discuss rules with their children, emphasize discipline and obedience. It could also be

argued that as White mothers reported following through on discipline less, that they adopted a more permissive parenting style than Pakistani mothers. Permissive parents (Baumrind, 1966) are seen to engage in an indulgent style of parenting, are typically characterised by low demandingness and high responsiveness. These parents are warm and accepting but exercise little authority, make few demands for mature behaviour and allow considerable self-regulation by the child. This study fails to provide sufficient evidence in support of these hypotheses. However, this line of enquiry would merit further investigation in the future.

5.1.2 Amount of control

No support was found for the hypothesis that Pakistani mothers would score higher on the PDI-S scale assessing 'amount of control' with their child compared to White mothers. It is worth recapping on why this hypothesis was initially suggested. There is as yet, no reliable body of research in the UK on the parenting dimensions of Pakistani mothers of primary aged children. Hypotheses can only therefore be based upon the research that is available to date. One consistent finding with British Asian adolescents however, is that they report feeling greater levels of protection from their parents, than White participants (Shams and Williams, 1995). Further, second generation British Asian secondary schoolgirls have been found to report higher levels of symptoms associated with eating disorders than those of White British schoolgirls (Furnham and Husain, 1999; McCourt and Waller, 1995), and the scores on the questionnaire investigating these symptoms have been found to positively correlate with parental over-protection (Furnham and Husain, 1999).

Mujtaba and Furnham (2001) also found British Pakistani 19 to 20-year-old females had higher symptoms of eating disorders in comparison to both White British females as well as Pakistani females born and brought up in Pakistan and that they perceived their mothers and fathers to be more over protective than the other two groups.

Past research has targeted the views of Asian adolescents, whereas this study investigated parental views. Already therefore the perspectives of two separate populations were being compared and therefore differences in views were to be expected. Further, all three previously cited studies, assessed parental over protection by using the Parental Bonding Instrument and not the PDI-S. Although, there is some overlap between both measures, the PDI-S 'amount of control' dimension and the PBI 'protection dimension', essentially they measure different things.

The PBI was designed to tap into two dimensions, namely, level of care and protection, as perceived by adolescents and young adults. The PBI is therefore designed to tap into some sort of protection dimension in comparison to other parenting tools, which investigate a variety of dimensions such as the PDI-S. Further, the PBI asks very direct questions in order to tap into the 'protection dimension', by requesting respondents to consider statements on a four-point scale, ranging from 'very like' to 'very unlike' their parents' behaviour towards them. Some of these statements include:-'Was over protective of me'; 'Let me do things I liked doing'; 'Tried to control everything I did'. When considering the 'amount of control' scale on the PDI-S, recognition needs to be given to the

fact that three out of the five pairs of statements on which parents were requested to respond, assessed the general views of parents on the amount of control they felt was appropriate to employ with children. The PDI-S questions targeting, 'amount of control' are unarguably less direct, in comparison to the PBI.

There is also the fact that the alpha coefficients of the PDI-S scales that were retained were considered acceptable, except for the 'amount of control' dimension. Power (2002) argues that, these low alphas are likely the result of the small number of items in this scale and the dichotomous response format. Despite the relatively low alphas, the 'amount of control' scale was retained for the PDI-S, because it has proven to be a successful measure for differentiating between different parenting styles particularly between permissive and authoritative parenting.

Another possible explanation why no significant difference was found between Pakistani and White mothers' responses on the 'amount of control' dimension might be the fact that younger children (the age range of pupils in this study was 7 to 11 years) require more guidance and control than older children, regardless of the ethnic group to which they belong. It could be that parents generally employ greater amounts of control with their children when they are younger but that Pakistani parents feel their children are more vulnerable to risks and peer influence as they approach adolescence and therefore begin to employ more control with them then.

5.1.3 Child's age

It needs to be recognized that the conclusions of this thesis may well have been quite different had another age group been targeted, such as adolescents instead of children of primary age. Indeed, several studies have shown that parenting differs according to the age of the child (Dix, Ruble, Grusec and Nixon, 1986; Smollar and Youniss, 1989; Paikoff and Brooks-Gun, 1991) irrespective of their ethnic background.

The previous section considered whether mothers had the tendency to apply greater amounts of control with their children when they were of primary age, regardless of their ethnic background. This hypothesis might also be applied to the main finding of this thesis, that Pakistani and White mothers reported more similarities than differences in their parenting dimensions. It could be that ethnic differences between parenting dimensions are less evident when children are of primary age, but begin to develop as the child becomes older. This line of argument is partly supported by the fact that a large number of studies reviewed in this thesis targeted the adolescent age group and a number of these reported ethnic differences between parenting styles, practices and dimensions, as well as adolescent perceptions. Without future parenting studies targeting primary aged children belonging to different ethnic groups, this hypothesis cannot be confirmed.

In addition, this study indicated that all mothers, regardless of their ethnic background, reported employing reasoning more than other types of control such as telling off or reminding. It may be that mothers generally feel the need

to explain their thinking and reasoning more to younger children when reprimanding them for their misbehaviour than older children. As the primary aged child begins to develop his or her understanding of the parameters of acceptable and unacceptable behaviours he or she may be seen as needing further explanations and reasons than the older child. Indeed Dix, Ruble and Zambrano (1989) found the mothers of older children were more likely to report that their children were able to distinguish between correct and incorrect social behaviour than younger children. Parents may therefore expect younger children to need more support and explanations of social rules and behaviour codes than older children.

The child's age is also relevant when considering mothers' responses on the SDQ. Although parents generally have fewer peer reference groups to which they can compare their children's behaviour than teachers, it could be argued that this is more often the case with the mothers of adolescent children than primary. The mother's responses on the SDQ therefore were more likely to be representative of their child's actual behaviour in this study, than may have been the case had the parents of older children participated.

5.1.4 Child's gender

No differences were found between the parenting dimensions reportedly employed by the mothers of boys and girls. There were also no differences reported between Pakistani and White mothers of boys and girls with their use of the PDI-S dimensions. Although past studies have yielded inconsistent findings with regards to the relationship between parenting styles and practices

and child's gender, this study provides evidence against the stereotype held about Pakistani (and other Asian) parents tending to treat males more favourably than females. Irfan and Cowburn (2004, p.96) for instance argue that, 'In Pakistani culture, males are more highly valued. They act as the head of the household, the primary wage earners, decision-makers and disciplinarians. Elder brothers, or on some occasions even younger brothers, take over the role of father and never get challenged by the parents. This is considered normal'.

5.1.5 Mothers' responses on the PDI-S in relation to the SDQ

A further finding of this study was that particular parenting dimensions were related to children exhibiting social difficulties, as reported by mothers and according to the ethnic group to which they belonged. One such finding was that Pakistani mothers who reported employing the inconsistency parenting dimension with their child also reported a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ. No such relationship was found with White mothers. The PDI-S assessed the 'inconsistency' parenting dimension by asking parents to award themselves a number from 1 (not at all like me) to 6 (exactly like me) on a scale, for the following four statements listed below:-

- Question 3 - Sometimes it is so long between my child's misbehaviour and when I can deal with it, that I just let it go.
- Question 5 - There are times I just don't have the energy to make my child behave as he or she should.
- Question 8 - My child can often talk me into letting him or her off easier than I had planned.

- Question 13 - My child convinces me to change my mind after I have refused a request.

The four items of this dimension, (as was found to be the case with the 'following through on discipline' dimension) can be broken down separately. The first two statements point towards the parent failing to have any dialogue with their child about their misbehaviour. On these occasions the child would not necessarily have been made aware that his or her behaviour was unacceptable to the parent. The third and fourth statements, however, refer to the child being made aware of his or her misbehaviour but being able to talk his or her way out of any sanctions. Therefore a parent reporting the use of the inconsistency parenting dimension more with their child would not necessarily make verbal threats towards their child and fail to carry these out. This is an important point to note, as past researchers have defined 'inconsistent' behaviour differently to the way in which it is assessed using the PDI-S, such as 'not following through on parent threats' (Thompson et al, 2002), which makes comparisons with past studies difficult. In the case of Thompson et al's (2002) study, it was suggested that parental inconsistency may be a key factor in the development of childhood social and behavioural difficulties rather than physical punishment, which is a rare and controversial position to hold and one which cannot be investigated further unless researchers adopt similar definitions of dimensions.

A significant positive correlation was also found between White parents who reported 'letting the situation go' when dealing with their child's misbehaviour in

five disciplinary situations and their child reportedly exhibiting social difficulties, as assessed by the SDQ. This relationship was not found with Pakistani participants. The negative impact of permissive parenting (Baumrind, 1966), has been highlighted by past researchers, such as Lamborn et al (1991), who found that children with permissive parents were more likely to have behavioural difficulties compared to children whose parents adopted other parenting styles. Shumow, Vandell and Posner, (1998) believe this is because parental permissiveness leaves children without a clear sense of parental or societal expectations, resulting in them failing to behave responsibly.

What needs to be highlighted about these findings (as with all correlations) is that significant relationships do not indicate that one variable causes the other. For example, it cannot be assumed that the parenting dimensions employed by mothers, such as them letting the situation go, triggered their child's social difficulties. It could in fact work the other way around, that is, parents with children who exhibit social difficulties may feel less able and willing to deal with each situation.

A further point worth making is that although the significant positive correlations achieved were different for Pakistani and White participants', the two parenting dimensions under question, e.g. 'inconsistency' and 'letting the situation go' are not that dissimilar when they are examined closely. In fact it could be argued that all four items that comprise the inconsistency PDI-S parenting dimension to some extent, overlap with the 'letting the situation go' dimension.

It is also worth noting that past studies have found significant correlations between parenting practices and children's behaviours, according to participant's ethnic background. Bates et al, (1996) for example found that harsher discipline was associated with higher externalising behaviour, as measured by teacher and peer-ratings, only for White American children. No such relationship was found with African American children, indicating that parenting styles and practices in different ethnic groups may serve different functions for children belonging to those populations, as could be the case with this study.

This study found no significant relationship between parents' use of reasoning as a means of dealing with their child's misbehaviour and the social difficulties that they reportedly exhibited. Kochanska and Aksan, (1995) found the probability of behaviour problems occurring was reduced by 'positive' or 'gentle' reasoning-based strategies which increased the level of child compliance. Further, Dunn and Kendrick (1982) highlighted that reasoning (e.g. explaining to the child the consequences of their behaviour) enhances the child's sensitivity to the feelings and needs of others. Parental use of reasoning has also been shown to correlate with positive developmental outcomes such as internalized compliance (Grusec and Goodnow, 1994), because it encourages children to feel that the decision about how to behave was self-generated rather than coming from the parent (Kuczynski, 1984; Robinson, 1985).

5.2 Ethical issues

This study investigated 'sensitive' topics, which made the consideration of ethical issues a priority. Defining 'sensitive' research is problematic (Macleod Clark, 2003). Cowles (1988) argues that sensitive topics are those that have the potential to arouse emotional responses. In this context, they can be regarded as 'intensely personal experiences' and therefore as research topics, they will probably be approached with a degree of apprehension (Cowles, 1988). Sieber and Stanley (1988) adopt a broader view, believing that sensitive research includes those topics where there are implications not only for participants but also for the group of individuals represented by the inquiry. Lee (1993) offers a simpler definition, describing it as, 'research which potentially poses a substantial threat to those who are or have been involved in it' (p.4). This study investigated two sensitive topic areas, namely, the parenting dimensions of mothers, as well as an investigation into possible differences to outcome, related to participants' ethnic background.

In order to undertake this study, access was needed to participants' sensitive personal data, which created extensive delays to this research. This involved unearthing convincing legislation stating that it was acceptable for schools to release participants' sensitive personal data for the purpose of this study. The Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 (RR(A)A), was one such relevant piece of legislation which was consulted. This Act places a general duty on listed public authorities to promote race equality and requires bodies to be proactive (in actively promoting race equality). It was considered that this study would do just that. The Data Protection Act, 1998, was also consulted. This Act

prohibits the processing of 'sensitive personal data', such as individuals' home addresses and individuals' ethnic origins, unless:-

"..the processing is necessary for the purpose of identifying or keeping under review the existence or absence of equality of opportunity or treatment between persons of different racial or ethnic origins, with a view to enabling such equality to be promoted or maintained, and is carried out with appropriate safeguards for the rights and freedoms of data subjects."

Schedule 3 (paragraph 9) of the Data Protection Act, (1998)

It was considered that research into the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children would further EPs' understanding of the parenting behaviours adopted by different ethnic groups and guarantee equality of opportunity between persons of different ethnic origins by helping to guide the design of parenting programmes in the future. A number of individuals in the LEA reported feeling unable to say whether this study met the criteria of 'equality of opportunity'. Even after the LEA member of senior management had confirmed that it did, one head teacher reported that, 'there is a lot of Islamaphobia in this school and if parents knew I was giving out their addresses based on their ethnic group, there would be an uproar!'. (Refer to Appendix 16 for feedback letter to head teachers).

One way around the issue of accessing participants' sensitive data would have been to request schools to identify individuals for this study and to ask them to send the questionnaires to parents directly. However, this method was considered too costly on school time and therefore not pursued. Had schools been responsible for sending questionnaires to parents directly, it would have

run the risk of some mothers seeing their child's school at the centre of this study and them possibly approaching school staff for further information or clarification of questions. This methodology would have also failed to allow a system by which to monitor questionnaire returns from participants, as it was considered too disruptive for schools to be asked to do this themselves. Lastly, had schools sent the questionnaires directly to participants, parents may have felt under pressure to respond, as a way of 'giving back' to their child's school, which could also have been interpreted as unethical practice.

In addition, much consideration was given to preserving participants' anonymity. Although participants were reassured that their personal information would be treated with utmost confidentiality, the amount of personal information being sought may have discouraged some individuals from participating. Participants were informed that:-

- no individual parenting styles or practices would be revealed, (reference was not made to 'parenting dimensions' when writing to head teachers or parents, as this terminology was considered to be less familiar, requiring further explanation).
- their contact details would not be shared with anyone.
- neither their name nor their child's name would be used in any research that was published.
- their responses would be shredded at the end of the study.

A certain amount of personal information was required beyond participants' PDI-S and SDQ responses in order that the two groups could be compared on

a variety of factors, such as number of children in the family or whether or not the target child had school dinners, so that it could be seen how homogenous or heterogeneous the groups were regardless of the different ethnic backgrounds to which they belonged. Children's dates of birth were requested, more in terms of a reassurance policy. Had parents only been asked to provide their child's age, any delays in the statistical analyses would have resulted in their child's age no longer being accurate. The covering letter sent to participants could have explained these facts, namely why their personal information was sought, this may have served as further reassurance to them and possibly greater returns. Dale (2004, p21) raises a number of important points when considering the need for confidentiality in research and particularly that conducted by the government. She summarizes the debate in a nutshell, arguing that, 'the collection of data ....requires a high level of co-operation from the public. This in turn is influenced by public confidence that the data provided will be used for purposes consistent with ...anonymity and confidentiality will be protected'.

5.3 Limitations of this study

Although this study offered some useful insights into the parenting dimensions of Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children, it is not without its limitations.

5.3.1 Reliance on a single source of information

This study relied solely on mothers' perspectives for two reasons. Firstly, it was one way of matching the target child's ethnic background to the

respondent. Had respondents' ethnic background been unmatched to the target child (e.g. White teachers reporting on Pakistani children's social skills and difficulties, as assessed by the SDQ and vice versa), this would have created a possible confound. Secondly, schools are likely to have been reluctant to take part in this study had they been requested to provide reports on children's target behaviours, as this would have required a much greater time commitment from them.

The fact that only one source of information was consulted for this study means that conclusions are based solely on mothers' perspectives, which is rather limiting. This study has therefore failed to ascertain the degree to which mothers' views on the SDQ would match those of other informants, such as the target child's teacher. Further, it is questionable whether the behaviours that participants reported employing with their children on the PDI-S were an accurate reflection of what they actually did or believed. However, as there is likely to be a closer relationship between parental dimensions and children's behaviour at home as rated by parents, than parental dimensions and children's behaviour at school, as rated by teachers, the methodology employed in this study was seen as a useful starting point.

The difficulty with self-reports, particularly those assessing sensitive and personal matters, such as parenting behaviours, is that they can so often be plagued by individuals responding in a socially desirable manner either consciously or unconsciously. This is known in the literature as 'faking good', (Crowne and Marlowe, 1960). This involves the respondent giving answers

that will paint him or her in a positive light. In line with this argument, mothers in this study may have been reluctant to report employing physical punishment or telling their child off (which the PDI-S refers to as 'scolding') as a means of dealing with their child's misbehaviour even if they often did this in practice, as this would have shown them in a negative light, but also in the worst possible scenario, run the risk of them being reported to Social Services.

The issue of social desirability of responses merits further discussion. If on the one hand it is being argued that in some cases participants may have failed to give honest and representative accounts of their behaviour with regards to their responses to the PDI-S in the hope of being seen in a positive light, the same could be said for participants' responses on the SDQ. If parents want to 'look good' by reporting employing positive practices with their children, they are equally likely to want their children to 'look good', by reporting that their child has few social difficulties, as assessed by the SDQ. Table 4.2 reveals no significant difference between the SDQ scores of Pakistani and White participants.

Although this study failed to 'triangulate' its sources of information and relied solely on mothers' perspectives, acknowledgement needs to be given to the fact that past studies have shown PDI responses (bearing in mind that the PDI-S was based directly on research studies undertaken in the development of the PDI) to correlate with a number of different outcomes using a variety of different samples, therefore indicating that it has sound validity. T. Power (personal communication, August 10, 2004). In two studies which relied on

multiple ratings of child and mother behaviour (Boggio, 1987; Sharp; 1988), mothers' scores on the PDI significantly correlated with both fathers' and mothers' best friends' ratings of maternal behaviour. Sharp's (1988) study, the larger of the two, yielded a mean significant correlation of 0.52 between mother and father ratings across categories and 0.43 for the mother-best friend correlation. It could however, be argued that both fathers' and mothers' responses were also likely to fall prey to social desirability. It is, for instance likely that fathers' and mothers' best friends were equally likely to 'play down' the use of physical punishment by mothers, in order that mothers 'looked good'. However, to counteract this argument, it is worth highlighting that in both Boggio and Sharp's studies mothers' PDI scores were significantly correlated to teacher ratings of child behaviour problems, which may or may not have been the case had teachers' views been investigated in this study.

5.3.2 Participant numbers

This study was limited by the fact that it relied on a small number of participants, 34 Pakistani participants and 34 White. The strict criteria adopted for participant inclusion offers one explanation why only 68 completed questionnaires were used. The author of the PDI-S, T. Power (personal communication, March 27, 2004) recommended that a study such as this, aim to match equal numbers of participants on the school their child attended, as had schools been unmatched and were 'different in some systematic way' that this would have created 'a potential confound'.

5.3.3 Postal questionnaires

Parents in this study were contacted by post on a single occasion, unless they requested feedback on the findings (refer to Appendix 17). They were sent a covering letter about the study, the questionnaires and provided self-addressed envelopes in which to return their completed questionnaires.

This methodology was seen to give access to greater numbers of participants, cause least disruption to schools and be least costly on time (avoiding the need to undertake separate interviews with parents, as was the case with the pilot study). However, postal questionnaires also have their limitations. Firstly, postal questionnaires typically yield low rates of return (generally 20-30%, Hayes, 2000). Despite consulting the research and employing recommended methods to increase the likelihood of questionnaire returns, (as reported in chapter 3) the overall return rate was 35% for Pakistani participants and 46% for White participants.

Those who respond to postal questionnaires are typically unrepresentative samples of the populations being investigated. They tend to score higher on literacy, general education and motivation indicators (Barker et al, 1996). A further disadvantage of this methodology is that there is no way of knowing whether the completed questionnaires were in fact completed by the target group, (Hayes, 2000) namely, Pakistani and White mothers of primary school children. It may have been the fact that the mothers asked their partners, husbands or friends for assistance in the completion of the questionnaires, or were influenced by the opinions of others. It may also have been the fact that

the Pakistani mothers were more likely to ask others for help in completing the questionnaires, due to a lack of fluency with English. Although they were provided with Urdu translations of all the questionnaires and forms, it may have been an easier option for Pakistani participants to have gained help from a more fluent English speaker, although it would be difficult to follow this line of enquiry. A closer examination of the Pakistani participants' questionnaire returns revealed that overall far fewer Pakistani participants (5 out of 34) chose to respond in Urdu compared to English, (29 out of 34).

5.3.4 Literacy levels

A further disadvantage of using questionnaires is that it assumes that participants have an adequate level of literacy and comprehension skills. This study failed to investigate these skills. It is likely that participants would have been offended and put off taking part in the study had they been asked to comment on their literacy levels, or been asked to undertake a reading test. Another option would have been to ask school staff to comment on their perceptions of the target mothers' literacy and comprehension skills. However not only might some staff members not have know these mothers well enough to comment on this fact, but this method is likely to have been construed as unethical practice (discussing participants' literacy and comprehension levels, without their knowledge). Other ways forward would be to ensure that the parenting tools being employed were checked for clarity of language and ease of terminology employed, which this study did do.

5.3.5 Translation into Urdu

In order to give Pakistani participants better access to the questionnaires, the PDI-S was translated into Urdu. Two bilingual Urdu-English speakers carried out the translations, one of whom was fluent in writing Urdu. Words and phrases were discussed at length before final wording was agreed upon. However, the PDI-S was not back translated into English, which would have been best practice. Further, as with most translations, the substance and true essence of words and phrases can be lost when translated into another language, as was considered the case when the letter to Pakistani parents was translated, as no equivalent word exists for 'draw' in Urdu' (draw, as in 'lucky draw') for example.

5.3.6 Social difficulties as measured by the SDQ

Although the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997) is easy to work through and quick to complete, it has been described as, substantially poorer with single-informants (as was the case with this study) rather than multi-informant SDQs. Further, although measuring a wide variety of traits, it fails to unearth specific social behavioural difficulties that the child may possess, such as how the child fares when needing to take part in a two way reciprocal interchange with peers or his or her popularity within the class.

5.4 Implications of findings for future theory and research

The findings of this study suggest that there are more similarities between the parenting dimensions of British Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children than differences. Similar studies comprising greater numbers of

participants need to be carried out, in order to establish whether this finding is representative of the two populations being studied.

However, such research will be hindered without parenting instruments being readily available for use, particularly those that have been standardized on British populations, including British minority ethnic groups. Although the PDI-S was employed in this study, it was in fact initially used on White middle-class American parents. Despite this fact, an attempt was made to adjust the PDI-S for use with a British population, in consultation with the author. Measures such as the PDI-S which assess 'dimensions', rather than parenting styles and practices would be particularly beneficial to British populations. Dimensions are more specific and tend to have greater universal acceptance than styles and practices, which would be advantageous for the study of minority groups (Mahtani Stewart and Bond, 2002).

When establishing the validity of future parenting tools, it is considered good practice for researchers to approach a variety of informants. Earlier in this section it was argued that some PDI studies gained the perspectives of participants that were known to the mother (e.g. father of the child, or mother's best friend) and that these participants were equally likely to fall victim to giving socially desirable responses when rating child behaviour problems. Boggio, (1987) and Sharp, (1988) found mothers' PDI scores were significantly correlated with fathers', best friends', and teachers' ratings of child behaviour problems. One way to counteract this limitation would be for the researchers to approach mothers and ask them if they might contact school staff about their

child's behaviour in order to establish the validity of a parenting tool, whilst assuring them that all responses would remain anonymous. Teachers are traditionally one of the most important sources of information regarding children's emotional and behavioural functioning (Verhulst and Akkerhuis, 1989). However, beyond gaining the class teacher's behavioural ratings of the target child, other school staff might be involved, including teaching assistants, lunchtime supervisors and Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators.

It will be essential that all future research aim to develop consistent definitions of parenting dimensions, styles and practices, depending on the construct selected for assessment, in order to facilitate comparability with past research. Without this happening it is likely that pockets of research on parenting will take place across the UK, but fail to establish any overall themes or concrete findings that are meaningful. One example of this is the way in which the PDI-S assesses consistency of behaviour. Power (2002) measured this parenting dimension by using two separate scales, namely, (1) Inconsistency and (2) Following through on Discipline. Although a number of researchers might assume that these parenting dimensions might only be assessed by verbal parent-child interchanges, e.g. parents failing to follow through on threats, (Thompson et al, 2002), this is not how the PDI-S dimensions were assessed. For example, some of the items making up the Consistency scale assessed parents' attitudes towards following through on discipline or employing inconsistent behaviour, without them directly interacting with their child.

This study failed to control for the amount of time the Pakistani families had been in the UK, which would be important information to ascertain for future studies of this nature. Patel, Power and Bhavnagri, (1996) for example point towards minority families selectively shifting, modifying, retaining, or altering their values and practices to adapt to their new homeland. There are also increasing numbers of models referring to the tendency for minority families to acquire and maintain characteristics of two or more cultures, including the flexibility to operate effectively within each (Szapocznik and Kurtines, 1980).

This study targeted one Asian group for study, Pakistanis, rather than Asian mothers as a whole, which has been a failure of past studies (Shams and Williams, 1995; Stopes-Roe and Cochrane, 1990). This practice is advocated for future researchers in the field and also applies to the study of White British populations, in that they too might be studied by their country of origin.

This study focused solely on mothers' views. Although, it is generally assumed that fathers have parenting styles that are different from those of mothers, very few researchers have examined gender differences in parenting (Fagan, 2000). This needs to be a further priority area for future research.

5.5 Implications for EP practice

Past educational psychology research studies have tended to target the views of other EPs, school staff and children/young people. Studies in which parents have been the main source of information are few and far between. It could be argued that a study such as this has brought to the forefront the need for EPs

to involve parents in their work more often and to steer away from the temptation of allowing their work to be school led.

This study also encourages EPs to think in terms of becoming more involved in 'hands on', preventative work with families. EPs already play a valuable role in schools, by advising staff on ways in which to enhance children's social competence and manage their behavioural difficulties. The work on parenting dimensions, although failing to provide the only answer to children's social behavioural difficulties, offers EPs a significant and often overlooked part of the equation. It is also the fact that parents are more likely to see EPs as the objective neutral party offering them support, rather than individuals linked directly to schools where home-school links may have broken down, such as in the case of a behaviourally challenging child.

Parent training has been recognized as one of the most effective approaches in preventing and reducing conduct problems (Brestan and Eyberg, 1998). In addition, the government has highlighted the wish to provide measures centred around schools, such as family learning programmes and information meetings (DfES, 2003) to support parents. EPs would have a significant role to play here and might consider developing working links with professionals working in the Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services (CAMHS) in order to jointly deliver parenting programmes. EPs could usefully contribute to the debate over whether parents should undertake parenting programmes in mixed or single ethnic groups. EPs might also consider past research evaluating parent training programmes that have been found to be successful with groups

comprising multiple ethnic backgrounds. Dent, Sussman, Ellickson, Brown and Richardson (1996) have demonstrated the ability to accommodate individual differences by allowing group members to select their own goals and 'situational examples', that is, parenting situations serving as starting points for discussion.

Individual casework, including statutory assessments provide an ideal platform for EPs to unearth useful information from parents about their parenting dimensions. This would then create the opportunity for dialogue between the parent and EP as to which parenting dimensions have been found to be linked to which behaviours and social competencies in children. A one-off meeting with the EP, may in some circumstances, be the only contact parents have with professionals. This is why EPs need to consult the research evidence, be more aware of the differences and similarities in parenting between different ethnic groups, as well as be prepared to share this information with parents. A further way forward might also be to employ parenting measures with some parents who might express the wish to consider their parenting approach with their child.

The need for EPs to be more aware of the parenting literature needs to be balanced against them needing to challenge their own assumptions. A handful of parenting studies should not provide a benchmark for the EP's knowledge base. EPs will continue to need to be aware of parenting differences, as well as the similarities between ethnic groups. Similarly, EPs who may be involved in running parenting programmes should treat each group of parents afresh,

offering them new individualised experiences and encouraging respectful open enquiry.

Discussing one's parenting is a personal matter and can give rise to emotions running high if handled insensitively. It is therefore essential that EPs employ a non-judgemental approach when in dialogue with parents. A related and necessary point would be the need for EPs to encourage school staff to adopt a 'no blame' approach when considering others' parenting. Similarly, it is considered that EPs would do themselves and their profession a disservice if they resorted to colluding with school staff by considering certain individuals, 'bad parents'.

Finally, unless EPs themselves persevere in undertaking research into areas traditionally considered as sensitive (e.g. investigating parenting in different ethnic groups), then the field of educational psychology will remain narrow and reliant on the outcome of American studies that may fail to generalise to British populations.

CHAPTER 6

EVALUATION OF STUDY

6.1 Overview

An essential aspect of the research process is its evaluation. Evaluation is defined as 'how successful a programme...has been in achieving the goals laid out for it at the onset' (Reber, 1985 p.253), which is what this chapter attempts to do. Initially, it considers the distinct and original contribution this thesis has made to the knowledge base of educational psychology, the new facts that have been discovered and the application of these facts to the practice of educational psychology. It also includes discussion of the personal and professional development gained from undertaking the doctorate course as a whole and more specifically the thesis.

6.2 Distinct and original contribution to EP knowledge base

Most of what is known about parenting styles and practices has originated from American populations. British studies have tended to target adolescents' perceptions of their parental relationships, focusing on clinical populations and narrow aspects of parent-child interactions, such as the issue of parental 'over protection'. However, this study has targeted new areas of research and made a number of distinct contributions to the knowledge base of educational psychology as detailed below.

6.2.1 Distinct and original contribution

Originality is evidenced in that it is the first study to have targeted the views of British mothers of primary aged children on a wide variety of parenting dimensions. The study of parenting dimensions involves the dismantling of Baumrind's (1966) typologies into their component parts, as proposed by Darling and Steinberg (1993). It is an alternative and less well known approach than that employed by the majority of past researchers who have tended to adhere to 'safe and familiar territory', namely, the study of parenting styles and practices, despite this compromising the quality of their findings.

The study of parenting dimensions has a number of advantages over studies of style. These include elimination of the need to be concerned about whether the particular combination of parenting characteristics captured by Baumrind's (1966) typologies exist in minority cultures, as these were originally derived from studying parenting in White American populations. Mahtani Stewart and Bond, (2002) highlight the general universal acceptance that the basic dimensions making up typologies have and how this offers a useful approach with which to understand parenting in minority groups. They further highlight that the relationship between single dimensions and outcomes is easier to interpret, whereas with typologies it is unclear which component of the combination was responsible for the outcome. In summary, the study of parenting dimensions is considered a more informative approach to investigating parenting compared to the study of parenting styles and practices.

EVALUATION

A further distinct contribution to educational psychology has been made by the introduction of the PDI-S to the UK, a valuable and empirically researched parenting measure. T. Power (personal communication, June 4, 2003) who developed the PDI-S, reports being unaware of any other British studies having used it. The PDI-S has been adjusted for use with a British population in terms of its spelling, terminology and general clarity, in response to the feedback of a small sample of White and Asian British mothers of primary aged children. There has also been extensive dialogue with the author, Professor Thomas Power, over the last 4 years targeting a variety of issues about the development of the PDI-S, including the framework on which it was based, as well as its validity and reliability.

There is a paucity of educational psychology research on the experiences of the British Asian population. Take for example the Educational Psychologist in Practice (EPiP) journal, which is the major publication of the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP), the professional association for over 2000 EPs in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and hence an influential text. 'EPiP publishes papers which are likely to be of particular interest to Educational Psychologists, providing information and provoking debate on a wide range of professional issues' (http://www.aep.org.uk/). It is however noticeable that there have been no articles on the experiences of minority ethnic groups in the last five years, which the journal editor reports is due to very few papers being submitted on these issues, J. Monsen (personal communication, March 2, 2005). However, Mahtani Stewart, et al's (2000, p.336) comments are noteworthy. They argue that, most of what is known

about child development is based on studies of Western Caucasian individuals and that if psychology is to become universal, the full cultural range of socialization experiences need to be investigated. Hence, this thesis has made a distinct contribution to educational psychology by studying a much under represented and understudied population, Pakistanis. The argument to research different populations is further strengthened when considering that, 'there is growing awareness that processes and constructs that were once assumed to be universal may be specific to Western culture' (Mahtani Stewart et al (2002, p.75).

6.2.2 Discovery of new facts

This thesis has discovered a number of new facts. Firstly, it provides evidence that there are more similarities between the parenting dimensions of British Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children, than differences, as reported by mothers themselves. This finding provides support for the employment of generic parenting programmes, that is, presenting the same content to all parents, regardless of the ethnic background to which they belong. The Incredible Years Training Parenting Intervention, originating in the USA, is one such empirically validated parenting programme that presents the same content to all attendees as well as successfully fostering cultural sensitivity by accommodating for individual differences by allowing group members to select their own goals and workshop examples (Dent et al, 1996). The UK may consider following in these footsteps.

Secondly, this thesis has also discovered that Pakistani and White participants only responded differently on the PDI-S dimension of 'following through on discipline'. Pakistani mothers reported following through on discipline with their children more than White mothers did. If repeated studies found this to be a reliable finding, parenting programmes might consider coverage of the implications of consistent and inconsistent parental behaviour on children's developmental outcomes. Some researchers in fact suggest that parental inconsistency (e.g. not following through on threats), rather than physical punishment, is the key factor in the development of behavioural problems in primary aged children, (Thompson et al, 2001).

Thirdly, this thesis revealed that although Pakistani participants reported following through on discipline more than White participants, both groups responded differently to the three items comprising the 'following through on discipline' scale. Pakistani participants gave similar high ratings to all three items on the scale, unlike White participants, who tended not to involve their children directly or give them verbal warnings. This finding warrants further investigation through future studies.

Finally, particular parenting dimensions reportedly employed by mothers were found to be related to children exhibiting social difficulties, according to the ethnic group to which mothers belonged. One such finding was that Pakistani mothers who reported employing the inconsistency parenting dimension more with their child also reported a higher total difficulties score on the SDQ. No such relationship was found with White mothers. In addition, a significant

positive correlation was also found between White parents who reported 'letting the situation go' and their child reportedly obtaining social difficulties, as assessed by the SDQ. This relationship was not found with Pakistani participants. It could therefore be the fact that although Pakistani and White mothers reportedly employ similar parenting dimensions to each other, that these behaviours give rise to different developmental outcomes in their children. It could also be the fact that the children's behaviours influence their mothers' parenting.

6.2.3 Application to the practice of Educational Psychology

This is a timely study, as now more than ever before, has there been the need for EPs to become involved in planning, running and evaluating parenting programmes. The British Government is placing great importance on parenting education and plans to develop measures centred around schools, such as parent information meetings and family learning programmes (DfES, 2003). More recently, Prime Minister Tony Blair in his January 2006 'respect action plan', unveiled plans for a new national parenting academy to be set up to train professionals on giving parents advice on managing their children (www.respect.gov.uk).

Indeed, this study provides EPs with a useful starting point to support parents to develop their skills. On an individual level, EPs might use the PDI-S as a way of offering parents a variety of dimensions to reflect upon when considering priority areas of development before initiating a parenting programme. Similarly, these dimensions can be revisited at the end of the programme so

that parents can reflect upon and evaluate their personal progress. On a systemic level, EPs can use the PDI-S to consider the basic framework for future parenting programmes or use it as a benchmark for present parenting programmes. It could also be used to trigger debate amongst professionals about the usefulness of particular PDI-S dimensions, or lack thereof.

6.3 Personal and professional development

One of the main reasons why I decided to undertake the Doctorate course was to keep up to date and continue to learn about developments in the field of Educational Psychology. I have often thought it far too easy to fall into the trap of thinking myself the 'expert', hiding behind an important sounding title and offering individuals opinion-based advice, with no sound evidence base. Having Doctorate deadlines imposed upon one, makes the learning process a priority, rather than it becoming another item on the list of things to do. I also undertook the course in order to continue to develop my confidence as a practitioner.

I initiated the Doctorate course early into my second year of practice as an EP and am therefore to find out how I will adjust to my work without undertaking formal study. This also provides me with a good reason to think about my next professional venture, such as pursuing further research work.

The focus on critically evaluating the methods and conclusions of past research work has made me more questioning of others' work. Although a strength, I recognize the need to keep this in check and to appreciate the strengths that

past studies have to offer, or it could begin to feel as if the field has nothing more to offer than a whole host of 'grey areas'.

The course has contributed to my increased confidence in undertaking statistical analyses, consulting databases and targeting research in specific areas. It has also enabled me to recognise and understand how I best learn.

6.4 Conclusion

This study has provided a starting point to investigating the parenting dimensions of British mothers of Primary aged children, including research into a minority group, Pakistanis. The more the field of Educational Psychology learns about parenting in different populations and the impact that this has on socio-emotional outcomes for children and young people, the better informed professionals will be when considering interventions.

This is a timely study as the British Government is placing great importance on parenting education, which provides more of an argument for EPs to become involved in researching parent-child interactions. However, unless a sizeable number of EPs 'take their courage into both hands' and investigate sensitive topic areas such as parenting dimensions and the study of minority groups, the field will fail to realize the potential contribution psychology can make towards assisting parents to support their children's development most effectively.

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6/5/93

Parenting Dimensions Inventory (PDI): A Research Manual

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The PDI (Slater & Power, 1987) is a self-administered parenting instrument that assesses eight dimensions of parenting: three assessing parental support (nurturance, responsiveness to child input, and nonrestrictive attitude), three assessing parental control (type of control, amount of control, and maturity demands), and two assessing parental structure (consistency and organization). (Note: "parental involvement", an additional measure of structure included in the Slater & Power chapter, has since been dropped due to ambiguity in its interpretation).

History and Development

PDI items were primarily drawn from existing childrearing instruments: the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (Schaefer & Bell, 1958), the Block Childrearing Practices Report (Block, 1965), the Parent Attitude Inquiry (Baumrind, 1971), the Childrearing Practices Questionnaire (Dielman & Barton, 1981), and the Questionnaire on Parental Attitudes (Easterbrooks & Goldberg, 1984). Two of the scales (nurturance and nonrestrictive attitude) were taken from a factor analysis of the Block (1965) Childrearing Practices Report (Rickel & Biasatti, 1982). The remaining items and scales were generated by a team of researchers after reviewing the parenting literature and several other parenting questionnaires.

Final scale items were selected after administering the total item pool to a sample of 112 American parents with at least one child between the ages of four and fourteen. Separate confirmatory factor analyses (Joreskog, 1969) were performed on each PDI scale to evaluate the plausibility of a single factor (parenting dimension) accounting for the variation and covariation within each scale. The scales were then purified by dropping items that did not conform to the unidimensional (i.e., one factor) models.

The PDI consists of 47 items that assess the eight parenting dimensions and takes about 30 minutes to complete. The items include: a series of descriptive statements on six-point scales for assessing parental nurturance, consistency, nonrestrictive attitude, and responsiveness to child input; a series of opposing statements for which parents must choose the statement that they agree with most for assessing amount of control; and six disciplinary situations where parents indicate on Likert scales how likely it is that they would use different types of discipline.

Reliability

In addition to the instrument development sample, Slater & Power (1987) administered the final version of the PDI to a replication sample of American parents of 6- to 12-year-olds (n = 140). The factor structure of the PDI was replicated in this sample, and the various measures of model fit, reliability, and internal consistency reached acceptable levels. Moreover, further structural equations analyses showed that each item loaded exclusively on the scale from which it was taken. Fit statistics for these and several other samples are shown in Tables 1-3. Note that in all but the instrument development samples, the responsiveness to child input scale yielded coefficient alphas that were below acceptable levels. This happened in spite of the fact the LISREL fit statistics were excellent. One possible reason for this inconsistency across methods is the small number of items making up this particular scale.

Validity

As for validity, the PDI has been shown to predict parent ratings of child behavior problems and child social competence in the two original samples and in two additional American samples: one of intact families (n = 146) and one of single parent families (n = 102) (see Slater & Power, 1987). In each sample, parent ratings on the Child Behavior Checklist were successfully predicted from PDI scores.

In two studies involving multiple ratings of child and mother behavior (Boggio, 1987; Sharp, 1988), mothers' scores on the PDI were significantly correlated with both fathers' and best friends' ratings of maternal behavior. In the larger of these studies (Sharp, 1988), the mean correlation between mother and father ratings across categories was .52 and the mean mother-best friend correlation was .43. In both studies, mothers' PDI scores were significantly correlated with mother, father, best friend, and/or teacher ratings of child behavior problems.

Further data on validity come from several recent studies employing samples quite different from the instrument development samples. Kelley (1988) and Kelley, Power, & Wimbush (1992), in two studies of low-income, urban, African-American mothers (n's = 25 and 41), found that measures of authoritarian childrearing attitudes taken from the PDI (e.g., nonrestrictive attitude and amount of control) were correlated with similar measures derived from an independently administered childrearing interview. Moreover, single mothers in these samples showed more authoritarian attitudes than did married mothers. Cole, Woolger, Power, & Smith (1992), in a study of the determinants of parenting (n = 90), found that as parents, incest survivors whose fathers were also alcoholics scored lower on both consistency and the use of material/social consequences than did mothers in the nonabuse group.

Both Coffman-Davee (1991) and Longano (1990) identified additional maternal correlates of PDI responses. Coffman-Davee (1991), in a study of 100 divorced and 100 nondivorced mothers, found that the severity of maternal affective symptomology (as assessed by the SCL-90) was negatively associated with the second order PDI warmth factor (see below) for both divorced and non-divorced mothers. The second order strictness factor was positively associated with maternal symptomology, but only for divorced mothers. Longano (1990), using cannonical correlation analyses on a sample of 271 middle-class mothers, found significant relationships between Eriksonian measures of psychosocial development and patterns of PDI scale scores. Specifically, "authoritative" mothers scored the highest on measures of psychosocial development, whereas "univolved-indifferent" mothers scored the lowest. "Permissive" mothers appeared to have developed a basic sense of trust, but had not yet resolved the initiative vs. guilt crisis; "authoritarian" mothers had resolved the inititate and identity crises but showed little trust in others.

Both Cox (1987) and Hardy, Power, & Jaedicke (in press) found that the PDI was useful in predicting children's responses to stressful situations. Cox (1987), in an observational study of 66 pediatric cancer patients undergoing stressful medical procedures (either bone marrow aspiration or lumbar puncture), found that parental PDI responses predicted 2- to 7-year-olds' level of anticipatory distress. Child distress was assessed by parent ratings in the waiting room and by independent observers in the treatment room. Anticipatory distress in the waiting room was highest among children whose parents reported low levels of consistency, amount of control, and organization. Child distress in the treatment room was highest among children whose parents reported low levels of responsiveness to child input.

Hardy et al. (in press), using second order parenting factors made up of the PDI scales along with selected scales from other questionnaires, found that 9- to 10-year-old children (n = 60) who reported using the greatest variety of coping strategies had mothers who were high on their measure of support and low on their measure of structure. Children's reported use of avoidant strategies in uncontrollable situations was positively associated with maternal support, and the use of aggressive strategies was negatively correlated with maternal structure.

The PDI also predicts children's prosocial behavior and moral development. McGrath, Zook, & Weber-Roehl (1991) found in a study of 112 5- to 10-year-olds that children who showed the most prosocial behavior in a peer interaction session had parents who scored high on the PDI nurturance and responsiveness to child input scales, and who scored low on the use of material/social consequences. Kelley, Power, & Berndt (1993), in a study of 53 six-year-olds, found that children most likely to use intention information in their moral judgments had mothers who scored high on a second order authoritarian control factor made up of the PDI

amount of control, nonrestrictive attitude, and responsiveness to child input scales.

Two recent cross-cultural studies using the PDI have empirically confirmed cultural differences in childrearing identified in the field work of anthropologists and sociologists. In the first study, Power et al. (1992) compared the PDI responses of 164 middle class mothers from Hyogo, Japan to the responses of 118 middle class mothers from Houston, Texas (children in both cultures ranged from 3- to 6- years-old). Results showed that American mothers scored higher on nurturance, responsiveness to child input, rule setting (amount of control), and material/social consequences (type of control), whereas Japanese mothers scored higher on the use of reasoning and yelling at the child (both type of control scales). Cluster analyses revealed parenting styles that corresponded closely with Baumrind's (1971) authoritative, autoritarian, and permissive styles in the American sample and with indulgent and strict styles among the Japanese.

Tseng & Kelley (1992) administered the PDI to 36 middle class Chinese immigrants living in Norfolk, Virginia along with a comparison group of 38 middle class Caucasion Americans (children ranged from 3- to 8-years-old in both samples). Chinese subjects had lived in the United States between one and fifteen years. Results showed that the Chinese-Americans scored higher on yells at child and physical punishment, whereas the American mothers scored higher on nurturance, responsiveness to child input, nonrestrictive attitude, and consistency.

Scoring the PDI

Scale scores for the PDI are computed by averaging responses to the items making up the scales (see Tables 4 & 5) after reversing the scoring for items scored in the negative direction (indicated by a "-" sign in the tables). With one exception (type of control), the scoring in Table 4 is based on the procedures used by Slater & Power (1987). Scoring for type of control was modified to provide a richer description of parents' responses to the childrearing vinettes. Reliabilities for the new type of control measures were examined by Power et al. (1988) and by Longano (1990) (see Tables 1-3).

Examination of Table 5 shows that fewer items go into the calculation of scores for children under six years of age. This is the case since Power et al. (1988) found in their LISREL analyses of the American sample that some of the original items were inappropriate for young children. Also note that no instructions for scoring Nonrestrictive Attitude, Maturity Demands, and Organization are provided for parents of preschool children. Reliable factors for mothers of preschoolers were not found by Power et al. (1988) for these scales.

To control for individual differences in response styles, it is necessary when computing the type of control scores to

divide the scores for each of the individual control types (e.g., physical punishment, material/social consequences) by the mean calculated across all control types. The denominator for these calculations is the mean across all responses and situations, excluding situation 1 (i.e., "leaves toys").

Researchers may want to consider using the second order PDI factors identified by Coffman-Davee (1991). Using principal components analysis (varimax rotation) on the PDI scale scores, Coffman-Davee identified two second order factors: warmth/structure and strictness. The scales making up the warmth/structure factor were consistency, responsiveness to child input, nurturance, reasoning, and orgnization; the scales for strictness were physical punishment, amount of control, and nonrestrictive attitude (negative loading). To compute these two scores, standardize the scale scores and then sum the scales comprising each second order factor.

Alternatives to these higher order factors are the second order parenting factors employed in recent studies where the PDI scales were combined with scales from other questionnaires (Hardy et al., in press; Kelley, Power, & Berndt, 1993). These second order factors are described in the respective papers and are available upon request.

Modification of the PDI

Since its publication in 1987, two minor modifications of the PDI have been made to improve the instrument. First, due to the low reliability of the amount of control scale, the dichotomous format employed in Section III (see Slater & Power, 1987 version) has been replaced with a seven-point response format. Second, the discipline choices for the final section have been revised, consolidated, and clarified. Also in this section, based upon mothers' open-ended responses to the original version, an additional response option, "reminds child", was added. Statistics for the reliability of the revised version are presented in Tables 2 and 3 under the Kelley (1988) and the Longano (1990) studies.

PDI Versions Available

Although the PDI is available in the Slater & Power (1987) chapter, researchers are encouraged to use the attached revised version. The PDI has also been translated into Spanish (new version), Japanese (old version), and Chinese (old version). These translations are available upon request.

For More Information

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Table 1. Fit Statistics for PDI Scales*

Scale	No. of Items	χ^2	(df)	p	GFI	RMSR
Slater & Power, 1987** -- Study 1						
Nurturance	6	7.80	9	.554	.98	-
Responsiveness to Child Input	5	1.24	5	.941	.99	-
Nonrestrictive Attitude	7	14.94	14	.382	.96	-
Amount of Control	5	4.69	5	.454	.98	-
Consistency	8	28.43	20	.100	.94	-
Organization	4	.08	2	.963	1.00	-
Slater & Power, 1987** -- Study 2						
Nurturance	6	16.64	9	.055	.96	-
Responsiveness to Child Input	5	5.44	5	.365	.98	-
Nonrestrictive Attitude	7	24.17	14	.044	.96	-
Type of Control	6	35.94	9	.001	.91	-
Amount of Control	5	17.19	5	.004	.95	-
Maturity Demands	6	12.31	9	.196	.97	-
Consistency	8	73.44	20	.001	.87	-
Organization	4	1.80	2	.406	.99	-

Table 1 (cont.)

Scale	No. of Items	χ^2	(df)	p	GFI	RMSR
Power, Kobayashi-Winata, & Kelley, 1988 -- American Sample						
Nurturance	6	2.60	9	.978	.99	.023
Responsiveness to Child Input	4	.96	2	.619	1.00	.023
Consistency	4	5.51	2	.064	.98	.046
Physical Punishment	5	4.44	5	.488	.98	.032
Material/Social Consequences	5	10.49	5	.062	.97	.050
Reasoning	5	6.95	5	.225	.98	.042
Yells	4	11.01	2	.004	.96	.038
Power, Kobayashi-Winata, & Kelley, 1988 -- Japanese Sample						
Nurturance	6	10.84	9	.287	.98	.040
Responsiveness to Child Input	4	.06	2	.969	1.00	.006
Consistency	4	10.56	2	.005	.97	.060
Physical Punishment	5	19.40	5	.002	.96	.050
Material/Social Consequences	5	22.40	5	.001	.94	.046
Reasoning	5	23.14	5	.001	.95	.067
Yells	4	.55	2	.761	1.00	.009

*Fit statistics reported: Goodness of Fit Index (GFI); Root Mean Squared Residual (RMSR). RMSR not available for Slater & Power, 1987 studies.

**See Slater, 1986 for additional statistics and further explanation of analyses.

Table 2. Internal Consistency for PDI scales: School Age Samples

Sample (Primary Subject Group)	Support			Control			Structure	
	Nurt*	Resp	Nres	Type	Amnt	Mat	Cons	Org
Slater & Power, 1987								
Study 1 White, MC Mothers of 4-14 yr-olds (n = 112)	.80	.65	.71	NA**	.71	NA**	.82	.80
Study 2 White, MC Mothers of 6-12 yr-olds (n = 140)	.76	.54	.70	.74	.55	.70	.79	.75
Sharp, 1988								
White, MC Mothers of 6-12 yr-olds (n = 322)	.81	.58	.67	.65	.41	.71	.78	.72
Longano, 1990								
White, MC Mothers of 6-12 yr-olds (n = 271)	.85	.40	.60	***	.62	.72	.80	.76

*Full names of scales are Nurturance (Nurt), Responsiveness to Child Input (Resp), Nonrestrictive Attitude (Nres), Type of Control (Type), Amount of Control (Amnt), Maturity Demands (Mat), Consistency (Cons), and Organization (Org).

**Alphas not available for the first sample because revision of the response scales was necessary from the first study to the second.

***Longano (1990) used the new version of the PDI. Alphas for the type of control variables were: physical punishment, .83, material/social consequences, .82, reasoning, .69, scolding, .89, and reminding, .83.

Table 3. Internal Consistency for PDI scales: Preschool Samples

Sample	Support		Control				Structure
(Subject Group)	Nurt*	Resp	PPUN	MSCON	REAS	YELLS	Cons
Power, Kobayashi-Winata, & Kelley, 1988							
Sample 1 White, MC Mothers of 3-6 yr-olds (n = 118)	.77	.58	.77	.80	.71	.87	.75
Sample 2 Japanese, MC Mothers of 3-6 yr-olds (n = 164)	.72	.34	.81	.89	.66	.79	.56
Kelley, 1988							
Black, LC Mothers of 5-6 yr-olds (n = 25)	.67	.51	.86	.90	.51	***	.77

*Full names of scales are Nurturance (Nurt), Responsiveness to Child Input (Resp), Physical Punishment (PPUN), Material/Social Consequences (MSCON), Reasoning (REAS), Yells at child (YELLS), and Consistency (Cons).

**Because Kelley, 1988 used the new version of the PDI, no alpha for "yells at child" was available.

Table 4. Scoring Key for PDI: School Age Samples (6-12 years)

	Scale Name	Section (new version)	Items
1.	Nurturance	II	1, 9, 10, 11, 16, 24
2.	Responsiveness to Child Input	II	14(-)*, 15, 19(-), 21(-), 26(-)
3.	Nonrestictive Attitude	II	4(-), 8(-), 12(-), 13(-), 17(-), 18(-), 22(-)
4.	Consistency	II	2, 3(-), 5(-), 6(-), 7(-), 20, 23, 25
5.	Amount of Control	III	(Score far left response as "1", far right response as "7", and intermediate responses as 2-6)
			1, 2, 3(-), 4(-), 5
6.	Organization	IV	1, 2, 3, 4
7.	Maturity Demands	V	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
8.	Type of Control	VI	(Ignoring responses to situation 1--"leaves toys"--calculate the mean response for situations 2 through 6 as described below--then divide each by the mean across all responses--see text)
a.	Physical Punishment		(Average all spanking and hitting values--i.e., fourth responses to situations 2-6)
b.	Material/Social Consequences		(Average all "take something away" and all "send to room" values--i.e., second and third responses to situations 2-6)
c.	Reasoning		(Average all "talk to child" values--i.e., fifth responses to situations 2-6)
d.	Scolding		(Average all "scold" values--i.e., sixth responses to situations 2-6)
e.	Reminding		(Average all "remind" values--i.e., seventh responses to situations 2-6)

*For items followed by a "(-)", the scoring of the item should be reversed, e.g., a "6" should be recoded to a "1", a "5" to a "2", etc.

Table 5. Scoring Key for PDI: Preschool Samples (3-5 years)

	Scale Name	Section (new version)	Items
1.	Nurturance	II	1, 9, 10, 11, 16, 24
2.	Responsiveness to Child Input	II	14(-)*, 15, 19(-), 21(-)
3.	Consistency	II	3(-), 5(-), 6(-), 7(-)
4.	Amount of Control	III	(Score far left response as "1", far right response as "7", and intermediate values as 2-6 accordingly) 1, 2, 3(-), 4(-), 5
5.	Type of Control	VI	(Ignoring responses to situation 1--"leaves toys"--calculate the mean response for situations 2 through 6 as described below--then divide each by the mean across all responses--see text)
a.	Physical Punishment		(Average all spanking and hitting values--i.e., fourth responses to situations 2-6)
b.	Material/Social Consequences		(Average all "take something away" and all "send to room" values--i.e., second and third responses to situations 2-6)
c.	Reasoning		(Average all "talk to child" values--i.e., fifth responses to situations 2-6)
d.	Scolding		(Average all "scold" values--i.e., sixth responses to situations 2-6)
e.	Reminding		(Average all "remind" values--i.e., seventh responses to situations 2-6)

*For items followed by a "(-)", the scoring of the item should be reversed, e.g., a "6" should be recoded to a "1", a "5" to a "2", etc.

PENDIX A

E PARENTING DIMENSIONS INVENTORY

)I)

CHILD REARING INVENTORY

uestionnaire was developed to learn about how parents think and what they ith regard to their children. Different parents will answer these questions ently due to varying circumstances, therefore there are no right or wrong ers. Please read and answer *each* item according to your personal views or vior. Even if an answer does not exactly reflect your own opinion or behav- lease choose the response that is closest. Your answers to this questionnaire e completely confidential.

Preliminary Information

1. Please list the sex and age of each child in your family. Place a check next to those who do *NOT* live with you.

SEX	*AGE*
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

2. For the questionnaires that follow, you will be asked about your attitudes and behavior toward one of your children. This child must be between the ages of six and eleven, inclusive. If you have more than one child in this age range, pick the child whose first name appears first in the alphabet. Please answer all questions which follow in regard to this child.

   Please indicate the sex and age of the child you have chosen.

   Child's sex _____ Child's age _____

II. The following statements represent matters of interest and concern to some parents. Not all parents feel the same way about them. Circle the number which most closely applies to you and the child you have selected.

Not at all Descriptive of Me	Slightly Descriptive of Me	Somewhat Descriptive of Me	Fairly Descriptive of Me	Quite Descriptive of Me	Highly Descriptive of Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I always follow through on discipline for my child, no matter how long it takes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Sometimes it is so long between the occurrence of a misbehavior and an opportunity for me to deal with it that I just let it go.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. There are times I just don't have the energy to make my child behave as he (or she) should.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. My child can often talk me into letting him (or her) off easier than I had intended.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My child convinces me to change my mind after I have refused a request.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than other children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. My child and I have warm intimate moments together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, and to question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I don't think children should be given sexual information.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I believe it is not always a good idea to encourage children to talk about their worries because it can upset them even more.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Not at all Descriptive of Me	Slightly Descriptive of Me	Somewhat Descriptive of Me	Fairly Descriptive of Me	Quite Descriptive of Me	Highly Descriptive of Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

15. I encourage my child to express his/her opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he tries to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he or she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I believe in toilet training a child as soon as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I believe that most children change their minds so frequently that it is hard to take their opinions seriously.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I have little or no difficulty sticking with my rules for my child even when close relatives (including when grandparents) are there.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When I let my child talk about his/her troubles, he/she ends up complaining even more.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I expect my child to be grateful to his/her parents, and appreciate all the advantages he/she has.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Once I decide how to deal with a misbehavior of my child, I follow through on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I respect my child's opinion and encourage him/her to express it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I never threaten my child with a punishment unless I am sure I will carry it out.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I believe that once a family rule has been made, it should be strictly enforced without exception.	1	2	3	4	5	6

III. Listed below are pairs of statements concerning parents' attitudes toward childrearing. For each pair, I will read both statements. Then determine which statement you agree with most, and circle the phrase beneath that statement that most reflects the strength of your agreement. If you agree with both statements equally, circle "Agree Equally with A & B". Only circle one phrase per question.

1) A

Nowadays too much emphasis is placed on obedience for children.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B

B

Nowadays parents are too concerned about letting children do what they want.

Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

2) A

Children need more freedom to make up their own minds about things than they seem to get today.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B

B

Children need more guidance from their parents than they seem to get today.

Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

3) A

I care more than most parents I know about having my child obey me.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B

B

I care less than most parents I know about having my child obey me.

Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

4) A

I try to prevent my child from making mistakes by setting rules for his/her own good.

B

I try to provide freedom for my child to make mistakes and learn from them.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B	Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

5) A

If children are given too many rules, they will grow up to be unhappy adults.

B

It is important to set and enforce rules for children to grow up and to be happy adults.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B	Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

IV. **For each of the following statements, circle the number which indicates how often the statement is true of your family.**

Never 1	Once in a While 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4	Most of the Time 5	Always 6

1.	We have a regular dinner schedule each week.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Our house is clean and orderly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Our family is organized and "together".	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	We get everything done around the house that needs to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6

V. Circle the number of regular assigned chores in the following areas your child is responsible for.

	NONE	ONE	TWO	THREE OR MORE
1. Meals (e.g., buy groceries, cook, set table, wash dishes, etc.)	0	1	2	3
2. Housekeeping (e.g., clean room, make bed, dust, put out garbage, etc.)	0	1	2	3
3. Laundry (e.g., put dirty clothes in hamper, wash the clothes, fold clothes, iron, etc.)	0	1	2	3
4. Yardwork (e.g., mow, pull weeds, sweep walks, etc.)	0	1	2	3
5. Pet care (e.g., feed pet, take pet for walk, clean up after pet, etc.)	0	1	2	3
6. Other (e.g., babysit, water plants, wash car, bring in mail, etc.)	0	1	2	3

VI. Listed below are several situations which frequently occur in childhood. You may or may not have had these experiences with your child. Imagine that each has just occurred and rate how likely it is that you would do EACH of the responses listed below the situation.

1. Your child has gone outside without picking up his or her toys as you requested. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Scold the child	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

2. After arguing over toys, your child strikes a playmate. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Scold the child	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

3. **Your child becomes sassy while you discipline him or her. (Circle a number for EACH response.)**

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Scold the child	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

4. You receive a note from your child's teacher that your child has been disruptive at school. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Scold the child	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

5. You catch your child lying about something he or she has done that you would not approve of. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Scold the child	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

6. You see your child playing at a busy street which you have forbidden him or her to go near for safety reasons. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Scold the child	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain or the item seems daft! Please give your answers on the basis of the child's behaviour over the last six months or this school year.

Child's Name ..... Male/Female

Date of Birth .....

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
Considerate of other people's feelings	☐	☐	☐
Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long	☐	☐	☐
Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	☐	☐	☐
Shares readily with other children (treats, toys, pencils etc.)	☐	☐	☐
Often has temper tantrums or hot tempers	☐	☐	☐
Rather solitary, tends to play alone	☐	☐	☐
Generally obedient, usually does what adults request	☐	☐	☐
Many worries, often seems worried	☐	☐	☐
Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	☐	☐	☐
Constantly fidgeting or squirming	☐	☐	☐
Has at least one good friend	☐	☐	☐
Often fights with other children or bullies them	☐	☐	☐
Often unhappy, down-hearted or tearful	☐	☐	☐
Generally liked by other children	☐	☐	☐
Easily distracted, concentration wanders	☐	☐	☐
Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence	☐	☐	☐
Kind to younger children	☐	☐	☐
Often lies or cheats	☐	☐	☐
Picked on or bullied by other children	☐	☐	☐
Often volunteers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)	☐	☐	☐
Thinks things out before acting	☐	☐	☐
Steals from home, school or elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
Gets on better with adults than with other children	☐	☐	☐
Many fears, easily scared	☐	☐	☐
Sees tasks through to the end, good attention span	☐	☐	☐

Thank you very much for your help

PILOT STUDY
Information For Participants

Thank you for agreeing to take part in my research study, for which I hope to use this questionnaire to investigate parenting styles, later this year. This is the Parenting Dimensions Inventory questionnaire, which was developed in America.

Before I can use this questionnaire, I need to feel confident that it is clear to follow, and makes sense in Britain. This is where I need your help.

What I want to do is work through this questionnaire with you, from start to finish (it should take no more than 45 minutes) and ask you to point out any words, phrases, or sentences, that you think the participants in my research study will find difficult to follow, and why? Are there any bits of the questionnaire that don't make sense to you?

I also need to record our discussion for my benefit only, and will treat anything you say confidentially. I will erase our discussion once I have considered your responses in more detail. The recording will give me time to think about your responses in more detail before I make any changes to the questionnaire.

Before we begin, I want to gather some background information about all the participants helping me to develop this questionnaire, and I need to ask you some basic questions. Thank you once again.

PILOT STUDY

Background Information on Participants

Name of child _____

Child's Year group _____

Name of Parent _____

Parents' gender **Male** **or** **Female**

Parents' Country of Origin _____

Age of Parent **25-30** **31-34** **35- 40** **41-44** **45-50**

Parent's Occupation _____

Occupation(s) of other family members _____

Educational Qualifications **GCSE** **DIPLOMAS** **A'LEVELS** **BSC**

MSC **OTHER**

Who are the immediate members of your family?
(e.g son aged 5, my partner)

_____

_____

_____

PILOT STUDY

Criteria for making changes to the PDI, before seeking parents' views

Changes to the PDI were made for the following reasons:-

1) **When the words or phrases were generally not used amongst British populations e.g.**
   - **Buy groceries= do food shopping**
   - **Garbage= Rubbish**
   - **Put dirty clothes in hamper= laundry basket**
   - **Yard work=gardening**
   - **Sweep walks=sweep garden path/patio**
   - **Bring in mail=bring in post**
   - **Scold your child =tell your child off**
   - **Your child strikes a play mate= your child hits a friend**
   - **Your child becomes sassy = your child becomes mouthy.**

2) **The American spelling of words were changed to English spellings, e.g behavior to behaviour.**

PPENDIX A

IE PARENTING DIMENSIONS INVENTORY

PDI) Adjusted PDI Used in the Pilot Study

CHILD REARING INVENTORY

questionnaire was developed to learn about how parents think and what they with regard to their children. Different parents will answer these questions rently due to varying circumstances, therefore there are no right or wrong ers. Please read and answer *each* item according to your personal views or vior. Even if an answer does not exactly reflect your own opinion or behav- please choose the response that is closest. Your answers to this questionnaire be completely confidential.

Preliminary Information

1. Please list the sex and age of each child in your family. Place a check next to those who do *NOT* live with you.

SEX	*AGE*
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

2. For the questionnaires that follow, you will be asked about your attitudes and behavior toward one of your children. This child must be between the ages of six and ~~eleven~~ 12, inclusive. If you have more than one child in this age range, pick the child whose first name appears first in the alphabet. Please answer all questions which follow in regard to this child.

Please indicate the sex and age of the child you have chosen.

Child's sex _____ Child's age _____

II. The following statements represent matters of interest and concern to some parents. Not all parents feel the same way about them. Circle the number which most closely applies to you and the child you have selected.

Not at all Descriptive of Me	Slightly Descriptive of Me	Somewhat Descriptive of Me	Fairly Descriptive of Me	Quite Descriptive of Me	Highly Descriptive of Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I always follow through on discipline for my child, no matter how long it takes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Sometimes it is so long between the occurrence of a misbehavior and an opportunity for me to deal with it that I just let it go.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. There are times I just don't have the energy to make my child behave as he (or she) should.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. My child can often talk me into letting him (or her) off easier than I had intended.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My child convinces me to change my mind after I have refused a request.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than other children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. My child and I have warm intimate moments together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, and to question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I don't think children should be given sexual information.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I believe it is not always a good idea to encourage children to talk about their worries because it can upset them even more.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Not at all Descriptive of Me	Slightly Descriptive of Me	Somewhat Descriptive of Me	Fairly Descriptive of Me	Quite Descriptive of Me	Highly Descriptive of Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

15. I encourage my child to express his/her opinions. 1 2 3 4 5 6

16. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he tries to accomplish. 1 2 3 4 5 6

17. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he or she misbehaves. 1 2 3 4 5 6

18. I believe in toilet training a child as soon as possible. 1 2 3 4 5 6

19. I believe that most children change their minds so frequently that it is hard to take their opinions seriously. 1 2 3 4 5 6

20. I have little or no difficulty sticking with my rules for my child even when close relatives (including when grandparents) are there. 1 2 3 4 5 6

21. When I let my child talk about his/her troubles, he/she ends up complaining even more. 1 2 3 4 5 6

22. I expect my child to be grateful to his/her parents, and appreciate all the advantages he/she has. 1 2 3 4 5 6

23. Once I decide how to deal with a misbehavior of my child, I follow through on it. 1 2 3 4 5 6

24. I respect my child's opinion and encourage him/her to express it. 1 2 3 4 5 6

25. I never threaten my child with a punishment unless I am sure I will carry it out. 1 2 3 4 5 6

26. I believe that once a family rule has been made, it should be strictly enforced without exception. 1 2 3 4 5 6

III. Listed below are pairs of statements concerning parents' attitudes toward childrearing. For each pair, I will read both statements. Then determine which statement you agree with most, and circle the phrase beneath that statement that most reflects the strength of your agreement. If you agree with both statements equally, circle "Agree Equally with A & B". Only circle one phrase per question.

1) A

Nowadays too much emphasis is placed on obedience for children.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B

B

Nowadays parents are too concerned about letting children do what they want.

Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

2) A

Children need more freedom to make up their own minds about things than they seem to get today.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B

B

Children need more guidance from their parents than they seem to get today.

Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

3) A

I care more than most parents I know about having my child obey me.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B

B

I care less than most parents I know about having my child obey me.

Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

4) A B

I try to prevent my child from making mistakes by setting rules for his/her own good.

I try to provide freedom for my child to make mistakes and learn from them.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B	Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

5) A B

If children are given too many rules, they will grow up to be unhappy adults.

It is important to set and enforce rules for children to grow up and to be happy adults.

Strongly Agree more with A	Moderately Agree more with A	Slightly Agree more with A	Agree Equally with A & B	Slightly Agree more with B	Moderately Agree more with B	Strongly Agree more with B

IV. **For each of the following statements, circle the number which indicates how often the statement is true of your family.**

Never 1	Once in a While 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4	Most of the Time 5	Always 6

1.	We have a regular dinner schedule each week.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Our house is clean and orderly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Our family is organized and "together".	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	We get everything done around the house that needs to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6

V. Circle the number of regular assigned chores in the following areas your child is responsible for.

	NONE	ONE	TWO	THREE OR MORE
1. Meals (e.g., do food shopping cook, set table, wash dishes, etc.)	0	1	2	3
2. Housekeeping (e.g., clean room, make bed, dust, put out rubbish, etc.)	0	1	2	3
3. Laundry (e.g., put dirty clothes in basket, wash the clothes, fold clothes, iron, etc.)	0	1	2	3
4. Gardening (e.g., mow, pull weeds, sweep the garden path, etc)	0	1	2	3
5. Pet care (e.g., feed pet, take pet for walk, clean up after pet, etc.)	0	1	2	3
6. Other (e.g., babysit, water plants, wash car, bring in post, etc.)	0	1	2	3

VI. **Listed below are several situations which frequently occur in childhood. You may or may not have had these experiences with your child. Imagine that each has just occurred and rate how likely it is that you would do EACH of the responses listed below the situation.**

1. **Your child has gone outside without picking up his or her toys as you requested.** (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

2. **After arguing over toys, your child** hits a friend . (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

3. **Your child becomes mouthy while you discipline him or her. (Circle a number for EACH response.)**

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

4. You receive a note from your child's teacher that your child has been disruptive at school. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

5. You catch your child lying about something he or she has done that you would not approve of. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

6. You see your child playing at a busy street which you have forbidden him or her to go near for safety reasons. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very Unlikely to do			Very Likely to do
Let situation go	0	1	2	3
Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

Table 1

Scales Dropped in the Development of the PDI-S

Original PDI Scales	Scales Retained in PDI-S	Reason(s) Scale was Dropped
Nurturance	Nurturance	
Responsiveness to Child Input		Poor alphas; Highly correlated with nurturance scale
Nonrestrictive Attitude		Poor alphas; Scale not valid for preschoolers
Consistency	Inconsistency	
	Following Through on Discipline	
Amount of Control	Amount of Control	
Organization	Organization	
Maturity Demands		Scale not valid for preschoolers
Type of Control:		
Letting Situation Go	Let Situation Go	
Physical Punishment	Physical Punishment	
Material/Social Consequences	Material/Social Consequences	
Reasoning	Reasoning	
Scolding	Scolding	
Reminding	Reminding	

Table 2

Fit Statistics for PDI Scales

Scale	# Items	X^2	(df)	p	GFI	RMSR
Slater & Power, 1987 -- Study 1						
Nurturance	6	7.80	9	.554	.98	*
Amount of Control	5	4.69	5	.454	.98	*
Consistency	8	28.43	20	.100	.94	*
Organization	4	.08	2	.963	1.00	*
Slater & Power, 1987 -- Study 2						
Nurturance	6	16.64	9	.055	.96	*
Amount of Control	5	17.19	5	.001	.91	*
Consistency	8	73.44	20	.001	.87	*
Organization	4	1.80	2	.406	.99	*
Power, Kobayashi-Winata, & Kelley, 1988 -- American Sample						
Nurturance	6	2.60	9	.978	.99	.023
Consistency	4	5.51	2	.064	.98	.046
Physical Punishment	5	4.45	5	.488	.98	.032
Material/Social Consequences	5	10.49	5	.062	.97	.050
Reasoning	5	6.95	5	.225	.98	.042
Power, Kobayashi-Winata, & Kelley, 1988 -- Japanese Sample						
Nurturance	6	10.84	9	.287	.98	.040
Consistency	4	10.56	2	.005	.97	.060
Physical Punishment	5	19.40	5	.002	.96	.050
Material/Social Consequences	5	22.40	5	.001	.94	.046
Reasoning	5	23.14	5	.001	.95	.067

*Not examined by Slater & Power, 1987.

Table 3

Coefficient Alphas for PDI Scales Retained in the PDI-S

Scale	Slater & Power, 1987 Study 1 White, MC 4 -14 yrs (n = 112)	Slater & Power, 1987 Study 2 White, MC 6-12 yrs (n = 140)	Kelley, 1988 Black, LC 5-6 yrs (n = 25)	Sharp, 1988 White, MC 6-12 yrs (n = 322)	Power et al., 1988 USA Sample White, MC 3-6 yrs (n = 118)	Power et al., 1988 Japanese Sample MC 3-6 yrs (n = 164)	Longano, 1990 White, MC 6-12 yrs (n = 271)
Nurturance	.80	.76	.67	.81	.77	.72	.85
Consistency	.82	.79	.77	.78	.75	.75	.80
Organization	.80	.75	**	.72	**	**	.76
Amount of Control	.71	.55	**	.41	**	**	.62
Physical Punishment	*	*	.86	*	.77	.81	.83
Material/Social Consequences	*	*	.90	*	.80	.89	.82
Reasoning	*	*	.51	*	.71	.66	.69
Scolding	*	*	**	*	.87	.79	.89
Reminding	*	*	***	*	***	***	.83

* Alphas for the type of control variables are not available for these studies, because the method for scoring type of control was changed after completion of the Slater & Power, 1987 and Sharp, 1988 studies.

** Alphas for organization and amount of control are not reported, because these scales were not calculated for these preschool samples. Moreover, the scolding scale was not used by Kelley, 1988.

***Alphas for reminding are not reported because a reminding option was not added to the type of control questionnaire until the Longano (1990) study.

Table 4

Coefficient Alphas and Stability Over Four Years in a Study of Low-Income, Mexican-American Mothers of 4-8 Year olds (sample described in Power et al., 2002)

Scale	Alpha	Stability (r) Y1-Y4
Nurturance	.72	.46***
Inconsistency	.67	.56***
Following through on Discipline	.66	.38***
Organization	.59	.51***
Letting Situation Go	.83	.19
Physical Punishment	.85	.20+
Material/Social Consequences	.92	.21+
Reasoning	.84	.02
Scolding	.85	.24*
Reminding	.86	.17

+$p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 5

Scoring Key for PDI-S

Scale Name	Section	Items
Nurturance	I	1, 4, 7, 9, 10, 12
Inconsistency	I	3, 5, 8, 13
Following Through On Discipline	I	2, 6, 11
Organization	II	1, 2, 3, 4
Amount of Control	III	Assign the parent a score of "1" for each time he or she chose the answers listed below. Count the total number of answers that match those listed. Scores will range from 0 to 5 with high scores representing greater parental control. 1B, 2B, 3A, 4A, 5B
Type of Control	IV	Calculate the mean response for situations 1 through 5 for each type of control as described below. Then divide the mean for each type of control by the mean calculated across all responses and all situations to compute a ratio score--see text.
a. Letting Situation Go		Average all "let situation go" values—i.e., first responses to situations 1-5.
b. Physical Punishment		Average all spanking and hitting values--i.e. fourth responses to situations 1-5.
c. Material/Social Consequences		Average all "take something away" and all "send to room" values--i.e., second and third responses to situations 1-5.
d. Reasoning		Average all "talk to child values--i.e., fifth responses to situations 1-5.
e. Scolding		Average all "scold" values--i.e., sixth responses to situations 1-5.
f. Reminding		Average all "remind" values--i.e., seventh responses to situations 1-5.

E. THE PARENTING DIMENSIONS INVENTORY (SHORT VERSION)

For the questions that follow, you will be asked about your attitudes and behavior toward one of your children. This child must be the child whose name is written on the label on the first page of this booklet. Please answer all questions in regard to this child.

1. The following statements represent matters of interest and concern to some parents. Not all parents feel the same way about them. Circle the number which most closely applies to you and your child.

Not at all Like Me	Not Much Like Me	Somewhat Like Me	Pretty Much Like Me	Very Much Like Me	Exactly Like Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

1.	I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I always follow through on discipline for my child, no matter how long it takes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Sometimes it is so long between my child's misbehavior and when I can deal with it, that I just let it go.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	My child and I have warm intimate moments together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	There are times I just don't have the energy to make my child behave as he or she should.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Once I decide how to deal with a misbehavior of my child, I follow through on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, and to question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	My child can often talk me into letting him or her off easier than I had planned.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he or she tries to accomplish.		1	2	3	4	5 6
11.	I believe that once a family rule has been made, it should be strictly enforced without exception.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Not at all Like Me	Not Much Like Me	Somewhat Like Me	Pretty Much Like Me	Very Much Like Me	Exactly Like Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

12. I respect my child's opinion and encourage him/her to express it. 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. My child convinces me to change my mind after I have refused a request. 1 2 3 4 5 6

II. For each of the following statements, circle the number which indicates how often the statement is true of your family.

Never 1	Once in a While 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4	Most of the time 5	Always 6

1. We have a regular dinner schedule each week. 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Our house is clean and orderly. 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Our family is organized. 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. We get everything done around the house that needs to be done. 1 2 3 4 5 6

III. Listed below are pairs of statements concerning parents' attitudes toward childrearing. For each pair, read both statements. Then determine which statement you agree with most, and circle the letter in front of that statement. Circle ONLY ONE letter per item.

1. A. Nowadays parents place too much emphasis on obedience in their children.
   B. Nowadays parents are too concerned about letting children do what they want.

2. A. Children need more freedom to make up their own minds about things than they seem to get today.
   B. Children need more guidance from their parents than they seem to get today.

3. A. I care more than most parents I know about having my child obey me.
   B. I care less than most parents I know about having my child obey me.

4. A. I try to prevent my child from making mistakes by setting rules for his/her own good.
   B. I try to provide freedom for my child to make mistakes and to learn from them.

5. A. If children are given too many rules, they will grow up to be unhappy adults.
   B. It is important to set and enforce rules for children to grow up to be happy adults.

IV. Listed below are several situations, which frequently occur in childhood. You may or may not have had these experiences with your child. Imagine that each has just occurred and rate how likely it is that you would do EACH of the responses listed below the situation.

1. After arguing over toys, your child hits a playmate. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Scold the child	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

2. Your child becomes sassy while you discipline him or her. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Scold the child	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

3. You receive a note from your child's teacher that your child has been disruptive at school. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Scold the child	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

4. You catch your child lying about something he or she has done that you would not approve of. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Scold the child	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

5. You see your child playing at a busy street that you have forbidden him or her to go near for safety reasons. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to the child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting the child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Scold the child	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

Dear (Head teacher),

I am writing to ask you to participate in a piece of research. Shama Ali, one of our Educational Psychologists is conducting a study into parenting styles/practices, as part of her Doctorate research at University College London.

Research into the relationship between parenting styles/practices (how parents interact with their children and what they do) and developmental outcomes for children has been conducted since the 1950's. Studies have found parents who are involved with their children and who explain their thinking to them are more likely to raise children that are socially competent. Such studies continue to provide guidance into how best to develop National and local Governmental parenting programmes.

Shama's study will investigate the parenting styles/practices of Pakistani and White mothers of primary school children at key stage 2, including how they view their child's behaviour. The Pakistani population has been selected for study as it is a particularly under researched group, and very little is know about it.

I would ask you to send Shama the titles (Miss, Ms, Mrs, Dr) and home addresses of all your Pakistani mothers that have children in years 3,4,5 and 6, with an equal number of White mothers, who also have children in years 3,4,5 and 6. Upon receiving this information, she will contact parents directly and ask them to fill in a participants information sheet and 2 questionnaires. Shama will also provide a self-addressed envelope so that participants can return their responses to her directly and in order to minimise disruption to you.

In putting this piece of research together, extensive discussions have taken place with ( ), Data Protection Officer. The Data Protection Act, whilst accepting issues of confidentiality, does enable the disclosure of 'sensitive data' where:

'...the processing is necessary for the purpose of identifying or keeping under review the existence or absence of equality of opportunity or treatment between persons of different racial or ethnic origins, with a view to enabling such equality to be promoted or maintained, and is carried out with appropriate safeguards for the rights and freedoms of data subjects.'

Shama will contact you within the week. If you have any queries beforehand, please contact Shama on (Fax.).

Thank you for your participation.

( )
Member of Senior Management

Educational Psychology Group Department of Psychology
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LONDON
GOWER STREET • LONDON WC1E 6BT

http:www.psyc

7th July, 2004

Dear Ms (parent's surname),

(name of Head teacher) , Head teacher of ( ) Primary School, has given me your contact details so that I could invite you to take part in my study.

I am a ( ) based Educational Psychologist investigating the parenting styles and practices of Pakistani and White mothers of primary school children between the ages of 7-11 years. I am conducting this study as part of my Doctorate course at University College London.

By taking part in this study, you will be helping psychologists to better understand parenting styles and practices in different groups of people and help to guide the development of parenting programmes in the future. You will also be helping to investigate a very under researched area.

All I ask you do is spend about 20 minutes filling in the following 3 forms that I have enclosed:-

- Participant information sheet
- Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire
- The Parenting Dimensions Inventory (short version)

Please then return your completed questionnaires to me, in the self - addressed envelope **by Saturday 17th July**. I will enter your name into a draw if you return the questionnaires to me by this deadline, and you could win a box of chocolates. The lucky winner will be contacted by their child's school.

I will have a summary of the results of this study at the end of the autumn term, and will share these with you upon request. These results will not reveal individual parenting styles or practices. You have my word that I will not share your contact details with anyone and that neither your name nor your child's name will be used in any research that is published. All your responses will be shredded at the end of this study.

I very much hope that you take part, but there is no obligation that you do. If you have any further questions, please contact me by phone at University College London (as cited above).

Thank you very much for your time and help.
Yours sincerely

Shama Ali
Educational Psychologist

Adjusted for Use re. Main Study

THE PARENTING DIMENSIONS INVENTORY (SHORT VERSION)

For the questions that follow, you will be asked about your attitudes and behaviour toward one of your children. This child must be the child whose name is written on the participant information sheet. Please answer all questions in regard to this child.

I. The following statements represent matters of interest and concern to some parents. Not all parents feel the same way about them. Circle the number which most closely applies to you and your child.

Not at all Like Me	Not Much Like Me	Somewhat Like Me	Fairly Like Me	Very Much Like Me	Exactly Like Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I encourage my child to talk about his or her troubles	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I always follow through on discipline for my child, no matter how long it takes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Sometimes it is so long between my child's misbehaviour and when I can deal with it, that I just let it go.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My child and I have warm intimate moments together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. There are times I just don't have the energy to make my child behave as he or she should.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Once I decide how to deal with my child's misbehaviour, I follow through on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, and to question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. My child can often talk me into letting him or her off easier than I had planned.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he or she tries to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I believe that once a family rule has been made, it should be strictly enforced without exception.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Not at all Like Me	Not Much Like Me	Somewhat Like Me	Fairly Like Me	Very Much Like Me	Exactly Like Me
1	2	3	4	5	6

12. I respect my child's opinion and encourage him/her to express it. 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. My child convinces me to change my mind after I have refused a request. 1 2 3 4 5 6

II. For each of the following statements, circle the number which indicates how often the statement is true of your family.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Frequently	Most of the time	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. We eat dinner at a regular time throughout the week. 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Our house is clean and orderly. 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Our family is organized. 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. We get everything done around the house that needs to be done. 1 2 3 4 5 6

III. Listed below are pairs of statements concerning parents' attitudes toward childrearing. For each pair, read both statements. Then determine which statement you agree with most, and circle the letter in front of that statement. Circle <u>ONLY ONE</u> letter per item.

1. A. Nowadays parents place too much emphasis on obedience in their children.
   B. Nowadays parents are too concerned about letting children do what they want.

2 A. Children need more freedom to make up their own minds about things than they seem to get today.
   B. Children need more guidance from their parents than they seem to get today.

3 A. I care more than most parents I know about having my child obey me.
   B. I care less than most parents I know about having my child obey me.

4. A. I try to prevent my child from making mistakes by setting rules for his/her own good.
   B. I try to provide freedom for my child to make mistakes and to learn from them.

5. A. If children are given too many rules, they will grow up to be unhappy adults.
   B. It is important to set and enforce rules for children to grow up to be happy adults.

IV. **Listed below are several situations, which frequently occur in childhood. You may or may not have had these experiences with your child. Imagine that each has just occurred and rate how likely it is that you would do EACH of the responses listed below the situation.**

1. After arguing over toys, your child hits another child. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			**Very likely to do**
a. Let the situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to your child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting your child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

2. Your child becomes mouthy while you discipline him or her. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			**Very likely to do**
a. Let the situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to your child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting your child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

3. You receive a note from your child's teacher that your child has been disruptive at school. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let the situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to your child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting your child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

4. You catch your child lying about something he or she has done that you would not approve of. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let the situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to your child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting your child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

5. You see your child playing at a busy road that you have forbidden him or her to go near for safety reasons. (Circle a number for EACH response.)

	Very unlikely to do			Very likely to do
a. Let the situation go	0	1	2	3
b. Take something away (e.g., no dessert, no TV) or add an additional chore (e.g., clean up toys)	0	1	2	3
c. Send to room or isolate by sitting in a chair	0	1	2	3
d. Spanking or hitting	0	1	2	3
e. Talk to your child (e.g., discuss alternatives, discuss your reasons for wanting your child to do or not to do something)	0	1	2	3
f. Tell your child off	0	1	2	3
g. Remind your child of the rule or repeat the direction	0	1	2	3

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GOWER STREET • LONDON WC1E 6BT

7th July, 2004

Dear Mrs (parent's surname),

(Name of Head teacher), Head teacher of ( )Primary School, has given me your contact details so that I could invite you to take part in my study.

I am a ( ) based Educational Psychologist investigating the parenting styles and practices of Pakistani and White mothers of primary school children between the ages of 7-11 years. I am conducting this study as part of my Doctorate course at University College London.

By taking part in this study, you will be helping psychologists to better understand parenting styles and practices in different groups of people and help to guide the development of parenting programmes in the future. You will also be helping to investigate a very under researched area.

All I ask you do is spend about 20 minutes filling in the following 3 forms that I have enclosed:-

- Participant information sheet
- Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire
- The Parenting Dimensions Inventory (short version)

Please fill in the English or Urdu versions of each of the 3 forms, and return these to me in the self - addressed envelope **by Saturday 17th July**. I will enter your name into a draw if you return the questionnaires to me by this deadline, and you could win a box of chocolates. The lucky winner will be contacted by their child's school.

I will have a summary of the results of this study at the end of the autumn term, and will share these with you upon request. These results will not reveal individual parenting styles or practices. You have my word that I will not share your contact details with anyone and that neither your name nor your child's name will be used in any research that is published. All your responses will be shredded at the end of this study.

I very much hope that you take part, but there is no obligation that you do. If you have any further questions, please contact me by phone at University College London (as cited above).

Thank you very much for your time and help.
Yours sincerely

Shama Ali
Educational Psychologist

Oral translation of letter sent to Pakistani
brothers, photocopied on the back of the English version

Participant Information Sheet

My name is _____

My age is _____

Please circle the ethnic group to which you belong

White UK Pakistani Other (please specify) _____

Please circle the status which best describes you

Married Divorced Living with a Partner

Single Widowed Other_____

My Occupation is _____

Please circle the qualification(s) that you have.

GCSEs/O' Levels A'Levels BSc

MSc Other (please specify)_____

How many children do you have altogether? _____

Please consider your attitudes and behaviour towards one of your children. This child must be between the ages of 7-11.

The child I have chosen is _____ years old.

My child's name is _____

Please circle your child's gender

female male

My child attends _____ Primary School

Please circle whether your child has free school dinners

Yes No

Educational Psychology Group Department of Psychology
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LONDON
GOWER STREET • LONDON WC1E 6BT

http:www.psychc

January 10th 2005

Dear (Head Teacher's Name),

As you may remember, you very kindly agreed to compile a list of names and titles of all your Pakistani mothers with children in key stage 2, and to match these with White mothers, who also had children in key stage 2 at your school, in the Summer term of 2004. My study investigated the parenting styles and practices of Pakistani and White mothers of primary school children between the ages of 7-11 years, by postal questionnaires. Overall, 34 Pakistani and 34 White mothers were matched on the grounds that their child attended the same school. Each of the two groups also comprised 17 mothers of boys and 17 mothers of girls.

Mothers' questionnaire responses were statistically analysed and the findings revealed that there were more similarities between the parenting styles and practices of British Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children than differences. The only significant difference found between the two groups was on, 'following through on discipline'. Pakistani mothers reported following through on discipline with their children more than White mothers.

The analyses also revealed other more general findings, regardless of the ethnic background to which mothers belonged. For instance, mothers who reported employing an inconsistent parenting style and 'letting the situation go', with their children were more likely to report that their child had social difficulties.

The sample size of this study was only 68, so further research will need to be conducted in this area. However, this study provides a valuable starting point for researchers in Britain.

Your support with this study has helped psychologists to better understand parenting styles and practices in different groups of people and will help to guide the development of parenting programmes in the future. You have also helped to investigate a very under researched area.

Thank you very much for your time and help.
Yours sincerely

Educational Psychologist

Educational Psychology Group Department of Psychology
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LONDON
GOWER STREET • LONDON WC1E 6BT

http:www.psych

January 10th 2005

Dear (Parent's name),

Thank you for taking part in my study on parenting styles and practices and for requesting feedback on the findings. As you may remember, you filled in a couple of questionnaires and returned these to me in the Summer term of 2004.

My study investigated the parenting styles and practices of Pakistani and White mothers of primary school children between the ages of 7-11 years. Overall, 34 Pakistani and 34 White mothers were matched on the grounds that their child attended the same school. Each of the two groups also comprised 17 mothers of boys and 17 mothers of girls.

The questionnaire responses were statistically analysed and the findings revealed that there were more similarities between the parenting styles and practices of British Pakistani and White mothers of primary aged children than differences. The only significant difference found between the two groups was on, 'following through on discipline'. Pakistani mothers reported following through on discipline with their children more than White mothers did.

The analyses also revealed other more general findings, regardless of the ethnic background to which mothers belonged. For instance, mothers who reported employing an inconsistent parenting style and 'letting the situation go', with their children were more likely to report that their child had social difficulties.

The sample size of this study was only 68, so further research will need to be conducted in this area. However, this study provides a valuable starting point for researchers in Britain.

Your participation in this study has helped psychologists to better understand parenting styles and practices in different groups of people and will help to guide the development of parenting programmes in the future. You have also helped to investigate a very under researched area.

Thank you very much for your time and help.
Yours sincerely

Educational Psychologist