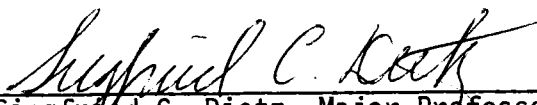


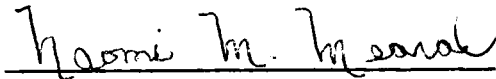
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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Mary Dunne McIlwain entitled "The Parenting Attitudes of Women and Men Classified by Holland's Occupational/Personality Typologies: A Test of Holland's Theory." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Psychology and Guidance.


Siegfried C. Dietz, Major Professor

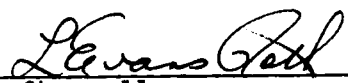
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Graduate Studies and Research

THE PARENTING ATTITUDES OF WOMEN AND MEN CLASSIFIED BY
HOLLAND'S OCCUPATIONAL/PERSONALITY TYPOLOGIES:
A TEST OF HOLLAND'S THEORY

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Mary Dunne McIlwain

December 1981

3055640

DEDICATION

To Psyche and Amor

Apuleius
2nd Century A.D.

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ABSTRACT

The current expansion of career planning into life planning modules requires that career counselors assist clients with self-assessment in various roles, parental as well as occupational. Holland's (1973) theory of careers implies that individuals, classified by his typologies will have characteristic responses in non-occupational as well as occupational situations.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between parenting attitudes and Holland's six typologies. This investigation attempted to determine if: (1) Social types have the most cooperative, accepting and indulgent parenting attitudes; (2) Enterprising types have the most possessive, overprotective and protective/indulgent parenting attitudes; (3) Conventional types have the most demanding and authoritarian parenting attitudes; (4) Realistic types have the most rejecting and neglecting parenting attitudes; and (6) Artistic types have the most democratic and permissive parenting attitudes.

Sixty-nine women and thirty-six men, enrolled in an undergraduate psychology course at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville during the Spring of 1981, completed a Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory to determine their Holland profile; and the appropriate Mother's or Father's form of Schludermanns' Q4 Revision of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument to determine their attitude toward parenting. Data were analyzed separately for women and men using Pearson Product-Moment Correlations and chartings on Schaefer's (1959) Circumplex Model.

The results failed to yield support for Holland's theory; the relationships between parenting attitudes and Holland's six typologies were not significant. Most of the women in the study expressed Indifferent or Detached attitudes toward parenting, regardless of their Holland orientation. The men showed a wide variety of parenting attitudes within each Holland classification.

The age and unmarried status of the subjects, the instruments used, and the socialization process were discussed as possible factors influencing the results of this study. Further studies involving both parents and non-parents in each Holland typology and using a combined form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument are recommended.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Career counseling has traditionally focused on assisting individuals to make optimal decisions concerning their occupational role. This structure is based on the concept of a career as the series of job related positions occupied by a person over a lifetime. Theories of career development were formulated and researched within the limitations of paid-employment or preparation for paid-employment. Career decision making modules were formulated to efficiently assist individuals with decisions regarding the traditional world of work (Richardson, 1978).

Vetter (1974a) pointed out that these theories and modules were inadequate to meet the complex decisions encountered by the increasing number of women entering the workforce. Women's occupational roles were enmeshed with their familial role. She recommended that career counselors assist people in maximizing their individual development in a number of roles such as worker, parent, household member and community participant. The importance of occupational and family-life role integration for the healthy development of men as well as women has been acknowledged in the literature in recent years (David and Brannon, 1976; Malcomson, 1976; Goldberg, 1977).

Super proposed the redefinition of a career as:

. . . the sequence of major positions occupied by persons throughout life; it includes work-related positions and

roles as student, employee and pensioner together with coordinate avocational, familial and civil roles (Super, 1975, p. 186).

The acceptance of this expanded view of careers implies that career counselors need to be familiar not only with theories and research concerning occupational choice, but also marriage and parenting roles (Richardson, 1979). Tittle, Chitayat and Denker (1977) have urged the expansion of career decision making modules to include the areas of marriage and parenthood; in effect, enlarging career planning into life planning modules.

Career/life planning modules which assist individuals with career, friendship and family frustrations have proliferated in recent years (Bolles, 1977; Weinrach, 1979). Self-assessment in various components of life, values clarification and analysis of the effects of career goals on family lifestyle are incorporated in many of these modules (Lurie, 1977; Brammer and Abrego, 1981a). However, the emphasis has remained primarily on decisions concerning occupational roles with only peripheral concern for the marital or parental role decisions.

Occupational, marital and parental decisions are first encountered for most individuals during the period of young adulthood (Erickson, 1968; Neugarten, 1977; Levinson with Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee, 1978; Gould, 1978). This period has been identified as the most stressful time in adult development by Lowenthal, Thurnher and Chriboga (1975). Schlossberg (1981) stated that these three decisions are competing demands rather than isolated events and Rossi (1968) noted that the transition to parenthood was an even more difficult experience than either occupational or marital transitions. Russell

(1974) pointed out the importance of both open communication about family planning and a commitment to parenthood in the satisfactory adjustment to this transition.

Changing cultural mores, relaxed stereotypes and advanced technology have increased both the options available and the difficulty of decision-making in all components of life for young people today. Studies by Veevers (1974) revealed that while young men and women are postponing parenthood, they are still not making informed decisions concerning their involvement or non-involvement in parenthood. Few people have any realistic information about the type of parent they might become until after they have made a permanent, long-term commitment to a child. This lack of self-knowledge is especially distressful considering the correlation found by Davids and Holden (1970) between parenting attitudes before and after childbirth.

Individuals differ in their response to parenthood. The family life literature has reported a wide span of differences in the severity of the "crisis" experienced by couples during the transition to parenthood (LeMasters, 1957; Dyer, 1963; Hobbs, 1965; Feldman, 1974; Raush, Marshall and Featherman, 1970; Miller and Sollie, 1980). The man, the woman, and the relationship is effected by the birth of a child.

The child development literature has described a great many types of parents, predominantly mothers (Baldwin, 1945; Brody, 1956; Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1957; Kagan and Moss, 1962). Schaefer (1959) classified these many descriptions into fourteen types of behavior based on control and affiliative factors and arranged on a circumplex model. He identified the following types of maternal behavior:

Rejecting, Neglecting, Indifferent, Detached, Permissive, Democratic, Cooperative, Accepting, Overindulgent, Protective/Indulgent, Over-protective, Possessive, Authoritarian and Demanding (Schaefer, 1959).

Lynd and Lynd (1929), Davis and Havighurst (1946, 1947) and Sears et al. (1957) have attempted to associate predominant patterns of parenting with the various socioeconomic (SES) classes. However, Becker and Krug (1965) pointed out that even when educational and occupational levels are held constant, a wide variety of parenting types exist in each SES group. Littman, Moore, and Pierce-Jones (1957) stressed that SES groupings are broad and loose conglomerates of variables and that in many cases within-class differences often exceed the differences between classes. Deutsch (1973) suggested that occupational designations such as "entrepreneurial" and "bureaucratic" work environments used by Miller and Swanson (1960) were slightly different dimensions to be explored as mediating variables within SES classifications. These terms are similar to descriptors used in Holland's (1973) typologies.

Holland's (1973) theory of careers claims that an occupational choice is a reflection of the individual's personality and that all people and occupations can be classified into one of six typologies: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional. He also states that each of these types has certain characteristic dispositions or traits which lead a person to think, perceive or act in special ways. Furthermore, since people in a vocational group have similar personalities, they respond to many situations in similar ways and will search out or create characteristic interpersonal

environments. Though the primary concern of this theory is occupational behavior, Holland implies it is a theory of personality and suggests that it be researched in its application to other characteristic roles (Holland, 1973).

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between parenting attitudes and Holland's six typologies. The study reviewed the responses of women and men in certain parenting situations in relation to their Holland profiles. Significant relationships were expected between the control and affiliation factor scores involved in parenting and the Holland profile scores.

A further purpose of the study was to determine if the type of parenting attitudes indicated by individuals were consistent with their predominant Holland types. The women and men were grouped according to the highest score on their Holland profile. The mean control and affiliation factor scores for each Holland-type group were then plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model to determine the type of parenting attitudes indicated by each group. The parenting attitudes expected for each group were then compared to the parenting attitudes indicated in the study.

III. HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a significant relationship between the control and affiliation factor scores, measured on the Parent Attitude Research Instrument and all the Holland profile scores for women and men.

2. The type of parenting attitude indicated by women and men will be consistent with their dominant Holland typology, when plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model:
 - a. Realistic types will tend to have rejecting and neglecting parenting attitudes
 - b. Investigative types will tend to have detached and indifferent parenting attitudes
 - c. Artistic types will tend to have democratic and permissive parenting attitudes
 - d. Social types will tend to have cooperative, accepting and over-indulgent parenting attitudes
 - e. Enterprising types will tend to have possessive, over-protective and protective/indulgent parenting attitudes
 - f. Conventional types will tend to have demanding and authoritarian parenting attitudes.

IV. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Holland Occupational/Personality Profile is operationally defined as the six scores on the General Occupational Themes of the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory. These themes are keyed to Holland's (1973) typology. The six terms used by Holland (1973) to describe occupational/personality types are: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional. The psychological resemblances among types are demonstrated in Holland's Hexagonal Model (Figure 1).

Holland Occupational/Personality Type is operationally defined as the highest score on the individual's Holland Occupational/Personality Profile from the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory.

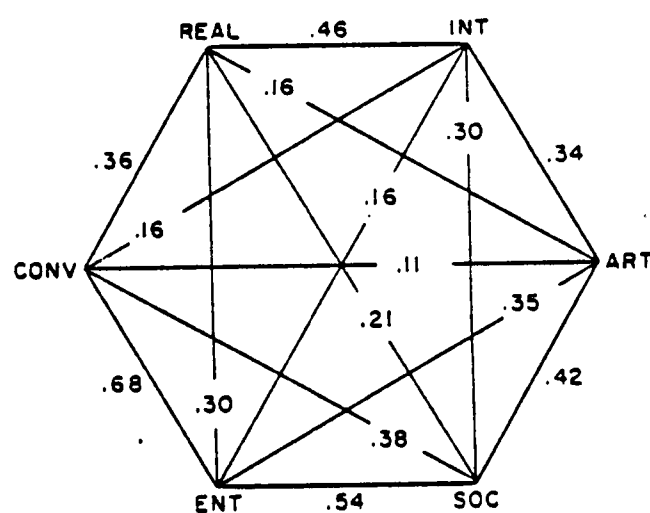


Figure 1. Holland's Hexagonal Model.

Source: J. L. Holland, D. R. Whitney, N. S. Cole, and J. M. Richards Jr. An empirical occupation classification derived from a theory of personality and intended for practice and research. ACT Research Report No. 29. Iowa City: The American College Testing Program, 1969.

Parenting Attitude is defined, operationally, as the Factor I-control and Factor II-affiliation scores on the Parent Attitude Research Instrument. The possible range of scores on this instrument is between 5 and 20 for each factor.

Type of Parenting Attitude is determined by plotting Factor I-control and Factor II-affiliation scores from the Parent Attitude Research Instrument on the corresponding axis of Schaefer's (1959) Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior. The Schaefer terminology near the radius formed by this plotted point is used to describe the type of parenting attitude. The fourteen terms used by Schaefer (1959) are: Permissive, Democratic, Cooperative, Accepting, Overindulgent, Protective/Indulgent, Overprotective, Possessive, Authoritarian/Dictatorial, Demanding/Antagonistic, Rejecting, Neglecting, Indifferent and Detached. The arrangement of these terms on the circumplex is shown in Figure 2.

V. ASSUMPTIONS

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. The positive correlation of parenting attitudes noted before and after childbirth extends to the period prior to pregnancy.
2. Parenting attitudes are determined differently for fathers and for mothers.
3. Schaefer's Circumplex Model is appropriate for fathers as well as for mothers.
4. The subjects who participated in this study were similar to the general population of students who attend college.

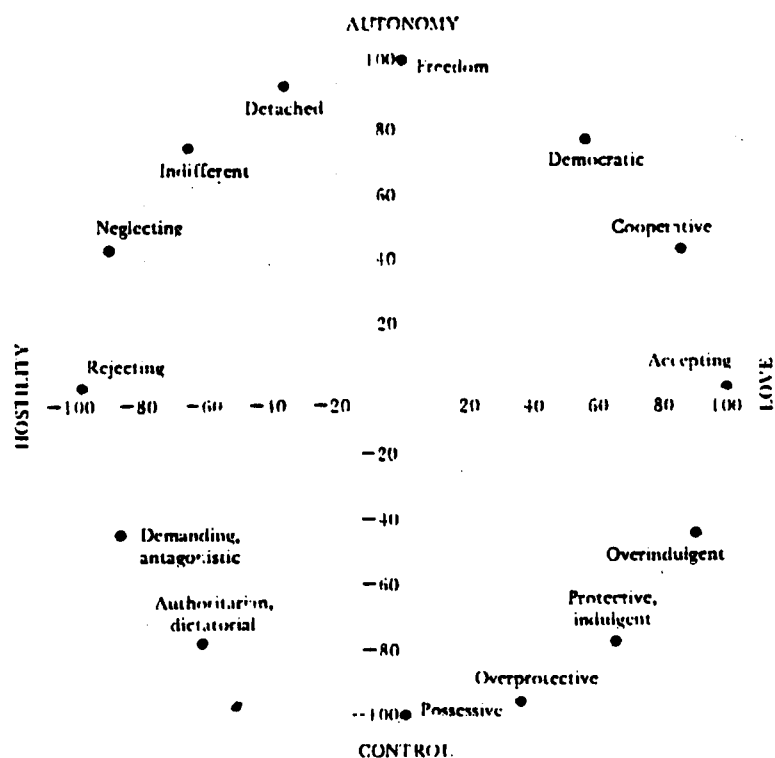


Figure 2. Schaefer's Circumplex Model.

Source: E. S. Schaefer. A circumplex model for maternal behavior. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1959, 59, 232. (Copyright 1959 by the American Psychological Association. By permission.)

VI. LIMITATIONS

This study was limited to the volunteer sample of college men and women enrolled in a sophomore level psychology class at a state university. The results of this study may, therefore, be generalized only to a similar population of subjects. The concept of parenting attitudes is also limited by the measuring instruments used in this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of the literature is divided into two major areas of emphasis: Holland's Typologies and Parenting Attitudes. The first part of the review contains a presentation of the theoretical underpinnings of Holland's theory, typologies and implications for the study of person-environment interactions. Studies involving the application of this theory in nonoccupational situations are reviewed and background information on the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory is provided. The second part of the chapter reviews the major studies which have attempted to categorize the various types of parenting attitudes, the development of Schaefer's Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior, and the development of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument.

I. HOLLAND'S TYPOLOGIES

Holland's (1959) original theory of vocational choice was proposed to explain vocational behavior and satisfaction. The 1973 revision, referred to as a theory of careers, retained the same primary occupational focus and expanded the concept into a personality theory concerned with describing person-environment interactions and outcomes. Holland (1973) suggested that this theory be researched in its application to social interactions. This emphasis has only recently been acknowledged and researched in divergent areas of human relations (Bruch, 1978; Weinrach, 1980).

Holland's Theory

Holland's (1973) theory claims that people can be categorized by their resemblance to one of six personality types: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), or Conventional (C); and that environments can also be described by the use of these same six categories. The theory proposed that people search for the environment in which they can express their values, attitudes, skills and abilities and take on agreeable problems and roles. He stated that a person's satisfaction and behavior is determined by the characteristics of the environment and points out that this theory can be applied to social as well as educational and work groups (Holland, 1973).

Holland cited several basic principles underlying the development of this theory. He believed that vocational choice is an expression of a personality, that interest inventories are personality inventories, and that vocational stereotypes have important, reliable psychological and sociological meanings. Furthermore, he assumed that satisfaction, stability and achievement depend on the degree of congruence between the personality and the environment which is determined by the proximity of types on his hexagonal model (Figure 1). His final principle stated that: "because people in a vocational group have similar personalities, they will respond to many situations and problems in similar ways and they will create characteristic interpersonal environments" (Holland, 1973, p. 9).

Description of the Typologies

The characteristic way an individual responds to the environment is referred to as the individual's personal orientation or personality type. The corresponding environment is dominant in those same demands, opportunities and rewards. Holland (1973) detailed certain pertinent descriptors of personality and environment typologies which are outlined in the following summaries.

Realistic (R) types prefer activities that entail systematic and ordered manipulation of tools, machines or animals and lack educational, sensitivity and social skills. They perceive themselves as asocial, shy, frank, practical, genuine, un insightful and uninvolved. The world is seen in simple, tangible and concrete terms.

Investigative (I) types prefer thinking, observing and systematic creative questioning with an aversion for persuasive, enterprising, social and repetitive activities. The self is perceived as analytical, scholarly, curious, introverted, precise, rational, unassuming and unpopular. The world seems rational, logical and understandable.

Artistic (A) types favor free, ambiguous, unsystematized manipulation of physical, verbal or human materials in creative ways with an aversion for explicit, ordered or routine activities. Some self-perceptors are: emotional, intuitive, original, non-conforming, idealistic and imaginative. Their world is perceived as complex, unconventional and flexible.

Social (S) types like to inform, train, develop, cure or enlighten others and lack mechanical and scientific skills. They consider themselves cooperative, generous, helpful, insightful, persuasive,

responsible, tactful and understanding. They perceive the world in flexible and humanitarian ways.

Enterprising (E) types prefer to manipulate others to achieve organizational or economic goals and dislike observational, symbolic and systematic activities. The individual is perceived as aggressive, popular, self-confident, domineering, ambitious, acquisitive, pleasure-seeking and impulsive. The world is seen in simple constricted terms such as power and status.

Conventional (C) types show a preference for ordered, systematic manipulation of data, records and materials according to prescribed plans. They avoid free, ambiguous, creative and exploratory activities and see themselves as obedient, conforming, self-controlled and unimaginative in a simple and stereotypic world.

Studies by Gottfredson (1978) noted that employment opportunities differ in the proportion of Holland-type work available within each socioeconomic (SES) level. Artistic jobs are particularly scarce at all SES levels: Realistic and Conventional work is primarily available at the lowest level; Investigative work is usually found at the highest level; while Enterprising and Social work are more evenly distributed across all socioeconomic classifications. The distribution of Holland-type people within each SES level is not examined directly, but Holland (1973) explains that the father's work typology is the first important influence in the formation and development of types. This implies a degree of similarity between the employment distribution and Holland-type people within each SES level.

Implication for the Study of Person-Environment Interactions

Vocational literature is replete with research which supports the assumption that people are more comfortable, satisfied and perform well in occupations congruent with their personality characteristics. Holland's (1959) original theory provided the conceptual framework in which to study this phenomena in an organized manner with only a few major dimensions, the six typologies. An enormous amount of research followed the original publication of this theory and supported this premise (Holland, 1973; Osipow, 1973).

Osipow (1973) pointed out that Holland was very sensitive to all the implications in the data resulting from these early investigations of the fundamental theory. Originally, this was a theory of vocational choice but in 1973 Holland recognized the broader scope implied in the research, developed a hexagonal model depicting the psychological resemblance of types, and modified the theory from the rather narrow context of vocational choice to behavior in general. Thus the typologies are not merely vocational orientations but apply to lifestyles in general, only one facet being vocational (Osipow, 1973). Some of this early research which allowed Holland to extend his theory to a wider field of person-environment interactions involved studies which supported his theoretical rationale as applied to relationships with peers, friends, roommates, teachers, college faculty, hobbies and indirectly, even with family relationships (Holland, 1973).

Werner (1969) studied a large group of high school boys and girls who were enrolled in seven occupational training centers providing various types of vocational training. Werner assessed students

on the basis of the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), the Kuder Occupational Inventory (KOI), and a questionnaire; and categorized programs on the basis of preparation for a particular type of work environment. He reported that person-environment congruence was related to satisfaction for boys but not for girls, and that congruence was also related to remaining in the program. The students reported that satisfaction and continuance in a program were dependent on having peers with similar interests enrolled in the program; dissatisfied students did not have similar peer relationships within the program (Werner, 1969).

Williams (1967) investigated the compatibility of college roommates. He located thirty-nine sets of conflicting and the same number of non-conflicting roommates. A comparison of the student's Holland codes indicated that congruence was associated with the lack of conflict. The common pattern of those students in conflict was Investigative-Enterprising codes (Williams, 1967).

The relationship of students with different majors living on the same floor of the dormitory was studied by Brown (1966). The results indicated that regardless of the type of major, the types in the majority manipulated the types in the minority. The students either switched their major to the predominant field, moved from the dorm floor or were unsatisfied in their living arrangements. A similar study by Kipnis, Lane, and Berger (1967) reported that business majors, Conventional types, are more restless and impulsive; while science and math majors, Investigative types, are more controlled in their extracurricular activities. An investigation of sub-cultures within a

college environment indicated that students preferred those groups which were consistent with their personality codes (Apostal, 1970).

Groups of scientists or mechanics or social workers usually have interests and values that are similar within each group and a very early study by Laurent (1951) showed that engineers, physicians and lawyers have similarities in current interests and life histories. A report by Holland Nichols (1964) stated that college students who remain in a given field have personal attributes similar to the typical student in that discipline. Hogan, Hall and Blank (1971) demonstrated that students expected to like people who have interests similar to their own and consider such people "well adjusted." The people chosen, in this study, had typologies similar to the respondents as assessed by an interest and activities inventory and college major (Hogan, Hall and Blank, 1971).

Barclay (1967) investigated teacher-student interactions in high schools and reported that the "ideal student" in each class had a personality type congruent with the teacher ranking them. Barclay (1970) further developed the Barclay Classroom Climate Inventory for assessing teachers' classroom environments from Holland's formulations. Posthuma and Navran (1970) conducted a similar study with all first year students and faculty at a military college. Each person was administered the VPI and these scores were used to discriminate four levels of students and faculty. Faculty and students receiving the highest grades had a slightly higher correlation of profiles than did the students who were failing (Posthuma and Navran, 1970).

Astin and Holland (1961) developed the Environmental Assessment Technique (EAT), a simple measure for assessing the environment of any group. A simple census is taken of the typologies of people within the group and the percentage of individuals in each type becomes the profile for the group. Some consideration was given, in the original formulation, to the power or prestige of the individual and weighted counts were involved (Astin and Holland, 1961). Astin (1968) later summarized many relationships between students and higher educational institutions and reiterated the importance of congruence to satisfaction and retention.

During the 1960s, Holland conducted a number of longitudinal studies involving very large samples of National Merit finalists. He admitted that these studies were conducted in an attempt to develop fuller knowledge of his theory. These studies used multiple dependent variables and produced a large number of analyses. The VPI, vocational choice, or choice of major field were used to assess types in the first of these studies and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank was used in the later ones (Holland, 1973).

Among the reported findings from these studies, Holland (1962, 1968) noted that these bright freshmen college students differed in their choice of hobbies and extracurricular activities. There was significant correlation of preferred activities with the Holland high point codes for the men but not for the women. Generally, Realistic students were active in sports, student government and scouting; Investigative students were usually not active in campus activities; Artistic types were active in debate, theater and school papers, Social types in religious and community service; Enterprising students

were involved in sports and community service; and the Conventional students were in theatricals, musical groups and student government. Patterns of interest and activities were demonstrated by personal orientation for the men but lacked a clear relationship to the personality type for the women (Holland, 1962, 1968; Osipow, 1973).

In these same studies, Holland (1973) showed that a student's vocational interest was significantly related to the values and goals that fathers held for their children. The relationship between the student's Holland code and the father's values and goals for that child was as follows: Realistic children had fathers who wanted their child to be ambitious and have high incomes; Investigative children had fathers who valued being curious; Artistic types had fathers who valued being curious and independent; Social types had fathers who valued being self-controlled; Enterprising children had fathers who wanted them to be happy, well adjusted and popular; Conventional children were related to fathers who desire their children be happy and well adjusted. These correlations were true for male students but not for females and while the fathers' values showed patterns, these were not always theoretically predictable (Holland, 1973).

Holland (1973) further reported from these studies that mothers' attitudes about children, measured on the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), indicated a correlation with the vocational preference of the sons but not the daughters. The obtained relationships were low, but Holland reported plausible relationships between the personal orientation of the child and the mother's attitude toward children. Conventional students had mothers with the most authoritarian

attitudes, and in descending order of authoritarianism, the following types were noted: Enterprising, Realistic, Artistic, Social and Intellectual (Holland, 1973).

Other pertinent data reported by Holland in these studies implied the use of typologies for understanding some dimensions of family relationships. The fathers' typology determined by VPI codes and present occupational codes showed a positive relationship to the sons' VPI codes. In another analysis of these data, Holland selected four pairs of mothers' PARI scores as being equivalent to certain values of the fathers. He then categorized the parents of each student in four permutations and reported a significant correlation between all four permutations and the student's vocational choice. He concluded that harmony or disharmony of parental attitudes tended to be at least as important as any specific dimension of parental attitude. Again, the findings indicated a different and less significant pattern for girls than for boys in the study (Holland, 1962, 1968).

Thus, there was a core of preliminary, exploratory evidence which implied the possibility of employing typologies in the study of a wide variety of person-environment interactions prior to the revision and expansion of Holland's theory of careers in 1973. Holland (1973) incorporated the fuller knowledge gained from these studies in his revision, expanded the concept of his vocational theory to a person-environment theory, implied the feasibility of applying the theory in non-occupational situations, and suggested that research be designed to further test the appropriateness of such ideas (Holland, 1973).

Application of Holland's Theory in Non-occupational Situations

The 1973 revision of Holland's theory clarified many of the original concepts of the theory while leaving the foundation premises unchanged (Osipow, 1973). The research which followed this updated version was prolific; yet the primary emphasis of such studies remained on testing the application of this theory in occupational, educational, or preparation for occupation situations. Holland issued even further clarification and extensions for his theory in 1976 (Holland and Gottfredson, 1976); and in a recent interview (Weinrach, 1979) expressed interest in current application of the theory in divergent areas.

One research application of this theory, developed by Vaitenas and Wiener (1977), examined a facet of the current phenomenon called "mid-life crisis." They studied the relationship of many variables with mid-career changers from Holland's theoretical viewpoint. They reported that incongruity of interests, lack of consistency and differentiation of interest structure, emotional problems and fear of failure were factors associated with adult career changers. Except for the dimension of differentiation, which was not significant for younger occupational changers, all other factors were significant regardless of age or sex. They suggest that early intervention could prevent or moderate the impact of "crisis" at mid-life (Vaitenas and Wiener, 1977; Wiener and Vaitenas, 1977).

Holland, Gottfredson and Nafzinger (1975) verified that certain types of people are more skilled at decision-making than others. Investigative types were the best decision-makers with the other types

following in descending order: Social, Realistic, Enterprising and Conventional. Artistic types were not reported in the publication (Holland, Gottfredson and Nafzinger, 1975). Other characteristics also differ by typologies; the fact that Investigative type teachers create a classroom climate of task-orientation and teacher control was one of the findings of Hearn and Moos (1978). Artistic room environments were high on innovation and low on rule clarity, competition and teacher control (Hearn and Moos, 1978).

Smart (1976) explored the activities of chairmen of various academic departments at a number of universities and the amount of time spent in fulfilling these duties. While he recognized the possibility of many intervening variables, the differences which were noted were generally consistent with the expected congruency with Holland's types. The importance of recognizing type differences in leadership and administrative roles was discussed by Smart (1976).

A study by Cox and Thorenson (1977) involving a number of college students with undeclared majors and three career counselors, scripted to represent Conventional, Social and Investigative-type counselors participated in the study. Adjective checklists, self and counselor characteristics, and a checklist indicating satisfaction with counseling were completed. The results did not indicate a preference for a similar-type counselor but rather a predominant selection of the Social-type counselor. These results offered no clear support for matching of client-counselor types by Holland's typologies.

However, Bruch (1978) recognized the difficulty encountered in the delivery of counseling services to men, particularly Realistic

type men. The initiation, continuation and results obtained in counseling men is often less than satisfactory. He suggested that different approaches and goals be used by the eclectic counselor based on the typology of the client (Bruch, 1978).

Studies of leisure-time activities and their relationship to Holland codes resulted in the development of a Leisure Checklist by Taylor, Kelso, Cox, Alloway and Mathews (1979). This list of items was keyed to Holland's six types. Cairo (1979) compared leisure activities with occupational-type membership to determine the concurrent validity of the Holland codes and Basic Interest Scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. He found that Holland codes were more accurate than Basic Interest scales in identifying occupations and leisure activities when highest scale scores were used. When the Basic Interest scale was below fifty-eight, the Basic Interest Score was the best predictor of occupational and leisure activities (Cairo, 1979).

Warren, Winer and Dailey (1981) reported similar results between Holland typologies and leisure activities using typologies of a group of older adults, aged fifty to eighty-eight. They noted that the relationship between Holland types and leisure activities was even more precisely related to specific occupational activities. Warren and Winer are currently developing a Leisure Preference Inventory modeled after the VPI (Warren, Winer and Dailey, 1981).

Independent studies conducted in two different countries and designed to investigate the function of leisure activities for people with varying degrees of vocational congruence were reported by Melamed

and Meir (1981). Results indicated that people, in general, tend to select leisure activities congruent with their personality pattern. They also reported that people with congruent vocational choices select leisure activities as an extension of work and that those with incongruent vocations select leisure to satisfy their unfulfilled interests at work. A large proportion of people in this study have neutral avocations selected for tension release or just to keep busy.

The research most directly related to this current study is the recent work of Wiggins and Weslander (1979, and in press) relating personality typologies and marital compatibility. They state that their investigations are conceptual studies designed to logically extend Holland's theory into a relatively uncharted area while still following his principles of personality-environment interaction. Twenty-three couples who voluntarily sought help with their marriage problems and thirty other couples not in counseling, were followed for at least a fifteen month period. Initiators of counseling were not as predictable by sex as they were by personality type. Social types of either sex were most likely to be the initiator and Realistic types, regardless of sex, the most resistant (Wiggins and Weslander, 1979).

Wiggins and Weslander (1979) recognized that some interpersonal conflict between types was predictable based on Williams (1967) research with roommates. Wiggins and Weslander (1979) developed a more precise method of measuring potential for conflict known as a Compatibility Index (CI). This indicates the degree of congruency between two Holland types and is an adaptation of the Zener-Schneulle method described by Holland (1973). Most couples seeking counseling

had low CI scores. The three couples with high scores had single issue concerns in counseling, infidelity. These researchers claimed that Holland typologies were helpful in predicting which spouse would be the initiator of counseling, in obtaining a cognitive understanding of specific conflicts, and in helping couples to learn about themselves and thus resolve the conflict (Wiggins, 1979).

A more recent study by Wiggins and Weslander (in press) indicates that women consistently choose second husbands who are more psychologically similar to themselves than were their first husbands. These investigators point out, in both of their reports, that undoubtedly, many happily married couples with low CI scores have apparently learned to overcome any personality-environment differences without benefit or counselor or therapist (Wiggins, 1979, in press). Thus, there is ample evidence in the literature on Holland's types to indicate the feasibility of a conceptual study to investigate the relationship between Holland's typologies and a non-occupational relationship such as the parent-child relationship.

Development of the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory

The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (1974) is one of the many interest inventories, sometimes used in counseling, to aid clients in the self-assessment process. Prior to World War I, there had been only sporadic attempts to measure interests. E. K. Strong attended a graduate seminar on interests at Carnegie Institute of Technology in 1919. He followed this research in which he discovered consistent differences in what people reported liking and disliking; and constructed an inventory to assess these individual differences.

The original inventory included a variety of items relating to preferences for certain occupations, school subjects, amusements, activities and types of people as well as scales for rating one's own abilities and characteristics to groups of men in specific occupations answered differently.

The first Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) was published in 1927; followed by a blank for women in 1933. A revision, expanded to include four hundred items was available in 1938 with a comparable women's blank in 1946 (Aiken, 1979). Strong devoted much of his career developing his data bank, improving statistical techniques for the inventory, and organizing his data in a theoretical perspective. He was also developing an occupational globe, a three dimensional representation of relationships between occupations and grouping occupations on the basis of scale intercorrelations at the time of his death (Campbell and Hansen, 1981). The last Strong Vocational Interest Blank was published in 1966 for men and 1969 for women (Aiken, 1979).

Holland further developed and expanded the occupational taxonomy and global model of Strong into Holland's Hexagonal Model of Occupational Types, while Campbell compiled an updated version of the interest inventory. The first combined men and women's form, called the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory with profiles employing Holland's typology was issued in 1974. In the current (1981) revision of this inventory, the instrument and answer sheet remain unchanged; but the profile now reports one hundred sixty-two occupational scales, ninety-nine of which have been developed since 1977 (Campbell and Hansen, 1981).

The development of the Strong Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) was closely associated with the development of Holland's typologies, contains the most comprehensive, currently compiled scales, and is the instrument selected to be used in this study.

II. PARENTING ATTITUDES

Literature concerning the various types of parenting is voluminous and comes from many disciplines: child development, sociology, psychology and family life. The emphasis and approaches to research are varied within each discipline and across time. The consensus is that there is a wide variety in types of parenting (Hartup, 1978). This part of the literature review will discuss the characteristic attitudes underlying the different types of parenting and deemed important in the development of healthy children; the development of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument to measure these concepts; and the development of Schaefer's Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior as a basis for understanding and describing parental characteristics.

A number of studies conducted in the 1950s and early 1960s noted differences in parental characteristics though the primary purpose was a better understanding of children. The mother was usually the parent-of-interest and the mother-child relationship was the examined interaction (Hartup, 1978; Hanes and Dunn, 1978). These preliminary studies used a variety of techniques: questionnaires, interviews and observations; and a number of dimensions of childrearing emerged. Schaefer (1957, 1959) clarified the terminology with the development of his Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior and, in conjunction with

Bell (Schaefer and Bell, 1958), constructed the Parent Attitude Research Instrument to more accurately measure parental characteristics. The instrument and model, discussed later in this review, were accepted and widely used by researchers. The two main factors which differentiate parents according to the research are control and affiliation (Schaefer, 1977).

Bowlby (1958, 1965, 1969) researched affiliation, bonding, or the mother-child attachment and acknowledged the concept of maternal deprivation though his emphasis was on the result of such deprivation in affectionless, pathogenic individuals, unable to form and maintain deep and lasting relationships. Ainsworth (1973) referred to differences in maternal personalities which render some mothers incapable of forming the attachment necessary for the development of healthy children. The research evidence consistently supports the necessity of attachment or bonding for the healthy development of the child (Ashton, 1978) and implies the inability of some parents to provide the degree of affiliation required to achieve this goal.

Baumrind (1966), Becker (1964) and Bandura and Walters (1963) reported differences in the frequency and severity of discipline or control on the part of parents in their studies of hostility in children. Baumrind (1966) noted that parental control must be viewed in conjunction with affiliation since warm, accepting, controlling parents have different effects on children than those who are cold, rejecting and controlling. Thus, the combination of both control and affiliation characteristics is important in the understanding of parents, themselves, as well as their effects on children.

Some large scale studies were conducted in the 1960s, similar to the earlier studies by Baldwin, Kalhorn and Breese (1945), Davis and Havinghurst (1947), Duval (1946) and Murdock (1949). These studies focused not on specific characteristics but rather on patterns of parenting, types of mother-child relationships (Brody, 1956; Sears, Macoby and Levin, 1957). The data indicated that there was a wide variety in parenting styles and implied that certain patterns of parenting were more common in one socioeconomic class than another (Sears, 1957).

The research then focused on identifying the underlying variables which might account for the different patterns of parenting in the different sociological groupings. Deutsch (1973) pointed out that there was a wide variation of parenting patterns in all groups and a great number of variables involved in determining social strata; hence, most of the research was confusing and inconclusive. She suggested that the components of socioeconomic status (SES) be investigated separately; the occupational level of the father, the educational level of the mother and the family income categories. The variety of parenting styles in such sub-groups was still large. Deutsch (1973) further suggested that the type of work performed by the father might be another variable within SES to be investigated in relation to the different types of parenting observed in our society.

Meanwhile, an increasing number of women were joining the workforce and research emphasis shifted to studies concerning the effects of employed and non-employed mothers upon child development outcomes (Hoffman and Nye, 1974). Also, an increasing number of fathers were

becoming more actively involved in parenting (Lamb, 1978; Lynn, 1974; Weinraub, 1978). At this same time, family-life researchers identified the transition to parenthood as a crisis for both men and women (Rossi, 1968; Russell, 1974; LaRossa, 1981), and developmental psychologists acknowledged parenthood as an important transition in adult development for men and women (Neugarten, 1977; Gould, 1978; Levinson, 1978; Lowenthal, Thurnher and Chriboga, 1975).

Studies by Peterson, Becker, Hellmer, Shoemaker and Quay (1967) indicated that the attitudes of fathers are as important as maternal attitudes in the development of healthy children. Personality problems in children were related to dictatorial attitudes and lack of concern by fathers and not significantly related to maternal attitudes. Children's conduct problems were related to maladjustment among mothers but also to democratic attitudes and heightened feelings of concern among fathers (Peterson et al., 1967). Thus, the parenting characteristics of both men and women are valuable research variables concerning parenthood.

The dual career couple is a current phenomena in which non-traditional, egalitarian parenting attitudes have been noted by Rappaport (1976). However, Veever's (1974) research indicated that even such egalitarian couples are not making conscious, informed decisions concerning their entrance into or non-involvement with parenthood. They are postponing this decision until near the end of the woman's childbearing years, at which time they find they have really made a decision. A study by Levine (1969) involving women in professional schools revealed that almost all the women in law and medicine did not

plan any withdrawal from the labor force when they might have young children; while the majority of women in teaching and nursing did plan to remain at home during any future child's early years. In Holland's (1973) occupational typology, law and medicine are classified as Investigative type work while teaching and nursing are considered Social type occupations. Thus, Levine's study might be interpreted as implying that Investigative and Social type women have quite different attitudes toward the parenting role.

In summary, Sears and colleagues (1957) reported a great variety of patterns in parenting which seem to defy even SES classification. Levine's (1969) results imply that women with different professional goals, classified by Holland's typology, have different attitudes toward the parenting role. Deutsch (1973) suggested that different types of work might be a variable to be researched in connection with differences in parenting, and Gottfredson's (1978) study of census data according to Holland's typology revealed that different types of work are more predominant in one SES category than another. Theoretically, Holland's occupational/personality types might explain the differences noted in parenting; this study proposes to investigate the possibility.

Schaefer's Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior

Schaefer (1958) recognized the ambiguous, nonspecific and confusing terminology used in the literature to describe the various types of parenting. Therefore, he initiated research to develop a more tightly-ordered system of nomenclature to be used by researchers. He factor analyzed the data from studies by Baldwin, Kalhorn and Breese

(1945); Sanford, Adkins, Miller and Cobb (1943); and Schaefer, Bell and Bayley (1959) using Guttman's radex theory as a model.

Two major dimensions of maternal behavior were first identified. Then, circumplex orders were established by plotting the correlations of variables with two orthogonal variables. Finally, the correlation matrix was inspected and rearranged into circumplex order.

The major findings in this research were stated as:

1. Two major dimensions of maternal behavior can be isolated in all studies; these can be labeled: Love vs. Hostility and Autonomy vs. Control.
2. A circumplex organization of this universe shows a clearer nomological network than an organization in terms of discrete dimensions.
3. A theoretical generalization of the circumplex of maternal behavior is presented. It provides an ordered, parsimonious nomological network or model for much of the variance of a mother's social and emotional behavior toward an individual child. (Schaefer, 1958, p. 234)

This circumplex model has been accepted and used by researchers; a replication of the model appears in Figure 2, page 9.

Development of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument

Concurrent with the development of the Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior, Schaefer and Bell (1958) developed and published an instrument to measure parent attitudes, known as the Form IV Parent Attitude Research Instrument. This informal questionnaire-type instrument consisted of twenty-three scales and five relatively independent factors. Further factor analysis by Zuckerman, Ribback, Monashkin and Norton (1958) extracted two main factors: authoritarian-control and hostility-rejection.

Zuckerman (1959) prepared a reversed, parallel form of the original instrument to control for response biases; yet this has continued to be a major concern with this instrument, pointed out by Becker and Krug (1965). Schludermann and Schludermann (1970a, 1974a, 1977a, 1981a) continued to examine and revise the original and Zuckerman (1959) forms of this instrument and have produced the form referred to as the Mother's form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument, or Mother's PARI Q4 (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1981a). The original instrument and early revisions have been widely accepted and used in the research (Strauss, 1969, 1974).

Schaefer had also developed but never published a parallel form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument for fathers which was reviewed by Nichols (1962) and Cline (1963). The Schludermanns (1970b, 1974b, 1977b, 1981b) have continued to revise this instrument and produced the Father's form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument referred to as the Father's PARI Q4 (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1981b).

The current revisions of the original Parent Attitude Research Instrument by the Schludermanns were the instruments used with the women and men in this study. A copy of the Mother's PARI Q4 appears in Appendix A; and a copy of the Father's PARI Q4 appears in Appendix B. Both of these instruments are discussed further in Chapter III.

III. SUMMARY

The following points related to the present study were supported in the research review:

1. Holland's theory of careers is also a theory of personality, identifying and classifying six types of personalities and environments and is useful in explaining person-environment interactions in both occupational and non-occupational situations.
2. Holland's occupational/personality types can be identified with the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory which measures the degree of preference for or an aversion to certain occupations, people, things and situations.
3. Fourteen types of parenting can be identified by locating the combined control and affiliation scores from the Parent Attitude Research Instrument on Schaefer's Circumplex Model.
4. While some general patterns of parenting types have been reported to be associated with socioeconomic status, a wide variety of types within each SES group still exists, even when occupational and/or educational level is held constant.
5. Holland's six types of work have been reported available to a different extent in each socioeconomic group.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. SUBJECTS

The subjects involved in this study were volunteers from an undergraduate psychology class conducted during the Spring of 1981 at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Sixty-nine women and thirty-six men agreed to participate. These student volunteers were predominantly white, middle-class freshmen and sophomores with an average age of twenty-two years, unmarried and from Protestant backgrounds.

The particular college course in which the students were enrolled is listed as an elective for many major programs. Therefore various colleges on the campus were represented in the group. The number of students from each of the colleges are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of students from each college represented in the study.

College	Women	Men	Total
Agriculture	2	1	3
Architecture	0	1	1
Business	9	15	24
Communications	3	6	9
Education	5	0	5
Engineering	3	0	3
Home Economics	5	0	5
Liberal Arts	35	12	47
Nursing	<u>7</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>8</u>
Totals	69	36	105

II. INSTRUMENTATION

Three instruments were used in this investigation: the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII); Schludermann's Mother's form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (Mother's PARI Q4), and Schludermann's Father's form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (Father's PARI Q4). The development of each of these instruments was discussed in the literature review. The revised and expanded 1981 SCII profiles and the Schludermann's updated scoring system for each form of the PARI Q4 were used in this study.

Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory

The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory consists of 325 items concerning occupations, school subjects, activities, amusements and types of people. The respondent is asked to indicate "like," "indifferent" or "dislike" to a series of items, to indicate a preference between two activities, and to indicate "yes" or "no" to some self-descriptive characteristics. The answers are then analyzed by a computer program and the results reported on a profile sheet which presents scores on a number of scales in an organized format. The categories of scales reported on the profile are General Occupational Themes, Basic Interest Scales, Occupational Scales and Administrative Indexes with Special Scales. The General Occupational Theme Scale scores were used in this study; the high score on a theme was used to classify the individual into a Holland type group.

The normative data on the General Occupational Themes was based on a distribution of 600 people, half males and half females with a

mean age of 34.3 years and a mean level of education of two years beyond high school. Test-retest reliability coefficients are .84 or above for each of the themes after 30 days and .78 or above over a three year period. The patterns of intercorrelations of the General Occupational Themes with Holland codes support the overall structure of the model for men with slightly less support for women subjects (Campbell and Hansen, 1981).

Mother's Form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument

The Mother's PARI Q4 is the title which will hereafter refer to the form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument revised by Schludermann and Schludermann (1981) and used for the women in this study. This is a four point Likert-type attitude questionnaire to which the respondents indicate their most appropriate answer to 115 items scored by adding corresponding point values: strongly agree = 1; mildly agree = 2; mildly disagree = 3; and strongly disagree = 4. Scale scores are then tallied to form two main factor scores labeled Authoritarianism and Family Disharmony deemed by Schludermann (1981) to be equivalent to the original factors identified by Schaefer and Bell (1958). Factors and appropriate scales appear in Figure 3.

The normative data on the Mother's PARI Q4 was based on the responses of 425 female college students at the University of Manitoba. Test-retest reliability coefficients range from .52 to .81 for individual scales over a two week period; and was .84 for Factor I and .84 for Factor II. Test-retest reliabilities for the response sets were: acquiescence set .61, opposition set .50 and extreme set .77. Correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne and the Edwards scales indicate that

- Factor I Authoritarianism:
- Discouraging Verbalization
 - Seclusion of the Mother
 - Breaking the Will
 - Martyrdom
 - Strictness
 - Exclusion of Outside Influence
 - Deification
 - Parental Control
 - Approval of Activity
 - Suppressions of Sexuality
 - Intrusiveness
 - Parental Un-Involvement
- Factor II Family Disharmony:
- Marital Conflict
 - Irritability
 - Rejection of the Homemaker Role
 - Inconsideration of the Husband
 - Ascendancy of the Mother
 - Dependency of the Mother

Figure 3. Factors and Scales of the Mother's PARI Q4.

the social desirability set seems to be an individual characteristic relatively stable over time, and thus, such measures need not be administered during the same session this PARI Q4 is completed (Schludermann, 1981).

Validation studies on this current Mother's form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument are not yet available. However, construct validity studies by Zuckerman and Oltean (1959) on the original Parent Attitude Research Instrument reported a significant correlation (.61) between the PARI Authoritarian-Control factor and the California F scale. Self-acceptance correlated negatively and significantly (-.37) with the hostility-rejection factor of the PARI (Strauss, 1969).

Father's Form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument

The Father's PARI Q4 will hereafter refer to the form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument revised by Schludermann and Schludermann (1981) and used for the men in this study. This instrument is comparable to a reversed form of the Mother's PARI Q4 questionnaire with reversed scales and factors. Items were phrased and factors analyzed more appropriately for male subjects.

The Father's PARI Q4 is a four point Likert-type attitude questionnaire to which respondents indicate their most appropriate response on 100 items and which is scored by adding the corresponding point values: strongly agree = 4; mildly agree = 3; mildly disagree = 2; and strongly disagree = 1. Scores are tallied to form two main factor scores labeled Democratic Attitudes and Paternal Detachment (Schludermann, 1981). The scales comprising these factors appear in Figure 4.

Factor I (Democratic Attitudes)

Encouraging Verbalization
Permitting Child's Self Assertion
Avoiding Harsh Punishment
Non-Punishment
Avoiding Deification of Parent
Tolerance of Outside Influences
Avoiding Strictness
Rejecting Ascendancy of Husband
Encouraging Ascendancy of Wife
Encouraging Emotional Expression

Factor II (Paternal Detachment)

Fostering Independence
Irresponsibility of Father
Tolerating Aggression
Inconsiderateness of Wife
Changing Orientation
Forcing Independence

Figure 4. Factors and Scales of the Father's PARI Q4.

The normative data on the Father's PARI Q4 was based on the responses of 387 male college students at the University of Manitoba. Test-retest reliability over a two week period ranged from .57 to .75 with a Factor I reliability of .84 and a Factor II reliability of .75. Response set reliabilities were reported as: acquiescence set .50, opposition set .51 and extreme set .78. Correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne and Edwards scales of social desirability were low.

Validation studies on this instrument are not yet available. The instrument is reported to be a revision of the parallel form of the original Parent Attitude Research Instrument designed for mothers. Factor analysis by Schludermann (1981b) indicated that the two reported factors are orthogonal dimensions.

III. PROCEDURE

The volunteer subjects were assembled in large groups and completed a Human Subjects Consent Form (Appendix C) and a Personal Data Sheet (Appendix D). The appropriate Mother's or Father's form of the PARI Q4 was then completed by each participant. The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory was then administered to all subjects.

The SCII was computer-scored and the Holland profile scores on the General Occupational Themes were recorded. The PARI Q4 was hand-scored separately for the women and men using Schludermann's (1981) simplified method. The Factor I and Factor II scores were recorded and continued to be handled separately for women and men although the same general procedure was used for each group.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between PARI Factor I scores and the Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional profile scores for the women and for the men. Correlation coefficients were also computed for the PARI Factor II scores with each of the six Holland profile scores.

The women and men were then further sub-divided into Holland type groups based on highest scores on the Holland profile. The mean PARI Factor I and Factor II scores were determined for each of the twelve sub-groups; then plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Models to determine the type of parenting attitudes dominant with each Holland type group of women and men. Finally, the PARI factor scores for each individual within each Holland typology were plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there is a relationship between parenting attitudes and Holland's six typologies. A further purpose was to determine the type of parenting attitudes indicated by individuals, classified by their predominant Holland type, and compare these attitudes with the parenting attitudes expected from each Holland-type group. Since separate Mother's and Father's forms of the PARI Q4 were used in this study, the data were examined and are reported separately for the women and the men.

I. RESULTS FOR THE WOMEN

The first hypothesis stated that there would be a significant relationship between the control and affiliation scores, measured on the Parent Attitude Research Instrument, and all the Holland Profile scores: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were computed to determine the degree of relationship between the Mother's PARI Q4 Factor I and Factor II scores and all the Holland profile scores of the women in the study.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients failed to indicate any significant relationship between the Mother's PARI Q4 factors and all the Holland profile scores for the women (see Table 2). The first hypothesis was not supported by the women in the study.

Table 2. Pearson Product-Moment Coefficients* Between Mother's PARI Q4 Factors and Holland Profile Scores of Women (N=69)

Holland Code	Mother's PARI Q4 Factors	
	I. Authoritarianism	II. Family Disharmony
Realistic	.14	-.03
Investigative	.05	.06
Artistic	.06	-.03
Social	-.01	-.19
Enterprising	-.06	-.12
Conventional	.15	-.13

*p < .05

The second hypothesis stated that the type of parenting attitudes indicated by individuals will be consistent with their dominant Holland typology, when plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex. Each Holland-type group of people were expected to have particular types of parenting attitudes. This hypothesis was examined by first, classifying all the women into Holland-type groups based on the highest score in their Holland profile. Mean Factor I, control, and Factor II, affiliation, scores were then computed for each Holland-type group (Table 3). These mean factor scores for each group were then plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model to determine the type of parenting attitudes indicated by each Holland-type group (Figure 5). Finally, each individual woman's PARI factor scores within each Holland typology were plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex to determine any patterns within sub-groups (Figure 6).

The sixty-nine women participating in this study were subdivided into Holland-type groups in the following manner: 2 Realistic, 5 Investigative, 12 Conventional, 14 Social, 15 Enterprising and 21 Artistic women. The mean Factor I scores on the Mother's PARI Q4 for women in all Holland-type groups ranged from 10.1 to 10.8 on a scale from 5 to 20. The Factor II mean scores ranged from 13.5 to 14.9 on a scale from 5 to 20 also, for the entire population of women.

The parenting attitudes of the Realistic, Investigative, Artistic and Social type women were shown to be Indifferent when plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model. The Enterprising type women indicated Detached parenting attitudes and Conventional women were shown to be midway between Indifferent and Detached in their parenting

Table 3. Mean Factor I and Factor II Scores on the Mother's PARI Q4 for each Holland-type Group of Women

Mother's PARI Q4	Realistic	Investigative	Artistic	Social	Enterprising	Conventional
N=69	N=2	N=5	N=21	N=14	N=15	N=12
<u>Factor I</u>						
Mean	10.3	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.2	10.8
<u>S. D.</u>	.35	.83	1.41	.74	1.03	.55
<u>Factor II</u>						
Mean	14.9	14.4	14.0	14.0	13.5	13.6
<u>S. D.</u>	.71	1.19	1.21	.77	1.38	1.15

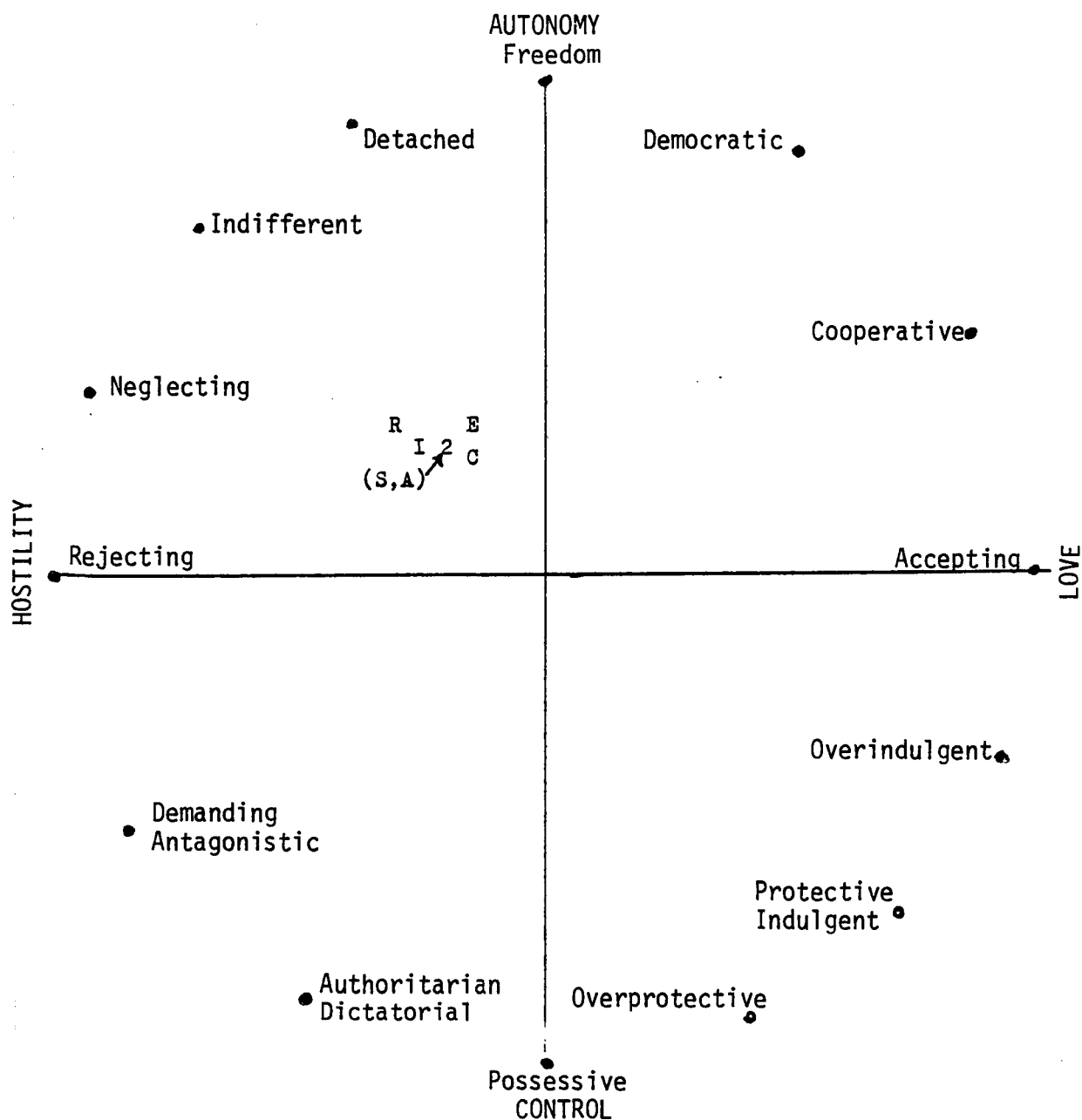


Figure 5. Mother's PARI Q4 Factor Scores for Holland-type Groups of Women Plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model (Factor II vs. Factor I)

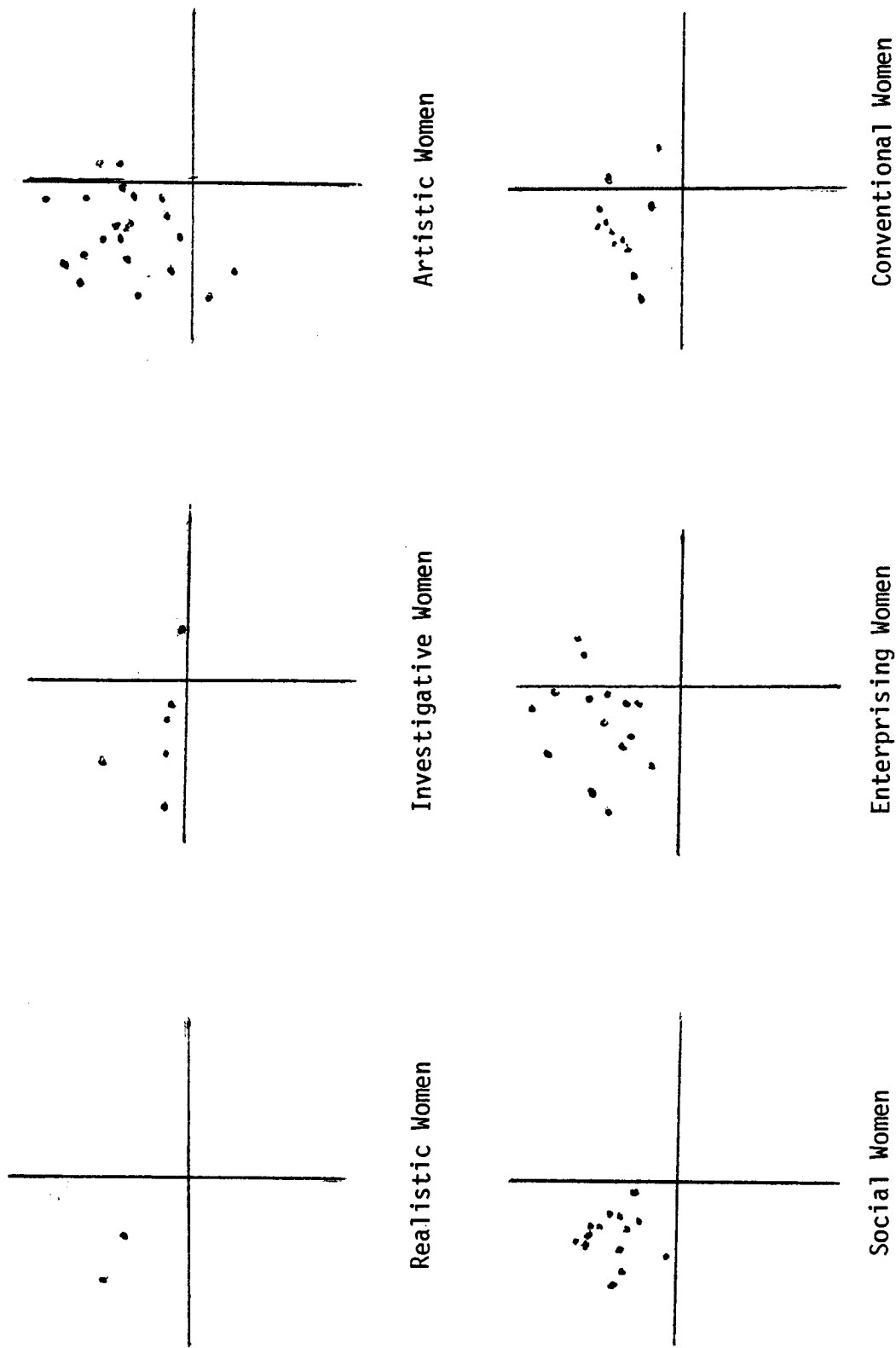


Figure 6. Scattergrams of Individual Women's PARI Q4 Factor Scores in Holland-type Groups (Factor II vs. Factor I)

attitudes. The parenting attitudes of the majority of the women in this study were located in the upper-left quadrant on Schaefer's Circumplex Model when individual PARI Q4 factor scores were examined on Schaefer's Circumplex.

The types of parenting attitudes indicated by the women in this study were not consistent with Holland's description of their dominant Holland typology. The second hypothesis was not supported by the women in this study.

II. RESULTS FOR THE MEN

Stated again, the first hypothesis proposed that there would be a significant relationship between the control and affiliation scores, measured on the Parent Attitude Research Instrument, and all the Holland profile scores for all the men in the study. Pearson Correlation Coefficients were computed and are presented in Table 4. Two of the correlation coefficients are fairly high. The Realistic Holland scores were related to low "Democratic" PARI Q4 scores ($r = -.30$) and Artistic Holland scores were associated with low "Paternal Detachment" scores ($r = -.31$). However, these correlation coefficients did not indicate any significant relationships between the PARI Q4 factor scores and the six Holland profile scores of the men in this study. The first hypothesis was not supported by the men in the study.

The second hypothesis stated that the type of parenting attitudes indicated by individuals will be consistent with their dominant Holland typology when plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex. The men were classified into Holland-type groups according to their highest

Table 4. Pearson Product-Moment Coefficients* Between Father's
PARI Q4 Factors and Holland Profile Scores of Men (N=36)

Holland Profile	Father's PARI Q4 Factors	
	I. Democratic Attitudes	II. Paternal Detachment
Realistic	-.30	.08
Investigative	.04	-.02
Artistic	.21	-.31
Social	-.17	-.03
Enterprising	-.14	-.14
Conventional	-.13	-.03

*p < .05

Holland profile scores and mean PARI Factor I and Factor II scores computed for each Holland-type group (Table 5). These mean PARI Q4 factor scores were then plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model to determine the type of parenting attitudes indicated by each group (Figure 7). Finally, each individual man's PARI Q4 factor scores within each Holland typology were plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex to determine any patterns within sub-groups (Figure 8).

Thirty-six men participated in the study: 4 Realistic, 4 Social, 5 Artistic, 6 Conventional, 8 Investigative and 9 Enterprising type men. The mean PARI Q4 Factor I scores ranged from 11.5 to 12.8 on a 5 to 20 point scale and mean Factor II scores ranged from 11.7 to 13.6 on the same 15 point scale.

The parenting attitudes of the Enterprising, Investigative, Conventional and Social type men were clustered very near the vertex of the circumplex, tending toward the Rejecting area of the circumplex. The Artistic type men were also near the vertex but tending toward the Accepting area of the circumplex. Realistic men were in the lower left quadrant of the circumplex tending toward the Demanding or Antagonist type of parenting attitudes. A wide variety of parenting attitudes emerge within each Holland typology when the individual factor scores of the men are plotted on Schaefer's circumplex.

The types of parenting attitudes indicated by the men in this study were not consistent with Holland's description of their dominant Holland typology. The second hypothesis was not supported by the men in this study.

Table 5. Mean Factor I and Factor II Scores on the Father's PARI Q4 for Each Holland-type Group of Men

Father's PARI Q4	Realistic	Investigative	Artistic	Social	Enterprising	Conventional
N=36	N=4	N=8	N=5	N=4	N=9	N=6
<u>Factor I</u>						
Mean	11.6	12.8	12.5	12.2	12.6	12.2
<u>S. D.</u>	1.45	1.30	1.96	.49	1.45	1.27
<u>Factor II</u>						
Mean	13.6	13.3	11.7	13.3	13.1	13.3
<u>S. D.</u>	1.62	1.09	.43	1.09	1.21	1.09

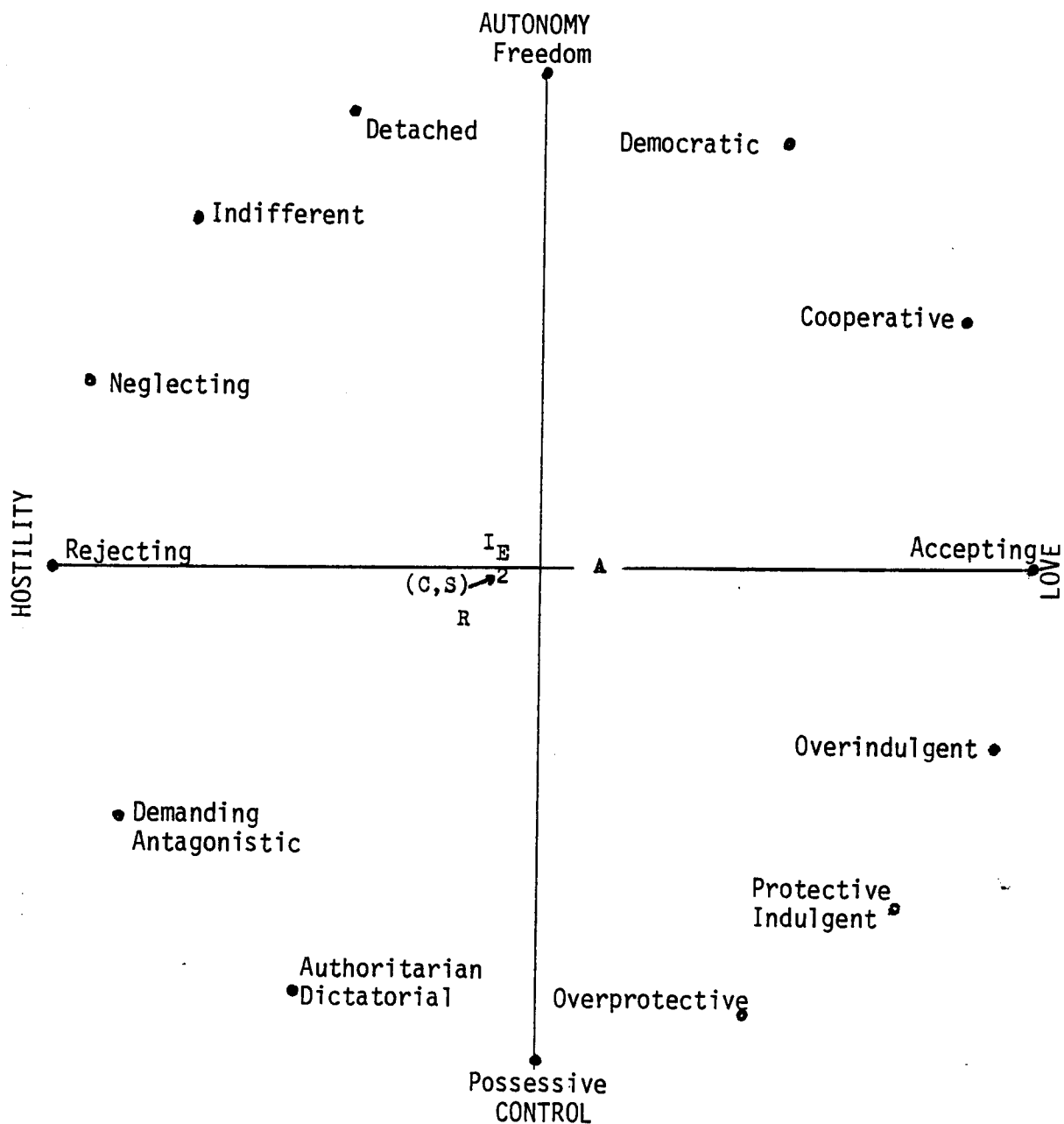


Figure 7. Father's PARI Q4 Factor Scores for Holland-type Groups of Men Plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model (Factor II vs. Factor I)

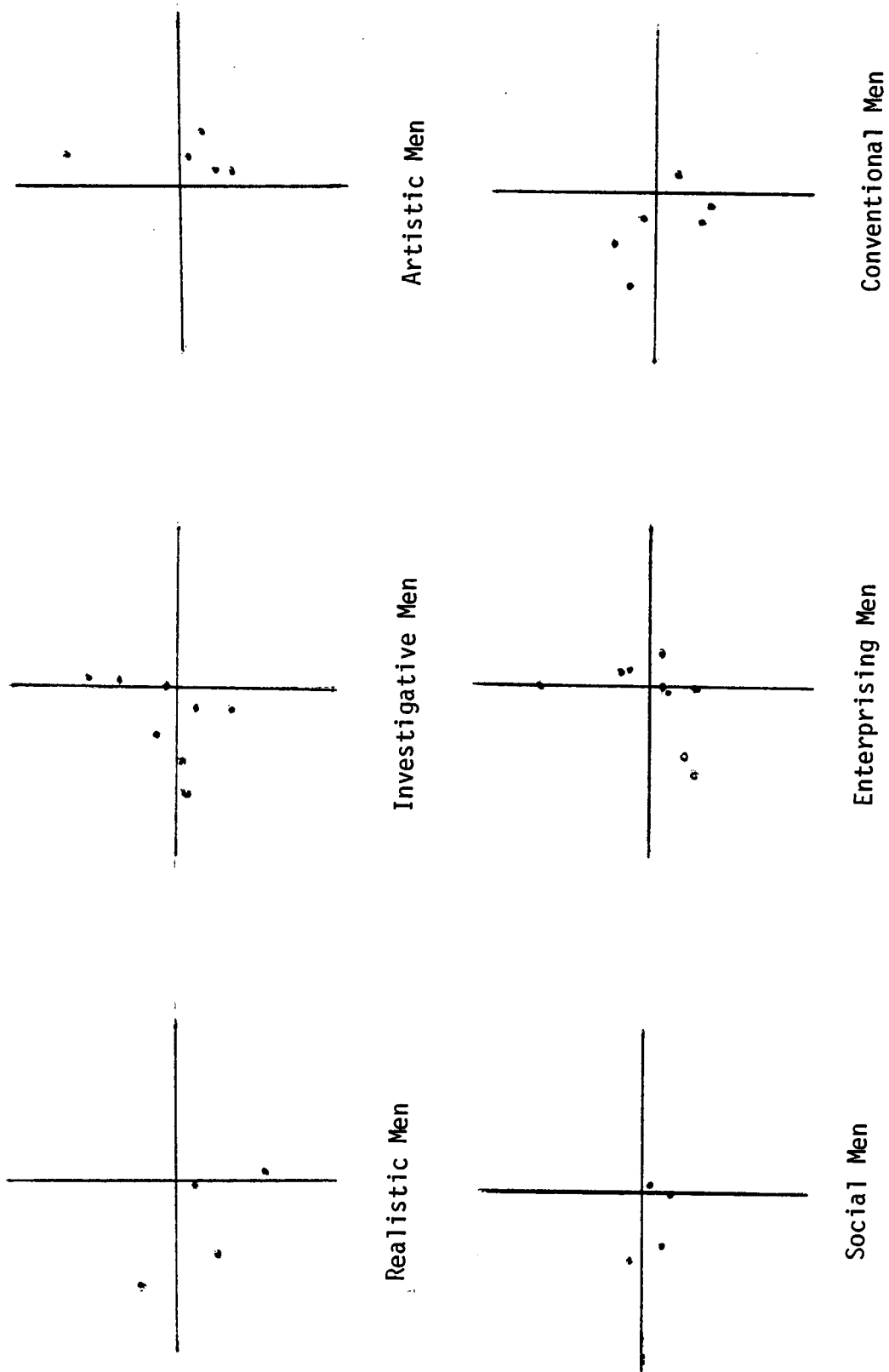


Figure 8. Scattergrams of Individual Men's PARI Q4 Factor Scores in Holland-type Groups (Factor II vs. Factor I)

III. DISCUSSION

This investigation was an exploratory study within the theoretical framework of Holland's (1973) theory of careers which examined the possible extension of this theory to a non-occupational situation as suggested by Holland. The study investigated the parenting attitudes of women and men classified by Holland's occupational/personality types and to determine the relationship between these concepts.

The parenting attitudes of the women and the men were not significantly related to Holland scores; nor were the parenting attitudes consistent with the individual's dominant Holland type when plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior.

The women in the study indicated Indifferent or Detached attitudes toward parenting, regardless of their Holland typology. The men indicated a wide range of parenting attitudes within each Holland classification.

The total sample size consisted of 105 individuals but the administration of two forms of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument reduced the number of subjects within each sub-sample to 69 women and 36 men. This was an adequate sample for correlation purposes but the further division of women and men into each of Holland's six typologies resulted in some very small sub-groups. There were only two women in the Realistic category and only four men who were classified in the Realistic and Social categories. There were less than ten men in each of the six typologies and only four categories contained more than ten women. The largest group in the study contained 21 Artistic women. These were small Holland-type groups in which to notice any trend in parenting attitudes.

Two instruments were used in this study since it was assumed that parenting attitudes are determined differently for women and men. Traditionally, the mother has had the primary responsibility for child care and was expected to meet the child's affiliative needs; the father has been less involved in routine activities with the child and was expected to be the main disciplinarian. Though the instruments used in this study were normed on a college population, adequate validation studies have not yet been conducted (Schludermann, 1981b).

A more important issue in this particular study is the age and unmarried status of the participants. The average age of the participants was 22 years; ranging from 18 to one 50 year old. The median age was 21 years for both men and women in the study. Only 12 of the women and one man had been married; six women but none of the men had children. Most of the subjects were young, unmarried adults, lacking direct experience with children.

Most of these subjects are in the pretransitional stage of young adulthood; they are still emerging from their family of origin. Neugarten (1977) pointed out that experiential age is more important than chronological age in progression to the next stage of development. Many of these students are still in the process of becoming independent of family ties and hence, are not yet ready to plan for the responsibility of parenthood themselves.

However, Holland's (1973) theory claims to be also a personality theory which implies that some consistency in attitudes would be indicated even at this pre-transitional period due to the individual's personal orientation or perception of the world. Davids and Holden

(1970) reported a consistency in parenting attitudes during pregnancy and through the first year after childbirth. The Sears et al. (1957) studies noted a variety of maternal attitudes even within SES categories. Hence, the cluster of Indifferent and Detached attitudes toward parenting for the women in this study, leads this investigator to question the assumption that parenting attitudes are well developed and differentiated for these college-aged women.

In our society, the primary child-care responsibility is still ascribed to the women and the clustered responses of the women in this study may imply an avoidance of the parenting situation at this period in their lives. Until recently, the socialization of women in our culture has mandated that motherhood is a necessary part of the adult woman's experience. Though many choices are now available in this domain for women, this has not been accompanied by education and preparation for informed decisions regarding parenthood nor support for decisions contrary to the social expectations. These women's parenting attitudes tend to reflect the same ambivalence or avoidance of decisions regarding parenthood which Veevers (1974) noted in her research with college educated women. Further research is necessary to determine if such Indifference and Detachment remains constant for these women.

The socialization process for the men, however, is quite different. Traditionally, the father's life is not as directly affected by parenthood and society rewards and encourages individualistic decision-making by men. The wide variety of parenting attitudes noted by the men in this study demonstrates such individualized responses.

In summary, the results of this study failed to yield support for the application of Holland's theory to a parenting situation. The relationship between parenting attitudes and Holland typologies was not significant for the women or men in this study. The women indicated Indifferent or Detached parenting attitudes regardless of their Holland typologies, while the men indicated a wide variety of parenting attitudes without regard to their Holland categories.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between parenting attitudes and Holland's occupational/personality types. Certain parenting attitudes were expected to be consistent with a particular Holland typology and therefore predictable. The sixty-nine college women and thirty-six college men who voluntarily participated in this study completed a Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory to determine their Holland typology and the appropriate Mother's or Father's form of Schludermanns' Q4 Revision of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument to determine their parenting attitude.

Sears et al. (1957) had noted that certain patterns of parenting predominate in different socioeconomic classes; yet, Becker and Krug (1965) noted that all types of parenting exist at all social levels even when educational and occupational levels were held constant. Deutsch (1973) suggested that types of occupations might be a variable within SES classifications to be explored. Gottfredson (1979) reported that employment could be found in all of Holland's (1973) occupational typologies with varying frequencies in all SES categories.

Holland's (1973) theory of careers proposes that all people and work environments can be classified into six typologies: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional. He claims that his theory of careers is also a personality theory which

is useful in understanding person-environment interactions. This theory implies that people in each typology seek and create congruent environments based on their personal Holland typology. Holland's theory has been widely supported concerning its application to the world of work and recent research suggests that it is also applicable in non-occupational situations.

Barclay (1970) noted that Holland's typologies were applicable in assessing classroom situations; Taylor et al. (1979), Cairo (1979), Melamed and Meir (1981) have applied these typologies in relation to leisure-time activities; and Wiggins and Weslander (1979, in press) reported success in the use of Holland's typologies in marriage counseling. The present study proposed to examine the possible application of this theory in a family-life situation, namely parenting.

This study was designed to determine if there was a relationship between parenting attitudes and Holland's occupational/personality types. Pearson Product-Moment Coefficients were computed and failed to indicate any significant relationships between the control and affiliation factor scores involved in determining parenting attitudes and the six Holland profile scores for the women and men in this study. The parenting attitudes of most of these college women were identified as Indifferent or Detached when the control and affiliation factor scores were plotted on Schaefer's Circumplex Model of Maternal Behavior. The men indicated a wide variety of parenting attitudes.

II. CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study failed to yield support for the application of Holland's theory of careers in the non-occupational realm of a parenting situation. The findings suggest that:

1. The parenting attitudes of college women and men have little, if any, relationship with their Holland occupational/personality typology.
2. College women have Indifferent or Detached attitudes toward parenting.
3. College men have a wide variety of parenting attitudes.

These conclusions are limited by the unique composition of the sample population. The participants in this study were young, unmarried, undergraduate students at a state university. The application of these findings can be made only to a similar population.

Separate instruments were used to measure the parenting attitudes of the women and the men, since it was assumed that the dimensions of control and affiliation in parenting are expressed differently by men and women. The Schludermanns' (1981) mother's and father's revised forms of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument met this criteria. These instruments were normed on a college population, but validation studies are not yet available on these revised forms. This further limits the application of these findings.

The parenting attitudes of the college women and men, though not consistent with Holland's occupational/personality typologies, were also not the outcomes expected from the traditional socialization

process. The women did not have warm, nurturant, cooperative and accepting attitudes toward parenting; nor did the men have authoritarian and controlling parenting attitudes. The clustering of Indifferent and Detached attitudes by the women suggests ambivalence toward their role in parenting; the diversity of parenting attitudes shown by the men reflects a greater individuality in their concepts of themselves in a parenting role. Additional parenting attitude research is important at this time of cultural change.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

Further research concerning any relationship between Holland personality types and attitudes toward parenting may be explored with an older population of subjects to note whether such a relationship between these two variables is evident as the subjects become more involved in making decisions in their lives. Both parents and non-parents should be included in such studies to establish whether those people who are choosing not to have children have more negative attitudes toward parenting and represent certain types of occupational interest.

Additional exploratory research might also be conducted to explore any changes in parenting attitudes of men and women between this period of their life and a more stable period to notice if the pattern of parenting attitudes noted in this study for men and for women is confirmed. A longitudinal study of the parenting attitudes and occupational/personality types of the subjects in this study would yield data indicating any change in the direction of these parenting

attitudes and the circumstances under which such change might take place.

Research similar to that conducted by Wiggins and Weslander (1979) concerning marital problems should also be conducted to determine if parents who seek help at various stages in the child rearing problems predominate in one occupational type more than any other typology. Parent educators, who conduct Lamaze and other training for parents, should also examine the occupational/personality types of the parents to note if certain personality types have more or less difficulty in fulfilling the parenting responsibilities due to their attitude toward parenting.

This investigation was a preliminary, exploratory study to determine any possible relationship between Holland occupational/personality types and attitudes toward parenting. However, the data collected in this study do not support the application of Holland's (1973) theory in a parenting situation. The parenting attitudes of the women and men in this study were neither distinct nor predictable on the basis of Holland's typologies. All the women in the study indicated Indifferent or Detached attitudes toward parenting while all the men reflected a wide variety of parenting attitudes within each Holland type.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Mother's PARI (Q4)
(Schludermann)

A QUESTIONNAIRE TO WOMEN (4)

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

A	a	d	D
strongly	mildly	mildly	strongly
agree	agree	disagree	disagree

Indicate your opinion by drawing a circle around the "A" if you strongly agree, around the "a" if you mildly agree, around the "d" if you mildly disagree, and around the "D" if you strongly disagree.

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statement will seem alike but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

1. Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better.
2. A good mother lets her child learn the hard way about life.
3. A good mother should develop interests outside the home.
4. The home is the only thing that matters to a good mother.
5. Parents shouldn't feel they have to sacrifice for their children.
6. Mothers worry too much about bathing babies.
7. There is no reason for arguments in a happy marriage.
8. Strict training will make a child resent his parents later on.
9. There is no reason why a day with the children should be upsetting.
10. Children have every right to question their mother's views.
11. Loyalty on the part of children to their parents is something that the parents should earn.

12. Children should be taught to fight so they can take care of themselves.
13. Taking care of a home doesn't have to coop a woman up.
14. Parents should adjust to the children some, rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents.
15. A child needs time to just sit around and do nothing if he feels like it.
16. Children should be encouraged to talk about their problems.
17. Fathers generally are kind and helpful.
18. Children should be taught about sex as soon as possible.
19. It is not the mother's place to make the rules for the home.
20. A child's thoughts and ideas are his own business.
21. Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show an interest in their affairs.
22. Very few children are toilet trained by 15 months of age.
23. A young mother doesn't need any help when going through her first experience.
24. Children should be encouraged to tell their parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable.
25. A child has to learn that he has to be disappointed sometimes.
26. A good mother has an active social life.
27. You can't make a child behave by cracking down on him.
28. There is no reason why a mother can't be happy and make her child happy too.
29. Most young mothers don't worry much about handling or holding the baby.
30. A good wife never has to argue with her husband.
31. Strict discipline makes children grow up to be mean or rebellious.
32. Most mothers never get to the point where they can't stand their children.

33. If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child.
34. A child should be taught that there are many other people he will love and respect as much or more than his own parents.
35. A child should be taught to fight his own battles.
36. Most mothers are content to be with children all the time.
37. Parents must earn the respect of their children by the way they act.
38. There is plenty of time for children to strive for success after they are older.
39. A child should always be encouraged to talk about his troubles.
40. Husbands have a perfect right to their own interests.
41. There is nothing wrong with bathing boys and girls in the same bath tub.
42. The family is better off when the husband settles most of the family problems.
43. Children are entitled to keep their own secrets.
44. Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes makes things go more smoothly.
45. A child should take all the time he wants before he walks.
46. Women should handle most of child raising without much help from others.
47. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it.
48. Children should be encouraged to undertake tough jobs if they want to.
49. A mother can keep a nice home and still have plenty of time left over to visit with neighbours and friends.
50. There is no need for children to look on parents as their bosses.
51. Most children are grateful to their parents.
52. Little accidents are bound to happen when caring for young children.
53. If a couple really loves each other there are very few arguments in their married life.

54. If children are given too many rules they will grow up to be unhappy adults.
55. Most mothers can spend all day with their children and remain calm and even-tempered.
56. A child should be encouraged to look for answers to his questions from other people even if the answers contradict his parents.
57. Most children soon learn that their parents were mistaken in many of their ideas.
58. It's quite natural for children to hit one another.
59. Most young mothers don't mind spending most of their time at home.
60. Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and what is not fair.
61. Children should have lots of time to loaf and play.
62. A mother should be concerned with any problem of a child no matter how trivial.
63. In most cases the mother rather than the father is responsible for trouble in the home.
64. Sex play is a normal thing in children.
65. A mother should take a back seat to her husband as far as the planning is concerned.
66. A good parent doesn't try to pry into the child's thoughts.
67. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates and fun, help them grow up right.
68. A child needs to be emotionally close to its parents for a long time.
69. A woman should be on her own after having a baby.
70. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.
71. Children have to face difficult situations on their own.
72. Mothers should get out of the home fairly often.
73. If a child acts mean he needs understanding rather than punishment.
74. Children don't "owe" their mothers anything.

75. Most mothers are confident when handling their babies.
76. Almost any problem can be settled by quietly talking it over.
77. Raising children is an easy job.
78. Most children are disciplined too much.
79. When a child thinks his parent is wrong he should say so.
80. A parent should not expect to be more highly esteemed than other worthy adults in their children's eyes.
81. Children should be taught ways of defending themselves in a fight.
82. If you can run your home right, you have plenty of time to do the things you like to do.
83. As much as is reasonable a parent should try to treat a child as an equal.
84. It isn't good for children to be constantly running from one activity to another.
85. A mother should always be concerned about upset feelings in a child.
86. Most husbands show a good understanding for a mother's problems.
87. Sex is no great problem for children if the parent doesn't make it one.
88. It's up to the father to take charge of the family.
89. Being a mother doesn't give women the right to know everything in their children's lives.
90. If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice.
91. Toilet training should be put off until a child indicates that he is ready.
92. A woman should be up and around a short time after giving birth.
93. When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents.
94. Children should be encouraged to undertake all kinds of jobs no matter how hard.

95. It is important for a mother to have a social life outside of the family.
96. Children have a right to rebel and to be stubborn sometimes.
97. Having children doesn't mean you can't have as much fun as you usually do.
98. Mothers shouldn't worry much about calamities that might happen to their children.
99. Husbands and wives who have different views can still get along without arguments.
100. Strict training makes children unhappy.
101. A mother should keep control of her temper even when children are demanding.
102. A good mother should keep control of her temper even when children are around.
103. Loyalty to parents is an over-emphasized virtue.
104. Most parents prefer a "scrappy" child to a quiet one.
105. Most young mothers are pretty content with home life.
106. There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time anymore than that children should have their own way all the time.
107. A child should have time to just dawdle or daydream.
108. Anything a child wants to tell a parent is important enough to listen to.
109. Most men try to take their wives out as often as they can.
110. Children are normally curious about sex.
111. Most wives think it best that the husband take the lead in family affairs.
112. Every child should have an inner life which is only his business.
113. When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier.
114. The longer a child is bottle or breast fed the more secure he will feel.
115. Any woman should be able to take care of a baby by herself.

APPENDIX B

Father's PARI (Q4)
(Schludermann)

A QUESTIONNAIRE TO MEN (4)

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

A	a	d	D
strongly	mildly	mildly	strongly
agree	agree	disagree	disagree

Indicate your opinion by drawing a circle around the "A" if you strongly agree, around the "a" if you mildly agree, around the "d" if you mildly disagree, and around the "D" if you strongly disagree.

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statement will seem alike but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

1. Children should be allowed to gripe about rules which their parents make.
2. A good father lets his child learn the hard way about life.
3. A child should never be taught to fear adults.
4. It is no use trying to make a child behave by slapping the child immediately for getting into mischief.
5. Deceiving a child is very often necessary for his own good.
6. There is no reason for arguments in a happy marriage.
7. Children who are troublemakers have most likely been spanked too much.
8. Loyalty on the part of children to their parents is something the parents should earn.
9. After a hard day's work a father should listen patiently to all the questions a wife and children ask.

10. Strict training will make a child resent his parents later on.
11. A child who is not afraid to show his emotions will do well in life.
12. Children should be taught not to be content with what they have, but to strive for better things.
13. Children must often be taught to do certain things by just being left on their own.
14. A child should learn that he has to be disappointed sometimes.
15. You can't make a child behave by cracking down on him.
16. If small children refuse to obey, parents should not whip them for it.
17. A good wife never has to argue with her husband.
18. Physical punishment makes a child fear adults and this is the worst thing that can happen to a child.
19. Strict discipline makes children grow up to be mean or rebellious.
20. There is nothing wrong with bathing boys and girls in the same bath tub.
21. A father has no right to demand that the whole family must do what he knows is best.
22. Few wives realize that husbands are part of the family too, and need some looking after.
23. It is not a mistake, when a man marries a woman who always wants to wear the pants in the family.
24. Children should not be spanked immediately, when they are cross and nagging, because that makes them obstinate and they get into the habit of acting like that.
25. If a couple really loves each other, there are very few arguments in their married life.
26. Spanking a child makes it impossible for him to love and respect his parents.
27. Having to be with the family all the time gives a man the feeling that his wings have been clipped.
28. It's quite natural for children to hit one another.

29. Most children soon learn that their parents were mistaken in many of their ideas.
30. There is nothing wrong when outsiders upset the confidence a child has in his parent's way of doing things.
31. There is no excuse for men to reach their boiling point when they run into family problems on their return home from work.
32. Sex play is a normal thing in children.
33. There should not be a boss in the family, and the father should not boss the family around.
34. One thing that marriage means is that a wife belongs to the husband and not to her parents or other people she knows.
35. Children should be trained to be independent by forcing them to do their own work.
36. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.
37. Children have to face difficult situations on their own.
38. If a child acts mean, he needs understanding rather than punishment.
39. The wise parent will not whip a child to teach him to change his ways.
40. Children should be taught ways of defending themselves in a fight.
41. A parent should not expect to be more highly esteemed than other worthy adults in their child's eyes.
42. Children have a right to question their father's views.
43. A father or husband should never get irritated about family problems, no matter how tired he is or how silly the problems are.
44. Most children are disciplined too much.
45. The old fashioned family, where the father is in charge, is a very bad thing.

46. Most husbands would do better, if they quit trying to look smarter than their wives.
47. Parents who teach children to express freely (uncontrollably) how they feel help them to get along better in life.
48. Parents who allow their children to grow up with an idea that other people will often help them just encourage them to become failures.
49. Children should be encouraged to undertake all kinds of jobs no matter how hard.
50. It is no use whipping children who are always breaking their parent's rules.
51. Often you have to fool children to get them to do what they should without a big fuss.
52. Husbands and wives who have different views can still get along without arguments.
53. Settling down to family life is hard for a man because it means giving up so many other things.
54. Loyalty to parents is an over-emphasized virtue.
55. When at home a father must never get angry and 'blow his top.'
56. Strict training makes children unhappy.
57. Children are normally curious about sex.
58. The mother should be the final authority in the family.
59. Wives should be encouraged to have more say in running the family affairs.
60. The best attitude for a child to learn is not to take things as they are, but to work to improve his situation.
61. Children should at all times be told to fight their own battles.
62. Children should be encouraged to express their opinions about anything which involves them.
63. Children are most lovable when they become self-reliant.

64. You cannot train children by breaking them the way you break in horses.
65. Trying to be completely honest with a young child is just doing things the hard way.
66. Only a cruel parent would use physical punishment on a child.
67. Men don't know how much they enjoy being free to do as they please, until they begin raising a family.
68. Children should be allowed to hit back, when someone hits them.
69. Children should not be taught to love their parents always above everyone else.
70. When a child thinks his parent is wrong he should say so.
71. No man has a right to be angry and irritated when the family doesn't give him the chance to relax at home.
72. It is very harmful to warn children about sex. There is no harm if they sometimes indulge in sex play.
73. Wives too often use the children as an excuse for ignoring the father.
74. A parent does much harm to a child when he teaches him to keep from showing it, when he is 'boiling' inside.
75. A child should not be taught that about all one can expect to do is to make the best of what one has.
76. The child who grows up with the idea that he will have to do almost everything for himself gets on much further in life.
77. Family life would be happier, if parents made children feel that they were free to say what they think about anything.
78. You have to fool children into doing many things because they wouldn't understand why they should be done anyway.
79. Before marriage, most men don't realize how much of a burden the responsibility of a family can be.

80. A good child learns to fight for its own rights.
81. One should not attempt to safeguard a child's trust in his parents by preventing the child from meeting people with different ideas.
82. The ideal home is one in which it is clear to all that the mother is head of the household.
83. Too many wives are so busy with friends, relatives or the children that they forget all about the man they married.
84. The trouble with husbands nowadays is that they don't have any respect for a wife's right to have her say so.
85. A child who always looks calm and cool no matter how upset he feels inside does not get along well.
86. Children should be taught not to be satisfied with life as it is and to make every effort to improve their condition.
87. Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better.
88. Children who have fear of adults will get into trouble.
89. When you can get kids doing what you want by being a little clever, there's no use wasting a lot of time explaining.
90. In marriage a person must yield his rights in order to avoid a fight.
91. Children never feel the same about a parent who spansks them.
92. Most young fathers are bothered more by the feeling of being tied to the home than anything else.
93. Children who are 'tomboys' or 'regular guys' are preferable to those who are gentlemanly or ladylike.
94. Children should learn to think for themselves by comparing the ideas learned outside the home with their parent's ideas.
95. A parent should sometimes let children get away with things they aren't supposed to do.
96. Many well behaved children are curious about sex.

97. It's a rare wife who pays much attention to her husband after the marriage.
98. A wife's mother too often gives her the idea that she must respect what her husband says.
99. Parents should teach a child to express his feelings as soon as he can understand.
100. The main thing in growing up is to learn not to take things as they are, but to improve your situation in life.

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

I understand that the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between occupational/personality types, as classified by Holland, and parent attitudes. I have been informed that I will complete two paper and pencil inventories: a Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory and a Parent Attitude Research Instrument. I will receive both of these inventories back and be helped to understand the results of each. I will then remove my own name from these instruments and replace it with a paired code number which will be used by the investigator in data analysis and reporting.

I also understand that I can withdraw from participation at any point without penalty. If I have any further questions regarding my participation in the study, I will have the option of contacting the experimenter at the phone number listed below.

I agree to participate in this study:

NAME: _____

DATE: _____

Mary Dunne McIlwain
Graduate Student
Educational and Counseling Psychology
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Phone: (615) 693-5195

APPENDIX D

PSYCHOLOGY 2540 RESEARCH PROJECT

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Social Security Number: _____

College Enrolled In: _____

Level in College: Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

Other, explain: _____

Major in College: _____

Career Goal: _____

Father's Occupation: _____

Mother's Occupation: _____

Religious Background: Catholic Jewish Protestant

Specific denomination: _____

Other, specify: _____

Marital Status: Single Married Divorced Widowed

Other, explain: _____

Number of YOUR children: None 1 2 3 4+

Sex of YOUR children: Male Female Both Sexes

Age groups of YOUR children: 0-1 2-5 6-12 12-18 18+

VITA

Mary Dunne McIlwain was born in Brooklyn, New York on November 21, 1931. After graduating from Bay Ridge High School in 1948, she attended Hunter College of the City of New York for two years and then was employed by a Wall Street banking firm. During the Korean conflict, 1950-1955, she joined the United States Air Force, married, and moved to Alabama. She entered Auburn University and received a Bachelor of Science degree in 1959 and a Master of Science degree in 1961 with a major in Family Life and Child Development. Meanwhile, she became a parent to the first four McIlwain children.

She moved to Tennessee in 1961, became a parent to an additional five McIlwain children and served as a consultant, advisor, board member, and director of various programs of children's services. She was involved in the initiation and development of state and local Head Start programs, the State Welfare Commissioner's Day Care Licensing Boards, the kindergarten programs under the State Department of Education, the professional organization and training of state and local child-care workers, as well as Model Cities, Title IV and CETA training programs. In 1975, she received an AAUW Project Renew Grant to complete an Educational Specialist degree in Reading which she received from Tennessee Technological University in 1977.

While employed as an Educational Specialist for the Knoxville-Knox County Head Start program, she was granted admission to the doctoral program at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. During her doctoral program, she was employed as a Teaching Assistant in the

Educational Psychology and Guidance Department at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, an Admissions Counselor at the State Technical Institute at Knoxville, the Director of Special Student Services at Roane State Community College and then as a CETA Counselor for Management Teams Incorporated. She received her Doctor of Education degree in December 1981, majoring in Educational and Counseling Psychology.