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Individual and Familial Predictors of Multiple Dimensions of Fathers' Parenting

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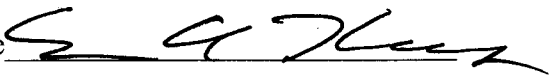
Signature 

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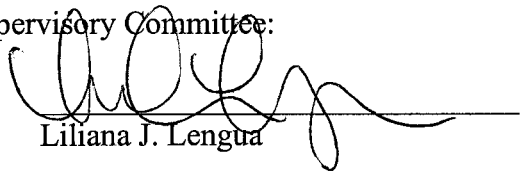

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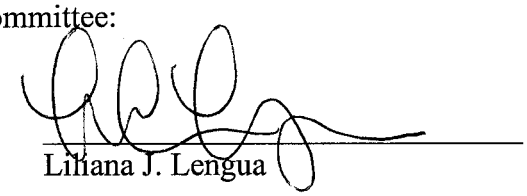

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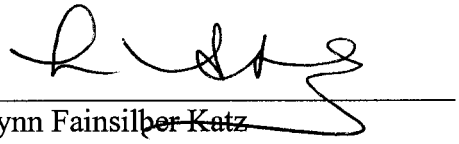

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Abstract

Individual and Familial Predictors of Multiple Dimensions of Fathers' Parenting

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Fathers are typically underrepresented in research on parenting and parental effects on children. Additionally, little is known about the determinants of fathers' parenting. This study investigated multiple determinants of several dimensions of fathers' parenting in a community sample of 80 two-parent families with a child between 8 to 11 years of age. Fathers' parenting dimensions of warmth, rejection, consistency of discipline, involvement, and time spent were assessed using multiple measures, including both observational and questionnaire measures. Child factors (age, gender), maternal and paternal psychosocial factors (education, depression, history of problems, marital satisfaction) and family psychosocial factors (stressful life events, income) were examined as predictors of a variety of dimensions of fathers' parenting using cross-sectional data. Predictors that consistently predicted parenting were tested simultaneously using multiple regression. Little evidence for the prediction of parenting

by child factors was found. More consistent support was found for the prediction of parenting by individual psychosocial factors. Identical analyses for parenting by mothers were also conducted. Findings have potential implications for understanding factors that uniquely relate to fathers' parenting.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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DEDICATION

To my family

Introduction

Background and Significance

Efforts to understand parental influence on children have long been the focus of research in psychology, as parents are generally presumed to be key influences on children's development, socialization, and psychological adjustment. Evidence exists that parenting variables such as warmth, control, and involvement are consistently related to children's behavior and adjustment (Capaldi & Patterson, 1991; Frick, 1994; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). Recent conceptualizations of parenting have also aimed to differentiate parenting style, which refers to the context of general emotional climate the parent provides and within which socialization occurs, and parenting practices, which include the specific content and goals of parenting behavior (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). In the past, research on parenting has focused on parenting by mothers with less focus on fathers (Lamb, 1997). Recently, however, there has been increased recognition of the need to study father-child relationships. Despite this increased attention to fathers, however, there continues to be less research on fathers in comparison to mothers among developmental and clinical child and adolescent research (Phares, 1992; Phares & Compas, 1992; Russell, & Radojevic, 1992; Silverstein & Phares, 1996). There have been significant changes in the living arrangements of children and families over the past several decades, including a decline in the percent of children living with two parents. Yet the majority of children continue to reside with two married parents (biological or adoptive) at any given point in time. Thus, there is a need to continue to study father-child relationships.

Research on mothers' and fathers' parenting differs not only in the amount that has been conducted but also in that a limited number of parenting dimensions have been the focus of study in research on fathers. Emphasis has been placed on studying the negative effects of father absence on children or on the effects or amount of fathers' involvement (Pleck, 1997). There is a need to examine other aspects of fathers' parenting, such as the affective nature of the father-child relationship, including dimensions such as warmth or acceptance, harshness or rejection, and control or consistency of discipline, for example. Another question in need of examination is to further understand the determinants of parenting style and why parents within and across families may adopt different parenting styles (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Researchers studying fathers are presented with several interesting challenges. One such challenge is that they must account for the variety of living arrangements that exist between fathers and children, more so than for mothers and children, as residential status is a factor known to affect the father-child relationship. For example, only 25% of children with nonresidential fathers see their fathers once a week or more (Seltzer, 1991). There is also evidence that many nonresidential fathers, even those who are involved with children initially, decrease their contact and involvement with children over time (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1982; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002). Researchers studying factors that affect fathers' parenting are also faced with the challenge of attempting to explain why some fathers display higher levels of involvement with their children than other fathers display. This is difficult because the family is no longer considered to be a set of separate relationships existing side by side. Rather, the family is considered to be a complex, interconnected system (Cowan, Powell, & Cowan, 1998; Cox & Paley, 1997;

Minuchin, 1988; Parke & Buriel, 1998). Similarly, fathers' parenting, by both residential and nonresidential fathers, is most likely determined by multiple factors, with no single factor exerting a predominant influence. Thus, researchers need to make efforts to account for multiple factors (Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998; Lamb, 1997; Parke, 2000; Pleck, 1997).

Parenting by fathers is therefore best conceptualized using an ecological approach, taking individual, family, and contextual factors into account. Child factors such as gender and age are thought to affect fathers' parenting. In the NICHD Study of Early Childcare, which included over 500 families at various sites throughout the country, fathers were found to spend more time in caregiving activities with sons than with daughters (NICHD Early Childcare Research Network, 2000). In this same study, however, child gender did not predict fathers' sensitivity during parent-child interactions. Pleck (1997) examined recent research on fathers in two-parent families that included data on fathers' time with children and concluded that fathers appear to spend more time with sons than with daughters. He also noted that the gender difference may vary with age and may be less salient for fathers' caregiving activities than play with children. Blair, Wenk, and Hardesty (1994), using data from a national, cross-sectional sample of over 2000 mothers and fathers with a children between the ages of 5 to 18, found that fathers spent a great deal more time with children as the number of sons in the home increased. They also found that fathers tended to use discipline methods such as spanking, slapping, or yelling at the child more frequently and were slightly less supportive (praising, hugging, or allowing child to help set rules) as more sons were in

the family. These results suggest that child gender may affect different aspects of fathers' parenting.

Age of the child has also been considered a factor influencing fathers' parenting. In families with several children, fathers are more likely to participate in taking care of the older children while mothers handle the needs of the younger children, especially infants (Vandell, 1987). However, in the NICHD Study on the determinants of father parenting, although fathers were hypothesized to demonstrate greater involvement with firstborn children, birth order was not significantly associated with father's caregiving responsibilities (NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000). Fathers were found to increase their engagement in caregiving activities between 6 and 15 months, suggesting fathers do assume more responsibility as children get older. Bailey (1994), in a longitudinal study, reported that fathers' caregiving activities increased as children grew from infants to 5 years of age. Pleck (1997), however, reported that fathers spend more time with younger children than with adolescents, suggesting that this increase may not continue into adolescent years.

Conceptual models of fathers' parenting propose that individual characteristics of fathers are associated with parenting, including psychological adjustment (Doherty et al., 1998; Parke, 1996). Fathers with higher self-esteem have been found to be more supportive and warm with their young children (Volling & Belsky, 1991). Fathers with lower levels of depression and better overall life adaptation have also been found to be more supportive and warm with their 5-year-olds than fathers with higher levels of depression and poorer overall life adaptation (Grossman, Pollock, & Golding, 1988). Moreover, fathers' depression has been found to predict the quality of father-infant

attachment and interaction (Belsky, 1996; Ferketich & Mercer, 1995). Work by Brody and colleagues revealed that rural African American fathers who were more optimistic in their outlook on life engaged in more positive parenting of their adolescents then fathers who were less optimistic (Brody, Stoneman, Flor, & McCrary, 1994; Brody, Stoneman, Flor, McCrary, Hastings & Conyers, 1994). Jacob, Krahn, and Leonard (1991) compared depressed fathers, fathers with alcohol use problems, and nondistressed fathers in their interactions with their adolescent children in a sample of 121 families. Fathers in the two clinical groups displayed less problem solving and less positive affect during dyadic interactions than nondistressed fathers. In triadic interactions that included mothers, the two clinical groups of fathers were also observed to exhibit less positive affect than nondistressed fathers in problem solving discussions.

Research on individual characteristics of fathers has also focused on antisocial characteristics of fathers (Jafee, Moffitt, Caspi, & Taylor, 2003). Fathers who are characterized by irritable and aggressive behavior, fiscal and emotional impulsivity and irresponsibility, and who engage in a wide range of antisocial behaviors, including illegal activities, are considered less able to be reliable sources of emotional and financial support. In fact, the benefits to children of living with two biological parents have recently been found to depend on fathers' antisocial behavior. In this study, which included 1, 116 families with twins in the United Kingdom, fathers' caretaking was defined as how often the father spent time taking care of the children in the year prior to the children's fifth birthday and was assessed via maternal reports. Fathers with high levels of antisocial behaviors (>85th percentile) were significantly less likely to spend time taking care of their children, even among the fathers who resided with their children

for more than 90% of the children's lives (some of the fathers in the sample were nonresidential). Finally, the findings also indicated that the rearing environment, not just the genetic risk, was a significant risk factor to the development of children's conduct problems. The mechanism through which this relationship was mediated was not specified; however, potential mediators included the father's relationship with the mother, his parenting behavior, his abuse, or job instability. Thus, further research is required to specify how fathers' antisocial characteristics affect fathers' parenting.

Conceptual models of fathers' parenting propose that individual characteristics of mothers, including psychological adjustment, also need to be considered when examining variations in father parenting (Doherty et al., 1998; Parke, 1996). Yet there is little research into the role that mothers' psychological adjustment may play in determining specific aspects of fathers' parenting. Hops, Biglan, Sherman, Arthur, Friedman, and Osteen (1987) conducted home observations of 27 families with clinically depressed mothers and 25 families with nondepressed mothers in family interactions with a child between the ages of 3 and 16 years. Higher levels of father caring or emotional support for children were found in the families in which mothers were clinically depressed than in nondepressed families. These results provide support for the hypothesis that mothers' depressed mood and symptoms may influence fathers' behavior. Mothers' anxiety during pregnancy has also been found to negatively predict fathers' satisfaction with fatherhood when children were infants (Feldman, Nash & Aschenbrenner, 1983). Grossman and colleagues (1988), in their longitudinal investigation predicting the quality and quantity of fathering, found that mothers' overall life adaptation and anxiety did not significantly predict the quality of parenting or the amount of time fathers spent with their 5-year old

children. The link between maternal psychological adjustment and fathers' parenting requires further investigation.

The marital relationship has also been proposed to be a significant factor in determining fathers' parenting (Belsky, 1984; Doherty et al., 1998; Lamb, 1997; Parke, 1996, 2000) and has been studied in relation to the affective nature of fathers' parenting, level of involvement, and control. Results of a meta-analysis support a significant positive association between marital quality and the quality of father-child relationships (Erel & Burman, 1995). However, this meta-analysis did not include studies of the quantity of involvement or amount of time fathers spend with children. Some studies have found that a positive marital relationship is associated with fathers spending a greater amount of time with children or engaging in more caregiving activities (Feldman, Nash, & Aschenbrenner, 1983; Levy-Shiff & Israelashvili, 1998; McBride & Mills, 1993). In contrast, some studies have not found support for an association between the marital relationship and amount of involvement (Grossman et al., 1988; Cowan & Cowan, 1987). Gottman and Katz (1996) found that marital hostility was associated with fathers' negative and domineering parenting behaviors and rejecting behavior towards their 4- to 5-year-old children. Fathers' reactions to deteriorating marriages have been found to include increased coercive parenting towards their children (Crockenberg & Covey, 1992). Brody, Pillegrini, and Sigel (1986) found that, in a sample of 60 Caucasian families, fathers behaved in a more intrusive manner and displayed less positive emotion towards their 5- to 7-yeard-old children during observed interaction tasks as marital relations were more negative. There is also evidence that when marital quality is low, fathers experience emotional withdrawal from their children, not just from

their spouses. Dickstein and Parke (1988) found that fathers' marital satisfaction was a significant predictor of infants' social referencing of fathers; in contrast, maternal marital satisfaction was not a significant predictor of infants' social referencing of mothers. The researchers concluded that fathers who are maritally dissatisfied may not be adequate sources of information for children who are looking for cues to emotional responding in ambiguous or stressful social contexts. There is also some support for an association between marital quality and fathers' discipline. Blair, Wenk, and Hardesty (1994), using data from a large cross-sectional national sample of families with two married parents, observed that increased marital problems predicted fathers' increased spanking, slapping, or yelling at the child and negatively predicted fathers' supportiveness (praising or hugging the child, allowing child to help set rules). Marital adjustment is considered a central determinant of fathers' parenting within two-parent families.

There is little information on the role of extrafamilial factors in determining fathers' parenting. McLoyd (1990) reviewed information available on the impact of economic hardship on families and children. McLoyd concluded that poverty and economic loss diminish the capacity for supportive, consistent, and parenting behaviors and renders parents more vulnerable to effects of negative life events. McLoyd also argued that the link between hardship and parenting behavior can be partially explained by parents' psychological distress resulting from multiple negative life events, chronic stressful life circumstances, and disruption of marital bonds. Finally, McLoyd (1989, 1990) argued that father-child relationships under these conditions depend on the quality of the relationship between mothers and fathers. Thus, there is a need to study the role of

stressful life events in determining fathers' parenting. There is very little empirical work examining such factors as predictors of fathers' parenting.

Rationale for Current Study

There have been very few studies that simultaneously examine various predictors of fathers' parenting. However, fathers' parenting is thought to be multiply determined, as no one factor is likely to determine different components of parenting. Individual and family factors are thought to determine fathers' parenting, including child factors and parent and family psychosocial factors such as parental psychological adjustment, marital relationship, and stressful life events. Although there is evidence for each of the predictors examined in the current study, individual and family factors are not typically examined simultaneously. There is little empirical work on how these factors may operate together in affecting fathers' parenting. For example, more information is needed on how mothers' and fathers' psychological adjustment is associated with their functioning as parents. Research is also needed linking the marital relationship to specific aspects of fathers' parenting in order to understand the mechanisms underlying this association.

Researchers have called for an exploration of the multidimensional nature of fathers' parenting (e.g., Tamis-LeMonda & Cabrera, 1999; Marsiglio, 1995), as a limited number of parenting dimensions has been studied in fathers. The current study includes assessment of the affective nature of the father-child relationship, including warmth/acceptance, harshness/rejection, and positive involvement, as well as consistency of discipline and amount of time spent one-on-one with the child. Thus, the current study is unique in assessing a variety of parenting dimensions.

Fathers are typically underrepresented in clinical child and adolescent research. Therefore, fathers' parenting is frequently studied using mothers' report rather than via direct self-report. The current study obtained information on fathers' parenting directly from fathers. Additionally, few studies have investigated children's reports of parenting by fathers, even when children are of sufficient age to be able to report on fathers' parenting. Children are in a position to provide unique information about their perceptions of fathers' parenting behaviors. The current study included measures of parenting obtained directly from children. Observational measures of fathers' parenting are rarely employed, not only because such measures are often time-consuming to use, but because parenting by mothers is far more frequently studied than parenting by fathers. The current study is unique in that observational ratings of father-child interactions were collected in order to provide further information on fathers' parenting behavior. Thus, the current study includes methodological improvements over previous research.

Finally, research on parenting by fathers rarely includes comparison to parenting by mothers. Such comparison is important for identifying unique contributions of fathers to children's adjustment and to capitalizing on knowledge already accumulated. Some social scientists have taken a position that the biologically different reproductive functions of men and women construct essential differences in parenting (e.g., Blakenhorn, 1995). Mothering and fathering are defined as distinct roles that are not interchangeable. Other social scientists take the stance that fathers are not essential; rather, children simply need a positive connection to at least one caring, responsible adult and the sex of that adult does not matter (Silverstein & Auerbach, 1999). Examination of parenting by both fathers and mothers is critical to understanding the different role each

parent may play in contributing to children's adjustment. Moreover, by studying both parents, information on why parents within and across families adopt different parenting styles may emerge, which is considered a priority in recent parenting research (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Overall, there exists a need to study multiple determinants of a variety of dimensions of fathers' parenting simultaneously, as no one factor is likely to determine fathers' parenting or aspects of parenting.

Specific Aims and Hypotheses

To review, the purpose of the current study is to examine child factors and parental psychosocial factors as predictors of multiple dimensions of fathers' parenting of children of middle childhood age. The current study had several aims. The first aim was to examine the relations between questionnaire and observational measures of parenting dimensions for fathers. The second aim was to compare the parenting of mothers and fathers as assessed through multiple methods. Fathers and mothers may report different patterns of parenting; for example, mothers and fathers might be expected to report that mothers spend a greater amount of time with children than fathers spend with children (Pleck, 1997). The third aim was to examine child gender, child age, parental education, parental depression, martial satisfaction, parents' history of problems, stressful life events, and income as predictors of multiple dimensions of fathers' parenting. Differences in the patterns of these associations for fathers' and mothers' parenting were examined. Finally, individual and family factors were examined simultaneously in relation to parenting.

In order to accomplish these aims, the current study included information gathered directly from fathers, mothers, and children of middle childhood age on multiple

aspects of fathers' and mothers' parenting. Parenting dimensions of warmth/acceptance, harshness/rejection, inconsistent discipline, and amount of time spent with child were investigated. This multidimensional conceptualization of fathers' parenting allowed for comparison of fathers and mothers on a range of parenting dimensions. Parenting was assessed using fathers,' mothers,' and children's reports of parenting on questionnaire measures. Parenting was also assessed using observational ratings of semi-structured, parent-child dyadic interaction tasks. Although reports on questionnaire measures may include reporter bias and other measurement problems, they also provide a perspective on parents' and children's perceptions of parent-child relations. Although parent and child questionnaire measures of warmth and involvement seem to be fairly reliable (Reitman & Gross, 1997), parents' warmth, rejection, and involvement may also be communicated in subtle ways during parent-child interactions (Carton & Carton, 1998). Hence, an interaction-based observational measure, along with the questionnaire measures, is useful in assessing parenting. Observational measures may be limited in that they reflect behavior in a specific, highly structured situation; however, they provide a relatively objective assessment of parents' and children's behaviors. Thus, both approaches are believed to provide useful information. The use of both questionnaire and observational methods to assess parenting allowed issues of reporter bias and shared method variance to be addressed. In addition, both fathers and mothers reported on their own depression and martial satisfaction. Fathers and mothers also reported on the presence of absence of a history of problems such as alcohol or substance abuse and legal problems for themselves and their spouse. Fathers and mothers reported on the number of negative life events that had occurred in the previous year.

Individual factors may account for the relation between family factors and parenting. That is, the effects of family factors on parenting may be indirect. This means that stressful life events, for example, may affect parenting indirectly by affecting parental depression, which in turn directly affects parenting (e.g. McLoyd, 1990). Identifying possible mechanisms through which parents adopt a particular parenting style has been targeted as important in recent reviews of parenting research (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Specific hypotheses of the study were:

1). Child gender and age were expected to relate to fathers' parenting. Specifically, fathers were expected to demonstrate higher levels of involvement with male children. Child gender was not expected to relate to the affective nature of fathers' parenting or consistency of discipline. Child age was expected to be negatively associated with fathers' involvement. Fathers were expected to display lower levels of involvement with older children. Child age was not expected to relate to other aspects of fathers' parenting.

2). Fathers' depression was expected to negatively relate to the affective nature of fathers' parenting. Increased depression was expected to relate to less warmth and greater rejection by fathers. Similarly, increased depression was expected to relate to higher levels of inconsistency of discipline, less involvement, and less time spent with the child.

3). Mothers' depression was expected to relate to fathers' parenting dimensions of warmth and rejection. Specifically, higher levels of maternal depression were expected to relate to higher levels of warmth and lower levels of rejection by fathers

based on previous research suggesting fathers may attempt to mitigate the adverse effect of maternal depression on mothers' parenting.

4). Higher levels of marital satisfaction were expected to positively relate to fathers' parenting dimensions of warmth, involvement, and time spent and negatively relate to fathers' parenting dimensions of rejection and inconsistency of discipline. Lower levels of marital satisfaction were expected to relate to lower levels of warmth/acceptance, involvement, and time spent with the child and higher levels of rejection/harshness and inconsistency of discipline.

5). Stressful negative life events were expected to negatively relate to fathers' parenting dimensions of warmth and involvement and positively relate to fathers' parenting dimensions of rejection and inconsistency of discipline.

Method

Participants

The participants in the current study were participants in a larger ongoing longitudinal study investigating interactions among child temperament, parenting, and neighborhood variables in relation to children's adjustment. Participants were recruited through the children's public school classrooms. Schools were selected for recruitment to represent a variety of sociodemographic characteristics of the Seattle, Washington urban area. Information forms were sent home with children. Parents were asked to indicate their interest in participating and return the form to their children's classroom. If the flyers were returned to school indicating interest in participating, the family was contacted by phone and further informed of the nature of the study. One child in the target grades per family was asked to participate, and if there was more than one child in the target grades, one child was randomly selected to participate. Children with developmental disabilities and families who were not fluent in English were excluded from the study so as to ensure adequate comprehension of the questionnaires used in this study. A female primary caregiver was required to participate; a residential male primary caregiver's participation was optional. Only data from the interviews of families in which both male and female caregivers participated were used in order to include information obtained directly from male caregivers.

The larger study included a community sample of 214 third through fifth grade children and their female primary caregivers. The sample included 18% African American children, 1% Asian American, children 2% Hispanic children, 65% European American or white children, 2% Native American or Eskimo children, and 12% children

of other or multiple ethnic or racial backgrounds. Fifty-six percent of the children were female. Two hundred and one (93.9%) of the female caregivers were biological mothers; 8 (3.7%) were adoptive mothers, 4 (1.9%) were grandmothers, and 1 (0.5%) was a great aunt. Seventy percent (N=149) of the sample consisted of two parent families; 133 were biological (or adoptive) married parents, 6 included a stepfather, and 10 were partners living together. Among the two-parent families, 55% of the second parents participated (n=82), including two female second parents. Thirty percent of the sample consisted of single parent families maintained by mothers; including 30 who were divorced, 20 who had never been married, 12 who were married but separated, and 3 who were widowed. Median family income was $61,000 to $70,000 and ranged from less than $10,000 to above $100,000. Twenty percent of the families reported an average annual income of less than $30,000 and 16% of the families reported an average annual income of above $100,000.

The sample for the current study included the families in which a second male biological parent participated and complete data were available. Two families were excluded from analyses due to missing data. The final sample (N=72) included 4% African American children, 82% European American or white children, and 14% children with other or multiple ethnic or racial backgrounds. Fifty-five percent of the children were female. A total of 72 families were included in the main analyses for the current study. All but two of the families included both biological parents; the other two families included parents who had adopted the child at birth. Ninety eight percent of the male caregivers were married to the child's mother. Median family income was $81,000 to $90,000 and ranged from less than $10,000 to above $100,000. Five percent of the

families reported an average annual income of less than $30,000 and 19% of the families reported an average annual income of above $100,000. Fourteen of the families reported that they were single-earner families, with mothers as homemakers.

Procedure

Data were collected using structured, scripted 2 ½ hour interviews that were conducted in the families' homes. Although families were participants in a longitudinal study, the current study included only the data collected at the first time point. After confidentiality was explained, mothers and fathers signed informed consent forms, and children signed assent forms. The assent forms indicated that children's responses would not be shared with their parents unless there was concern about child safety (i.e., high level of depression, suicidal ideation, or child abuse). Mothers and children were administered two semi-structured interactions tasks that were videotaped. Subsequently, fathers and children were administered the same two tasks, which were also videotaped. Due to the larger study protocol, mother-child interactions were always conducted before father-child interactions for all families. Interviewers conducted live behavioral coding of these interactions. Trained interviewers then conducted separate, simultaneous interviews with mothers, fathers, and children in different rooms (when possible) to ensure the privacy of their responses. All questionnaire measures were administered using structured interviews with interviewers reading scripted instructions and all items on the questionnaires to the participants. All questionnaire responses were in discrete, multiple-choice format. Families received monetary compensation for participating in the interviews ($50). Trained, undergraduate research assistants subsequently coded videotapes of the interaction tasks using a more comprehensive coding system.

Measures

Sociodemographic variables including child's gender, child's age, child's ethnic or racial minority status, parents' level of education, and family income were obtained from both parents using a structured questionnaire. Child gender was coded such that 1 = female and 2 = male. Level of parental education was coded such that 1 = less than eighth grade, 2 = eighth grade, 3 = some high school, 4 = high school graduate, 5 = some college, 6 = technical/professional school, 7 = college/university graduate, 8 = some graduate school, 9 = masters degree, and 10 = JD, MD, or Ph.D. Average annual income from all sources was coded such that 1 = less than $10,000, 2 = $10,000 - $20,000, 3 = $21,000 - $30,000, 4 = $31,000 - $40,000, 5 = $41,000 - $50,000, 6 = $51,000 - $60,000, 7 = $61,000 - $70,000, 8 = $71,000 - $80,000, 9 = $81,000 - $90,000, 10 = $91,000 - $100,000 and 11 = above $100,000.

Psychosocial variables included parental depression, history of problems, marital satisfaction, and stressful life events. Parental depression was assessed using fathers' and mothers' reports of their own depression over the previous month using the Center for Epidemiological Studies–Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977). The CES-D is a widely used 20-item self-report scale designed to measure depressive symptoms in the general population. Participants responded using a 4-point scale to indicate whether each item is "never," "rarely" "sometimes," or "often" like the person. A depression score was derived by totaling the parent's responses on this scale. Higher scores indicated higher levels of depression. Alpha for this scale in the present study was .86 for fathers and .89 for mothers. Parent history of problems was obtained using fathers' and mothers' reports of the presence or absence of (0=no, 1=yes) of mental illness, depression, alcohol or drug

problems, and legal problems or arrest in his or her lifetime. These were summed to obtain the number of problems present for each parent. Martial satisfaction was measured using the Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) developed by Locke and Wallace (1959). The Locke-Wallace MAT is a highly reliable and valid measure used to index marital satisfaction (Burgess, Locke & Thomes, 1971). Both fathers' and mothers' reports of martial satisfaction were obtained. The correlation between fathers' and mothers' reports of marital satisfaction was significant (r=.55, p<.01). Stressful life events were assessed using the General Life Events Schedule for Children to indicate family stress (Sandler, Ramirez, & Reynolds, 1986). Fathers and mothers responded to 29 items regarding whether the event had occurred in the child's life within the past year. Items included questions such as whether the parents lost a job, whether a change in residence occurred, or whether a close friend or family member was injured or ill. Each parent's report of negative life events was scored as the total number of events that had occurred within the past year. The correlation between mothers' and fathers' report of negative life events was significant (r=.40, p<.01). The negative life events score was the average of mothers' and fathers' reports.

Parenting variables were assessed using multiple methods to address issues of shared method variance and reporter bias on the observed associations. Questionnaire measures included dimensions of acceptance, rejection, inconsistent discipline, and involvement, measured using parent and child report questionnaires. Amount of time spent one-on-one with the child was measured using parents' reports. Fathers and children reported on fathers' parenting, and mothers and children reported on mothers' parenting. Parents were not asked to report on the parenting of the other parent.

Measures included parent and child report on Child Report of Parenting Behavior Inventory (CRPBI, Schaefer 1965; Teleki, Powell & Doddler, 1982). The CRPBI was originally developed as a child-report measure of children's perception of their parents. The items were reworded for parent report. Children and parents reported on parental acceptance (10 items and 16 items, respectively), parental rejection (8 items and 16 items, respectively) and parental inconsistency of discipline (8 items for both). Participants responded using a 5-point scale to indicate whether each item is "never," "rarely" "sometimes," "often" or "always" like the parent. Alphas for child-report of fathers' acceptance, rejection, and inconsistent discipline were .89, .81, and .80, respectively. Alphas for fathers' self-report of acceptance, rejection, and inconsistent discipline were .85, .80, and .86, respectively. Alphas for child-report of mothers' acceptance, rejection, and inconsistent discipline were .88, .78, and .71, respectively. Alphas for mothers' self-report of acceptance, rejection, and inconsistent discipline were .86, .79, and .84, respectively. Parent report (10 items) and child report (7 items) on the involvement subscale of the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire were also obtained (APQ; Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996). The response options are similar to that of the CRPBI. Alphas for children's report and fathers' self-report of involvement were .75 and .75, respectively. Alphas for children's report and mothers' self-report of involvement were .70 and .76, respectively. Questionnaire measures also included the Time Spent Questionnaire (TSQ, Long , Kovacs, & Lengua, unpublished manuscript), which assess the amount of time each parent spends with the child (without the other spouse present) on a typical weekday and weekend. Children were not asked to report on the amount of time parents spend one-on-one with them. Fathers and mothers were each asked to report on themselves as well as their spouse.

A copy of this measure is included in Appendix A. Each parent was provided with a visual aide to assist him or her in making this estimate. Previous research (Kovacs, Long, & Lengua, unpublished manuscript) on this measure indicates that fathers and mothers disagree about the amount of time fathers (but not mothers) spend alone with the child on a typical weekday and a typical weekend. Therefore, each parents' report of the amount of time he/she spent alone with the child (without the other spouse present) on a typical weekday and weekend was used rather than attempting to combine reports.

Observational measures of parenting data were obtained based on ratings of parents' and children's behavior in two semi-structured interaction tasks that were each 5 minutes long. In the first task, the parent and child were asked to imagine and plan a day off together and in the second task to try to make progress on a family issue. Videotaped father-child and mother-child interactions were used to measure parenting dimensions of warmth/acceptance, positive involvement, harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior. The tasks elicited a wide range of positive and negative behaviors from parents and children. Mother-child interactions were conducted first, followed by identical interactions for fathers and children. The script and instructions for these tasks are included in Appendix B.

An adapted version of the Parent-Child Interaction Task coding system (PCIT; Antony, Nelson & McMahon, 1996) was used to code the parent-child interactions for both live coding and for coding of videotapes. This scale was developed for the FAST Track project, and was based in part on the Oregon Social Learning Center's Lab Task Impressions Rating Scale for 5th graders (Rusby, Estes, & Dishion, 1991). In the PCIT, standardized interaction tasks are administered to the parent and child, and certain

communication behaviors are observed and coded. In addition to the communication items on the PCIT, the coder's overall impression of parental acceptance/warmth and harshness was included as a Likert Scale item (as per Carton & Norwicki, 1996). The criteria for live coders are included in Appendix C. Appendix D contains the criteria for coders making ratings from videotapes. Appendix D also contains a complete definition of target behaviors and for both live and video coding. Inter-rater percent agreement for individual items on the PCIT has been found to range from .78 to 1.00 in past samples.

Ratings of children's and parents' behavior were gathered in two ways. First, interviewers conducted *live* coding of two mother-child and two father-child interaction tasks, for a total of 20 minutes. *Live* coding ratings were not reliable and were discarded.

Observational data were also collected through *video* coding of these same semi-structured parent-child interaction tasks. Observational ratings of parents' warmth/acceptance, positive involvement, harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior were made from videotapes. Additionally, parents' behaviors of verbal and nonverbal praise of the child, asking for the child's input or opinion, and parents' and children's behaviors of expressing feelings appropriately, display of negative or positive physical contact, and laughter/humor were also rated through the video coding. These ratings were not used in the current analyses due to insufficient reliability. See Appendix D for complete descriptions of target behaviors.

Undergraduate research assistants were trained to conduct coding of the videotaped interactions. These individuals were unaware of the parents' level of education, parents' level of depression, parents' history of problems, marital satisfaction, stressful life events. Coders did not code parents from the same family. Reliability was

established by having two coders independently score approximately 20 percent of the videotaped interactions.

Intraclass correlations were used to obtain estimates of reliability. The overall warmth rating for fathers had an intraclass correlation of .88 across two raters. The overall positive involvement rating for fathers had an intraclass correlation of .94 across two raters. The overall harshness rating for fathers had an intraclass correlation of .90 across two raters. The overall negative involvement rating for fathers had an intraclass correlation of .82 across two raters. The count of hostile behaviors across both tasks had an intraclass correlation of .81 across two raters.

The overall warmth rating for mothers had an intraclass correlation of .83 across two raters. The overall positive involvement rating for mothers had an intraclass correlation of .81 across two raters. Sufficient agreement was not achieved for ratings of maternal harshness (.42), negative involvement, (.46) and count of hostile behavior (.18) across two raters. Thus these ratings of mothers' parenting were not used in the current analyses and the discrepancy between ratings of fathers and mothers is attributed to measurement error.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics for predictor variables are presented in Table 1. Descriptive statistics for questionnaire and observational measures of parenting variables are presented in Table 2. The zero-order correlations among all predictor variables are presented in Table 3. Fathers' and mothers' levels of education were significantly positively associated (r=.41, p<.01). Fathers' and mothers' self-reports of depression were not significantly associated. There was a trend towards a positive association between fathers' and mothers self-reports of history of the problems (e.g., presence or absence of mental illness, depression, alcohol or drug problems, and legal problems or arrest in the parent's lifetime) although the association was not significant (r=.20, p<.10).

Fathers' and mothers' reports of their own marital satisfaction were significantly and moderately positively associated (r=.55, p<.01). There was a trend towards a negative association between fathers' marital satisfaction and fathers' self report of depression although the association was not significant. Fathers' marital satisfaction was not significantly related to mothers' report of depression. Fathers' martial satisfaction was significantly and negatively associated with maternal history of problems but not with paternal history of problems. For mothers, marital satisfaction was significantly and negatively associated with self-report of depression. There was a trend towards a negative association between mothers' marital satisfaction and fathers' depression, although the association was not significant. Mothers' martial satisfaction was significantly and negatively associated with both maternal and paternal history of problems.

As shown in Table 3, the number of stressful life events that occurred over the past year was significantly and positively associated with maternal depression (r=.37, p<.01) but was not significantly associated with fathers' depression. The number of stressful life events that occurred over the past year was significantly and negatively associated with both paternal (r=-.39, p<.01) and maternal marital satisfaction (r=-.25, p<.05). Income was significantly positively related to both fathers' and mothers' level of education (r=-.26 and .31, p<.05, respectively). Income was negatively related to maternal depression (r= -.33, p<.05) but not paternal depression. Income was positively related to maternal marital satisfaction (r=-.29, p<.05) but not paternal marital satisfaction.

The zero-order correlations among measures of parenting for fathers are presented in Table 4. Correlations were calculated to evaluate convergence between reporters. There was a trend towards a positive association between father and child report of paternal acceptance, although the association was not significant. There was a trend towards a positive association between father and child report of rejection, although the association was not significant. Father and child report of inconsistency discipline were not significantly correlated. Father and child report of involvement were significantly correlated. Fathers' report of the amount of time spent one-on-one with the child was not significantly correlated with other questionnaire measures of parenting. Correlations were calculated to evaluate convergence between questionnaire and observational methods of assessing parenting for fathers. There was a trend towards an association between observational ratings of warmth and father report of acceptance and father report of rejection, although the association was not significant (r=.23, p<.10, for both).

Observational ratings of positive involvement were not significantly associated with questionnaire measures of fathers' parenting. Ratings of fathers' warmth and positive involvement were significantly and strongly correlated. There was a trend towards a positive association between observational ratings of harshness and fathers' report of rejection although the trend was not significant. Observational ratings of negative involvement were significantly and positively associated with fathers' report of rejection. Observational ratings of the count of fathers' hostile behavior towards the child were significantly correlated with father report of rejection. There was a trend towards a positive association between observational ratings of the count of fathers' hostile behavior towards the child and child report of inconsistent discipline although the association was not significant. Observational ratings of harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior were significantly positively associated with each other and negatively associated with ratings of warmth.

The zero-order correlations among measures of parenting for mothers are presented in Table 5. Correlations were calculated to evaluate convergence between reporters. There was a trend towards a positive association between mother and child report of maternal acceptance, although the association was not significant. There was a trend towards an association between mother and child report of parental rejection, although the association was not significant. Mother and child report of inconsistent discipline were significantly positively correlated, as were mother and child report of involvement. Mothers' report of the amount of time spent alone with the child was negatively correlated with mothers' report of rejection. Correlations were calculated to evaluate convergence between questionnaire and observational methods of assessing

parenting for mothers. Observational ratings of warmth were significantly associated with child report of acceptance, rejection, and involvement but not inconsistency of discipline. Observational ratings of warmth were not significantly correlated with mothers' self-report of any parenting dimension. Observational ratings of positive involvement were significantly associated with child report of acceptance, rejection, and involvement but not inconsistent discipline. There was a trend towards an association between observational ratings of positive involvement and mother report of acceptance, although the association was not significant. Observational ratings of maternal warmth and positive involvement were significantly correlated. Observational ratings of harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior were not used in analyses, as sufficient reliability was not achieved.

In order to evaluate whether paternal and maternal parenting variables were significantly different, paired samples t-tests were calculated for each variable. A Bonferonni correction was used to control for inflated alpha, with $\alpha = .0045$ for each comparison ($\alpha = .05/11$). Using this procedure, four significant differences were found between fathers' and mothers' parenting. Among parent-report measures, mothers reported greater acceptance towards children than did fathers ($t = 4.58$, $p < .0001$). No significant difference was found between fathers' and mothers' self report of rejection or inconsistency of discipline. Mothers reported spending significantly more time with children ($t = 22.16$, $p < .000001$), and mothers reported themselves to be more involved than did fathers ($t = 5.13$, $p < .00001$). Among child-report measures, children reported higher levels of involvement by mothers than fathers ($t = 6.49$, $p < .000001$). No significant differences were found between child report of acceptance, rejection, and

inconsistency of discipline. Among observational measures, no significant differences were found between ratings of warmth and positive involvement for fathers and mothers. Because observational ratings of maternal harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior were not reliable, comparison to observational ratings of fathers was not conducted.

A summary of the zero-order correlations between predictor variables and acceptance and rejection by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 6. A summary of the zero-order correlations between predictor variables and inconsistency of discipline and involvement by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 7 and for amount of time spent one-one-one with the child is presented in Table 8. A summary of the zero-order correlations between predictor variables observational measures of warmth and positive involvement for fathers and mothers is presented in Table 9 and for harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior for fathers is presented in Table 10.

Prediction of Parenting

Questionnaire measures of parenting. Multiple linear regression analyses were used to evaluate whether child factors (age, child gender) parent factors (paternal depression, maternal depression, paternal history of problems, maternal history of problems, paternal education, and maternal education) and family factors (paternal marital satisfaction, maternal marital satisfaction, number of stressful life events, and average annual income) significantly predicted questionnaire (child and parent report) measures of parenting. All predictors within a set were entered in one step and regressed on each parenting variable. Identical analyses were conducted for child factors, parental factors, and family factors, with each set of predictors regressed on each of the paternal

and maternal parenting variables. The only exception was that of observational ratings of maternal harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior, which were excluded, as these ratings were not sufficiently reliable. Thus, separate regressions were conducted for child factors, parental factors, and family factors. All predictors could not be entered simultaneously due to insufficient power.

A summary of the results of regression analyses testing the association between the sets of predictor variables and CRPBI acceptance by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 11. Child factors were not significantly associated with any of these variables. Parental factors were not significantly related to either child or father report of acceptance. For mothers, there was a trend towards a negative association between maternal history of problems and mothers' self-report of acceptance although the association was not significant. Family factors were not significantly related to either child or father report of acceptance. For mothers, fathers' self-report of marital satisfaction significantly and positively predicted mothers' report of acceptance.

A summary of the results of regression analyses testing the association between the sets of predictor variables and CRPBI rejection by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 12. Child factors were not significantly associated with rejection by fathers. There was a trend towards an association between child gender and child report of rejection by mothers such that higher levels of rejection were associated with male gender although the association was not significant. Among parental factors, fathers' self-report of depression was significantly and positively associated with fathers' report of rejection. There was a trend towards an association between fathers' level of education and child report of fathers' rejection such that such that higher levels of education were related to

less rejection although the association was not significant. For mother, parental factors did not significantly predict rejection. Among family factors, fathers' marital satisfaction was significantly associated with fathers' report of rejection such that less satisfaction was associated with higher levels of rejection. Average annual income was significantly and negatively associated with child report of father rejection; higher income was related to less rejection. For mothers, self-report of marital satisfaction was significantly and negatively related to child report of rejection; less satisfaction was associated with higher levels of rejection. There was trend towards a negative association between average annual income and child report of mother rejection although the association was not significant.

A summary of the results of regression analyses testing the association between the sets of predictor variables and CRPBI inconsistency of discipline by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 13. Child factors did not significantly predict either father or mother inconsistency of discipline. Among parental factors, fathers' self-report of depression and maternal education were significantly and positively associated with inconsistency of discipline. For mothers, mothers' self-report of depression was significantly and positively associated with mothers' report of inconsistency of discipline. Among family factors, there was a trend towards a negative association between fathers' marital satisfaction and father report of inconsistency of discipline such that less satisfaction was related to less consistency of discipline although the association was not significant. For mothers, the number of stressful life events was significantly and positively associated with mother report of inconsistency of discipline; higher levels of stress were related to less consistency of discipline.

A summary of the results of regression analyses testing the association between the sets of predictor variables and APQ involvement by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 14. Child factors were not significantly associated with father involvement. For mothers, child age was negatively associated with mothers' report of involvement; older age was associated with less involvement. Among parental factors, no significant associations were observed for fathers. For mothers, maternal history of problems was significantly and negatively associated with both child and mother report of involvement; higher levels of past problems were associated with lower levels of involvement. Maternal education was negatively related to mothers' report of involvement; higher education was associated with less involvement. Family factors did not significantly predict either father or mother involvement.

A summary of the results of regression analyses testing the association between the sets of predictor variables and TSQ amount of time spent one-on-one with the child by fathers and mothers is presented in Table 15. Child factors were not significantly associated with the amount of time spent for either fathers or mothers. Among parental factors, fathers' level of education was significantly and negatively associated with time spent such that higher level of education was related to less time spent. Additionally, maternal history of problems was significantly and positively associated with time spent for fathers. That is, a higher number of maternal problems were associated with fathers' spending greater amounts of time one-on-one with their children. For mothers, parental factors were not significantly associated with amount of time spent one-on-one with their children. Family factors were not significantly associated with the amount of time spent one-on-one with children for either fathers or mothers.

Observational measures of parenting. Multiple linear regression analyses were used to evaluate whether child factors (age, child gender) parent factors (paternal depression, maternal depression, paternal history of problems, maternal history of problems, paternal education, and maternal education) and family factors (paternal marital satisfaction, maternal marital satisfaction, number of stressful life events, and average annual income) significantly predicted observational measures of parenting. Regressions were conducted for ratings of warmth and positive involvement for both fathers and mothers. Regressions for ratings of harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior were conducted for fathers but not mothers due to the insufficient reliability of these ratings for mothers. Regressions were conducted using the same procedure as for questionnaire measures.

A summary of the results for observational ratings of warmth for fathers and mothers is presented in Table 16. Among child factors, child age was negatively associated with ratings of fathers' warmth at the trend level such that older age was related to less observed warmth. For mothers, child factors were not significantly associated with ratings of warmth. Parental factors were not significantly associated with fathers' warmth. For mothers, paternal history of problems was significantly and positively associated with warmth such that higher number of paternal problems related to higher levels of warmth. For mothers, paternal education was positively associated with warmth such that higher paternal education predicted higher levels of warmth for mothers. Among family factors, there was a trend towards a positive association between maternal marital satisfaction and fathers' warmth although the trend was not significant. The number of stressful life events was significantly and negatively associated with

fathers' warmth; higher levels of stress were related to less warmth. For mothers, self-report of marital satisfaction was significantly and positively associated with ratings of warmth.

A summary of the results for observational ratings of positive involvement for fathers and mothers is also presented in Table 16. Among child factors, no significant associations were observed for either fathers or mothers. Among parental factors, no significant associations were observed for ratings of positive involvement by fathers. For mothers, self-report of depression was significantly and negatively associated with positive involvement; higher levels of depression were associated with lower levels of positive involvement. For mothers, paternal history of problems was significantly and positively associated with positive involvement. Also for mothers there was a trend towards a positive association between paternal education and maternal positive involvement although the trend was not significant. Among family factors, maternal marital satisfaction was significantly and positively associated with fathers' positive involvement; higher levels of maternal marital satisfaction predicted higher levels of fathers' positive involvement. For mother, self-report of marital satisfaction was significantly and positively associated with positive involvement such that higher levels of maternal satisfaction were associated with higher levels of positive involvement.

A summary of the results for observational ratings of fathers' harshness, negative involvement, and hostile behavior are presented in Table 17. Again, because observational ratings of mothers for these variables were not reliable, regression analyses were not conducted. Child factors, parental factors, and family factors were not significantly associated with harshness, negative behavior, or hostile behavior.

Inspection of the standardized regression coefficients suggests that, given a larger sample size and increased power, paternal level of education and paternal marital satisfaction may each inversely relate to harshness, negative involvement and hostile behavior. However, no significant associations were observed in the current study.

Examination of unique effects across category of predictor. Based on the results of the regressions testing child, parent, and family factors as predictors of the parenting variables, predictors were selected for a second set of regressions. Child, parent, or family predictors which emerged as significantly associated (or a trend towards an association) with more than one parenting variable were identified and entered in one step and regressed on each parenting variable. Thus, the variables selected for fathers were: current depression, level of education, paternal marital satisfaction, and maternal marital satisfaction. The variables selected for mothers were: current depression, maternal history of problems, maternal marital satisfaction, paternal education, and paternal history of problems.

A summary of the results of the regressions testing the associations of predictors in relation to father parenting variables of acceptance, rejection, inconsistency of discipline, and involvement for both child and father report are presented in Table 18. A summary of the results of the regressions testing the associations of the predictors in relation to time spent, positive involvement, warmth, negative involvement, harshness, and inappropriate behavior is presented in Table 19. Paternal depression uniquely and significantly predicted father report of rejection and father report of inconsistency of discipline. Paternal education uniquely and positively predicted amount of time spent and negatively predicted inappropriate behavior and negative involvement. Paternal

marital satisfaction uniquely and negatively predicted father report of rejection. Maternal marital satisfaction uniquely predicted ratings of fathers' warmth.

A summary of the results of the regressions testing the associations of the predictors in relation to mother parenting variables of acceptance, rejection, inconsistency of discipline, and involvement for both child and mother report are presented in Table 20. A summary of the results of the regressions testing the associations of the predictors in relation to time spent, positive involvement, and warmth is presented in Table 21. Maternal depression uniquely predicted mother report of inconsistency of discipline and involvement. Maternal history of problems uniquely and negatively predicted mother report of involvement. Paternal history of problems uniquely and positively predicted ratings of maternal warmth and positive involvement. Paternal education uniquely and negatively predicted mother report of acceptance and positively predicted ratings of maternal warmth. Maternal marital satisfaction uniquely and positively predicted mother report of acceptance, negatively predicted child report of rejection, and positively predicted mother report of involvement. Maternal marital satisfaction also uniquely and positively predicted ratings of positive involvement.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for predictor variables

	Mean	SD	Range
Child gender	N.A.	--	--
Child age	10.07	0.88	8.47-11.63
Paternal depression	15.04	7.47	1.00-35.00
Maternal depression	15.71	8.74	2.00-38.00
Paternal history of problems	0.85	0.92	0-3.00
Maternal history of problems	0.80	0.82	0-3.00
Paternal education	7.60	1.80	4.00-10.00
Maternal education	7.63	1.56	3.00-10.00
Paternal marital satisfaction	109.70	23.01	49.00-147.00
Maternal marital satisfaction	110.89	24.28	17.00-150.00
Number of stressful life events	6.15	1.97	1.50-11.00
Average annual income	8.14	2.53	1.00-12.00

Note: N.A. = Not Applicable

Table 2

Descriptive statistics for parenting variables

	Mothers			Fathers		
	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD	Range
Questionnaire Measures						
CRPBI Acceptance (Child)	32.76	6.33	5-40.00	31.99	6.84	8-40.00
CRPBI Acceptance (Parent)	53.23	6.46	41-64.00	49.18	6.85	23-63.00
CRPBI Rejection (Child)	5.58	4.32	0-17.00	5.78	4.58	0-23.00
CRPBI Rejection (Parent)	14.84	5.58	4-32.00	15.07	5.84	2-30.00
CRPBI Inconsistent Discipline (Child)	8.22	4.87	0-21.00	7.99	5.45	0-24.00
CRPBI Inconsistent Discipline (Parent)	7.10	4.21	0-17.00	7.73	4.31	0-18.00
APQ Involvement (Child)	19.35	4.52	10-28.00	16.80	5.00	3-28.00
APQ Involvement (Parent)	31.42	4.75	18-40.00	27.85	4.62	18-39.00
TSQ Time Spent (Parent)	30.22	7.14	18.34-54.00	6.56	5.66	0-31.75
Observational Measures						
Positive Involvement	1.82	0.49	0.50-3.00	1.69	0.51	0-2.50
Negative Involvement	NR	--	--	0.91	0.93	0-3.00
Warmth/Acceptance	2.07	0.78	0-3.00	1.86	0.70	0-3.00
Harshness	NR	--	--	0.94	0.87	0-3.00
Hostile Behavior Count	NR	--	--	2.31	2.61	0-10.00

Note: NR = Not reliable

Table 3

Summary of correlations among predictor variables

Variables:	1 r	2 r	3 r	4 r	5 r	6 r	7 r	8 r	9 r	10 r	11 r
1. Child age	--										
2. Paternal depression	.02	--									
3. Maternal depression	.00	.02	--								
4. Paternal history of problems	-.05	.21^{t}	.12	--							
5. Maternal history of problems	-.03	.33*	.40*	.20^{t}	--						
6. Paternal education	-.22^{t}	-.17	-.12	-.22	-.12	--					
7. Maternal education	-.10	.04	-.32*	-.31*	-.09	.41*	--				
8. Paternal marital satisfaction	-.08	-.19^{t}	-.11	-.33*	-.14	.11	.14	--			
9. Maternal marital satisfaction	-.12	-.20^{t}	-.45*	-.32*	-.34*	.29*	.17	.55*	--		
10. Number of stressful life events	.27*	.08	.37*	.12	.33*	-.30*	-.39*	-.30*	-.25*	--	
11. Average annual income	-.23*	.05	-.33*	-.15	-.10	.26*	.31*	.09	.29*	-.27*	--

$^{t}p<.10$,*$p<.05$

Table 4

Summary of correlations among questionnaire and observational measures of father parenting variables

Variables:	1 r	2 r	3 r	4 r	5 r	6 r	7 r	8 r	9 r	10 r	11 r	12 r	13 r
1. CRPBI Acceptance–CR	--												
2. CRPBI Acceptance-FR	.22^{t}	--											
3. CRPBI Rejection-CR	-.51*	-.25*	--										
4. CRPBI Rejection-FR	-.08	-.41*	.19^{t}	--									
5. CRPBI Incon. Disc.-CR	-.16	-.06	.42*	.19	--								
6. CRPBI Incon. Disc.-FR	.04	-.10	-.04	.57*	.16	--							
7. APQ Involvement-CR	.69*	.21^{t}	-.44*	-.02	-.17	.06	--						
8. APQ Involvement-FR	.19	.58*	-.18	-.08	.00	-.12	.33*	--					
9. TSQ Time Spent-FR	-.15	.15	-.08	.02	-.17	-.04	.04	.14	--				
10. Warmth Rating	.03	.23^{t}	-.06	-.23^{t}	.14	-.12	.02	.19	-.04	--			
11. Positive Inv. Rating	-.01	.10	-.07	.01	-.04	.14	.10	-.01	-.05	.69*	--		
12. Harshness Rating	-.04	-.18	-.00	.21^{t}	.04	.16	-.07	-.11	-.02	-.42*	-.29*	--	
13. Negative Inv. Rating	-.14	-.09	.02	.27*	.15	.19	-.12	.04	.07	-.25*	-.13	.85*	--
14. Hostile Behavior Count	-.11	-.10	-.02	.27*	.09	.20^{t}	-.10	-.02	.04	-.24*	-.10	.87*	.95*

$^{t}p<.10$,*$p<.05$ Note: CR=Child Report, FR=Father Report

Table 5

Summary of correlations among questionnaire and observational measures of mother parenting variables

Variables:	1 r	2 r	3 r	4 r	5 r	6 r	7 r	8 r	9 r	10 r	11 r
1. CRPBI Acceptance–CR	--										
2. CRPBI Acceptance-MR	23*	--									
3. CRPBI Rejection-CR	-.47*	-.44*	--								
4. CRPBI Rejection-MR	.01	-.55*	.21^{t}	--							
5. CRPBI Incon. Disc.-CR	-.17	-.23*	.55*	.22^{t}	--						
6. CRPBI Incon. Disc.-MR	-.09	-.23*	.29*	.45*	.33*	--					
7. APQ Involvement-CR	.57*	.20	-.47*	-.03	-.05	-.12	--				
8. APQ Involvement-MR	.20^{t}	.56*	-.31*	-.23*	-.20^{t}	-.13	.27*	--			
9. TSQ Time Spent-MR	.02	.20^{t}	-.10	-.24*	-.08	-.04	.00	.14	--		
10. Warmth Rating	.32*	.10	-.26*	-.15	-.09	-.14	.23*	.04	.15	--	
11. Positive Inv. Rating	.46*	.21^{t}	-.38*	-.21^{t}	-.10	-.11	.27*	.07	.02	.74*	--

$^{t}p<.10$, $*p<.05$

Note: CR=Child Report, MR=Mother Report

Table 6

Summary of zero-order correlations between predictor and parenting variables for acceptance and rejection

	Acceptance				**Rejection**			
	Fathers		Mothers		Fathers		Mothers	
	CR	FR	CR	MR	CR	FR	CR	MR
Predictors:	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r
Child age	.04	-.08	.13	.00	-.04	.17	-.05	.04
Paternal depression	-.01	-.14	-.07	.07	-.06	**.38***	-.09	-.04
Maternal depression	-.03	-.01	-.03	.02	.02	-.12	.13	**.25***
Paternal history of problems	.00	.12	.05	.01	.04	.05	.11	.08
Maternal history of problems	-.18	-.12	-.12	**-.20^{t}**	.06	.05	.17	**.21^{t}**
Paternal education	.15	-.01	.10	**-.23***	**-.19^{t}**	-.06	-.14	.08
Maternal education	-.02	.04	-.05	-.15	.01	.04	-.06	.03
Paternal marital satisfaction	.10	**.20^{t}**	.10	**.37***	-.11	**-.35***	-.15	-.17
Maternal marital satisfaction	**.20^{t}**	.18	.16	**.28***	**-.23***	**-.19^{t}**	**-.35***	**-.21^{t}**
Number of stressful life events	-.05	-.13	-.03	-.04	-.03	.09	.02	.16
Average annual income	.15	.01	-.07	-.07	-.18	.15	-.05	-.09

N=76
$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$

Note: Values are standardized correlation coefficients. CR=Child Report, FR=Father Report, MR=Mother Report

Table 7

Summary of zero-order correlations between predictor and parenting variables for inconsistent discipline and involvement

	Inconsistent Discipline				Involvement			
	Fathers		Mothers		Fathers		Mothers	
	CR	FR	CR	MR	CR	FR	CR	MR
Predictors:	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r
Child age	**-.21**^{t}	.04	-.14	.04	.06	.03	-.06	**-.20**^{t}
Paternal depression	.16	**.40***	-.03	-.14	-.12	-.06	.02	.00
Maternal depression	.05	-.08	.06	**.41****	-.03	-.01	-.02	.03
Paternal history of problems	.16	-.05	.04	.05	-.01	.12	-.06	-.11
Maternal history of problems	**.24***	-.04	.14	.13	**-.22**^{t}	-.10	**-.21**^{t}	**-.33***
Paternal education	.03	.05	.06	.08	.08	-.08	**.19**^{t}	.01
Maternal education	.15	.04	.12	-.06	-.07	-.04	.05	-.16
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.11	**-.23***	-.08	-.09	.02	.06	.11	**.35***
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.08	-.06	-.04	-.13	.12	.02	.12	**.32***
Number of stressful life events	.05	.08	.08	**.31***	.03	-.12	-.09	-.13
Average annual income	.00	-.01	.11	**-.19**^{t}	.00	-.03	-.03	.09

N=76
$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$

Note: Values are standardized correlation coefficients. CR=Child Report, FR=Father Report, MR=Mother Report

Table 8

Summary of zero-order correlations between predictor and parenting variables for time spent

	Time Spent	
	Fathers	Mothers
Predictors:	r	r
Child age	-.03	.05
Paternal depression	.03	.06
Maternal depression	.12	.16
Paternal history of problems	.01	.15
Maternal history of problems	**.32***	.02
Paternal education	**-.37***	-.03
Maternal education	-.08	**-.21**^{t}
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.04	-.03
Maternal marital satisfaction	**-.19**^{t}	-.12
Number of stressful life events	.18	.11
Average annual income	.01	-.06

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; $*p<.05$

Note: Values are standardized correlation coefficients.

Table 9

Summary of zero-order correlations between predictor variables and observational measures of parental warmth and positive involvement

	Warmth		Positive Involvement	
	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers
Predictors:	r	r	r	r
Child age	**-.23***	-.01	-.13	.00
Paternal depression	-.07	.04	-.11	-.08
Maternal depression	**-.20^{t}**	-.18	**-.33***	**-.25***
Paternal history of problems	.06	**-.21^{t}**	.01	**.21^{t}**
Maternal history of problems	-.03	-.06	-.18	.02
Paternal education	.09	**.25***	.17	**.19^{t}**
Maternal education	.18	.16	**.20^{t}**	.02
Paternal marital satisfaction	.14	-.05	.14	.12
Maternal marital satisfaction	**.27***	.11	**.29***	**.36***
Number of stressful life events	**-.24***	-.02	**-.20^{t}**	.09
Average annual income	-.01	.05	-.06	.05

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$

Note: Values are standardized correlation coefficients.

Table 10

Summary of zero-order correlations between predictor variables and observational measures of fathers' negative parenting

Predictors:	**Harshness** r	**Negative Involvement** r	**Hostile Behavior** r
Child age	-.05	.00	-.04
Paternal depression	.06	.12	.11
Maternal depression	-.10	-.08	-.12
Paternal history of problems	.08	.06	.04
Maternal history of problems	.04	.09	.09
Paternal education	-.10	-.18	-.17
Maternal education	-.02	-.03	-.04
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.17	-.14	-.12
Maternal marital satisfaction	.00	-.02	-.01
Number of stressful life events	-.05	.00	-.03
Average annual income	.14	.12	.14

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; * $p<.05$

Note: Values are standardized correlation coefficients.

Table 11

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and questionnaire measures of parental acceptance

	Fathers – Acceptance		Mothers – Acceptance	
	Child report	Father report	Child report	Mother report
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Regression 1: Child Factors				
Child age	.01	.08	.12	-.05
Child gender	-.08	-.04	-.18	-.12
	R^2=.01	R^2=.01	R^2=.04	R^2=.02
Regression 2: Parental Factors				
Paternal depression	.08	-.15	-.03	.14
Maternal depression	.02	.09	-.03	.06
Paternal history of problems	.03	.20	.08	-.05
Maternal history of problems	-.18	-.15	-.08	**-.28^t**
Paternal education	.22	-.08	.16	-.18
Maternal education	-.11	.16	-.10	-.10
	R^2=.07	R^2=.07	R^2=.04	R^2=.11
Regression 3: Family Factors				
Paternal marital satisfaction	.00	.09	.06	**.28***
Maternal marital satisfaction	.10	.10	.18	.18
Number of stressful life events	.03	-.08	-.06	.08
Average annual income	.09	-.19	-.08	-.06
	R^2=.03	R^2=.06	R^2=.05	**R^2=.15***

N=72

^{t}p<.10; *p<.05

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 12

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and questionnaire measures of parental rejection

	Fathers – Rejection		Mothers – Rejection	
	Child report	Father report	Child report	Mother report
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Regression 1: Child Factors				
Child age	-.04	.17	-.07	.01
Child gender	.10	.02	**.20^{t}**	-.07
	R^2=.01	R^2=.03	R^2=.04	R^2=.01
Regression 2: Parental Factors				
Paternal depression	-.13	**.40***	-.19	-.11
Maternal depression	.00	-.12	.03	.14
Paternal history of problems	.04	-.03	.09	.09
Maternal history of problems	.05	-.02	.19	.22
Paternal education	**-.26^{t}**	.00	-.13	.14
Maternal education	.12	-.03	.05	.05
	R^2=.06	**R^2=16***	R^2=.08	R^2=.11
Regression 3: Family Factors				
Paternal marital satisfaction	.01	**-.29***	.01	-.04
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.11	-.03	**-.33***	-.11
Number of stressful life events	-.18	.00	-.11	.12
Average annual income	**-.38***	.17	**-.20^{t}**	-.05
	R^2=.16*	**R^2=.11^{t}**	**R^2=.16***	R^2=.05

N=72

$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 13

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and questionnaire measures of parental inconsistent discipline

	Fathers – Incon. Disc.		Mothers – Incon. Disc.	
	Child report	Father report	Child report	Mother report
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Regression 1: Child Factors				
Child age	-.19	.04	-.16	-.03
Child gender	.09	-.10	.04	-.06
	R^2=.04	R^2=.01	R^2=.03	R^2=.01
Regression 2: Parental Factors				
Paternal depression	.06	**.50***	-.11	-.17
Maternal depression	.07	-.03	.05	**.34***
Paternal history of problems	.18	-.12	.09	.07
Maternal history of problems	.16	-.16	.17	.12
Paternal education	-.02	.12	.02	.18
Maternal education	**.25***	-.09	.20	.02
	R^2=.12	**R^2=21***	R^2=.06	**R^2=.20***
Regression 3: Family Factors				
Paternal marital satisfaction	.01	**-.24^t**	-.02	.00
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.04	.09	-.06	-.04
Number of stressful life events	-.10	.05	-.05	**.31***
Average annual income	-.19	.06	-.20	-.09
	R^2=.04	R^2=.05	R^2=.05	**R^2=.13***

N=72
^{t}p<.10; *p<.05
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 14

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and questionnaire measures of parental involvement

	Fathers – Involvement		Mothers – Involvement	
	Child report	Father report	Child report	Mother report
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Regression 1: Child Factors				
Child age	.06	.03	-.06	**-.29***
Child gender	-.02	-.05	-.09	-.16
	R^2=.01	R^2=.01	R^2=.01	**R^2=.11***
Regression 2: Parental Factors				
Paternal depression	-.04	-.06	.15	.18
Maternal depression	.07	.05	.11	.10
Paternal history of problems	.03	.15	-.02	-.14
Maternal history of problems	-.23	-.15	**-.28***	**-.37***
Paternal education	.09	-.10	.19	.13
Maternal education	-.07	.06	-.04	**-.27***
	R^2=.07	R^2=.04	R^2=.10	**R^2=.18***
Regression 3: Family Factors				
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.12	.03	.01	.22
Maternal marital satisfaction	.10	.00	.07	.15
Number of stressful life events	.06	-.16	-.01	-.04
Average annual income	-.11	-.18	.00	.01
	R^2=.03	R^2=.04	R^2=.01	R^2=.11^t

N=72

^{t}p<.10; *p<.05

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 15

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and questionnaire measures of time spent

Predictors:	Fathers – Time Spent β	Mothers – Time Spent β
Regression 1: Child Factors		
Child Age	-.03	.10
Child Gender	.04	-.13
	R^2=.01	R^2=.03
Regression 2: Parental Factors		
Paternal depression	-.12	.10
Maternal depression	-.03	.23
Paternal history of problems	-.09	.10
Maternal history of problems	**.33***	-.18
Paternal Education	**-.39***	.03
Maternal Education	.08	-.14
	R^2=.24*	R^2=.10
Regression 3: Family Factors		
Paternal marital satisfaction	.06	.06
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.22	-.15
Number of stressful life events	.19	.06
Average annual income	.06	-.02
	R^2=.09	R^2=.03

N=70
^{t}p<.10; *p<.05
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 16

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and observational measures of warmth and positive involvement

	Fathers		Mothers	
	Warmth	Positive Inv	Warmth	Positive Inv
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Regression 1: Child Factors				
Child Age	**-.21^t**	-.13	-.01	-.01
Child Gender	.00	-.07	.06	.06
	R^2=.04	R^2=.02	R^2=.01	R^2=.01
Regression 2: Parental Factors				
Paternal depression	-.13	-.10	.00	-.17
Maternal depression	-.17	-.22	-.15	**-.34***
Paternal history of problems	.12	.11	**.29***	**.28***
Maternal history of problems	.02	-.09	.00	.20
Paternal education	.04	.10	**.24^t**	**.23^t**
Maternal education	.18	.14	.15	-.03
	R^2=.10	R^2=.15	**R^2 = .18^t**	**R^2=.20***
Regression 3: Family Factors				
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.05	-.11	-.05	-.03
Maternal marital satisfaction	**.28^t**	**.34***	.06	**.36***
Number of stressful life events	**-.27***	-.18	-.15	.02
Average annual income	-.18	-.18	-.03	-.15
	R^2=.15*	**R^2=.13^t**	R^2=.03	R^2=.11

N=67

^{t}p<.10; *p<.05

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 17

Summary of regression analyses testing associations between predictor variables and observational measures of fathers' negative parenting

Predictors:	Harshness β	Negative Inv β	Hostile Behavior β
Regression 1: Child Factors			
Child Age	-.06	.02	-.02
Child Gender	-.11	-.15	-.13
	R^2=.02	R^2=.02	R^2=.02
Regression 2: Parental Factors			
Paternal depression	.00	.07	.06
Maternal depression	-.13	-.08	-.13
Paternal history of problems	.08	.02	-.01
Maternal history of problems	.07	.04	.05
Paternal education	-.13	-.22	-.22
Maternal education	.02	.02	-.02
	R^2=.04	R^2=.07	R^2=.07
Regression 3: Family Factors			
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.22	-.17	-.17
Maternal marital satisfaction	.10	.07	.08
Number of stressful life events	-.01	.09	.09
Average annual income	.09	.13	.15
	R^2=.05	R^2=.04.	R^2=05

N=70
^{t}p<.10; *p<.05
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. For child gender, 1=female, 2=male

Table 18

Summary of regression analyses testing individual and family predictors of fathers' parenting

	Acceptance		Rejection	
	Child report	Father report	Child report	Father report
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Paternal depression	-.01	-.13	**-.21^{t}**	**.24***
Paternal education	.19	-.16	-.16	.04
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.02	.16	-.12	**-.39***
Maternal marital satisfaction	.00	.10	-.13	-.04
	R^2=.04	R^2=.08	R^2=.10	R^2=.22*
	Inconsistency of Discipline		Involvement	
Paternal depression	.06	**.35***	-.08	-.10
Paternal education	.06	.12	.03	-.15
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.13	**-.22^{t}**	-.07	.06
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.03	.05	-.02	.01
	R^2=.03	**R^2=.18***	R^2=.01	R^2=.03

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients.

Table 19

Summary of regression analyses testing individual and family predictors of fathers' parenting

Predictors:	Time Spent β	Pos. Involvement β	Warmth β
Paternal depression	-.07	-.07	-.05
Paternal education	**-.39***	-.10	.03
Paternal marital satisfaction	.00	-.03	-.03
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.16	**.25^{t}**	**.29***
	R^2=.19*	R^2=.08	R^2=.09
	Neg. Involvement	Harshness	Inappropriate
Paternal depression	.10	.03	.09
Paternal education	**-.29***	-.20	**-.30***
Paternal marital satisfaction	-.18	-.21	-.17
Maternal marital satisfaction	.23	.22	**.25^{t}**
	R^2=.12^{t}	R^2=.08	**R^2=.12^{t}**

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; $*p<.05$
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients.

Table 20

Summary of regression analyses testing individual and family predictors of mothers' parenting

	Acceptance		Rejection	
	Child report	Mother report	Child report	Mother report
Predictors:	β	β	β	β
Maternal depression	.09	**.24^{t}**	-.08	.09
Maternal history of problems	-.13	-.17	.11	.18
Paternal history of problems	.10	.10	.01	.04
Paternal education	.10	**-.30***	-.03	.17
Maternal marital satisfaction	.20	**.45***	**-.34***	-.13
	R^2=.07	**R^2=.21***	**R^2=.13^{t}**	R^2=.11
	Inconsistency of Discipline		Involvement	
Maternal depression	-.03	**.35***	.11	**.29***
Maternal history of problems	.20	.09	-.19	**-.26***
Paternal history of problems	.06	.07	.04	.04
Paternal education	.10	.19	.16	-.06
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.08	-.02	.04	**.35***
	R^2=.06	**R^2=.19***	R^2=.06	**R^2=.16***

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients.

Table 21

Summary of regression analyses testing individual and family predictors of mothers' parenting

Predictors:	Time Spent β	Pos. Involvement β	Warmth β
Maternal depression	**.25**^{t}	-.18	-.19
Maternal history of problems	-.17	.17	.03
Paternal history of problems	.13	**.31***	**.28***
Paternal education	-.02	.18	**.31***
Maternal marital satisfaction	-.03	**.30***	-.03
	R^2=.08	**R^2=.23***	**R^2=.17***

N=72
$^{t}p<.10$; *$p<.05$
Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients.

Discussion

Parenting is an important socialization factor known to influence children's adjustment. Parenting has multiple aspects, including an affective component such as warmth, a component of control, or discipline, and a quantitative component such as amount of involvement. The current study examined factors thought to relate to a variety of parenting dimensions by fathers. The aim of the current study was to use an ecological approach, taking individual, family, and contextual factors thought to potentially relate to fathers' parenting into account. Child factors, (age and gender) psychosocial parental factors (education, depression, history of problems, marital satisfaction), and family factors (stress, income) were studied in relation to parenting within two-parent families. Furthermore, previous research has tended to focus on father involvement, with limited attention to the affective nature and control aspects of fathers' parenting, such as warmth/acceptance, rejection/harshness, and consistency of discipline. Multiple methods were used in the current study to examine these parenting dimensions. Measures of parenting included fathers' self-report, children's report, and observational ratings from videotapes of fathers' behavior during parent-child interaction tasks conducted in the home. Identical measures of mothers' parenting (mothers' self-report, children's report, and observational ratings) were obtained to allow for examination of differences in the pattern of associations for fathers and mothers.

It was hypothesized that child factors (age and gender) would relate to fathers' parenting. Previous research suggests that fathers tend to demonstrate higher levels of involvement in caregiving with male children and to greater amounts of time with male children (e.g., NICHD Early Childcare Research Network, 2000; Pleck, 1997). This

previous finding was not supported in the current study. However, given the limited age range included in the sample, there may be little variation in father involvement within this particular developmental period. Also, the small sample size might have limited the ability to detect gender effects. Based on the findings of previous research, child age was expected to be negatively associated with fathers' involvement (Pleck, 1997). Support for this hypothesis was generally not found, which may be a result of the limited age range of the children included in the current study. Examination of the pattern of associations for mothers revealed that child age was negatively associated with mothers' self-report of involvement. That is, mothers reported less involvement with older children. As children move towards early adolescence, socialization with peers becomes more important and occupies a greater amount of time (Harris, 1995). Mothers are likely to be less involved with children as the amount of time children spend with peers increases. Because the amount of time fathers spend with children is significantly less than mothers, there is much less variance to predict changes in fathers' time spent with children compared to mothers' time spent with their children and may explain why a similar finding was not observed for fathers' parenting. There was also an overall lack of support for the role of child gender in predicting maternal parenting. Thus, none of the hypothesized associations between child factors and fathers' parenting were found in the current study. This overall lack of significant findings for child factors may be due to the limited age range and small sample size.

Individual parental psychosocial factors were also examined in relation to parenting. Fathers' self-report of depression was expected to negatively relate to the affective nature of fathers' parenting. Higher levels of depression were expected to relate

to lower levels of warmth and higher levels of rejection by fathers. Support for this hypothesis was found only among questionnaire measures of parenting. Paternal depression was positively associated with higher levels of father-report of rejection. This finding is consistent with past research indicating that fathers with higher self-esteem and less depression display more supportive and warm parenting towards their children (Brody et.al, 1994; Grossman, Pollock & Golding, 1988; Volling & Belsky, 1991). However, in the current study fathers' depression was not associated with observational ratings of fathers' warmth, positive involvement, or ratings of negative parenting behaviors. Fathers' depression was also expected to relate to higher levels of inconsistency of discipline, lower levels of involvement, and lower levels of time spent with the child. Consistent with this hypothesis, higher levels of paternal depression were indeed related to higher levels of father-report inconsistency of discipline. Fathers who are depressed may view themselves as less able to consistently enforce rules of discipline. Little research has been conducted examining the relation of fathers' depression to the control aspects of parenting, but one potential explanation for the current finding is that depressed fathers view themselves with a negative bias as a result of their depression (Brody, et al., 1994). This potential explanation is further supported by the finding that fathers' report of depression was not associated with children's report of inconsistency of discipline. Fathers who are experiencing current depression may feel less effectual in all aspects of their life, including parenting, and may judge themselves more harshly than their children or a more objective observer would judge their parenting style. This hypothesis is consistent with previous research indicating that fathers who were more optimistic in their outlook on life engaged in more positive parenting of their adolescents

than fathers who were less optimistic (Brody, et al., 1994). In contrast to the findings for fathers' report of current depression, fathers' self-report of history of problems (mental illness, depression, alcohol/drug problems, legal problems/arrest) did not predict fathers' parenting. That is, fathers' reports of higher levels of lifetime history of these problems were not uniquely associated with any measure of parenting when other parental factors were controlled for in the regression equation. Fathers who are not experiencing current problems may not judge themselves as negatively as fathers who are currently experiencing problems, as they may not be experiencing a negative bias in their self-perceptions of parenting.

Examination of the differences in the pattern of associations for mothers indicated that, in contrast to findings for fathers, more frequent support was found for the relation of maternal depression to maternal parenting. Similar to fathers, mothers' self-reports of higher levels of depression were associated with mothers' reports of higher levels of inconsistency of discipline. Also, similar to findings for fathers, maternal depression did not predict children's reports of inconsistency of discipline. Mothers who are currently depressed may view themselves negatively and as less able to consistently enforce the rules of discipline. Maternal depression was also found to relate to the affective nature of mothers' parenting. Higher levels of maternal depression were associated with lower levels of positive involvement during dyadic interactions. Thus, although depressed mothers did not report themselves to be less warm or more rejecting towards their children, mothers who reported current depression were rated as less positively involved in interactions with their children. Such a style of interaction, characterized by a flat and

distant conversational style and lack of positive behaviors (e.g., display of positive affect or support towards the child), is consistent with the presence of current depression.

Examination of the differences in the pattern of associations for mothers indicated that higher levels of maternal history of problems (mental illness, depression, alcohol/drug problems, legal problems/arrest) were uniquely related to lower levels of maternal acceptance (self-report) and involvement (child-report and self-report). This effect was over and above the effect of maternal self-report of depression, marital satisfaction, and all other variables. These findings suggest that although current self-reports of depression are associated with affective and control aspects of mothers' parenting, history of problems may be associated with amount of involvement. Thus, maternal history of problems may be associated with parenting practices and maternal depression with parenting style or the current emotional climate of parenting (e.g. Darling & Steinberg, 1993). This association was observed for both mothers' and children's reports of involvement. One potential explanation for this different pattern of associations is that history of chronic or more severe problems, as measured in the current study, and reports of current depression tapped into distinct underlying constructs. Although current depression and history of problems were significantly and positively associated, the overlap in these two variables was approximately 16%. This amount of overlap suggests that even though the two variables are significantly associated, current depression is not identical to a history of problems. For example, the specific type of problem reported by mothers was not examined in the current study. It may be that the history of a substance use problem, trouble with the law, or other mental illness

accounted for the relationship between history of problems and levels of involvement rather than history of depression.

The association of maternal psychosocial variables was also examined in relation to fathers' parenting, and vice versa. That is, maternal depression and history of problems were examined in relation to fathers' parenting. Such an examination is consistent with theories of the determinants of fathers' parenting (Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998; Lamb, 1997; Parke, 2000; Pleck, 1997) that propose a wide range of factors as influential in shaping fathers' parenting, including characteristics of mothers. Maternal depression was expected to relate to fathers' warmth and rejection. Specifically, higher levels of maternal depression were expected to relate to higher levels of warmth and lower levels of rejection by fathers based on previous research (Hops et al., 1987). However, maternal depression was not uniquely related to fathers' parenting as measured by questionnaire or observational ratings when the other variables, such as fathers' marital satisfaction, were included in the regression equation. Thus, maternal depression was not directly associated with fathers' parenting, consistent with the finding by Grossman and colleagues (1988) that maternal psychological adjustment did not directly predict the quality or quantity of fathers' parenting. Maternal history of problems (mental illness, depression, alcohol/drug problems, legal problems/arrest) was uniquely related to fathers' parenting. In contrast to these findings for current maternal depression, maternal history of problems was uniquely and positively related to the amount of time fathers reported spending alone with children. This finding suggests that, when there is a mother with a history of problems, fathers may potentially compensate for the lower levels of time spent and involvement observed among these mothers,

consistent with compensatory processes discussed below (Gottman & Katz, 1996). Although maternal depression was not uniquely related to fathers' parenting, maternal history of problem was uniquely related to larger amounts of time fathers reported spending with children. This pattern of associations would be expected in a family in which fathers need to assume more responsibility and caregiving for a child due to maternal disengagement as a result of a history of psychopathology. It is likely that fathers would take on a broader range of parenting activities, leading to more time spent with the child. These results provide support for the hypothesis that mothers' psychological adjustment may play a direct role in determining fathers parenting, specifically fathers' involvement and/or amount of time spent with children. Doherty and colleagues (1998) specifically proposed that fathering is more strongly influenced than mothering by factors in the other parent. However, little research has been conducted in this area and thus the current findings contribute to understanding the impact of maternal psychological adjustment in possibly determining fathers' parenting, albeit within biological, two-parent families.

Differences in the pattern of associations for paternal psychosocial variables in relations to mothers' parenting were also examined. Paternal depression was not uniquely related to any maternal parenting variable as measured by questionnaire or observational ratings when the other variables, such as mothers' marital satisfaction, were included in the regression equation. Thus, paternal depression was not directly associated with mothers' parenting, similar to the findings for fathers. In contrast to the findings for maternal history of problems and fathers' parenting, fathers' history of problems was not directly associated with the amount of time mothers spent with children or reported levels

of involvement. However, fathers' history of problems was positively and uniquely related to observational ratings of maternal warmth and positive involvement. That is, in families where fathers reported the presence of a history of these problems, mothers were rated as warmer and more positively involved in the interactions. These findings suggest that mothers may compensate for fathers' depression or the effect of history of problems by increasing levels of warmth/acceptance and positive investment with the child. However, it is not clear how paternal history of problems related to fathers' current parenting, as history of problems was not uniquely related to any measured parenting variable in this study. In contrast, fathers may compensate for the effect of maternal history of problems by spending more time with children because mothers are less involved with children. Gottman and Katz (1996) found evidence in support of a "compensatory" process in which parents in distressed marriages appeared to compensate for the other parents' negative behavior towards the child by displaying increased positive attention to the child. The current findings suggest a similar "compensatory" process whereby fathers may display increased attention and time to children in response to maternal decreased attention and time with children.

Marital satisfaction is considered a central determinant of fathers' parenting within two parent families. Therefore, the relation of fathers' and mothers' reports of marital satisfaction were examined in relation to fathers' parenting. Previous research, including a recent meta-analytic review, provides support for a significant positive association between marital quality and the quality of the father-child relationship (Erel & Burman, 1995). Based on these past findings, higher levels of fathers' marital satisfaction were expected to positively relate to parenting dimensions of warmth and

positive involvement. Similarly, lower levels of marital satisfaction were expected to relate to negative parenting behaviors such as rejection (e.g. Brody et al., 1986; Gottman & Katz, 1996) and negative discipline styles such as inconsistency (Crockenberg & Covey, 1992). As hypothesized, fathers' marital satisfaction was negatively associated with fathers' reports of rejection; fathers who were more satisfied reported less rejection towards children. There was also a trend towards an association between marital satisfaction and consistency of discipline in the direction expected, although the association was not significant. Mothers' report of marital satisfaction was associated with observational ratings of fathers' positive involvement and there was a trend towards an association between mothers' marital satisfaction and observational ratings of warmth although that association was not significant. Some studies have found support for a positive association between marital quality and amount of time fathers spend with children (Feldman et al., 1983; Levy-Shiff & Israelashvili, 1998; McBride & Mills, 1993). However, this association between marital quality and amount of time with children is not consistently observed (Cowan & Cowan, 1987; Grossman et al., 1988). Neither fathers' nor mothers' report of marital satisfaction was significantly associated with either fathers' involvement or fathers' time spent with children in the current study.

Differences in the pattern of associations for marital satisfaction and mothers' parenting were also examined. Similar to the findings for fathers, mothers' marital satisfaction was uniquely associated with less maternal rejection (child report). However, mothers' report of marital satisfaction was also uniquely associated with observational ratings of mothers' positive involvement whereas fathers' report of marital satisfaction was not related to observational ratings of fathers' parenting. Fathers' report of marital

satisfaction was positively and uniquely associated with mothers' report of acceptance. These findings suggest that the affective nature of mothers' parenting within two-parent families may be more sensitive to her view of the marital relationship than the affective nature of fathers' parenting is to his view of the marital relationship.

The importance of marital satisfaction in relation to both fathers' and mothers' parenting was observed across both questionnaire and observational ratings of parenting. Marital satisfaction was associated with the quality of fathers' parenting across both questionnaire and observational measures. Marital satisfaction was also associated with the quality of mothers' parenting across both questionnaire and observational measures. Among the family subsystems that exist, the marital relationship is regarded by many researchers and theorists as the key element determining the quality of family life, and martial quality does indeed appear important to the affective nature of fathers' and mothers' parenting. A conservative estimate of the effect size of the overall association between marital quality and the parent-child relationship, based on the results of a meta-analysis, is .30 (Erel & Burman, 1995). The findings of the meta-analysis also indicated that the association between marital quality and parent-child relationship quality is not different for fathers and mothers (Erel & Burman, 1995). Thus, the current results, which suggest an association between marital quality and various aspects of parenting, are consistent with the findings of previous research.

Individual and family factors emerged as significant predictors of parenting for both fathers and mothers in the current study. However, the factors that predicted particular parenting variables were not identical for fathers and mothers. For example, observational measures of fathers' parenting were predicted by paternal level of

education and maternal marital satisfaction. Observational measures of mothers' parenting were predicted by paternal history of problems and maternal martial satisfaction. These findings suggest that, although marital satisfaction is associated with parenting, some unique factors may play a role in determining fathers' and mothers' parenting. Fathers' depression and marital satisfaction also emerged as key predictors of the emotional context of fathers' parenting and level of education associated with fathers' parenting practices (e.g. time spent) (Darling & Steinberg, 1993.) Mothers' depression and marital satisfaction also emerged as key predictors of both the emotional context of mothers' parenting and parenting practices (time spent and involvement). These findings suggest that, if research on parenting to be aimed at studying determinants of parenting style and why parents may adopt different styles, a broad variety of factors must be studied. Moreover, the determinants may not be identical for fathers and mothers.

The current study also examined the prediction of parenting across category of predictor in order to test categories simultaneously. For example, among fathers, both paternal depression and paternal marital satisfaction accounted for unique variance in rejection and consistency of discipline. These findings suggest that depression and marital satisfaction each might have independent effects on fathers' parenting rather than indirect effects. Among mothers, both maternal depression and maternal marital satisfaction accounted for unique variance in acceptance and involvement, indicating that each might have unique effects on mothers' parenting. In contrast to the findings among fathers, marital satisfaction was not uniquely related to inconsistency of discipline once maternal depression was taken into account. This finding suggests that maternal satisfaction may not directly affect this aspect of mothers' parenting. Moreover, maternal

marital satisfaction accounted for unique variance in rejection but maternal depression did not account for unique variance in rejection. These findings potentially indicate the depression and marital satisfaction may nor affect parenting among fathers and mothers in an identical way.

The number of stressful life events was not associated with the affective nature of mothers' parenting. However, stressful events were associated were associated with mothers' report of inconsistency of discipline. The effect of stressful life events on parenting may possibly be accounted for by the relation of depression or marital satisfaction to parenting. However, because stressful life events did not emerge as a consistent predictor of parenting within category of predictor, it was not tested simultaneously with individual or familial factors. Future studies will need to test McLoyd's hypothesis that psychological distress accounts for the relation between poor parenting and chronic stress. Average annual income was also examined a factor thought to be associated with parenting. Lower income level was only associated with children's reports of higher levels of rejection by both fathers and mothers. The observational measures of parenting were not associated with average annual income. These findings are generally consistent with McLoyd's findings that economic hardship may diminish the capacity for supportive parenting behaviors. A test of depression and marital satisfaction as potentially accounting for the relation between income and parenting is suggested by McLoyd's theory. This theory hypothesizes that poor parenting under economic hardship is explained by parental psychological distress and disruption of marital bonds. However, these associations were not examined in the current sample given the median income level of the sample.

Limitations and Strengths

The current study has several limitations. First, the data are cross sectional. Therefore, conclusions about the direction of effects and potential mediators are precluded in this particular study. A second limitation is the modest sample size (N=72); a larger sample size would be preferable and would increase power to detect effects. However, obtaining a large sample size can be quite difficult when observational methods are employed given the time intensive nature of these measures. A third limitation is that the sample predominantly consists of Caucasian families. Thus, generalizability of findings to families of other ethnic or racial backgrounds may be somewhat limited. A fourth limitation is that, although the use of a community sample is important to understanding normative family processes, the processes investigated might differ in clinical samples. For example, the associations observed in the present study may underestimate the associations in a clinical sample as a result of fewer participants with high levels of depressions or distressed marriages. This may particularly be the case in the present study as this was a volunteer sample. The contribution of mothers' and fathers' depression and marital distress to fathers' parenting should be investigated in clinical samples in the future. The current study is also limited in that not all variables identified as possible key determinants of fathers' parenting were examined. Social support, work demands, and personality characteristics were not measured in the current study but have been identified as potential determinants of fathers' parenting (Jain, Belsky, Crnic, 1996; NICHD Early Childcare Research Network, 2000; Woodworth, Belsky, Crnic, 1996).

The current study has several strengths. First, information obtained directly from fathers and from children was used, providing unique information on children's perceptions of fathers and mothers. For example, consistent with fathers and mothers, children did report that mothers are more involved with children in two-parent families, indicating they are aware of this difference. Information on children's perspective of fathers' parenting has generally been lacking in research on fathers. Second, parenting was assessed using multiple measures, including both observational and questionnaire measures. Convergence of these methods indicated that fathers' reports of parenting corresponded to observational measures of parenting but that mothers' reports of her parenting did not correspond to observational measures. In contrast, children's reports of maternal parenting corresponded with observational ratings of mothers' parenting but this association was not found for fathers. Third, fathers' parenting was conceptualized using a multidimensional framework. This is important because there is increasing recognition of the need to investigate aspects of fathers' parenting other than quantity of involvement. For example the current findings indicate that fathers' depression and fathers' marital satisfaction each had unique associations with parenting. This finding has specific implications for clinical interventions. Finally, examination of the pattern of associations for fathers and mothers was included in the current study, revealing some interesting patterns. For example, maternal history of problems was associated with lower levels of involvement by mothers and greater amount of time spent with children by fathers. In contrast, paternal history of problems was associated with higher levels of maternal warmth and positive involvement.

Implications

The current study has several implications. First, the findings contribute to knowledge about fathers' parenting, particularly aspects other than the amount of involvement, which has been frequently studied. Because father parenting is conceptualized based on dimensions from the general parenting literature, which has typically focused on mothers, these findings may be interpreted within this accumulated body of knowledge. For example, the predictors of parenting by fathers included in the current study were more frequently related to the affective nature and control aspects of fathers' parenting rather than the amount of involvement. In research on parenting by mothers, warmth and control are consistently related to children's adjustment. Research also suggests that these aspects of parenting by fathers may make unique contributions to children's adjustment. Yet research on fathers' parenting has focused on "involvement" to the exclusion of these other dimensions of parenting. Only by studying a variety of aspects of fathers' parenting will researchers find multiple possible points of intervention. The current findings have potential implications for clinical intervention in two-parent families. Within two-parent families, it is possible that fathers' warmth and control may have a greater impact on children's adjustment than involvement because these fathers have already committed to a certain amount of involvement with their child by living with the child. By understanding the factors that positively or adversely affect fathers' warmth and control, clinicians can tailor interventions to enhance fathers' warmth and discipline with the ultimate goal of enhancing child-well being in these families rather than focusing efforts at increasing the amount of time spent. Moreover, it is not yet clear exactly how important to children's adjustment fathers' "involvement" is compared to

warmth and control aspects of parenting within the two-parent family. The current findings suggest that the quality of involvement rather than the quantity of involvement is potentially more malleable and susceptible to intervention.

Second, little research has been conducted linking paternal depression or maternal depression to specific aspects of fathers' parenting, particularly with children in middle childhood, even though depression in either parent is thought to affect fathers' parenting. The current study contributes to an area of research that has few studies. For example, the findings regarding maternal history of problems are unique and suggest possible ways that maternal psychopathology may affect the parenting system within two-parent families. This finding provides support for the idea that fathers' parenting is affected by a complex, interconnected system of relationships. This finding also has theoretical implications and is consistent with Pleck's (1997) hypothesis that certain factors may be more salient or determine fathers' parenting to a greater degree than for other fathers. Here, the presence of maternal psychopathology / chronic problems may be the salient factor affecting fathers' parenting. Also, this finding provides support for the notion that an interrelation exists between the father-child relationship and men's relationships with their children's mothers. Clearly, if researchers and policy makers are interested in understanding what factors determine the amount of time fathers spend with children, efforts should not simply be focused on fathers but on mothers as well.

Third, although previous research supports a significant positive association between the marital relationship and the quality of the father-child relationship, more information is needed linking marital quality to specific aspects of fathers' parenting. The current findings generally suggested that marital satisfaction was more frequently

related to mothers' than fathers' parenting. Moreover, mothers' reports of marital satisfaction were related to the observational measures of fathers' parenting but fathers' reports of marital satisfaction were not associated with observational measures of parenting. Maternal support and confidence in fathers' parenting has been indicated as a potential key determinant of fathers' parenting. Intervening at this level rather than the marital level may be sufficient to enhance fathers' parenting of children within two parent families. Further investigation into the actual mechanism of effect between these variables is needed to understand implications of mothers' and fathers' perceived marital quality on parenting. This finding also implies a difference in the way mothers and fathers view the separateness or relatedness of parenting and marriage. Mothers' satisfaction with their husbands' parenting and involvement with housework may be reciprocally related to mothers' marital satisfaction. The current findings do not support Belsky's theory that women view their parenting and spousal roles as distinct and that men view these roles as interconnected to a greater degree and apply a similar manner of relating to their spouse and children. Clearly, studying family processes will be important to understanding the way in which marital satisfaction and parenting affect each other over time for fathers and mothers.

Finally, the findings of the current study suggest that fathers' parenting may be affected by individual and familial factors. This finding has implications for experimental studies and intervention. The current findings also imply that different aspects of fathers' parenting may be determined by different factors. For example, the current study indicates that quality and quantity of parenting (e.g. involvement) are associated with different potential determinants of parenting. Identifying individual and

familial determinants of fathers' parenting within two-parent families is also important assisting families in adapting to changing expectations imposed by work and cultural norms if they so desire. The findings of this study indicated that stressful life events are associated with fathers' warmth towards their children. However, neither paternal depression nor marital satisfaction accounted for this relationship. This finding was different than that observed for mothers. This implies that the mechanism of effect between stress and parenting may not be identical for fathers and mothers. An understanding of the way these processes operate differently for fathers and mothers is important to enhancing fathers' (or mothers') warmth and improving father-child relations. In turn, improved child outcomes are expected.

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Appendix A: Time Spent Questionnaire

Time Spent

The following questions are about how much time you spend with your child. We are interested in waking hours only (i.e. not when your child is asleep). This time you spend with your child may also include time with your child and any other children. However, we would like you think about the times when your spouse/partner is <u>not present</u>.

[Note: If there is no spouse/partner/boyfriend you are just asking about the time the mother spends with the TC alone or with other children present].

<u>SCHOOL DAYS</u> – SHOW VISUAL AID 12

First we want to know about a typical school day. Think about early morning time, after school, dinner time, evening time, and bedtime. Look at the visual aid and try to think about how much time (in hours or minutes) you are with TC during each portion of the day. It may help you to think aloud about each part of the day and I will record the time. Then we can add up the total time together. Let's try the first one:

1. On a typical school day, how many hours do you spend with your child [when your spouse/partner is **not** present]? _____ (total)

   [If necessary, guide the parent through each time of day, fill in, then add up to help parent:]

   _____ _____ _____ _____
   (morning) (after school) (evening) (bedtime)

[NOTE: #2 & #3 are for 2 parent households only- including step parents or partners]

2. On a typical school day, how many hours does your spouse/ partner spend with your child when **you** are **<u>not</u>** present? _____

   _____ _____ _____ _____ (total)
   (morning) (after school) (evening) (bedtime)

3. On a typical school day, how many hours do you **and** your spouse/ partner spend together with your child? _____

   _____ _____ _____ _____ (total)
   (morning) (after school) (evening) (bedtime)

<u>WEEKENDS</u>: ***Now we want to know about your weekend time. Think about a typical <u>Saturday</u> and <u>Sunday</u> for your family. [note: count Fridays as school days]. We know every family is different, so don't forget to include activities, time spent around the home, religious services, etc.***

4. On a typical weekend (both Sat. & Sun.), how many hours do you spend with your child [when your spouse/partner is **not** present]? _____

_____ _____ _____ _____ (total)
(morning) (afternoon) (evening) (bedtime)

[NOTE: #5 & #6 are for 2 parent households only- including step parents or partners]

5. On a typical weekend (both Sat. & Sun.), how many hours does your spouse/ partner spend with your child when **you** are **not** present? _____

_____ _____ _____ _____ (total)
(morning) (afternoon) (evening) (bedtime)

6. On a typical weekend (both Sat. & Sun.), how many hours do you and your spouse/ partner
spend with your child together? (this may include religious time, _____
watching sports activities the child is in, etc.)

_____ _____ _____ _____ (total)
(morning) (afternoon) (evening) (bedtime)

7. During a typical week, about how many meals, including breakfast, lunch and dinner, does your family sit down and eat together? _____
(***Includes all members of the nuclear family, but not necessarily extended family who live in the home.***)

Visual Aid for TSQ

School Day	Saturday	Sunday
Morning School Time	Morning	Morning
After School	Afternoon	Afternoon
Evening	Evening	Evening
Bedtime	Bedtime	Bedtime

Appendix B: Parent-Child Interaction Task Script

Parent-child Interaction Task:

Interviewer Note: If both parents are participating in the interview, ask the father to step out of the room for 10 minutes, and conduct the parent-child interaction with the mother and child first. When complete, take the mother into another room and begin her interview. Ask the father to come in and engage in the same interaction with the child.

Video: Before beginning- check to see that the video camera is appropriately aimed, and the recorder is on. The child interviewer is primarily responsible for the video camera in this task.

Parent and Child Interaction Task 1 Introduction:

To begin the next task say: "***Now we would like you to talk with each other for a few minutes. We'd like you to plan a day to spend together. We know that everyone has things that they like to do if they have a free day, and we would like for you two to plan what you would do together if you had a whole day free.***"

During the interaction, interviewers should be noting behaviors on the Interaction Rating Scale.
In the last minute of the interaction (i.e., at 4 minutes), the parent interviewer with the stop watch should signal the child interviewer, so that both interviewers can independently complete the Interaction Rating Scale.

Important:

* Do not interact with the parent and child during the tasks! Although some interactions will be amusing, try not to laugh, etc. One good way to avoid this is to pay more attention to the Interaction Rating Scale.

* The parent and/or child may run out of things to say and ask you if they need to keep talking. An appropriate response is: "***We need you to keep talking for a couple more minutes.***"

After 5 minutes transition the parent and child to the next task. It is important to praise the parent and child for their efforts, saying: "***You did a really good job talking about that..***"

Parent and Child Interaction Task 2 Introduction:

To begin the next task say: "*Now we'd like you to talk with each other about something else. We know all families have issues that they don't see eye to eye on. We'd like you to take some time to talk about one of those issues. Often families don't actually have time to sit down and talk about these issues, and we want you to take some time to do that now.*

Here is a list of issues families often have. We'd like each of you to independently circle the ones that are issues for your family.

Give the parent and child each a copy of the issues form and a pen. Read the list aloud, slowly, to assist children who might have trouble reading.

1. ***Sometimes rules are broken or not obeyed.***
2. ***There are rules that seem unfair or too strict.***
3. ***Sometimes chores don't get done by the person who is supposed to do them, or they don't get done on time.***
4. ***Getting homework done is a problem.***
5. ***Bedrooms aren't kept clean or are not cleaned when they are supposed to be cleaned.***
6. ***Are there other issues that come up? What are they?***

When they have circled the issues that apply, take the form back, and select and issue that 1)both the parent and child circled, and 2)is closest to the top of the list. Then say:

"You both listed [issue selected] as one of the issues your family has. Now we would like you to talk about this issue, to try and make some progress on it, to try to come up with some solutions or ideas for dealing with it. Do you have any questions? Ok, go ahead."

IMPORTANT!!!

Please note which issue was assigned to be the topic of discussion for Task 2:

Mother Issue # _____

Father Issue # _____

During the interaction, interviewers should be noting behaviors on the Interaction Rating Scale. In the last minute of the interaction (i.e., at 4 minutes), the parent interviewer with the stop watch should signal the child interviewer, so that both interviewers can independently complete the Interaction Rating Scale.

Interviewer Note: If two parents are being interviewed, repeat parent-child observation procedure with father. Again, try to be sure that the Father is not present when you do the Mother-Child Interaction, and that the Mother is not present when you do the Father-Child interaction. Also, do not have the father and child discuss the same issue as the mother and child did. Have them talk about another issue.

Issues List:

All families have issues that they don't see eye to eye on. Here are some issues that often come up for families. Circle the ones that are issues in your family.

1. Sometimes rules are broken or not obeyed.

2. There are rules that seem unfair or too strict.

3. Sometimes chores don't get done by the person who is supposed to do them, or they don't get done on time.

4. Getting homework done is a problem.

5. Bedrooms aren't kept clean or are not cleaned when they are supposed to be cleaned.

6. Are there other issues that come up? What are they?

After 5 minutes say: "***Sorry to interrupt, but that was 5 minutes, and we can move on to your individual interviews next.***"
[or if 2 parents say: "***Sorry to interrupt, but that was 5 minutes. Now we'll start*** *[mother's name]'s* ***interview, and we'll bring in*** *[father's name].*"

Interviewer Note: If two parents are being interviewed, repeat parent-child observation procedure with father. Again, try to be sure that the Father is not present when you do the Mother-Child Interaction, and that the Mother is not present when you do the Father-Child interaction.

Appendix C: Criteria for Live Coding

IRS - Parent-Child Interaction

Task 1: Plan a day

0 = 0 times (never)
1 = 1 time (hardly)
2 = 2 times (sometimes)
3 = 3 or more times (most of the time)

To what extent was the **parent**:

1. Staying on task/topic? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Follows directions, doesn't stray from topic
]
2. Interrupting? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Talking over the other person, does not let other person finish]

To what extent was the **child**:

3. Staying on task/topic? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Follows directions, doesn't stray from topic]
4. Interrupting? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Talking over the other person, does not let other person finish]

Rate the overall level of:

0=none 1=hardly 2=pretty much 3=very much

Positive Involvement: Degree to which a person's interaction style is positive or friendly. This also reflects the quality of communication skills. [supportive, reinforcing, praising, responsive, etc.]

5. Positive parent involvement: 0 1 2 3
6. Positive child involvement: 0 1 2 3

NOT just the opposite of:

Negative involvement: Degree to which a person's interaction style is negative. [critical, sarcastic, rude, domineering, threatening. etc.]

7. Negative parent involvement: 0 1 2 3
8. Negative child involvement: 0 1 2 3

IRS - Parent-Child Interaction
Task 2: Issues

0 = 0 times (never)
1 = 1 time (hardly)
2 = 2 times (sometimes)
3 = 3 or more times (most of the time)

To what extent was the **parent**:

1. Staying on task/topic? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Follows directions, doesn't stray from topic]
2. Interrupting? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Talking over the other person, does not let other person finish]

To what extent was the **child**:

3. Staying on task/topic? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Follows directions, doesn't stray from topic]
4. Interrupting? 0 1 2 3 or more
[Talking over the other person, does not let other person finish]

Rate the overall level of:

0=none 1=hardly 2=pretty much 3=very much

Positive Involvement: Degree to which a person's interaction style is positive or friendly. This also reflects the quality of communication skills. [supportive, reinforcing, praising, responsive, etc.]

5. Positive parent involvement: 0 1 2 3
6. Positive child involvement: 0 1 2 3

NOT just the opposite of:

Negative involvement: Degree to which a person's interaction style is negative. [critical, sarcastic, rude, domineering, threatening. etc.]

7. Negative parent involvement: 0 1 2 3
8. Negative child involvement: 0 1 2 3

Rate the parent's overall level (across both tasks) of:

0=none 1=hardly 2=pretty much 3=very much

9. warmth/acceptance toward the child: 0 1 2 3
[accepts child, enjoys being with child, sensitive to child's feelings, listens, communicates]
10. inconsistent directions or discipline: 0 1 2 3
[threatens but doesn't follow through, gives up correcting the child, inconsistent messages about child's behavior]
11. harshness: 0 1 2 3
[yells, screams, criticizes, is mean, throws things, threatens]
12. physical punishment/threat of

physical punishment: 0 1 2 3

Appendix D: Criteria for Video Coding and Description of Target Behaviors

Task One: Plan a day off together
Note: Only code 5 minutes (interaction may be allowed to go over time- do not code after 5 mins)

Instructions are read correctly: YES NO NOT ON THE TAPE
Comments: (e.g. problems with tape, time, etc) _____
_____

Target Behavior:	**# of times it occurs:**
Parent Behaviors:	
Expression of feelings appropriately?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display negative physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display positive physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Interrupting?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Praise the child? (verbal & nonverbal)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Ask the child for input/opinion/feelings?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Laughter/humor?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Inappropriate behavior (verbal & nonverbal)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Child Behaviors:	
Express feelings appropriately?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display negative physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display positive physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Interrupting?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Laughter/humor?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Inappropriate behavior (verbal & nonverbal)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+

To what extent was the parent:	*not at all----------very much*			
Staying on task/topic?	0	1	2	3
Positively involved?	0	1	2	3
Negatively involved?	0	1	2	3

To what extent was the child:	*not at all----------very much*			
Staying on task/topic?	0	1	2	3
Positively involved?	0	1	2	3
Negatively involved?	0	1	2	3

Number of times interviewer prompted parent/child to keep talking: _____
(may be in response to parent/child comment directed to interviewer)
Task Two: Issues Task
Time: 5 minutes

Instructions are read correctly: YES NO NOT ON THE TAPE
Comments: (e.g. problems with tape, time, etc) _____
_____

Issue #Assigned: _____ 1. ***Sometimes rules are broken*** ***2. There are rules that seem unfair...***
(note all issues assigned) ***3. Sometimes chores don't get done.*** ***4 Getting homework done is a problem.***
5. Bedrooms aren't kept clean .... ***6. Other issues that come up.....***

Target Behavior:	**# of times it occurs:**
Parent Behaviors:	
Expression of feelings appropriately?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display negative physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display positive physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Interrupting?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Praise the child? (verbal & nonverbal)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Ask the child for input/opinion/feelings?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Laughter/humor?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Inappropriate behavior (verbal & nonverbal)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Child Behaviors:	
Express his/her feelings appropriately?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display negative physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Display positive physical contact?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Interrupting?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Laughter/humor?	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
Inappropriate behavior (verbal & nonverbal)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+

To what extent was the parent:	*not at all----------very much*			
Staying on task/topic?	0	1	2	3
Positively involved?	0	1	2	3
Negatively involved?	0	1	2	3

To what extent was the child:	*not at all*----------			*very much*
Staying on task/topic?	0	1	2	3
Positively involved?	0	1	2	3
Negatively involved?	0	1	2	3

times interviewer prompted parent/child to keep talking: _____
(may be in response to parent/child comment directed to interviewer)

The following ratings are your general impressions of the parent across both tasks:

Parent Behaviors:

Across both tasks, rate the parent's overall level of:

	not at all----------			*very much*
Warmth/acceptance toward the child:	0	1	2	3
Inconsistent directions or discipline:	0	1	2	3
Harshness:	0	1	2	3
Physical discipline:	0	1	2	3

VI. Rating scales used during visit.

A. Interaction Rating Scale- Rating Criteria

An abbreviated version of the Interaction Rating Scale (IRS) is completed by both the parent- and child-interviewer during the Parent-Child Interaction Tasks. During this time, the parent and child will spend 5 minutes interacting in each of two tasks. In the first task, the parent and child are instructed to plan a day off together. They can do what ever they want for the day, but they must be together. In the second task, the parent and child are instructed to try and make some progress on something that is an issue for their family.

These two tasks are designed to potentially elicit both positive and negative behaviors from the parent and child. Parent and child behaviors and parenting codes that will be rated include: staying on task/topic, interrupting, positive physical contact, negative physical contact, inappropriate behavior, expressing feelings appropriately, praise, laughter/humor, asking child for input/opinion, positive involvement, negative involvement, warmth/acceptance, harshness, inconsistent directions or discipline, and physical discipline. You will also count the number of times interviewers need to prompt the parent and/or child to keep talking.

Descriptions of each of these dimensions and the rating criteria follow.

NOTE: Although the interviewers are instructed to end the task at 5 minutes, some tasks have been allowed to go over time. The coder should time the interaction and should NOT code anything that occurs after 5 minutes has elapsed. The coder also needs to note whether the task was conducted correctly.

NOTE: You will need to count the number of times parents and children are prompted to keep talking. This may occur in response to the interviewer prompting them in response to nonverbal communication or verbal communication. Parents/children may ask how much time is left, say that they are done, etc. Interviewers are instructed to state "We need you to keep talking with each a few more minutes, a little bit longer, etc". Also, it is possible in the second task for the parent and child to be assigned a second issue to discuss – count this as a prompt to keep talking also.

1. Staying on task/topic

Definition: The person follows the instructions given by the interviewer and discusses the topic he/she is supposed to be discussing. Person's statements and comments follow directly from the other person's comments (i.e., not changing the topic).

Scale:

0 = Never. The person addresses the issues involved in the task and follows directions for **less than** half of the time. The person ignores or avoids the discussion topic, and may talk about issues that are totally unrelated to the task. The person may ignore the other person's comments and goes off on his/her own topics more than half of the time.

1 = Hardly. The person addresses the issues involved in the task and follows directions **more than** half of the time. However, the person ignores or avoids the discussion topic, and may talk about issues that are totally unrelated to the task one time or more than one time. The person may ignore the other persons comments and goes off on his/her own topics one time or more than one time.

2 = Sometimes. The person addresses the issues involved in the task and follows directions **the whole** time. However, the person ignores or avoids the discussion topic, and may talk about issues that are *totally unrelated* to the task **one** time. The person ignores the other person's comments and goes off on his/her own topics **one** time.

3 = Most of the time. The person addresses the issues involved in the task and follows directions **the whole** time. The person follows the discussion topic, and may talk about issues that are *somewhat unrelated* to the task **one or two** times, but spontaneously brings self back to the topic.

General examples and guidelines:

1. If you are uncertain about which of two ratings the family should receive, give the family the benefit of the doubt and assign the code with the higher number.

2. A score of "0", hardly, indicates that the person is on-task for less than half of the interaction. Thus, although the scale marker says "hardly", a person who is on task for less than 50% of the time receives a 0.

3. Note that this scale is different from the others in that it is a rating scale, that is, you are rating "how much" the person is on task. Nonetheless, you should be looking for specific instances ("how many times") to help guide your rating. Count the number of times an individual goes off topic to help you keep track.

4. While you are coding for on-task behavior, you are counting or looking for instances of off-task behavior. Unlike the other scales, the more off-task behavior that is observed, the lower the rating the person receives.

5. A family may finish a discussion early, before the time is up. If the family used their time well, thoroughly discussing the topic, discussing all points, and coming to an agreement, then they should be coded as being on task or higher on the scale.

6. If the family used up only a few minutes of their time and did not accomplish the task or did not appear to make a sincere effort to complete the task, then they should be rated lower on the scale.

7. Count instances of going off-topic or one person ignoring the other person's comments to help you make your rating.

Examples that would be counted as OFF-TASK :
P: We need to try to plan this day off together. What do you want to do?
C: Who cares. Can Jamie come over and play when we're done with this? (Off-task)

C: Why don't we go to the zoo?
P: You know, I'm still upset with you from the last task. You didn't listen to my instructions. I don't feel like "planning a day off" with you. (Off-task)
C: We're supposed to do this. They told us to plan a day off.
P: I know, but I think we need to talk about what happened. (Off-task)
C: (turns to interviewer) What are we supposed to do?
I: (repeat instructions)
P: OK, but this isn't over between us. OK, you said you wanted to go to the zoo. What else? (On-task)

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as:
A person would not be considered off task if the conversation flows briefly to another topic, unrelated to the task, but related to the previous statement. For example:

C: Why don't we go to the zoo? I love seeing the animals.
P: You really do like watching animals.
C: Like on the National Geographic Specials! I'm going to go on a safari some day!
P: I bet you will. OK. We'll go to the zoo. What else?

2. Interrupting

Definition: The extent to which the parent/child talks over the other person or does not let the other person finish what he/she is saying.

Scale: Count discrete occurrences

0 = Not at all or rarely. The person never or rarely interrupts the other person. He/she may briefly talk over the other person to show that he/she is listening or understands (e.g., Uh-huh, Really?, You're kidding!)
1 = Once. The person interrupts or talks over the other person. The person stops the other person in mid-sentence or mid-story, and tries to finish the thought or changes the topic one time.
2 = Twice. The person sometimes interrupts or talks over the other person. The person stops the other person in mid-sentence or mid-story, and tries to finish the thought or changes the topic two times.
3 = Three times. The person sometimes interrupts or talks over the other person. The person stops the other person in mid-sentence or mid-story, and tries to finish the thought or changes the topic three times.
4= Four times- The person stops the other person in mid-sentence or mid-story, and tries to the finish the thought or topic three times.
5= Five times - The person interrupts five times
6 = Six times – The person interrupts six times
7= 7 or more times. The person interrupts, etc 7 or more times.

General examples and guidelines:

1. If you are uncertain about which of two ratings the family should receive, give the family the benefit of the doubt and assign the code with the lower number.

2. It is important to note that a certain amount of "mild," nonintrusive, and accidental interrupting occurs during the course of normal conversations. This level and amount of interrupting should be considered the baseline (i.e., given a rating of "0").

3. Interruptions involve blatantly cutting someone off mid-though, trying to finish the other person's thoughts or changing the topic mid-thought. These are sometimes viewed as attempts to control or direct the flow of conversation.

4. Note that even though this is a rating of "how much" a person interrupts, you should be looking for instances of specific behaviors to help make the rating.

Examples that WOULD be coded as:
A person stops the speaker in the middle of a sentence or thought as if to override the speaker (e.g., disagree or decide for the speaker), or gain control of the conversation (e.g., change the topic or direct the topic in a different direction).

"Uh-huh's," "hmm's," "right's," "yes's," etc. are only interruptions if they are uttered at inappropriate times indicating that the person is not listening or does not really want to hear what the person has to say. For example:

C: I was thinking about …
P: Uh huh, hmm… (not intended as encouragement to continue; interrupting)
C: …it might be fun…
P: Yeah. (not intended as encouragement to continue; interrupting)
C: … if we…
P: Whatever you want to do is fine with me honey. (clear interruption)

Both individuals may interrupt each other. Even if a person interrupts the other to finish his/her original thought after being interrupted, both participants should be rated as interrupting.

If both parent and child talk over each other at the same time, both should be rated as interrupting.

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as interrupting:
"Uh-huh's," "hmm's," "right's," "yes's," etc. that are used genuinely to show interest or that the person is listening. These words can be used to encourage a person to continue if they pause. This would not be considered interrupting.

A person might complete a sentence for another person to help the person gather his/her thoughts or if the person pauses and can't think of the word. This is generally done in a tentative fashion as the person is "guessing" what the other person is thinking. For example:

C: It would be fun to go to the… you know that place that has the, um, fish and …
P: … the aquarium?
C: Yeah it would be fun to go to the aquarium!

3. Negative physical contact

Definition: Display of any negative physical contact, such as hitting, slapping, shoving, biting, *roughly grabbing*, spitting, pushing, kicking, throwing. There must be direct bodily contact between the two participants or one participant must cause an inanimate object to come into contact with the other participant (e.g., spitting or throwing an object, almost poking a pen in the parent' eyeball).

Count discrete occurrences

Scale: 0 = 0 Times. Never displays negative physical contact.
1 = 1 Time. Displays negative physical contact one time.
2 = 2 Times. Displays negative physical contact two times.
3 = 3 Times. Displays negative physical contact 3 times.
4 = 4 Times Displays negative physical contact 4 times
5 = 5 Times Displays negative physical contact 5 times
6 = 6 Times Displays negative physical contact 6 times
7= 7 or more Times – Displays negative physical contact 7 or more times

General examples and guidelines:

1. Negative physical contact may or may not occur with negative verbal behavior. Code the physical contact and verbal behavior separately.

2. If there is no physical contact, behavior should be coded as inappropriate behavior.

3. If you are uncertain as to whether the subject's behavior should be coded as negative physical contact , do not code it as such.

Examples that WOULD be coded as:

Any physical contact that is harmful, potentially harmful, disrespectful or threatening.

Some people may exhibit negative physical contact while laughing or being "playful." If the behavior seems extreme or uncontrolled, or it seems like the person is being rough, and it seems as though the other person does not like the behavior, code the behavior as negative physical contact.

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as:

If the negative physical contact is clearly playful or in the context of a positive interaction (e.g., parent lightly punches child on the arm to indicate "good job" or "way to go") then it is not coded as negative physical contact.

4. Positive physical contact

Definition: Display of any positive physical contact, such as hugging, kissing, patting, rubbing, etc.

Count discrete occurrences.

Scale: 0 = 0 Times. Never displays positive physical contact.
1 = 1 Time. Displays positive physical contact one time.
2 = 2 Times. Displays positive physical contact twice.
3 = 3 Times. Displays positive physical contact 3 times.
4 = 4 Times. Displays positive physical contact 4 times
5 = 5 Times. Displays positive physical contact 5 times
6 = 6 Times
7 = 7 or More Times

General examples and guidelines:

1. Positive physical contact may or may not occur with positive verbal behavior (e.g., praise). Code the physical contact and verbal behavior separately.

2. If there is no physical contact, behavior should be coded as positive involvement.

3. If you are uncertain as to whether the subject's behavior should be coded as positive physical contact , do not code it as such.

Examples that WOULD be coded as:
Hugging
Kissing
Holding hands
Gently patting or stroking
Placing hand lightly on the other person
Parent hugging the child or stroking the child while the child is on the parent's lap
High five (also may be coded as Praise)

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as:

Picking at the other person
Tickling
Rubbing something off the other person
Ruffling the other person's hair
Parent placing the child on his/her lap (note, however, that child voluntarily sitting on parent's lap would be counted as positive physical contact for the CHILD)
Clapping for the other person (counted as praise)
Being "playful" in a way that doesn't seem nurturing or encouraging (see guidelines for Negative Physical Contact)

5. Parent asks Child for his/her Input/Opinion

Definition: The parent asks the child what he or she thinks or feels about a particular issue, event, or topic of conversation. Discussions of feelings should also be coded as Expressing Feelings Appropriately if applicable.
Scale: Count discrete acts. Possible range of 0 to 7 or more occurrences.

General Examples and Guidelines:

1. The parent shows interest in the child's viewpoint or opinion.
2. This interest is shown in the form of a question.

Examples that WOULD be coded as Asking for Input:

P: How do you feel about our current chore system? (also Expressing Feelings Appropriately)
P: How would you feel about me talking to your teacher about it? (also coded "")
P: Do you have any ideas for solving the problem?
P: What do you think about making a chart?
P: What would help you make your bed more often?
P: What do you think about me calling Joey's mom and ask her about it?
P: What should we do on our day off?
P: What would you like to eat, do, where go to, etc?
P: Do you want to go to Mickey D's or BK?

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as Asking for Input:
Sarcastic requests or questions:

P: OK fine, you tell me what I should do about this.
P: You think WHAT?!
P: That's your idea for what we should do?

P: Where am I supposed to get the money for that?

Any questions which are not clearly asking the child to express his or her opinion or position.

Requests for more information about something the child mentioned previously would not be coded P: Tell me more about your idea for keeping track of the chores.
P: What happened that you couldn't do the chores?

Questions to which the child can only respond "yes" or "no"
P: Should we go to the movies?
P: How about going to McDonalds?

6. Parent: Praises the Child : Verbal and Nonverbal

Definition: Complimenting, reinforcing, or otherwise praising the child for something he/she has done in the past or present, or in some cases, the future. The praising must be sincere (i.e., not sarcastic). Praise will suggest that the parent is pleased with or approves of something the child has done or said.

Scale: Count discrete acts. Possible range of 0 to 7 or more occurrences.

General examples and guidelines:

1. Praise may be verbal or non-verbal.

2. Praise must be in response to something the child has said or done. If a positive statement is made without clearly relating to something the child has done, then it should be coded as Positive Involvement.

3. If you are uncertain as to whether the subject's behavior should be coded as praise, do not code it as praise.

Examples that WOULD be coded as Praise:

The following, when said sincerely, are examples of verbal praise:
You did a good job with that.
I like your idea.
That's an excellent idea.
I like how you solved that problem.
Thanks for getting your homework done last night.
You were really helpful the other day.
I'm really proud of you for bringing home such a nice report card.
Way to go!
That's great!

Non-verbal praise would include:
clapping
giving "thumbs up"
raising hands or fists as if to cheer
smile and nod to suggest parent approves (expression must be in response to a specific child behavior; otherwise should be coded as positive involvement)

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as Praise:

Verbal statements that indicate something the parent wants the child to do (e.g., It would really be great if you helped me clean up).

Statements that simply report behavior without showing pleasure or approval of the behavior (e.g., You did fine on the last test; you haven't had any problems with school this year) Note that if

these comments are made with an enthusiastic voice or are accompanied by clear non-verbal cues of praise then they would be counted as praise.

Sarcasm: Tone of voice and context is important (e.g., "Way to go!!" can be praise, but if it is said sarcastically or said when someone has made a mistake or did a bad job, then it is not praise).

Non-verbal behaviors that would not be considered praise:

parent hugs, kisses or "high-five's" with the child; these are coded as positive physical contact. Such behaviors may be accompanied by verbal praise, in which case the verbal praise is counted as praise and the physical contact is counted as positive physical contact.

Parent nods head in conversation to express "uh-huh, yes," and so on.

7. Laughter and Humor

Definition: Obvious expressions of amusement including laughter, smiling, chuckling, etc.
Scale: Count discrete acts. Possible range of 0 to 7 or more occurrences.

General Examples and Guidelines:

1. Laughter and humor may be shared or not. If it is obviously shared between the two people (e.g. they both laugh or smile at something funny), it should be coded as both a parent and child behavior.
2. If the funny thing is not shared (e.g. the child tells a joke and laughs but the parent does not) it should only be coded for the person would demonstrated amusement.
3. The humor can come from many sources: the conversation, a pet or another child in the room, a shared joke, references to past funny events, etc.
4. If you cannot tell if it is funny or sarcastic, do NOT code it as humor.
5. Humor may occur very briefly (e.g. a short shared laugh during a serious conversation)

Examples that WOULD be coded as Laughter/Humor:

Child tells about something funny that happened at school, parent laughs. (Coded as Both)

Parent says something funny while smiling and the child laughs. (coded as Both)

Child tells a dirty joke and laughs, but parent is stern. (coded as Child only)

Parent laughs while saying something about the child ("but last week you loved Legos!") and the child does not find it noticeably amusing. (coded as Parent only)

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as Laughter/Humor:

Snickering, pointing at the other person and laughing (Inappropriate Behavior)

Dry and sarcastic: "Oh, HA HA." (Also Inappropriate Behavior)

Derisive humor (Also Inappropriate) – putting someone down

8. Express Feelings Appropriately

Definition: The person verbally expresses his or her own feelings or the feelings of the other person involved in the interaction. The expressed feelings may either be positive (e.g., happy, excited) or negative (e.g., sad, angry). The expression of feelings must be clear and should not be accompanied by signs of inappropriate or critical affect (e.g., rolling eyes, pouting, signing in disgust, which should be coded as inappropriate behaviors)
Scale: Count discrete acts. Possible range of 0 to 7 or more occurrences.

General examples and guidelines:

1. Appropriate expression of feelings may involve feelings generated during the interaction (i.e., feelings in response to the interactions) or may involve feelings related to another context (e.g., something that happened at school).

2. Expression of feelings involves both understanding one's own state and/or the feeling state of the other person (i.e., empathy), and being able to communicate those feelings in a respectful, clear manner. Be aware that children's verbal skills may limit their ability to communicate feelings in an articulate manner, however, their efforts given their level of verbal skills should be noted.

3. Appropriate expression of feelings may or may not occur in the presence of inappropriate behavior. It would be possible for a person to express their feelings appropriately, and then engage in an inappropriate behavior afterwards, or to behave inappropriately, and then decide to express feelings appropriately. However, if the expression of feelings is accompanied (simultaneously) by inappropriate behavior, then it should be coded as inappropriate behavior.

4. If you are uncertain whether the subject's behavior should be coded as an appropriate expression of feelings, do not code it as appropriate expression of feelings.

Examples that WOULD be coded as Appropriate Expression of Feeling:
Statements about how one is feeling
Empathy statements, indicating what the person thinks the other person is feeling (these should be genuine and not sarcastic or defensive:

C: You look mad at me (appropriate expression of feelings)
C: Great! Now you're mad at me (not appropriate)

Questions about how the other person is feeling
Statements such as:

That makes me mad. (or… sad, happy, excited, angry, frustrated, bored, disappointed, feel good, feel bad, tired, elated, cranky, annoyed, irritated, upset, concerned, etc.)
I get sick of him.
I get tired of it.
I miss her.
It sounds like you're really frustrated.
I feel aggravated when you do that.
How does that make you feel?
I enjoy spending time with you.
I love you.
I like you.
I'm in a bad mood.
I'm looking forward to spending this day with you.
You would probably be frustrated if I did that to you.

Words that would fit in the sentence "I felt/feel _____" even if it wasn't phrased as such.

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as:

Use of feeling words to describe the feelings of someone who is not in the room.

P: Your brother really gets mad when you take his stuff.
C: He likes me/He hates me
P: How do you think that makes her feel?
C: My sister is in a really bad mood today.

Words that do not specifically include the speaker or other in the interaction:

C: Everyone was mad at the teacher (not appropriate expression)
C: We were all mad at the teacher (appropriate expression of feelings)

Statements or questions about liking, enjoying or hating a particular activity:

I loved that movie.
I would hate to take a road trip.
Did you enjoy the concert?
Would you like to go to the zoo?

Do you want to go to the movies with me?

Statements that describe the emotions that are part of an object or event:

That book was sad (not appropriate expression of feelings)

That kind of thing must be very frustrating for people (not appropriate expression)

vs.

Those kinds of things make me sad (coded as appropriate expression of feelings)

9. Inappropriate behavior

Definition: The person behaves in an inappropriate and socially unacceptable manner. Behaviors may include discrete acts of yelling, sulking, whining, being critically sarcastic, being inappropriately critical, acting rudely, being disrespectful, using an aversive tone of voice, staring in a hostile manner or glaring, gesturing angrily, displaying angry body posture, threatening the other person, having angry or immature facial expression and posture (e.g., defiantly crossing arms), name-calling, etc.

Count discrete occurrences.

Scale: 0 = 0 Times. Never behaves inappropriately.
1 = 1 Time. Person behaves inappropriately one time during the interaction.
2 = 2 Times. Person behaves inappropriately twice during the interaction.
3 = 3 Times. Person behaves inappropriately 3 times
4 = 4 Times
5 = 5 Times
6 = 6 Times
7 = 7 Times

General Examples and Guidelines:

1. Inappropriate behavior may either be verbal or nonverbal.

2. Verbal behavior may be considered hostile either because of what is said or because of how it is said (e.g., tone of voice, accompanying nonverbal gestures and body posture, context). For example, "You're such a good person" would not be considered inappropriate if it was said enthusiastically; however, the same statement would be considered inappropriate if is was said sarcastically with the obvious intention of criticizing. On the other hand, a statement such as, "You're a bitch" would be considered inappropriate no matter how it was said.

3. Inappropriate non-verbal behaviors are those that communicate disrespect, angry outbursts, angry body posture, obscene gestures, rolling eyes, making faces.

4. If you are uncertain as to whether the subject's behavior should be coded as inappropriate, do not code it as inappropriate behavior.

Examples that WOULD be coded as inappropriate behavior:

Verbal

C: I can't really remember what happened today.
P: (rudely) Can't you remember what you did?! It was ONLY this morning! (Inappropriate Behavior)

C: I want to go to the beach.
P: No I don't want to go to the beach.
C: (sarcastically) Why, because you're so fat and don't want to be seen?

Non-verbal

Rolling eyes
Angry gesturing: putting up fists, hitting one fist against the other hand, hitting the chair or table, stamping feet)
Obscene gesturing: giving the middle "finger," crossing arms and bringing one arm up to the face)
Angry body posture: arms crossed in disgust or defiance, sulking)
Immature acts that are rude: putting hands over ears while other person is talking, humming or nannering while other person is talking, walking away from interaction.

Other
Yelling
Critical sarcasm
Directives said rudely
Inappropriate criticism
Rudeness
Disrespect ("I wish you weren't my mother," "You kids never do anything right")
Threats ("I'll smack you one," "What are you going to do to me if I don't")
Expressions of being "put upon"
Whining
Offensive language, expletives, curses
Name calling ("fatso," "geek," "you're so stupid")
Mocking/Imitating in a critical or sarcastic tone of voice

Examples that WOULD NOT be coded as inappropriate behavior:

Appropriate expressions of negative emotions (coded as Expressing Feelings Appropriately)
Firm Directives if not said in a threatening or hostile manner:

C: I'm not staying here and listening to this.
P: Do not walk away from me when we are talking (said firmly but calmly)

C: No way am I spending a day with you (said sarcastically)
P: Do not use that tone of voice with me (said firmly but calmly)

10. Positive involvement

Only think about the presence or absence the following behaviors

Definition: The degree to which the person's style of interaction is generally positive or friendly. This code also reflects quality of communication skills. Coding of this item should be based on the coder's overall impression of the interaction.

Scale:

0 = None. In general, the person is not positively involved in the conversation.

a. the parent/child's participation is at least one of the following: nonexistent, distant/removed, distracted, or "flat" (e.g. he/she sits through the conversation), *may* not pay attention
b. the person is not supportive, eager, reinforcing, praising.
c. the person does not smile, laugh or appear to enjoy the interaction, or smiling appears simply due to anxiety and embarrassment (*not* enjoyment, encouragement, etc.)- is generally not positive or does not seem interested in the conversation
d. the person says very little, may hardly responds to the other person or is very slow to respond to the other person
e. lack of positive behaviors.

f. communication skills – rarely or only occasionally responsive, clear, and easy to understand, only rarely or occasionally listens to what person has to say, etc; the quality of these behaviors may be poor.

1 = Low or hardly. In general, the person is minimally positively involved in the conversation.
a. the parent/child's participation is minimal, distant/removed, distracted or "flat" much of the time.
b. the person is a little supportive, eager, reinforcing, praising.
c. the person hardly (rarely) smiles, laughs or appears to enjoy the interaction. The person may seem to enjoy the other person one time.
d. the person responds to the other person, but says the minimum necessary (e.g. he/she simply says "yes/no" or shakes his/her head or seems to be struggling to find something to say)
e. few positive behaviors

2 = Moderate or Some. In general, the person is somewhat or pretty much positively involved in the conversation. This is considered "average"
a. the parent/child's participation is moderate, with some investment in the interaction, may show some distraction, but shows some interest.
b. the person is pretty much supportive, eager, reinforcing, praising, may show warm body language
c. the person smiles, laughs or appears to enjoy the interaction at least half of the time
d. the person responds to the other person pretty much, may not contribute a lot to the conversation
e. some positive behaviors.
f. communication skills are somewhat good- to a moderate degree, the person listens to what other person has to say, is responsive, clear, easy to understand, etc.)

3 = A lot or very much. In general, the person is very much positively involved in the conversation.
a. the parent/child's participation is high, with lots of investment in the interaction, interest, and rarely if ever distracted. Is attentive and responsive, participates entire time
b. the person is very supportive, eager, reinforcing, praising (e.g. displays warm body contact, appears to be eager, genuinely smiling, is animated, praises other person).
c. the person smiles, laughs or appears to enjoy the interaction most of the time, seems to be enjoying the other persona and genuinely engaged.
d. the person responds to the other person and contributes to the conversation
e. many positive behaviors.
f. to a relatively high degree, the person listens to what other person has to say, is responsive, clear, easy to understand, asks good questions, etc.)

General examples and guidelines:
1. Be sure to pick the rating that best describes the interaction. Use "some" to indicate the presence of a little, but not "enough" of a behavior and "much" to indicate the behavior happens frequently and more than enough.

2. This rating is a general rating that involves all aspects of the interaction: verbal and non-verbal communication, physical contact, communication skills.

3. Note that it is possible to give high scores for both Positive and Negative Involvement. A person may show a lot of the positive behaviors and still engage in rude or inappropriate or other negative behaviors. Similarly, it is possible to give low scores on both Positive and Negative Involvement.

4. For this code you are only looking for the **presence or absence of positive behaviors**. You are not looking for negative behaviors.

5. Think about both the intensity and frequency of behaviors. A person can be high on Positive Involvement if they are very positive and supportive a few times or if the are pretty positive and supportive the whole time.

6. If you are uncertain about which of two codes to give a person, give him/her the benefit of the doubt and give the higher of two numbers. However, do not over-rate a person. They may seem "likable" from previous interactions or other indicators, but may not show a lot of positive involvement during the specific interaction.

11. Negative involvement

Definition: The degree to which the person's interaction style is negative. This code also reflects the quality of communications skills. Coding of this item should be based on the coder's overall impression of the interaction.

Scale:

0 = None. In general, the person never shows any blatant signs of negative involvement.
- a. the person is not critical, sarcastic, rude, hostile, whiny, disrespectful, threatening, etc.
- b. the person does not have cold or angry body language (e.g., does not defiantly cross arms or position body away from other person, look away or stare blankly) or have disrespectful non-verbal communication (e.g., rolling eyes, expressing annoyance or sarcasm with sighs or grimaces)
- c. the person does not make nasty remarks or use put-downs.
- d. the person is not overly domineering or controlling.
- e. lack of negative behaviors.
- f. Does not display bad communication skills (e.g. does not disregard what the other person has said or blatantly try to take control over conversation, he/she does not cut off the other person.

1 = Low or hardly. In general, the person is minimally negative in the interaction.
- a. the person is critical, sarcastic, rude, hostile, whiny, disrespectful, threatening, etc. once during the interaction.
- b. the person uses cold or angry body language (e.g., does not defiantly cross arms or position body away from other person, look away or stare blankly) or disrespectful non-verbal communication (e.g., rolling eyes, expressing annoyance or sarcasm with sighs or grimaces) rarely or once.
- c. the person makes only one nasty remark or put-down.
- d. the person was slightly domineering or controlling.
- e. few negative behaviors.

2 = Moderate or Some. In general, the person is somewhat or pretty much negative in the interaction.
- a. the person is critical, sarcastic, rude, hostile, whiny, disrespectful, threatening, etc. 2 or 3 times during the interaction.
- b. the person uses cold or angry body language (e.g., defiantly cross arms or position body away from other person, look away or stare blankly) or disrespectful non-verbal communication (e.g., rolling eyes, expressing annoyance or sarcasm with sighs or grimaces) a few or several times.
- c. the person makes 2 to 3 nasty remarks or put-downs.

d. the person was pretty much domineering or controlling.
e. several negative behaviors.
f. the person *may* display somewhat poor communication skills – the person, may, to a moderate degree, seem concerned with advancing his/her own opinion or thoughts without taking into consideration what the other person is saying, may ignore or disregard information the other person has communicated.

3 = A lot or very much. In general, the person is very much negative in the interaction.
a. the person is critical, sarcastic, rude, hostile, whiny, disrespectful, threatening, combative, making nasty faces, etc. most of the time during the interaction.
b. the person uses cold or angry body language (e.g., defiantly cross arms or position body away from other person, look away or stare blankly) or disrespectful non-verbal communication (e.g., rolling eyes, expressing annoyance or sarcasm with sighs or grimaces, making nasty/critical faces many or much of the time.
c. the person makes more than three nasty remarks or put-downs.
d. the person was very domineering or controlling.
e. a lot of negative behaviors.
f. the person *may* display poor communication skills - the person, may, to a high degree, seem concerned with advancing his/her own opinion or thoughts without taking into consideration what the other person is saying, may ignore or disregard information the other person has communicated.

General examples and guidelines:

1. Be sure to pick the rating that best describes the interaction. Use "some" to indicate the presence of a little, but not "enough" of a behavior and "much" or "a lot" to indicate the behavior happens frequently and more than enough.

2. This rating is a general rating which involves all aspects of the interaction: verbal and non-verbal communication, physical contact, communication skills.

3. Note that it is possible to give high scores for both Positive and Negative Involvement. A person may show a lot of the positive behaviors and still engage in rude or inappropriate or other negative behaviors. Similarly, it is possible to give low scores on both Positive and Negative Involvement.

4. For this code you are only looking for the presence or absence of negative behaviors. You are not looking for positive behaviors.

5. Think about both the intensity and frequency of behaviors. A person can be high on Negative Involvement if they are very negative, critical and rude a few times or if the are pretty negative, critical and rude the whole time.

6. If you are uncertain about which of two codes to give a person, give him/her the benefit of the doubt and give the lower of two numbers. However, do not under- or over-rate a person. They may seem "likable" from previous interactions or other indicators, but may show a lot of negative involvement during the specific interaction. Conversely, the person may seem "unlikable" or "rude" from previous interactions or other indicators, but my show few if any negative behaviors during the specific interaction.

These codes are slightly different as you are forming a general impression of the parent at the end of both interaction tasks. Also, you are rating their "parenting," their parenting skills and how they treat the child. You would expect some behaviors from a parent, but not a child (e.g., you would not expect a child to set

limits with the parent with regard to their tone of voice or to give a parent a consequence for misbehaving), whereas with (most of) the previous codes, we would expect similar behaviors from both participants.

12. Warmth/Acceptance

Sample Behaviors: Parent …
accepts child as s/he is
seems to enjoy being with child
has a friendly talk with the child
sensitive to child's feelings
seems to know about the child's friends, interests, experiences, school, etc.
listens to the child
communicates with the child/expresses thoughts and feelings to her/him

Scale: 0 = Not at all, none (shows none of the above behaviors)
1 = Hardly at all (shows little or few of the above behaviors)
2 = Pretty much (shows several of the behaviors or 2 or 3 of them consistently)
3 = Very much (shows all of the above behaviors, or 4 or more of them consistently)

13. Inconsistent directions or discipline

Sample Behaviors: Parent …
threatens to punish the child, but does not actually do it
lets child talk her/him out of punishment
gives up on trying to get child to obey a direction
gives child one direction at one time and an opposite one the next
does not punish or limit the child when he/she is doing something wrong
asks child to stop doing something one time, then lets her/him do it the next time
tells child something s/he is doing is inappropriate but then laughs about it

Scale: 0 = Not at all, none (shows none of the above behaviors)
1 = Hardly at all (shows little or few of the above behaviors)
2 = Pretty much (shows several of the behaviors or 2 or 3 of them consistently)
3 = Very much (shows all of the above behaviors, or 4 or more of them consistently)

Note – these are things which may occur during the interaction but are not necessarily related to the topic the parent and child are discussing. For example, a parent may direct a child to sit up or take off hat, etc and then is not consistent with the child. Or, the parent may tell the child to stop doing the behavior but then when the child starts doing it again, ignore it. Or, the parent may not limit the child when the child has done something wrong, such a child continuing to be disrespectful or making negative physical contact with the child.

14. Harshness

Sample Behaviors: Parent …
yells or screams at the child when trying to get him/her to stop doing something
parent criticizes or berates the child
parent uses sarcasm when talking with the child
uses derisive humor
parent says mean things
parent threatens the child with physical punishment (e.g., spanking, slap, "you're going to get it!")
parent slams or throws an object (<u>not</u> at the child) or hits the table or chair with hands

Scale: 0 = Not at all, none (shows none of the above behaviors)

1 = Hardly at all (shows one of the above behaviors once or twice)
2 = Pretty much (shows 2 or 3 of the above behaviors, or engages in 1 behavior 3 times)
3 = Very much (shows several of the above behaviors, or engages in 2 or more behaviors consistently)

15. Physical discipline

Sample Behaviors: Parent …
spanks child on bottom
hits (with open hand) child on harm, back or leg
slaps child on the face with open hand
punches child
grabs child by the arm or grabs child roughly
hits the child with an object
throws something at the child

Scale: 0 = Not at all, none (shows none of the above behaviors)
1 = Hardly at all (engages in any of the above behaviors 1 time)
2 = Pretty much (engages in any of the above behaviors 2 or 3 times)
3 = Very much (engages in any of the above behaviors 4 or more times)

Vita

Erica Kovacs was born in Miami, Florida. At the University of Virginia, she earned a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology and Philosophy. At the University of Washington, she earned a Master of Science in Psychology in 2000. In 2003 she earned a Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Washington in Child Clinical Psycholgy.