Examination of the Relationship Between Parenting Styles and Parental Tolerance

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EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES AND PARENTAL TOLERANCE

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EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES AND PARENTAL TOLERANCE

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Noncompliant behavior in children may be due to the developmental stage the child is going through, but persistent noncompliance can have long-term effects on the child ranging from academic problems to relationship problems (Forehand & Wierson, 1993; Kalb & Loeber, 2003). Parents’ response to noncompliant behavior may be influenced by their parenting style. Parental tolerance is one factor that may differ among parenting styles. Parental tolerance can be defined by how annoyed the parent becomes by disruptive behavior displayed by children and the affect it has on the parent-child interaction (Brestan, Eyberg, Algina, Johnson, & Boggs, 2003). One new measure of parental tolerance is the Child Rearing Inventory (Brestan, et al., 2003).

The present study examined the validity of the Child Rearing Inventory (CRI) and investigated whether or not tolerance differs based on type of parenting style. The participants of this study are 109 parents with children aged 1 to 5 years old. Individuals completed a series of questionnaires. The results of the present study illustrate that the CRI is a measure of parental tolerance. Parents who were less tolerant of the child behaviors as described in the case vignettes endorsed higher scores on the CRI. The study also found that parents’ tolerance levels do not significantly differ based on the parenting styles they endorse.
Introduction

At some point, children will demonstrate some form of noncompliant behavior. Noncompliant behavior in children may be due to the developmental stage the child is going through, but persistent noncompliance can have long-term effects on the child ranging from academic problems to relationship problems (Forehand & Wierson, 1993; Kalb & Loeber, 2003). Parents’ response to noncompliant behavior may be influenced by their parenting style. Parenting styles are conceptualized as general patterns of raising children that encompass the parents’ attitudes toward parenting and children, parental goals, and the practices that they employ with their children (Baumrind, 1966; Brenner & Fox, 1999; Darling & Steinberg, 1993). The parenting style that parents employ can have effects on the children’s outcomes and behavior in terms of how responsible, self-reliant, aggressive, and independent the children are in life (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2004; Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 2000). Parents can use a number of strategies to manage their children’s behavior such as rewards, nurturance, commands, and verbal or corporal punishment (Brenner & Fox, 1998; Grusec, Goodnow, & Kuczynski, 2000; Parpal & Maccoby, 1985; Shriver & Allen, 1997). Parental tolerance is one factor that may differ by parenting style and influence the strategies used by parents. Parental tolerance can be defined by how annoyed parents becomes by disruptive behavior displayed by children and the effect it has on the parent-child interaction (Brestan, Eyberg, Algina, Johnson, & Boggs, 2003). A new measure of parental tolerance is the Child Rearing Inventory. Preliminary evidence indicates that the CRI is valid with good internal consistency and adequate test-retest reliability and appears to tap into aspects of the tolerance construct (Brestan, et al., 2003). However, additional studies are needed to confirm the initial
findings. Studies are also needed to determine whether or not tolerance differs by one's parenting style.

The following will cover literature pertaining to the previously mentioned factors that influence parental tolerance. The present study examined the validity of the CRI and investigated whether or not tolerance differs based on type of parenting style endorsed. The participants of this study are 109 parents of children aged 1 to 5 years old.

Participants completed a series of questionnaires, including a demographic questionnaire, CRI, Parent Behavior Checklist (Brenner & Fox, 1999), Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000), Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF; Abidin, 1995), and case vignettes. The results of the present study provide some support for the validity of the CRI by illustrating that parents who were less tolerant of the child behaviors endorsed higher scores on the CRI. The study also found that parents’ tolerance levels do not significantly differ based on the parenting styles they endorse. However, parenting styles did differ on parenting stress and child behavior; therefore it is possible that tolerance is dictated by parents’ expectations of their children.
Literature Review

Normal child development is an area that is very broad due to the fact that children vary a great deal in their rate of development. Parents typically use developmental guidelines to monitor whether or not their child is developing normally such as when attachments form, when speech develops, and when emotional or behavioral control develops. Part of normal child development is learning independence, which is something that children will be trying to do for the rest of their childhood by testing the limits that are set forth by their parents. As a result, children often break rules or disobey their parents. Many times parents view this as disobedience or noncompliance when, in reality, the behavior may be due to the developmental stage the child is going through (Forehand & Wierson, 1993).

Noncompliance has been defined in many ways with some proposing that it is a coercive response brought out by the child to whom the parent must respond, meaning that the parent must react to the defiant or disobedient behavior. Kalb and Loeber (2003) stated that “behavioral noncompliance, also known as defiance or disobedience, refers to those instances when a child either actively or passively, but purposefully, does not perform a behavior that has been requested by a parent or other adult authority figure” (p. 641). A child may be actively noncompliant by defying the request, or the child may be passively noncompliant by ignoring the request. Both passive and active noncompliance occurs in situations where the child fails to do what is asked of him or her.

In the short term, child noncompliance does not have detrimental effects; however, if it persists the long-term effects can be negative. Long-term effects of noncompliance can range from academic problems to relationship problems (Kalb &
Loeber, 2003). Children with chronic behavior problems are at risk of developing Oppositional Defiant Disorder and Conduct Disorder. Children who are noncompliant throughout childhood tend to have stressful relationships with adults, peers, and teachers (Kalb & Loeber, 2003). These stressful relationships put these children at increased risk for academic difficulty and physical injury. It is known that as part of normal development children will display some noncompliance; however, if this behavior continues, it puts children at risk for serious long-term problems. Therefore, it is important that parents learn how to manage these behaviors in order to prevent long-term problems.

There are many factors which may influence whether or not a parent will respond to a behavior as well as influence what type of strategy he or she will use. One variable that influences whether or not parents will respond to their children and how they will respond is their parenting style. Parenting styles can be thought of as general patterns of raising children that encompass the parents' attitudes toward parenting and children, their parental goals, and the practices that they employ. The level of parental reinforcement and the types of demands that are made on children are the factors that can be used to determine a parenting style. Parent reinforcements and demands on the children are going to be determined by the parents' beliefs and goals for the children. Parental beliefs are those beliefs the parents have about themselves as parents, their children, and raising children. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggest that the values and goals parents have in socializing their children, the parenting practices they employ, and the attitudes they express toward their children are the traits of parents that define a parenting style and influence the child's development. These styles will be discussed below.
Baumrind (1966) labeled three parenting styles when examining ways parents control children’s behavior. These parenting styles in their simplest form are defined by the amount and type of control the parent uses, the amount of nurturance, and how the parent communicates to the child. Baumrind (1966) first identified three parenting styles: authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative. These parenting styles can be viewed on a continuum with permissive parents on one end, authoritarian on the other end, and authoritative falling in the middle.

Permissive parents are characterized as parents who are very responsive to their child’s emotional needs and have few expectations of their children (Brenner & Fox, 1999). The permissive style is one that is high on nurturance and communication and low in the areas of control and expectations. Parents who use permissive parenting do not use punishment regularly and often fail to establish rules to regulate their children’s behavior. Parents categorized as permissive often believe that it is important to be accepting and positive of their children’s wants, needs, and behaviors (Baumrind, 1966). They often view parenting as a partnership between them and their children. Permissive parents do not use the power of being the parent to keep children in line but rather attempt reason and manipulation. Permissive parents ask little of their children in terms of family responsibility and contribution such as chores and public behavior. Baumrind (1966) states that a permissive parent “presents herself to the child as a resource for him to use as he wishes, not as an active agent responsible for shaping or altering his ongoing or future behavior” (p. 889).
On the other end of the continuum, authoritarian parents are those parents who have high expectations of their children and expect their children to follow rules. The expectations and rules come at the expense of parents not fully meeting the child’s emotional needs (Brenner & Fox, 1999). The authoritarian style is one that is high in control and low in areas of warmth, nurturance, and two-way communication. Authoritarian parents see punishment as the best method of keeping their children in line. Obedience is valued and expected; children do not question the parent’s word but accept it as right. Children are responsible for household chores and are expected to represent the family well in public. Baumrind (1966) states that “the authoritarian parent attempts to shape, control, and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of the child in accordance with a set standard of conduct, usually an absolute standard, theologically motivated and formulated by a higher authority” (p. 890). In other words, authoritarian parents are consistently strict.

In between authoritarian and permissive parenting styles lies the authoritative style. Authoritative parents are able to find a balance of meeting their child’s emotional needs and instilling appropriate standards of behavior (Brenner & Fox, 1999). The authoritative style is relatively high in control, but these parents are also high on warmth and nurturance. They are also democratic and open to parent-child communication. The authoritative parent is a parent who values the self-exploration and freedom that permissive parents give their children but within the parents’ set of guidelines and rules. For example, authoritative parents may require that their children finish homework after school, but once it is completed, the children may do as they wishes as long as it is not disruptive or dangerous. These parents are open to listening to what their children have
to say as well as giving explanations for decisions and punishments to their children. Baumrind (1966) states that an authoritative parent “exerts firm control at points of parent-child divergence, but does not hem the child in with restrictions” (p. 891).

Many years later Baumrind (1991 as cited in Brenner & Fox, 1999) added a fourth type of parenting style called the neglecting type. Parents who are not involved in seeing that their child’s needs are being met fall within this category. They are also low in all three dimensions of control, warmth, and communication (Brenner & Fox, 1999). These parents have a lack of empathy for their children and their children’s needs. Children with neglecting parents may reverse roles with the parent and be the parent in the relationship.

Research has been conducted in order to validate Baumrind’s classification of parenting styles. One recent study conducted by Brenner and Fox (1999) examined parental practices of 1,056 mothers of young children living in the midwestern United States focusing on discipline, nurturance, and expectations. The Parent Behavior Checklist (PBC; Fox, 1994 as cited in Brenner & Fox, 1999) is a rating scale that measures the parenting practices of mothers of 1- to 5-year-old children with a focus on discipline, nurturance, and expectations. They found four patterns or clusters of parental practices with three of the four being consistent with Baumrind’s parenting styles. Cluster one does not fit into one of Baumrind’s parenting styles. The first cluster can be thought of as good enough parents because they had low to moderate scores on all three target areas of discipline, nurturance, and expectations. These mothers spend a moderate amount of time in positive nurturing activities with their children, have moderate developmental expectations of their children, and use an average amount of punishment
with their children. The first cluster appears to represent an average parent who is not
doing a bad job but is not doing a great job either.

The second and third clusters were both low on discipline and high in positive
nurturing activities with their children. The only difference between these two clusters
was in the area of expectations of their children. Both parenting clusters rarely use
punishment to control their children’s behavior and regularly interact with their children
in positive nurturing behavior. Mothers falling in the second cluster have very high
expectation of their children; whereas, mothers in the third cluster have the lowest
expectations out of all the clusters. The second cluster is comparable to the authoritative
parenting style, and the third goes along with the permissive parenting style. The fourth
cluster is comparable to the authoritarian parenting style. These mothers are high on
disciplining their children. They also have moderate to high expectations of their
children and low on the level of nurturance towards their children. The fourth cluster
mothers spend a small amount of time engaging in positive nurturing behavior with their
children but have high expectations, which often fall beyond the child’s developmental
capabilities. As a result, they frequently punish their children for misbehavior. Overall,
most of published studies such as the one described above support the validity of
Baurmind’s theory of parenting styles (e.g., Aunola & Nurmi, 2005; Sorkhabi, 2005;
Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengart, & Cauffman, 2006; Woolfson, 2006).

Gender Differences in Parenting Styles

Along with research to validate parenting styles, there has been some research
looking at gender differences among parents in regard to what style they utilize. Russell,
et al. (1998) examined the gender-based differences in parenting styles of 305 mothers
and fathers with preschool children. The findings from the Parenting Practices Questionnaire (PPQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995 as cited by Russell et al., 1998) illustrated that there were differences among parenting styles of mothers and fathers. There were no significant differences between parenting styles based on child’s gender, meaning that the gender of the parent has more influence on the parenting style employed than the gender of the child. Mothers reported using reasoning/induction, warmth and involvement, democratic participation, and over all more authoritative patterns than fathers. Because mothers use more authoritative parenting, they are more likely to develop close relationships with their children, especially in adolescence. They found that fathers were more likely use authoritarian patterns such as a non-explanation style than mothers. Fathers showed a tendency to be more permissive as well especially in neglecting to follow through with discipline.

Russell, Hart, Robinson, and Olsen (2003) examined parents in both the United States and Australia in regards to children’s temperament, parenting styles, and links among child behavior and parenting measures. Participants were 306 Australian parents with preschool children aged from 48 to 68 months and 341 American parents with preschool children aged from 36 to 72 months. Parents answered a modified version of the Parenting Styles and Dimensions (PSD; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001 as cited by Russell et al., 2003). Teachers also rated children on a 3-point scale for the frequency of aggressive and sociable behaviors, and the EAS Temperament Survey (Buss & Plomin, 1984 as cited by Russell et al., 2003) was completed by parents. Russell et al. (2003) found that mothers were higher on authoritative parenting than fathers, and fathers were higher on authoritarian parenting than mothers. They also found that both
mothers and fathers are more authoritative with girls and more authoritarian with boys. Authoritarian mother parenting was positively linked with prosocial behavior for high-activity children but negatively linked for low-activity children, meaning that the high control and low warmth of authoritarian parents (especially the mother) can have negative effects on children. These effects are especially true for those who are shy and introverted with a low activity level and poor self-esteem.

Winsler, Madigan, and Aquilino (2005) examined the correspondence between mothers’ and fathers’ parenting styles of 28 preschool children, they used both self and spouse reporting of parenting styles on the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001 as cited by Winsler et al., 2005). As related to parenting styles, they found overall that parents who were high on permissive parenting were married to others who were high on permissiveness. However, this was not the case with authoritarian and authoritative parenting. These parents were more likely to create a balance within the marriage. In regards to differences between mothers and fathers, they found that parents perceive more differences in their parenting styles than what were actually found. Mothers perceived that they were more authoritative than their husbands. Fathers also tended to have more traditional gender role views. They perceived their wives as being more permissive and responsive while rating themselves as being more authoritarian.

Deal, Halverson, and Smith Wampler (1989) conducted a study examining the effects of family factors on child behavior in 136 “intact” families with a preschool child. Each family consisted of both parents at home and at least one child between the ages of 3 and 6 years. The families were predominantly Caucasian, middle class, and college
educated with one to four children. The study consisted of several taped interactions between the parents, the family, the mother and target child, and the father and target child. Both parents completed the Block Child-Rearing Practices Report Q-Sort (CRPR; Block & Block, 1980 as cited by Deal et al., 1989) and a questionnaire packet. Teachers of the target children were given questionnaires as well. They found that couples who agree on parenting practices have marital and family relationships that are characterized as well-functioning, healthy, evidencing open communication, and by high amounts of positive regard. They also found that not only do couples who are effective parents agree with each other, but they also agree with other highly effective parents illustrating cultural standards for effective parenting.

Overall, the studies reviewed show that mothers and fathers may be more alike in their parenting styles than they perceive themselves to be. It appears that often people become parents with people who have similar views about parenting. There is some research that suggests that mothers may take a more authoritative approach to parenting, while fathers may take a more authoritarian approach. It appears that for the most part research has illustrated that the parenting style that parents employ may be less influenced by gender and impacted more by factors such as personality and tolerance.

Effects of Parenting Styles on Children

The parenting style that a parent employs can have effects on children’s behavior. Children who have authoritative parents have better outcomes because of the balance between warmth and enforcement of rules. Authoritative parents tend to have children who are responsible, self-reliant, and friendly (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2004). Neal and Frick-Horbury (2001) found that children who have authoritative parents have more
positive perceptions about “other people’s accessibility, trustworthiness, and responsiveness to one’s needs” (p. 181). Children who have authoritative parents are more likely to be independent, self-assertive, friendly with peers, and cooperative with parents. These children are more likely to have a strong motivation to achieve as well as be academically and socially successful.

Authoritarian parents typically are low on warmth and nurturance; therefore, it is expected that their children would have more emotional and behavioral problems due to the lack of emotional availability on the parent’s part. A parent’s emotional availability can have an impact on the child’s development. Lum and Phares (2005) found that when there is a low level of emotional availability from the parent, a child has higher levels of emotional and behavioral problems. Neal and Frick-Horbury (2001) found that children with authoritarian parents are more likely to be withdrawn, be antisocial, display delinquent behaviors, have low self-esteem, and possess low spontaneity.

Permissive parents have difficulty establishing consistent rules for their children; therefore, it may be difficult for their children to learn independence and responsibility. Martin, Linfoot, and Stephenson (2000) examined the relationships between children’s aggression, mothers’ confidence in managing their children’s aggression, and the mother–child interaction. They had 248 mothers of children between the ages of 3 to 6 fill out questionnaires containing components of the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1982) and the Parent’s Report (Dibble & Cohen, 1974 as cited by Martin et al., 2000). They found that children who are more aggressive have mothers who try to control them by using guilt, which is typical of the permissive parenting style. Mothers who use guilt to control their children have difficulty connecting with their children, are
not committed to establishing consistent rules, and give their children very little independence.

Paulson, Marchant, and Rothlisberg (1998) conducted a study with 230 fifth- and sixth-grade students from the Midwest looking at adolescents’ perceptions of parenting, teaching, and school atmosphere. They used questionnaires focusing on parenting style and parental involvement, teaching style, school atmosphere, and student outcomes. They found that children with neglecting parents have the lowest achievement outcomes due to lack of parent involvement and neglect of stressing the importance of education. Parents in the neglecting style are not even meeting basic needs of the child.

In conclusion, studies have indicated that different parenting styles have different outcomes on children’s behavior. Authoritative parents tend to have the best long term outcomes in children with children being self-reliant, independent, and responsible. Authoritarian and permissive parents tend to have more negative outcomes with their children being more antisocial, having a low self-esteem, and demonstrating little independence. Neglecting parents produce the worst outcomes in that these children tend to be low achievers.

Parenting Strategies

There are different types of strategies which parents may use to try to manage and control their children’s behavior. Some strategies are more effective in managing children’s behavior than others. These factors will be discussed below.

One technique that parents use to manage behavior is verbal and tangible rewards. Rewards are employed to motivate their children in certain areas such as school and chores. The goal of the parents should be to gradually move away from external rewards
to intrinsic, self regulation (Grusec, Goodnow, & Kuczynski, 2000). Rewards are effective parenting strategies for young children. Marchant, Young, and West (2004) examined how effectively four mothers of 4-year-old children learned and applied parenting techniques to decrease noncompliance. The techniques taught to the parents were effective praise, instructive praise, direct teaching, and corrective teaching. Effective praise was defined as a statement of praise given immediately after a child exhibits a behavior and is praised for the specific behavior (Marchant et al., 2004). Instructive praise is when a parent gives positive reinforcement for a specific behavior along with the reason why the behavior should be used by the child. Direct teaching is when a parent teaches the child a skill in a way that the child is able to practice each step of the skill before being required to use the skill on a daily bases (Marchant et al., 2004). Finally, corrective teaching is when parents use errors in a child’s behavior as an opportunity to teach the skill again correctly. They found the use of these techniques by parents increased the child’s compliant behavior.

Nurturance is also a strategy used by parents to manage children’s behavior. Nurturance can be defined by the level of responsiveness by the parent to the child. Parpal and Maccoby (1985) examined the effect of three kinds of mother-child interaction on child compliance with 39, 2- to 4-year-old children. Mothers and children were put in either responsive play, free play, or noninteractive play. Responsive play in this study was having mothers engage in play with their children while letting the children control the interaction and mothers not asking questions, giving commands, or criticisms during the play session. They found that children in the responsive play had higher compliance than the children in the other two groups. In the noninteractive group
compliance was still high; however, the mother-child interaction lacked the positive experience of the child having some control. The free play group had low compliance possibly due to the lack of any structure for the child to follow. Thus, nurturance in the form of responsiveness and affection can increase compliance in children in a positive way.

Commands are another strategy that parents employ while managing their child’s behavior. Commands are used by parents telling their children what to do. These can be given directly or indirectly. Shriver and Allen (1997) found that all children have a higher rate of compliance to direct commands than from indirect commands. Parents were more likely to give children commands in an indirect way by asking a question than by stating the command directly. The way in which parents’ give a command in the form of a question gives the child the impression that it is a choice even when it is not. The use of direct commands is a more effective strategy than the use of indirect commands.

McNally, Eisenberg, and Harris (1991) examined the consistency and changes in child-rearing practices over an 8-year period. Thirty-two mothers were interviewed when their children were 7 to 8 years old, 9 to 10 years old, 11 to 12 years old, 13 to 14 years old, and 15 to 16 years old. During each of the five interview sessions, each mother completed the Child Rearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block, 1965 as cited by McNally et al., 1991). They found as children get older, parents employ an emphasis on achievement and deprivation of privileges as a punishment as strategies. The parental strategy of achievement is a step toward adulthood and autonomy for children because parents are encouraging their children to be successful in life. The use of taking away
privileges as punishment replaces the punishment of isolating the child for a certain amount of time which is used at younger ages.

Verbal and corporal punishment is linked with increased behavior problems in children, and poor parental use of discipline can be considered the first step in a developmental pattern that leads to antisocial behavior. Brenner and Fox (1998) used the Parent Behavior Checklist (PBC; Fox, 1994 as cited in Brenner & Fox, 1999) with 1,056 mothers of children between the ages of 1 and 5 years old. They found that parental discipline was the strongest predictor of reported behavior problems in young children. Parents who reported frequently punishing their children also reported more behavior problems than parents who reported less punishment. They found that parental discipline was a stronger predictor of increased behavior problems than mothers who were unmarried, poorer, younger, and less educated. They concluded that the relationship between discipline and behavior problems is a consistent pattern and the first step in development of potentially serious behavior problems and antisocial behavior.

Parents can fall into different parenting styles and can use different strategies. The strategies of praise, nurturance, and direct commands have been shown to be effective. Other strategies of indirect commands, verbal punishment, and corporal punishment have been shown to increase child behavior problems. It is unclear as to what strategies are employed based on parenting styles.

Parental Stress

The stress parents experience due to parenting their children is another factor that may influence the parenting style that is endorsed by a parent as well as their level of tolerance. Parental stress has been defined as the minor daily hassles of parenting that a
parent experiences that may influence their child's development, the parent's well-being, and the parent-child relationship (Crnic, Gaze, & Hoffman, 2005). Crnic et al. (2005) examined stress focusing on life events and parenting daily hassles over a 2-year period from children age 3 years to children age 5. The 141 families participated in various observed maternal behavior, child behavior, and mother-child relationship quality in home observations, along with mothers and fathers reporting on child behavior problems. They found that "typically, parenting stress involves situations in which parents and or children create difficult or challenging circumstances through their behavior, expectations, or needs" (p. 128, Crnic, et al., 2005). They also found that both life stress and parenting daily hassles are stable across early childhood, which suggests that those parents who are stressed remained stressed over time. This continuing stress over time runs the risk of having negative effects on child development as well as the parent-child relationship (Crnic, et al., 2005).

Garrison, Blalock, Zarski, and Merritt (1997) examined marital satisfaction, parental stress, and family functioning in families who delayed parenthood. The 69 families completed the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI; Snyder, 1979 as cited by Garrison, et al., 1997), the Parenting Stress Index (PSI; Abidin, 1990 as cited by Garrison, et al., 1997), and the Family Assessment Device (FAD; Epstein, Baldwin, & Bishop, 1983 as cited by Garrison, et al., 1997). They found that parents who delay parenthood "were satisfied, less stressed, and reported better functioning than their nondelaying counterparts" (p. 288, Garrison, et al., 1997). These findings suggest that parents who delay having children may have more experiences that be better prepare them for parenting.
**Parental Tolerance**

Another factor that may differ by parenting style is parental tolerance. Parental tolerance may also influence if and how a parent responds to misbehavior. Parental tolerance can be defined by how annoyed the parent becomes by looking at how the parent-child interaction is negatively affected by disruptive behavior in children (Brestan, Eyberg, Algina, Johnson, & Boggs, 2003). Parental tolerance in the past has been inferred by looking at child misbehavior and how long the parent lets the misbehavior continue. Parents who let misbehavior continue longer are inferred to have a higher tolerance. However, recently a measure was created to get a standardized measure of parental tolerance. The Child Rearing Inventory (CRI; Brestan, et al., 2003) was developed to measure parental tolerance for child misbehavior. The CRI asks parents to indicate which of two statements is true and then indicate how true the statement is. The CRI yields a Total Tolerance score, which can range from 11 to 44. Higher scores reflect lower tolerance for child misbehavior. The Annoying Behavior Inventory (ABI; Brestan, et al., 2003) is a parental tolerance measure for disruptive child behavior in which participants are asked to rate how annoying the listed behaviors are to the parent and to indicate if their child would be punished for the behavior. Brestan et al. (2003) had 262 mothers complete the CRI along with the Eyberg Child Behavior Inventory (ECBI; Eyberg & Pincus, 1999 as cited in Brestan et al., 2003), the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (M-C SDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960 as cited in Brestan et al., 2003), and the ABI. Results indicated that the CRI Total score was significantly correlated with the ABI Annoyance score. High Total scores were related to a higher number of problematic behaviors on the ECBI Problem Scale (Brestan et al. 2003). The CRI was
not significantly correlated with social desirability as measured by the M-C SDS. Based on this study it can be concluded that parental tolerance can be measured and quantified using the CRI.

Summary and Purpose

Parents differ in their parenting styles. Certain parenting styles have been shown to be better in terms of long-term effects on the child. Parents can also differ in the techniques they employ to manage children's behavior with some techniques being more effective than others. Another factor in which parents can differ is their level of tolerance. The initial study of the CRI indicates it is a good measure of parental tolerance based on parent self-report. However, it is unknown whether or not scores on the CRI will correspond with parental ratings of children's behavior in case vignettes. Vignettes are an effective approach to research and have been used in a wide variety of research, including research regarding attitudes about mental health (Macaluso, 2006), maternal competence (Shpancer, Melick, Sayre, & Spivey, 2006), perceptions of sexual assault risks (Messman-Moore & Brown, 2006), doctor-patient communication (Merenstein, Diener-West, Krist, Pinneger, & Cooper, 2005), and evaluations of self-assessment questionnaires (Lagace-Seguin & Coplan, 2005). It is also unknown whether or not certain parenting styles endorse different tolerance levels.

The purpose of this study is multifaceted. The first purpose is to test the validity of the CRI by examining whether or not parents who endorse higher tolerance on the CRI also rate behaviors as being less problematic in case vignettes. The second purpose is to examine whether or not parents differ in tolerance based on type of parenting style they endorse. The research questions that this study poses are:
1. Do parents who endorse higher tolerance on the CRI also rate behaviors as being less problematic using case vignettes?

2. Do parents’ tolerance levels differ based on the parenting style they endorse?
Methods

Participants

One hundred and nine parents of children ages 1.5 to 5 years in the southeast region of the United States served as participants. Parents were recruited through fliers posted at day-care centers and local businesses as well as advertisements in community newspapers. Upon completion of questionnaires, participants were given gift certificates for their time. Five parents’ data were dropped because the questionnaires were not complete. This resulted in a final sample of 104 participants. The majority of the participants were married to each other and had 1 to 4 children. Participants were predominantly Caucasian, middle to upper class, and college educated. The children of the participants did not have clinically significant behavior problems as indicated on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL). Only one participant indicated that his or her child had behavior that fell in the clinical range. Participants reported an average level of parental stress on the Parenting Stress Index – Short Form (PSI-SF). Only nine participants reported parenting stress that fell in the clinical range. See Tables 1 and 2.
Table 1

*Descriptive Characteristics of the Sample*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>22–55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly Income</td>
<td>3858.53</td>
<td>1739.81</td>
<td>0–8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Children</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1–4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRI Total Score</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>14–41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problematic Severity Total Score</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>10–40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSI-SF Total Score</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>16.81</td>
<td>38–116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBCL Total T-score</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>9.85</td>
<td>28–74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* CRI = Child Rearing Inventory, Problematic Severity Total Score = severity ratings from the four case vignettes, PSI-SF = Parenting Stress Index-Short Form, CBCL = Child Behavior Checklist.
Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Martial Status and Ethnicity*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Martial Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
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<td>94.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>92.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Materials*

*Demographic questionnaire.* For descriptive purposes, parents completed a family demographic questionnaire created for the purposes of this study (See Appendix A). Information regarding the participant’s level of education, age, occupation, ethnicity, income, religion, and age/gender of each child in household was assessed. Information in regard to the parenting strategies the parents employ was also provided.
**Child Rearing Inventory (CRI).** The CRI (Brestan, et al., 2003) was completed by parents. It is an 11-item questionnaire, which uses a 1-4 Likert-type scale to assess parental tolerance for child behavior. Initial uses of this inventory were for research purposes. The parents are asked which of two statements is true. Parents then indicate how true the statement is. The CRI yields a Total Tolerance score, which can range from 11 to 44. Higher scores reflect lower tolerance for child misbehavior. Preliminary evidence indicates that the CRI is valid with good internal consistency ($r = .72$), adequate test-retest reliability ($r = .69$), and appears to tap into aspects of the tolerance construct (Brestan, et al., 2003). The CRI is not influenced by socioeconomic status or social desirability, and it is appropriate for both minority and majority cultures. For the purpose of the present study, the Total Tolerance score was used as an indication of parental tolerance levels.

**Parent Behavior Checklist (PBC).** The PBC (Brenner & Fox, 1999) was completed by parents. It is a 100-item rating scale that measures the parenting practices of parents of 1- to 5-year-old children and is used predominantly for research purposes. The PBC consists of three subscales: the discipline scale, the nurturing scale, and the expectations scale. Participants rate each item on a 4-point frequency scale. The PBC has good internal consistency for expectations ($r = .97$), discipline ($r = .91$), and nurturing ($r = .82$). The PBC has good test-retest reliability for expectations ($r = .98$), discipline ($r = .87$), and nurturing ($r = .81$), and established interrater reliability (Brenner & Fox, 1999). The PBC has been found to be a valid measure with urban families and families under multiple stressors, including lower socioeconomic status (Fox, Platz, & Bentley, 1995). Raw scores are transformed into T scores for each of three areas:
expectations, discipline, and nurturing. The scores on the expectations, discipline, and nurturing dimensions are clustered together; these clusters correspond to Baumrind's parenting styles. Criteria for placing participants into a cluster which corresponds to a parenting style was determined according to the algorithm developed by Fox and Brenner (1999) which was used in their initial study. High discipline, low nurturing, and moderate to high expectation scores correspond to an authoritarian parenting style. Low discipline, high nurturing, and low expectations scores correspond to a permissive style. Low to moderate discipline, high nurturing, and high expectation scores correspond to an authoritative parenting style. For the purpose of the present study, the T scores were used to assign parents into one of three parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) that served as the independent variable for research question two.

Vignettes. Vignettes were created for the purposes of this study. The vignettes vary based on gender and types of behavior displayed (See Appendix B). For each gender, one vignette described externalizing behavioral problems and one vignette described internalizing behavioral problems. The age of the child was kept constant with each child being 4 years of age. Participants read each of the vignettes, and at the end of each one, they rated whether or not the behavior is problematic. They then rated how problematic they viewed the behavior described in the vignette on a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being the most problematic. The raw scores obtained from the four problem severity questions from the vignettes were combined for a Total Problem Severity score. The vignettes were pilot tested and reviewed by child experts in the field of psychology prior to the study. The Total Problem Severity score was used to test the validity of the Child Rearing Inventory (CRI).
**Child Behavior Checklist.** The Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000) was completed by parents. It is a standardized diagnostic questionnaire which uses a 3-point rating scale to assess emotional and behavioral characteristics of children who are between the ages of 1½ and 5 years. The CBCL is a 100-item scale which yields a Total Problem T-score, as well as a T-score for Externalizing and Internalizing behaviors. Externalizing behaviors include both delinquent and aggressive behaviors. Internalizing behaviors measured by the scale include depressive and anxious features, somatic complaints, and withdrawal behaviors. T-scores above 63 are indicative of children functioning in the clinical range. The test-retest reliability of the CBCL for ages 1½ through 5 was evaluated using Pearson Correlations (rs) for mothers’ CBCL ratings of 68 nonreferred children on two occasions at a mean interval of eight days (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000). Reliability was high for most scales, with most test-retest rs being in the .80s and .90s. Extensive validity data has been reported by Achenbach and Rescorla (2001) that establishes the measure as adequate for diagnostic purposes. Tests of criterion-related validity using clinical status as the criterion (referred/nonreferred) also support the validity of the instrument. Importantly, demographic variables such as race and SES accounted for a relatively small proportion of score variance. For the purposes of this study, this information was used for descriptive purposes to illustrate that the children were within the average range in terms of behavior.

**Parenting Stress Index – Short Form (PSI-SF).** The PSI-SF (Abidin, 1995) was completed by participants in order to assess the amount of stress in the parenting role. This instrument is used both in research settings and in clinical settings. Thirty-six items
were answered using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The scale yields an overall Total Stress score ranging from 36 to 180, with scores at or above 90 indicating significant stress. Standard scores are also yielded for three subscales: Difficult Child, Parent Child Dysfunctional, and Parental Distress. Each sub-scale consists of 12 questions, with scores ranging from 12 to 60. Reliability was tested during standardization of the scale. It included 2,633 mothers and 200 fathers of children ages 1 month to 12 years. Internal consistency reliabilities indicated high reliability: Difficult Child, \( r = .85 \), Parent Child Dysfunctional, \( r = .80 \), Parental Distress, \( r = .87 \), and Total Stress, \( r = .91 \) (Abidin, 1995). Validity of this scale has been supported through correlations with the Parenting Stress Index Long Version. Total Stress scores on the PSI-SF correlated .94 with Total Stress scores on the PSI, with sub-scale correlations ranging from .73 to .92 (Abidin, 1995). For the purposes of this study, the Total Stress score was used as an index of parenting stress, serving as an additional measure to examine the validity of the Child Rearing Inventory (CRI).

**Procedure**

Once approval was given from the Human Subjects Review Board (See Appendix C), participants were recruited as part of a larger study examining various parenting dimensions. Participants were recruited from fliers posted at day-care centers in addition to newspaper advertisements throughout the communities. Parents contacted the Child and Family Research Lab at Western Kentucky University to schedule an appointment. Those without transportation to Western Kentucky University had the packets distributed to them through the mail or delivered by the researchers. Consent was obtained, and then participants completed a series of questionnaires. For the purpose of this study,
information from the family demographics questionnaire, Child Rearing Inventory,
Parent Behavior Checklist, Parenting Stress Index – Short Form, Child Behavior
Checklist, and vignettes were used. The order of the vignettes and questionnaires were
counterbalanced to prevent order effects. Participants were then debriefed, given gift
certificates for their time, and given the opportunity to have a copy of the results sent to
them by signing a form with their address.
Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were run on the data collected. On the CRI, tolerance scores ranged from 14 to 41. A mean Total Tolerance score of 31.13 (SD = 4.76) was obtained indicating participants endorsed a moderate amount of tolerance for misbehavior. On the case vignettes, all participants endorsed all behaviors as being problematic. The total severity scores from the four vignettes ranged from 10 to 40 with a mean Problematic Severity Total score of 27.1 (SD = 6.29). As indicated on the PBC, the parenting style classifications broke down as follows: 41.3% Authoritarian, 13.5% Authoritative, 33.7% Permissive, and 11.5% None of the Above.

Preliminary Analyses

An independent samples t-test was used to assess whether or not variables of interest differed as a function of the parent’s gender. No gender differences were found in the level of reported tolerance, $t (87) = .025, p > .05$. Also, there was not a gender difference in the severity ratings on the case vignettes, $t (89) = .427, p > .05$. To see frequency of men and women in each parenting group see Table 3.
Table 3

*Frequency of Men and Women in each Parenting Style Group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting Style</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Authoritarian</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Authoritative</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Permissive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Main Analyses*

The following statistical analyses were employed to answer the research questions.

Research Question 1: Do parents who endorse higher tolerance on the CRI also rate behaviors as being less problematic using case vignettes?
In order to answer this research question, correlational analyses were used to see if the Total Problem Severity score from all four vignettes was related to the Total Tolerance score on CRI. To test, a .05 significance level was used. A weak, yet significant relationship emerged between the Total Tolerance score on the CRI and the Problematic Severity Total Score on the vignettes \( r = .18, p < .05 \). Specifically, as tolerance decreased (indicated by a higher score), severity scores from the case vignettes increased.

Research Question 2: Do parents’ tolerance levels differ based on the parenting style they endorse?

In order to answer this research question, participants were grouped into parenting style groups based on their scores on the PBC. A one-way between subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used with parenting style type (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) serving as the independent variable and the Total Tolerance Score from the CRI serving as the dependent variable. To test, a .05 significance level was used. Results indicated that there was not a significant difference in tolerance levels based on the type of parenting style, \( F (2, 89) = .86, p > .05 \). However, there were significant differences in ratings of child behavior reported on the CBCL based on the type of parenting style, \( F (2, 86) = 6.76, p < .05 \). Significant differences also emerged in levels of parental stress reported on the PSI-SF, \( F (2, 89) = 9.06, p < .05 \). See Table 4 for the descriptive statistics on each of the measures above based on the parenting style groupings.
Table 4

*Parenting Style Groups' Statistics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CRI Total Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>20 - 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>7.42</td>
<td>14 - 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>21 - 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problematic Severity Total Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>11 - 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>10 - 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>15 - 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PSI-SF Total Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>74.1</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>44 - 116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>38 - 87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>13.87</td>
<td>38 - 95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CBCL Total T-score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>10.19</td>
<td>28 - 74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>29 - 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>32 - 61</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Note. CRI = Child Rearing Inventory. Problematic Severity Total Score = severity ratings from the four case vignettes, PSI-SF = Parenting Stress Index-Short Form, CBCL = Child Behavior Checklist.

Exploratory Analysis

Correlational analysis was used to see if the Total Tolerance score on CRI was significantly related to the Total Score on the PSI-SF. To test, a .05 significance level was used. Results indicate that the correlation between the Total Tolerance score on the CRI and the Total Score on the PSI-SF was weak and not significant, $r = -.025, p > .05$. This indicates that the CRI and the PSI-SF measure different constructs of parenting.
Discussion

The purpose of the present study was multifaceted. The first purpose of the study was to further assess the validity of the Child Rearing Inventory (CRI) through the use of experimentally manipulated vignettes. Even though a significant relationship was found between the CRI and the ratings on the vignettes, the relationship was weak. The relationship found was significantly weaker than what was found in the initial study by Brestan, et al. (2003) of the CRI where it was significantly correlated with the Annoying Behavior Inventory (ABI) and the Eyberg Child Behavior Inventory (ECB; Eyberg & Pincus, 1999 as cited in Brestan, et al., 2003). They found the CRI to be a valid measure of parental tolerance.

There may be several possible explanations as to why this relationship was not as strong in the present study. First, there was not a significant amount of variability in the CRI Total scores with most scores falling between 30 and 32. Due to this lack of variability, it is difficult to find a significant effect. Second, the parents who participated in this study were a very homogeneous group with the majority of individuals being married that collectively reported high education levels and low parental stress. Therefore, these similarities among the parents within the parenting style groups may have prevented a significant difference from emerging in regard to their tolerance. Third, there was not an equal distribution of participants across the parenting groups. The unequal parenting groups may have prevented finding a difference because participant variability was not even across the groups. Also, significant difference may not have emerged due to the way parents were grouped. The PBC was originally designed to measure parenting practices and not parenting styles; therefore, it may not be the best
measure to use to group participants (Brenner & Fox, 1999). Another possible explanation for the weaker relationship is the use of the experimentally manipulated case vignettes. The four vignettes portrayed scenarios of various behaviors for a 4-year-old child. Parents rated how problematic these behaviors were in a hypothetical child. This is different than the initial validity study, which compared behaviors ratings of participants’ own child, not a fictional child. It is possible that parents rated the behaviors differently because there was not an “emotional connection” to the child portrayed in the vignettes. Last, the lack of significance may be due to the fact that tolerance may truly not differ based on one’s parenting style. Parental tolerance is a factor that may be more determined by stress, personality, education, and not solely on the type of parenting style endorsed.

The second purpose of the present study was to see whether or not parental tolerance levels differ as a function of one’s parenting style. One would assume that because parenting styles differ based on the amount and type of control the parent uses, the amount of nurturance, and how the parent communicates to the child that tolerance levels may vary (Brenner & Fox, 1999). However, the present study found that parents’ tolerance levels do not significantly differ based on the parenting styles they endorse. Although not significant, there was a general direction with authoritarian parents reporting the least amount of tolerance, permissive the most, and authoritative falling between the two. This direction is what would be expected given previous research on parenting styles. Permissive parents are characterized as being very responsive to their child’s emotional needs and do not use punishment regularly. Authoritarian parents see punishment as the best method of keeping their children in line. Authoritative parents are
relatively high in control but also democratic and open to parent-child communication (Brenner & Fox, 1999).

There was not a significant difference in tolerance among the parenting styles groups; however, there were significant differences between parenting style groups on the PSI-SF and the CBCL. On the PSI-SF, authoritarian parents had the highest scores, authoritative parents had the lowest scores, and permissive parents fell in the middle. On the CBCL, authoritarian parents had the highest scores, authoritative parents had the lowest scores, and permissive parents fell in the middle. These findings are in the direction that would be expected given previous research. Authoritative parents are able to find a balance between meeting their child’s emotional needs and instilling appropriate standards of behavior; therefore, they may experience less stress and their children may have fewer behavior problems (Brenner & Fox, 1999). Children with authoritarian parents have more emotional and behavior problems which is supported by the findings of this study (Neal & Frick-Horbury, 2001).

The third purpose of the study was exploratory in nature, to see whether or not parents who endorsed higher scores on the CRI, indicating less tolerance, also endorsed higher scores on the PSI-SF, indicating higher levels of parental stress. One would assume that parents who experience more parental stress would be less tolerant of their children behavior (Brestan et al., 2003; Lum & Phares, 2005). However, the present study found that there is not a significant relationship between reported tolerance and parental stress. There are a few factors that may have influenced this finding. One, the majority of the participants were married; therefore, they may have experienced less stress than a single parent. Another factor is that the majority of the participants were
middle to upper class lessening the financial burden and therefore decreasing stress in the family. Children's behavior was in the normal range and parents endorsed average amounts of stress.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study had several limitations that could be improved in future research. First, this study does build upon the initial validity study of the CRI by using vignettes; however, it did not use triangulated data that included observations. The study was based on self-report; therefore, the results are only as good as the honesty of the participants who may have unknowingly attempted to represent themselves in a better light. Triangulated data may have yielded more accurate and stronger results, which would have used both participants' self-report as well as observation. Second, generalizability may be an issue. The present study only assessed the validity of the CRI with parents of younger children who were predominantly Caucasian, married individuals. A more diverse sample with a clinical population or a more diverse sample in regard to demographic variables may yield differences. Also, various family constellations such as single parent, step-families, etc. may yield differences in tolerance, stress, and parenting styles that was not found in this sample of nuclear families. Third, the study only examined select variables such as parenting styles, child behavior, parental stress, and gender, which may be related to parental tolerance. This limited the scope of the study. Had more variables, such as martial status, income, number of children, age, education, religion, and region, been used, more information may have been gained about parental tolerance. Finally, the PBC, which was used to classify parenting styles, was not
originally designed to identify parenting styles and possibly misidentified participants due to the lack of validity in using the measure to identify parenting styles.

Future studies should further assess the validity of the CRI through the use of triangulated data collection. Second, the CRI should be validated using a more diverse sample, including clinical groups, diverse population, etc. A better measure of parenting style classification should also be used other than the PBC, one with established validity in classifying parenting groups.

Strengths and Implications

The present study has many strong points and implications for future research. First, this study built upon the initial validity study of the CRI by using experimentally manipulated case vignettes to provide additional validity information on the CRI. Second, this study is the first to test the assumption that tolerance differs based on parenting style and to explore the possibility that tolerance may be related to parental stress. Third, this study supported previous research on parenting styles based on differences found in parental stress and child behavior among different groups. Fourth, this study examines parental tolerance in both men and women raising young children. Finally, the present study raises the question as to whether or not parental tolerance is dictated by the expectations of the parent.
References


Appendix A

Demographic Questionnaire
Subject # ____________

Please complete this confidential questionnaire. An answer to every question is requested.

1. Your relationship to child: Mother ______ Father ______

2. Your age: ______

3. Your Race: Caucasian ______
   African-American ______
   Asian ______
   Hispanic ______
   Other ______

4. Highest Level of Education completed (circle year):
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 (Grade School)
   9 10 11 12 (High School)
   13 14 15 16 (College)
   17 and over (Graduate School)

5. Your Occupation: ____________________________


7. If married, please provide the following information about your spouse:
   Age: ______
   Race: Caucasian ______
   African-American ______
   Asian ______
   Hispanic ______
   Other ______

   Highest Level of Education completed (circle year):
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 (Grade School)
   9 10 11 12 (High School)
Occupation: __________________________________________________________

8. What is the estimated amount of your total family income per month (after taxes): __________

Parenting
9. Please provide the following information about EACH CHILD in your household:

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<thead>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Biological child</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Stepchild</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>N</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopted child</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stepchild</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopted child</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stepchild</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex:</td>
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<td>Age:</td>
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<td>Adopted child</td>
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<td>Stepchild</td>
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10. Do any of your children have any type of disability? Yes  No
    If so, please describe the disability

    Is the child receiving any type of services due to the disability? Yes  No
    If so, please describe the disability (including frequency and dates of services)

11. How would you describe your child’s temperament?
    a. easy (transitions well, predominantly happy, does not get upset easily, easily calmed, etc.)
    b. difficult (does not transition well, moody, difficult to calm down, etc.)
    c. slow-to-warm-up (initially does not respond well to change, upsets easily but calmed down over time, etc.)

12. Who is primarily responsible for caring for your child (i.e. feeding, helping with homework, etc)
    a. You
    b. Spouse
    c. Other (please specify) ______________________________

13. Who is primarily responsible for managing your child when they have misbehaved?
14. What types of things are used to manage your child’s behavior? (please circle all that apply)
   a. Give time-out
   b. Spank
   c. Yell
   d. Take away items (i.e. toys, games, money, etc)
   e. Ignore child
   f. Ground
   g. Reason with child about behavior

15. How is your child rewarded for appropriate behavior?
   a. Given items (i.e. toys, games, money, candy, etc)
   b. Verbal praise (i.e. good job!, good!, well done!, etc)
   c. Privileges (i.e. visits with friends, stay up past bedtime, do not have to do chores that day, etc)
   d. Other (please specify)________________________

Marriage
16. How many years have you been married to your current spouse? _________
   a. How long did you “date” (in months) your current spouse prior to marriage? _____
   b. How many years did you wait after marriage to have a child with your current spouse? _____
   c. How old were you when you had your first child? _____
   d. Was the pregnancy planned? Yes No
   e. How many hours a week on average do you spend with just you and your spouse? _____
   f. How would you describe your current marriage?_______________________________

17. Were you married prior to your current spouse? Yes No
   a. If so, how many times? ______________
   b. How long did those marriages last? ______________
   c. How long did you “date” that spouse prior to marriage? ______________
   d. Did you have a child(ren) with your previous spouse(s)? ______________
      If so, how many? ______________
      Where do they reside? ______________

18. Are you currently employed? Yes No
   If yes, how many jobs do you have? ___1 ___2 ___3 or more
How many hours a week do you work?

_____ less than 10  _____ 10-19  _____ 20-39  _____ 40 or more

How satisfied are you with your current job?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Very Satisfied
Very Unsatisfied

19. Is your spouse currently employed? ___ Yes  ___ No
If yes, how many jobs does he/she have? ___1  ___2  ___3 or more

How many hours a week does him/her work?

_____ less than 10  _____ 10-19  _____ 20-39  _____ 40 or more

20. Your religious affiliation:
   a. Atheist
   b. Catholic
   c. Protestant
   d. Muslim
   e. Buddhist
   f. Jewish
   g. Hindu
   h. Other (please specify): __________________________

21. Your spouse’s religious affiliation:
   a. Atheist
   b. Catholic
   c. Protestant
   d. Muslim
   e. Buddhist
   f. Jewish
   g. Hindu
   h. Other (please specify): __________________________

22. Did you attend church when you lived at home with your parents (prior to the age of 18)?
   ___ Yes  ___ No
   If yes, how often do you attend?

   ___ Weekly  ___ 1-2 times a month  ___ Several times a year  ___ less than once a year
23. **Do you currently attend church?**

   ____ Yes   ____ No

   If yes, how often do you attend?

   ____ Weekly   ____ 1-2 times a month   ____ Several times a year   ____ less than once a year

24. **a. Prior to having children, did religion play an important part in your life?**

   a. No
   b. Yes

   If yes, please rate how important your religion was?

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   Not At all Very Important

   important

   b. How important is your religion as it pertains to raising your children?

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   Not At all Very Important

   important

   c. How important is your religion in your relationship with your spouse?

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   Not At all Very Important

   important

   d. How important is your religion in providing comfort in times of crisis?

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   Not At all Very Important

25. **How knowledgeable do you feel about children’s development and behavior?**

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   Not Somewhat Very

   At all
Case Vignettes

Directions: Please read each scenario and answer all the questions.

Scenario 1
One day, mother was trying to clean house before company came over. She told Mark (age 4) to put away his toys in his room. Mark screamed “no” then proceeded to yell at mother while throwing his toys. Mark refused to pick up his toys.

Is this behavior problematic?
Yes No

On a scale of 1 to 10, how problematic is this behavior?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Not Somewhat Very
At all problematic

For the scenario above, please rate how important the following are in understanding or explaining the behavior.

1. Child’s lack of self-control
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important

2. Child’s lack of understanding of what to do and what not to do
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important

3. Events of the situation
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important

4. Child’s personality characteristics
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important

Scenario 2
One day, mother took Julie (age 4) to daycare. When entering the daycare, Julie was greeted by the daycare worker. She immediately ran to the nearest corner, grabbed a teddy bear, began to rock, and cried. She refused to talk to the day care workers and to the other children.

Is this behavior problematic?
On a scale of 1 to 10, how problematic is this behavior?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Not Somewhat Very
At all problematic Problematic

For the scenario above, please rate how important the following are in understanding or explaining the behavior.

1. Child’s lack of self-control
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important Important

2. Child’s lack of understanding of what to do and what not to do
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important Important

3. Events of the situation
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important Important

4. Child’s personality characteristics
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
   Important Important Important

Scenario 3
One day, Kara (age 4) was playing with another child in the sandbox. Kara asked the child to use the blue shovel. When the child said no, Kara began to scream at the child, throwing sand in her face. When her mother got on to her, Kara threw herself down on the ground and tantrummed. Is this behavior problematic?
Yes No

On a scale of 1 to 10, how problematic is this behavior?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Not Somewhat Very
At all problematic Problematic

For the scenario above, please rate how important the following are in understanding or explaining the behavior.

1. Child’s lack of self-control
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   Not Somewhat Very
Scenario 4
At preschool, Paul’s mother brought cupcakes for his birthday. Paul (age 4) became embarrassed when the children began to sign “Happy Birthday.” During the middle of the song, Paul began to cry, took his cupcake, attempted to run out of the room. When his teacher stopped him, Paul immediately went and hid underneath the table. He remained under the table crying with his cupcake.

Is this behavior problematic?
Yes  No

On a scale of 1 to 10, how problematic is this behavior?

1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  10
Not Somewhat  Very At all problematic  Problematic

For the scenario above, please rate how important the following are in understanding or explaining the behavior.

1. Child’s lack of self-control
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   Not Somewhat  Very Important Important Important

2. Child’s lack of understanding of what to do and what not to do
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   Not Somewhat  Very Important Important Important

3. Events of the situation
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4. Child’s personality characteristics

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Appendix C

Human Subjects Review Board Approval
In future correspondence please refer to HS06-178, April 21, 2006

Erin McBride
p/o Dr. Melissa Hakman
TPH 256
Department of Psychology
WKU

Dear Erin:

Your revision to your research project, “Examination of Parenting Dimensions in Young Children,” was reviewed by the HSRB and it has been determined that risks to subjects are: (1) minimized and reasonable; and that (2) research procedures are consistent with a sound research design and do not expose the subjects to unnecessary risk. Reviewers determined that: (1) benefits to subjects are considered along with the importance of the topic and that outcomes are reasonable; (2) selection of subjects is equitable; and (3) the purposes of the research and the research setting is amenable to subjects’ welfare and producing desired outcomes; that indications of coercion or prejudice are absent, and that participation is clearly voluntary.

1. In addition, the IRB found that you need to orient participants as follows: (1) signed informed consent is required; (2) Provision is made for collecting, using and storing data in a manner that protects the safety and privacy of the subjects and the confidentiality of the data. (3) Appropriate safeguards are included to protect the rights and welfare of the subjects.

This project is therefore approved at the Expedited Review Level until April 21, 2007.

2. Please note that the institution is not responsible for any actions regarding this protocol before approval. If you expand the project at a later date to use other instruments please re-apply. Copies of your request for human subjects review, your application, and this approval, are maintained in the Office of Sponsored Programs at the above address. Please report any changes to this approved protocol to this office. Also, please use the stamped Informed Consent documents that are included with this letter. A Continuing Review protocol will be sent to you in the future to determine the status of the project.

Sincerely,

Sean Rubino, M.P.A.
Compliance Manager
Office of Sponsored Programs
Western Kentucky University

cc: HS file number McBride HS06-178
cc: Virginia Lowery
cc: Amanda Sowers
Appendix D

Informed Consent
INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT
Parent Form

Project Title: Examination of Parenting Dimensions in Young Children

Department of Psychology
(270) 745-5435

You are being asked to participate in a project conducted through Western Kentucky University. The University requires that you give your signed agreement to participate in this project.

The investigator will explain to you the purpose of the project, what you will be doing, and the potential benefits and possible risks of participation. You may ask him/her any questions you have to help you understand the project. A basic explanation of the project is written below. Please read this explanation and discuss with the researcher any questions you may have.

A. Purpose: This study will examine factors that are associated with parenting. Specifically, parenting styles, parenting behaviors, parental tolerance, parental satisfaction, and marital satisfaction will be examined. In addition, factors influencing your stress level, including the amount of support you have as well as the types of behaviors your child displays will be examined.

B. Procedures: This study will involve the following procedures:
   1. Completion of questionnaires. One questionnaire will ask for basic information about you and your child. One questionnaire will ask questions about parenting styles that you use. Another questionnaire will ask about parental tolerance. Another questionnaire will ask questions about your child’s typical behaviors, while another questionnaire will ask you to rate the severity of behaviors described in a given scenario. The remaining questionnaires will ask questions regarding parental satisfaction, marriage satisfaction, parental competence in parenting skills, level of stress, and perceived social support.

C. Duration of Participation: Your participation is completely voluntary and may be ended at any point. This study is designed to last approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour.

D. Confidentiality: All information about you will be kept confidential and will not be released. Questionnaires will have participant numbers, rather than names on them. All information will be kept in a secure place that is open only to the researchers and their assistants. This information will be saved as long as it is scientifically useful; typically such information is kept for five years after publication of the results. Results from this
I have been fully informed about the procedures listed here. I am aware of what I will be asked to do and of the benefits of my participation. I also understand that it is not possible to identify all potential risks in an experimental procedure, and I believe that reasonable safeguards have been taken to minimize both the known and potential but unknown risks to me. I also understand the following statements (please check next to each to note that you agree):

_____ I affirm that I am 18 years of age or older.

_____ I agree to complete the questionnaires.

I understand that I may contact the researcher below at the following address and phone number, should I desire to discuss my participation in the study and/or request information about the results of the study: Melissa Hakman, Ph.D. 256 Tate Page Hall, Dept. of Psychology, Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, KY 42101. (270) 745-5435. I have read and fully understand this consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy of this form will be given to me. I hereby give permission for my participation in this study.

Signature of Participant ___________________________ Date __________

Witness ___________________________ Date __________