CHILDREARING ATTITUDES OF MEXICAN-AMERICAN MOTHERS: EFFECTS OF EDUCATION OF MOTHER

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the North Texas State University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

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By

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The purpose of this study was to identify childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with children ages three to five years of age. Specifically the first purpose of this study was to determine childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or fewer and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or more as identified by the Parent As A Teacher Inventory (PAAT). The second purpose was to identify the relationship of the following demographic variables to childrearing attitudes: mother's age, mother's marital status, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, generational status, mother's language and mother's ethnicity.

The PAAT and the Parent Information Questionnaire were administered to 112 Mexican-American mothers; 54 Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or fewer and 58 Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or more. The population from which these subjects were drawn were mothers from Mexican-American communities in a North Texas county.
Responses on the sample were analyzed using multivariate statistics. Based on the analysis of the data, the following conclusions seem tenable.

1. The Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or more have childrearing attitudes which are more positive than the Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or fewer.

2. Control and teaching-learning are related to the mother's educational level, income, generational status and language. The mothers with more education and a higher income, who are third generation and who prefer English usage, tend to allow their children more independence.

3. Agreement may be expected between the childrearing attitudes of the Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or fewer and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or more toward creativity, frustration, and play.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Mexican-Americans are the second largest minority in the United States (32). Due to an unusually high birth rate and continuous immigration, the Mexican-American population has been increasing during the past thirty years (2). This increase will have a great impact on society in the United States. In order to understand the Mexican-American people, it is essential to focus on differences as well as similarities within the Mexican-American community.

Childrearing attitudes and practices are products of the parents' personalities and culture (25, 37). Research about childrearing attitudes could provide some insight into the Mexican-American community. Observation of Mexican-American families indicates that they are a very diverse group, affected by a number of variables. Mexican-American families have been influenced by urbanization, industrialization, acculturation (1, 2, 22), females in the labor force and geographical and social mobility (2).

Despite internal diversity, there are certain features characteristic of most Mexican-American families. More studies are needed about childrearing in the Mexican-American
culture comparing groups within the Mexican-American population in order to identify features that are typical of this ethnic group. The intent of this study was to investigate childrearing attitudes based on the mothers' education within the Mexican-American community.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was a comparison of selected childrearing attitudes between Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower who have children ages three to five years and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher who have children ages three to five years.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were

1. to determine the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower who have children ages three to five years as measured on the five subsets of the Parent as a Teacher Inventory (PAAT);
2. to determine the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher who have children ages three to five years as measured on the five subsets of the PAAT;
3. to compare childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and
Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher and;

4. to determine the effects of demographic variables including mother's age, mother's marital status, educational level of mother, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, mother's generational status, mother's language and mother's ethnicity on the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers.

Hypotheses

To carry out the purposes of the study the following hypotheses were tested.

1. There will be a significant difference in the profile of childrearing attitude scores on the Parent as a Teacher Inventory between Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher.

2. There will be a significant relationship between the following two sets of variables: (a) the PAAT childrearing set, including creativity, frustration, control, play, teaching-learning, and (b) the demographic set, including mother's age, mother's marital status, educational level of mother, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, mother's generational status, mother's language and mother's ethnicity.
Background and Significance of the Study

Early childhood experiences greatly influence a child's cognitive, social-emotional and physical development. Through their attitudes and behavior, parents shape the environments and experiences during the early childhood years, becoming a primary influence on their children's development (4, 5, 7, 18, 21, 25, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37).

Results of research on children who were competent in school indicated that certain family factors were associated with the acquisition of competence. The categories of factors included demographic factors, parent-child interaction factors, cognitive factors and emotional factors.

Studies (9, 20) indicated that socioeconomic status (12, 18, 28), acculturation (12, 18, 28), mother's age (25), and mother's education (6, 12, 18, 19, 20) were strong influences on the experiences of young children. Results of recent studies indicated that the education of the mother affected the mother-child interaction which in turn influenced the child's competence in school (6, 18, 19).

Other factors influencing the mother-child interaction were the quality and quantity of time spent with the child (29, 33, 35), the mother's socioeconomic status (8, 12, 17), mother's self-esteem (7, 24), and the mother-father relationship (6, 11, 25).
Cognitive factors included the goals and educational aspirations parents had for their children, whether parents perceived themselves as their children's teacher; whether they gave their children academic guidance; or whether they used descriptive language with their children and encouraged their children to engage in conversation (9, 10). Five general characteristics of families whose children achieved higher intelligence quotient scores were: (1) provided appropriate play materials for the child (30, 33, 35), (2) were responsive to their children (30, 33, 35), (3) gave their children many opportunities for language development (30, 33, 35), (4) avoided excessive restrictiveness giving the child room to explore, and even opportunities to make mistakes (30, 33, 35), and (5) had high expectations of their children emphasizing school achievement (9, 10, 30, 33, 35).

The emotional factors included those experiences which affected the child's self-esteem. Coopersmith (7) found that parents of children with high self-esteem had high self-esteem themselves. They treated their children as responsible individuals. Mothers expected their children to have opinions and to share them with others. They set strict specific limits for their children and were consistent in applying these limits.

Childrearing beliefs and values are products of the parents' own personalities, values, and attitudes (25, 37).
Infant and child care practices characteristic of different cultures are keys in explaining the character structure and institutions of these cultures (37). Laosa (19) states that "cultural variations in human behavior are probably adaptive for coping with environmental demands in the population's ecological niche" (19, p. 759). Changes in the environmental pressures such as intercultural contact, education and socio-economic status may lead to cultural evolution (18).

Mexican-Americans are one of the largest ethnic groups in the United States and are making an impact on the majority culture. The levels of education achieved by Mexican-Americans are very low which in turn affects their occupation and income (2, 27, 32). The preschool years are important in determining a child's success in school (9, 10, 13, 26, 30, 33, 35). Programs for Mexican-American children must take into consideration the children's culture and needs to give them a sound foundation for success in school. It is equally important that parents recognize the importance of their roles as teachers of their children. In addition, parent education programs should be based on an understanding and respect for the values and attitudes of the Mexican-American culture for whom the program is intended (14). Therefore, a study of the Mexican-American culture is necessary in order to meet the needs of Mexican-American children. Because childrearing attitudes and practices are products of the parents' personalities and
culture (18, 25, 37), it is important that more research be conducted in the area of attitudes toward childrearing by Mexican-Americans.

Childrearing attitudes and practices have varied across cultural populations and within some cultures, varying according to the amount of acculturation, socioeconomic status (12, 18, 28), and level of education (12, 18, 20). Socioeconomic status has traditionally been derived from the occupation and education of the parents. Spiwak (28) used the Parent as a Teacher Inventory to study the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American parents. He controlled for social class in order to find features which are characteristic of most Mexican-American families. Spiwak found statistically significant differences between the lower and middle class Mexican-American parents in their total PAAT scores. Spiwak also found that the middle class group responded in a more desirable manner than those of the lower class on the frustration and teaching-learning subscales. Those in the middle class group viewed themselves as having greater ability to facilitate the teaching-learning process than those in the lower class (28). Spiwak determined social class by combining the parents' education and occupation. He did not separate the two variables, education and occupation, to determine whether one was more influential than the other. It may be more useful to examine education
and occupation separately to investigate whether one is more influential than the other in the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American parents (19).

Johnson's (14) investigation focused on the identification of common features which exist across income levels and differences within the Mexican-American subject group as a function of income level, sex, education, family size, accessibility and consistency in observed behaviors. Johnson found that the level of parent education did not have a significant effect on the teaching-learning subset. However, education did have an effect on the control subset. Parents with less than nine years of education expressed a greater need for control of their children.

Kearns (15) conducted a study investigating the correlation between home environmental variables and achievement measures. Kearns found that the attitudes and practices of the home, especially of the mother, had more direct influence than did either social class or the father's occupation. Therefore, while the father does play an important role in the rearing of the children, it is important to begin by focusing on the childrearing attitudes of the mother.

Another study which focused on the mother's influence on the child's achievement was Laosa's study on the mother-child interaction (19). He controlled for education in this
study. The findings of Laosa's study suggested that maternal teaching behavior differed with the mother's level of education. In teaching their children, the more highly educated mothers imitated the academic style of the school classroom (18, 19). Laosa recommended that more studies be conducted on childrearing which control for the educational level of mothers.

It is important to clarify the distinction between education and cultural variables in the Mexican-American population. Padilla (23) suggested that additional analysis of the Mexican-American family could reveal not only how Mexican-Americans differ from other cultures, but also how the Mexican-Americans differ among themselves.

The intent of this study was to investigate childrearing in the Mexican-American community. Because there was a need to explore further the effects of mothers' education on their childrearing attitudes, the subjects were grouped by level of education. By controlling for education, this study focused on differences within the Mexican-American community rather than among ethnic groups.

Definition of Terms

The following terms have restricted meaning for this study.

**Mexican-American.**—This term designates the white population of Mexican origin or descent in America. Included
under this term are many who identify themselves as Chicanos, Spanish Americans, Hispanos, Mexicanos, Californios, and Latin Americans (2, p. 269).

Acculturation.--The process of change that results from the contact of at least two autonomous cultural groups. In principle, change can occur in either of the two parties. However, in practice one group dominates the other and contributes more to the flow of cultural elements than does the weaker of the two groups (3).

Parental attitude.--A measure of how parents feel about certain aspects of the parent-child interactive system, their standards for assessing the importance of various child behaviors and their value preferences concerning child behavior (30).

Generational status.--The Mexican-American's recentness of migration to the United States (16). The generational levels are defined as first generation--respondents are born in Mexico, second generation--respondents are born in the United States with one or both parents born in Mexico, and the third generation--respondents are born in the United States with both parents born in the United States (16).

Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations.

1. This study was subject to all the limitations recognized in collecting data using the questionnaire.
2. This study was subject to limitations recognized when using a sample of volunteers.

3. This study was limited to the Mexican-American population involved in the study.

Basic Assumptions

This study was based upon the following assumptions.

1. Subjects would respond to the Parent As A Teacher Inventory (PAAT) honestly.

2. Based upon review of the literature the PAAT would provide a sensitive measure of parental childrearing attitudes for the subjects.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of related literature is divided into three parts. The three parts are an overview of Mexican-American characteristics, the independent variables and childrearing expectations of parents.

The Mexican-American Characteristics

Individuals from Mexico are some of the oldest and newest Americans (69, 82). People of Mexican ancestry living in the United States are quite varied culturally. They include descendants of Mexican settlers in the southwest when it was still a part of Mexico, immigrants from Mexico with residency status but who are not citizens, illegal aliens, transients from Mexico, naturalized United States citizens from Mexico, and those Mexican-Americans born in the United States who are descendants of Mexicans (69, 82). Racially, Mexican-Americans are predominantly Native American and Spanish. As a group these people have had a variety of historical experiences. The variety of historical experiences explains, in part, much of the diversity among Mexican-Americans.

Through the family socialization process, cultural norms and values are acquired (92). An understanding of
the family is important to the understanding of stability and change of any social system (36). Mexican-American families have been influenced by urbanization, industrialization, acculturation, females in the labor force, and geographical and social mobility (1, 2, 59, 65). Mexican-Americans differ in ethnic identification and amount of acculturation into the Anglo-American culture depending upon their generational status (48). Levels of generational status are first generation--individuals born in Mexico, second generation--individuals born in the United States with one or both parents born in Mexico, and third generation--individuals born in the United States with both parents born in the United States (70).

While some social scientists have indicated that Mexican-American families are changing as a result of acculturation (1, 2, 48, 65), others have suggested that the problems of Mexican-Americans are primarily due to their lack of assimilation and acculturation (70, 82). Mexican-Americans are at different levels of acculturation and are adapting differently to the dominant culture. As compared to other ethnic groups which have assimilated into mainstream American society (70), Mexican-Americans are slow to assimilate (36).

Numerous reasons which have been given for the slow rate of acculturation are the traditional rural background
of Mexican-Americans, strong familial ties which impede cultural change, proximity to Mexico and the culture of origin, and prejudice which excludes Mexican-Americans from participating fully as citizens of the United States (70, 76). However, the stated reasons have not been totally substantiated by empirical findings. Discounting any important traditional rural factor is the fact that most Mexican-Americans reside in urban centers (48, 69, 70, 90). In addition, Mexican Americans at third generational levels and beyond have minimal contact with Mexico (48, 70).

Results of research (48) indicated that Mexican-Americans lose significant awareness of, and contact with, their cultural heritage, and gain in awareness of mainstream American culture with each successive generation. However, even the more assimilated Mexican-Americans have retained such cultural patterns as Catholicism and dietary preferences (63, 69, 70).

Other studies have focused directly on empirical research to ascertain the extent of the traditional features of the Mexican family which have been retained by Mexican-American families (92). Ramirez (73) conducted a comparative study of Mexican and Mexican-American family values using seventy Mexican-American college students in central Texas. Ramirez (73) administered a family attitude scale consisting of items representative of the Mexican family
values of conformity, strict childrearing, and authoritarian submission. However, the students also had decreasing identification with traditional patterns of male authority and separation of the sexes (73).

Employing standardized interviews, Hawkes and Taylor (38) examined the family power structure of seventy-six Mexican and Mexican-American farm labor families in California. Results of the study indicated that both groups were egalitarian in decision making and action taking which is different from the stereotype of the traditional Mexican family.

Results of studies by Buriel (17) suggested that the people most likely to succeed are those who are willing to compartmentalize their lives in order to adapt to different situations. Gandara's (30) study on high achieving Mexican-American women supported the hypothesis that integration of the dominant culture with a traditional Mexican-American culture was associated with upward mobility. The women came from low socioeconomic backgrounds but had succeeded in completing juris doctor, medical doctor, and doctor of philosophy degrees. Results of the study indicated that the women's parents were nonauthoritarian in disciplinary style and stressed early independent training. The women were predominantly Catholic and from large families. Most of them were bilingual or spoke only Spanish at home and were first generation Mexican-American women.
The maintenance of cultural integrity along with the movement to become a part of the dominant culture is more apparent as certain cultural traits have been added including an identity as Chicano and a separate history as an ethnic group in the United States (48, 59). The retention of traditional traits and modification to new traits indicate ethnic pride as well as a reflection of social and structural pluralism in the United States (70).

As a result of internal diversity, Mexican-Americans are a very heterogeneous group (64). Recent studies have attempted to control various demographic factors in order to find certain features which are characteristic of most Mexican-American families (7, 83, 92). Social scientists agree that the Mexican-American family is characterized by male dominance, sex-age grading where the older order the younger, and its emphasis on the family (82).

One of the most significant characteristics of the Mexican-American family is its emphasis on familism (1, 65, 66, 82). The family is the most important institution for Mexican-Americans (66). The literature has indicated two conflicting views on the impact that familism makes on Mexican-Americans. The social science view has depicted a rigid, male-dominanted authoritarian, family structure (65). Social scientists have suggested that the Mexican-American's strong familistic orientation may serve as an impediment to
achievement and mobility in an urban-industrial society (36, 66).

The sympathetic view (83) described the family as a support system for its members (48, 49, 65, 55), at times including members of the extended family (36, 48). Every member of the family enjoys status (91) and finds emotional and material security in the family (36, 66). The Mexican-American child is encouraged to be responsible and independent, aggressive and assertive as long as he is achieving for the benefit of the family or protecting the family (74). The strong value attached to the family group encourages cooperation rather than competition (77).

The extended family is more than a cultural tradition among Mexican-Americans (48, 66). The extended family has traditionally offered warmth, protection, and group strength to Mexican-Americans. In a society which has historically subjected Mexican-Americans to prejudice and discrimination, the support given by the extended family is of great assistance (48).

A feature of the traditional Mexican-American family is the idea of male dominance or "machismo" (1, 23, 66, 76, 82, 83, 92). The concept of machismo suggests an aloof authoritarian head of family, directing its activities, arbitrating disputes, policing behavior and representing the family in the community (92). The man assumes
responsibility for the behavior of the family members. Misbehavior by a family member is seen as a direct reflection on the father's inability to rear his family properly (92). The sympathetic view suggests the "macho" is a man of seriousness and responsibility (76). If the male misuses his authority he loses respect in the family and in the community (67). Murillo (67) suggests that machismo has more to do with family pride and respect than with male dominance.

The role of the mother is a critical factor in the lives of the children. Therefore, the woman is often considered the backbone of the Mexican-American culture (66). While the father exercises power because he is respected, the mother exercises power because she is loved. The mother is responsible for the household, for nurturing the children, and for perpetuating the language and values of the Mexican-American family (65, 66, 93).

For Mexican-American children, the importance of their mother takes precedence over that of the father (66). While the mother's relationship with the children is characterized by warmth and affection (65), the mother is responsible for setting parameters on the children's behavior (66). The Mexican-American mother tends to have an authoritative parenting style (28).

Banuelos (7) conducted an exploratory study to compare maternal childrearing expectations of Mexican-American
parents, Mexican-American migrant parents and Anglo-American parents with the childrearing expectations of their children's teachers for areas of cultural discontinuity between home and school. Results of the study indicated that Mexican-American mothers demanded more control over their children and expressed less frustration in their parent-child relationships (7).

Results of Spiwak's (83) investigation indicated that Mexican-American parents from lower and middle socioeconomic status expressed need to control their children. However, Johnson (47) found that Mexican-American parents who expressed the most significant need for control of their children's behavior were poverty income level parents, parents with less than a ninth-grade education, and parents who spent less than two hours weekly with their child.

Mexican-American mothers reported the need to control the behavior of their children. This need is harmonious with research investigating the relationship between the field dependence-independence construct with Mexican-American populations (7, 51, 52, 94). The assumption is that field dependent maternal childrearing attitudes are precursors for field dependent maternal teaching styles and subsequently field dependent cognitive styles in children (7).

The mother in her interactions with her children serves as teacher and role model (49). Laosa (51) found that
Mexican-American mothers use two different patterns of maternal teaching strategies. Praise by the mother and inquiry in teaching her child increased with the level of formal education (51). Mothers who had a lower level of formal education used modeling as a teaching strategy (51). The teaching strategies used by the better educated mothers parallel strategies used by middle-class mothers (40, 51, 81).

In a study by Steward and Steward (84) it was found that the Mexican mother tended to separate her role of mother from the role of teacher, viewing the teaching role as a function of the school. Johnson (47) found that level of parent education did not have a significant effect on the teaching-learning subscale. Spiwak (83), however, found that the lower the parent's educational level, the lower the scores on the frustration and teaching-learning subscales of the PAAT as well as a lower score on the overall PAAT. Results indicated that the parents were less supportive of childrearing attitudes for the child's development of skills which are helpful for a successful experience in school.

Valdez (92) conducted a study in order to investigate the influence of Mexican-American family patterns on educational and occupational placement of Mexican-Americans. Results of his studies indicated that daughters' aspirations are strongly influenced by their mothers' educational-occupational attainment. The findings indicated that the
higher the educational-occupational achievement of the mother the higher the educational-occupational aspirations of the daughters and the lower the educational-occupational aspirations of the sons (92). The mothers' achievements had a greater influence on the children's aspirations than the fathers' achievements (92).

Fundamental to the understanding of the structure of the Mexican-American family are male-female attitudes and roles (92). The traditional Mexican-American male-female role differentiation is taught during early childhood by family members. The male child is groomed for his role as a dignified male and the female child is prepared for her feminine role (67, 92). During adolescence complementary male-female roles emerge (92). According to Queen (92), the traditional Mexican-American female who is revered as a symbol of purity, must grow up virginal, compassionate, submissive, and aware that in the meaning of things she exists to complement the male. Biologically impelled toward males, her refuge lies in early marriage and entrance into the role of motherhood (72).

As a result of the traditional Mexican-American female role, about half of all Mexican-American women marry during their teens (82). Early marriage could contribute to their low educational level and high fertility rate (82). The average Mexican-American families are larger than any other
ethnic group (3, 49, 82). It appears that there is a relationship between the fertility rate and the woman's level of education. Low income women with less than a high school education averaged more than six children, while middle-class Mexican-American women with a high school education averaged two children (82).

The parent-child relationship is warm and affectionate during childhood (59, 92). Children are very important members of the family and are given important responsibilities which are necessary for the welfare of the family (67). Children are responsible for taking care of each other and are expected to get along with each other and to cooperate. As a result, sibling relationships are very important and different from the relationships in many Anglo-American homes (2).

The lack of confidence and self-esteem among many Mexican-American children needs to be investigated. When the needs for a positive self-esteem are met, people develop a sense of confidence, personal value, ability and security (23). However, when the needs of self-esteem are not satisfied, people feel inferior and ultimately develop complete apathy. A child's self-esteem is affected by the parent-child interaction (21, 58, 71, 100) as well as how the child's family is viewed by society (89, 100).

Mexicans and Mexican-Americans have been referred to as a conquered people (76, 92). During the conquest of Mexico
in the early 1500s, the Mexican people evolved as a result of the unions of Spanish men with Native-American women whom the Spaniards viewed as objects of conquest and possession (92). The mestizo offspring began to look upon his mother as a devalued person and upon his father as the exploiter. As the result the Mexican people viewed themselves as a conquered people (92).

An important factor influencing a child's self-esteem is the parenting style (10, 21, 50). Findings of a study by Espinoza and others (28) on work and family life among Anglo, Black, and Mexican-American single parents families, indicated that most of the Mexican-American families involved in the study were classified as authoritative mother family type. Durett and others (25) found Mexican-American parents were more consistent in their use of reward and punishment, with consistency defined as that between mothers and fathers. Steward and Steward (84) found that Mexican-American parents expected their children to respect and obey elders.

In addition to the parent-child interaction, the family's status in society will influence a child's self-esteem. The literature suggests that damaging stereotypes of the Mexican-American are reinforced by society and the media, and then become internalized by young Mexican-Americans. Mexican-American children are led to conclude that their heritage is something to be ashamed of and the effect is lowered self-esteem (74).
Results of an investigation conducted by Cuellar, Harris and Jasso (22) indicated that the Mexican-American population had considerable linguistic heterogeneity. Forty-seven per cent of the Mexican-American families in the United States speak Spanish (82). The use of English and Spanish has frequently been examined by investigators interested in studying change in acculturation (5, 29, 70).

Retention of the Spanish language is much more likely to occur among those individuals in the lower socioeconomic status, with 42 per cent of them using primarily Spanish in the home compared to 8 per cent among high socioeconomic families (2, 82). Similar findings have been reported by Grebler and others (36) and Spiwak (83). Conversely, 24 per cent of the lower socioeconomic status population speak English primarily compared to 61 per cent of the higher socioeconomic population (2, 82).

Mexican-Americans whose first language is English complete high school about 50 per cent more often than students whose first language is Spanish (82). About half of the Mexican-American population in major cities such as San Antonio and Los Angeles, consider themselves bilingual (82). Findings of research by Garcia (31) indicated that bilingualism in itself is very positive. People who are bilingual equal monolinguals in intelligence quotient and tend to surpass them in creativity (31). According to the
findings of a study conducted by Valdez (92), use of Spanish language in the home did not have a significant negative effect on children's achievement orientation.

The levels of education achieved by Mexican-Americans are very low compared to Anglo-Americans and other minorities (2, 30, 62, 82, 90). In 1980, among the total population twenty-five years of age and older, 68 per cent of the males and 65.2 per cent of the females graduated from high school (90). In the same year only 48.8 per cent of the Mexican-American males twenty-five years of age and older and 41.2 per cent of the Mexican-American females twenty-five years of age and older had completed high school (90).

Because of the low level of education, occupational opportunities and income of Mexican-Americans are adversely affected (2, 30, 82). Some researchers have explained the low educational attainment of Mexican-Americans by suggesting that factors such as low socioeconomic status, cultural traditions, limited English skills, and lack of motivation are responsible (19, 82). Other researchers have suggested that external factors such as racism, sexism, segregation, and lack of opportunity are responsible for the low educational attainment of Mexican-Americans (19, 30).

While both male and female Mexican-Americans have low educational attainment, the Mexican-American women have lower retention rates (62). A possible explanation for
the low number of Mexican-American women in higher education is the role conflict that occurs when they enter college (27, 45). The traditional Mexican-American female role of mother and wife often conflicts with the role of college student (62, 93). In Gandara's investigation of Mexican-American women who successfully completed an advanced degree, the women differed from the traditional Mexican-American women in that none married early and none had children until her education was nearly complete (19). As a result, they were less likely to experience role conflict which would pose a barrier to completing their education.

An investigation of the Mexican-American mother's level of education is important for two reasons. First, the mother serves as a role model for her children. Second, the mother's education influences the maternal teaching behavior with her children (51). In a study comparing the family environments of three generations of Mexican-Americans, Anderson and Johnson (4) found that Mexican-American parents did value school achievement and encouraged their children to go to school. However, second- and third-generation Mexican-American children had less confidence in their ability to succeed in school than did first generation Mexican-American children and children of other ethnic groups. Among the findings of an investigation conducted by Valdez (92) was that the Mexican-American parents in the sample had high educational and occupational aspirations
for their children and stressed the importance of getting a high level of education.

A large proportion of the Mexican-American population lives at or below the poverty level (90). In 1979, 23.5 per cent of the Mexican-American population had incomes below the poverty level compared to 9.4 per cent of the Anglo-American population (90). Because Mexican-Americans are a decade younger than other Americans and have lower levels of education in both quantitative and qualitative terms, it is difficult to make adequate comparisons between Mexican-Americans and other Americans (82). For Mexican-Americans with twelve or fewer years of education, incomes are similar to the incomes of other Americans of the same educational level (82). However, Mexican-American men who have attended college earn 75 per cent of the United States average for all men who have attended college (81). Another factor which reduces the family income is that Mexican-American females are less likely to join the labor force (81).

The economic progress of Mexican-Americans is also affected by generational status (81). First-generation Mexican-Americans who remain in the United States for fifteen years or more eventually earn more than native born Mexican-Americans (81). Second-generation Mexican-Americans earn a 14 per cent higher average income than third-generation Mexican-Americans primarily due to differences in age. The
second generation is older than the third generation and thus likely to have higher incomes (81).

The Catholic church is the dominant religious institution in the life of the Mexican-American family. The Mexican Catholic ideology represents a combination of European and Native American religious beliefs and practices (81). Mexican Catholicism supports and reinforces the values of the Mexican-American culture. Identification with the community is reinforced by the emphasis on religious ceremonies that are based on close family ties (74, 82).

Independent Variables

Early childhood experiences greatly influence a child's development. The foundation for cultural norms and values is set during childhood through the family socialization process (92). Through their attitudes and behavior, parents shape the environments and experiences during early childhood, becoming a primary influence on their children's development (14, 37, 51, 58, 79, 94, 95).

While each parent has an important role in childrearing, most research on childrearing has focused on the mothers' attitudes and behavior toward their children (79, 94, 95, 98). Demographic factors which influenced the mother-child relationship are mother's age, mother's marital status, educational level of mother, family income, sex of child,
age of child, access to child, generational status, mother's language, and mother's ethnicity.

**Mother's Age**

Sears and others (79) investigated childrearing in relation to the age of the mother. Because the women from middle socioeconomic status married later than those from low socioeconomic status, they were older when they had children. Similarly, the better educated mothers were older than the less well educated mothers. The findings indicated that the younger mothers were less patient and more severe in their treatment of their children. The younger mothers tended to use withdrawal of privileges in order to control their children and tended to urge their children to fight back when attacked (79). The mother's age with the first born had little bearing on her warmth, either in infancy or in later childhood. For later children, however, older mothers were somewhat warmer than younger ones regardless of social class, sex of child, or the size of the age gap between the children.

**Mother's Marital Status**

The mother's marital status is important in that the mother's behavior toward her children can be influenced by her emotional state (58). Sears and others (79) found that the mother's attitude on becoming pregnant was related to her esteem for her husband, to her self-esteem, and to her
satisfaction with her situation in life. The mothers who held their husbands in high esteem were much warmer in their relationship to their children than were those who felt less enthusiasm and respect for their husbands. In addition, her warmth was greater when she had a high degree of satisfaction with her current situation in life.

Hetherington and others (42, 43) studied the effects of divorce on parents' interaction with their children. They found that divorced parents made fewer demands on their children, showed them less affection, communicated with them less well, and were notably inconsistent in their discipline. As a result of the mothers' lack of consistency in the discipline of their children, actual control decreased.

**Mother's Educational Level**

The mothers' values are directly related to their own occupational positions and educational attainments in every level of socioeconomic status (50). The mother's education greatly influences the experiences of their children (40, 50). Changes in maternal behavior occur most quickly in sectors of the society which have access to and use institutional instruments of change, such as educational media and educational advice (40).

The mother continually functions as a teacher in her everyday interactions with her child. Much of the curriculum to which the child is exposed during the preschool
years is conveyed by the communications received from the mother (41, 53).

Broman, Nichols, and Kennedy (16) studied the relationship between intelligence quotient and nine family characteristics; and family history variables within twelve race, sex and socioeconomic subgroups. The most significant factors were mothers' education and their scores on a short nonverbal intelligence test. The mean intelligence quotients of the children in each race sex group increased with number of years of maternal education. The relationship was greater among whites, with a difference between the extreme educational levels of twenty intelligence quotient points, compared with eleven points among Blacks (16).

Laosa (51) found that education of the mother played a central role in the mother-child interaction. Laosa (52) conducted a study comparing maternal teaching strategies in Mexican-American and Anglo-American families to pinpoint the influence of culture and education on their behavior. Laosa found significant differences in teaching strategies used by the two groups. First, he found that Anglo-American mothers used inquiry and praise more frequently than Mexican-American mothers. Second, he found Mexican-American mothers used modeling, visual cues, directions and negative physical control more frequently than the Anglo-Americans. However, when the maternal educational levels were held constant, the
observed differences in maternal teaching strategies disappeared. Results of a previous study suggested that in teaching their young children, the more highly educated mothers "imitated" the academic style of the classroom in school in which they have spent so much of their lives (51). These research findings added confirmatory evidence to the view that formal education is a powerful force in cultural evaluation (53, 55).

**Family Income**

Social scientists have often combined family income, parents' occupation and parents' education in order to determine the family's socioeconomic status (82, 83). Income cannot be an index of pure socioeconomic status. However, because such a large percentage of the Mexican-American population is within the low income level, income level as an independent variable is supported. Johnson (47) supported the inclusion of income as a variable for analysis in her study. Johnson found that the lower the income level of the parents, the higher the need for control of their children's behavior (47).

Parents train children for the world as they themselves experience it (50). When analyzing the processes linking social structure to behavior, researchers (12, 40, 50) suggest that there is a functional tie between economic
activities and childrearing practices of adults. Differences which have been identified by researchers are the following.

1. Individuals from low socioeconomic status tend to have low self-esteem, a sense of inefficacy, and passivity as a result of their low status and inability to control their lives (41).

2. Individuals in low socioeconomic status have restriction of language and linguistic modes of communication (13).

3. A consequence of low socioeconomic status is the reliance upon nonwork related friendships and kinship contacts for social support and resources (40).

4. The higher a mother's socioeconomic status the higher the probability that she will choose consideration, curiosity, self-control and happiness as highly desirable. The lower her status, the higher the probability that she will select obedience, neatness, and cleanliness (40).

5. Mothers in the middle socioeconomic status are less controlling, less disapproving, and tend to give more information and greater attention to their children than mothers in low socioeconomic status. In addition, mothers in middle socioeconomic status spend more time on task than mothers of lower socioeconomic status (11, 53, 85).

Sex of Child

Every society makes certain distinctions in the roles that are assigned to men and women (58). Through the parent-child interaction, parents teach their children what they consider role-appropriate behavior. Parents provide distinctive environments for boys and girls. They provide the children with different toys and clothing and decorate their rooms differently (58, 75, 79).
Results of the investigation conducted by Sears (79) and others on mothers' behavior toward their sons and daughters indicated some differences. The mother was more likely to be warmer toward her infant if the infant was a girl. Boys were allowed more aggression in their interactions with other children. A slightly larger proportion of boys than girls was given high freedom of expression. While both boys and girls were assigned an equal number of tasks and chores, there were clear evidences of sex-typing in the nature of the chores assigned. In addition, Sears (79) found three differences in the use of techniques for training and discipline. First, boys received somewhat more physical punishment than girls. Second, girls were more often disciplined by love oriented techniques. Girls received more praise for appropriate behavior than boys. Third, girls were more often subjected to withdrawal of love for inappropriate behavior.

Most people have strong social expectations concerning the toys, play, dress, and behavior that are considered appropriate for children of the two sexes. Throughout childhood, children are acquiring and understanding these social expectations (58).

Age of Child

Parenting changes greatly as the child grows older. The change in parents' behavior reflects changes in the
child's needs and competencies as well as changes in the parents' expectations (58). As children move from infancy to middle childhood, parents show them less physical affection, become less protective, and spend less time with them (6, 54, 58).

Because the parent-child interaction is affected by the child's age it was important to focus on a specific age span for this study. The PAAT is designed for children in early childhood. Therefore the sample for this study included Mexican-American mothers of children ages three to five.

Access to Child

Parents are unlikely to achieve a quality relationship with their children unless they invest time in it (86). Children often base their sense of worth on both the amount of time and the degree of involvement that parents are willing to devote to their activities. Therefore, the most accessible parents, those who play the most with their children are also the ones who have the most appropriate child-rearing expectations and who enjoy the most responsiveness from their children (86).

In their study on assessment for parent education, Strom and Johnson (88) found that parents who spent more than two hours weekly either reading to or playing with their child, had higher scores on the PAAT inventory. In
addition, parents who spent more time in activities with their children had better scores on the creativity and control subsets (47).

**Acculturation**

A factor which influences the family's impact on the child's development is acculturation. There are many definitions and interpretations of acculturation. Padilla and Carlos (70) have identified six dimensions as being significant factors in the measurement of acculturation. These dimensions are English and Spanish language familiarity and usage, ethnic interaction, ethnic pride and identity, cultural heritage, generational status, and ethnic distance and perceived discrimination (22). For purposes of this study, three variables were included to determine the degree of acculturation of the Mexican-American mothers in the study. The three variables were English and Spanish language familiarity and usage, ethnic identity and generational status.

Acculturation requires the contact of at least two autonomous cultural groups. As a result of the contact, there is change in one or other of the two groups (12, 64). In principle, change can occur in either of the two parties. However, in practice one group dominates the other and contributes more to the flow of cultural elements than does the weaker of the two groups. As a result of the domination
of one group over another, change may be difficult and conflictual rather than a smooth transition (12).

Berry (12) suggests there are four distinct types of acculturation—assimilation, integration, rejection, and deculturation. In assimilation the original cultural identity is relinquished and the culture of the dominant society is accepted. Integration suggests the maintenance of cultural integrity as well as the movement to become a part of the larger society. The third type of acculturation, rejection, refers to self-imposed withdrawal from the larger society. The fourth type, deculturation, is characterized by striking out against the larger society and by feelings of alienation and loss of identity. In deculturation, groups are out of cultural and psychological contact with either their traditional culture or the majority culture.

Acculturation is bidirectional with the process within individuals as multidimensional and situationally influenced (5, 22, 60, 61, 64, 74). Because acculturation requires change in a group's values and behavior it is important to analyze the effects of acculturation on childrearing. Typically, maternal competence in the United States has been defined as a unitary set of standards which represent the characteristics of the model white middle-class mother (53).
Generational Status

Researchers of acculturation have generally agreed that generational status was an extremely important predictor variable in determining extent of acculturation (70). Results of research by Padilla (70) indicated that later generations of Mexican-Americans were more acculturated than first generation.

Language

It is important to include language as an independent variable in that it not only affects academic success but is also a part of the cultural change which takes place in acculturation. When two cultures have contact, a language shift typically occurs which is more likely to take place in the nondominant group (12). Individuals or the whole group may maintain or reinstate their traditional language by taking deliberate steps to protect, purify and institutionalize their language (12). Other possibilities are intermediate options of bilingualism or linguistic merging.

Language is a culturally related factor that may be a disadvantage in achieving academic success if the child does not understand English (93). Becoming a bilingual child in the natural conversational environment is as successful as first language acquisition (19). The development of a second language parallels the development of the first language (31).
While it is true that we are born with the ability to acquire language, our language is also greatly influenced by the environment. Environmental influences on rapid language development are as follows.

1. Mothers of children acquiring language more quickly are less directive in their speech, give fewer commands and ask more questions (32).

2. Mothers are accepting of whatever the child says and behave as if the child's utterances are meaningful (32).

3. Adult responsiveness to children is associated with rapid oral language development (68).

There are both positive and negative aspects to rearing children with two or more equal languages. The negative aspect is that early language development seems to be slower than with monolingual children (80). The positive aspects are that children understand quite early that there is a distinction between a word and its meaning. Since a child learning Spanish and English learns two words for dog (perro and dog), he figures out that a given meaning can be expressed several ways (46). This advanced concept is an aid to the child's overall rate of cognitive growth. Consequently, despite the slower start in language development, bilingual children do as well as or better than monolingual children on most intelligence quotient and other cognitive tests at school age (80).

Educators have suggested that bilingualism is a problem in academic achievement (57, 93). In order to investigate
the effects of bilingualism on academic achievement, Long and Padilla (57) surveyed successful Mexican-American graduate students at the University of New Mexico. They found that 94 per cent of the successful students as compared to 7 per cent of the unsuccessful Mexican-American students, reported that they came from a bilingual background. Language is an important variable to consider in an investigation since language not only affects academic achievement, but it is also a part of the cultural change which takes place in acculturation.

**Ethnic Identity**

Ethnic identity implies an awareness of culture and the extent of an individual's acculturation (70). Padilla suggests that an individual who no longer possesses familiarity with the language of the culture of origin and who has only a cursory knowledge of the cultural materials of the group of origin, but who still identifies with the ethnicity of origin, is not completely acculturated.

**Childrearing Expectations**

A body of research exists which documents moderate to high relationships between the family background of individuals, parental childrearing, and the intellectual, occupational, and economic attainments of those individuals as adults (34, 35, 39, 78, 79, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99). Results
of research in child development have suggested that much of what shapes human competence takes place during the first years of life (14, 44, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98). Children who are considered competent are children who have appropriate social skills, appropriate language development, the capacity to sense dissonance or note discrepancies, and the capacity for abstract thinking (94, 95, 96, 97).

The research on children who are competent and who do well in school indicates that certain family factors are associated with the acquisition of competence. The effective family provides a setting in which there is a mixture of a warm, positive emotional climate combined with an atmosphere of teaching and expectation in the intellectual domain (34).

In the mother-child interaction, the mother not only initiates behavior but also responds to the child's behavior (37). Positive relationships have been found between the child's language development and the mother's verbal stimulation; the child's skill with objects and the mother's presentation of play materials; and mother's and child's positive social behaviors (20, 94, 95, 97). An equally important part of the mother's role in rearing competent children includes giving the child maximum opportunity for exploration, being available to the child for at least half of his waking hours, responding promptly and favorably as often as possible, encouraging make-believe or pretend
activities, providing things for the child to do if he seems bored, and disciplining him firmly and consistently (94, 95, 96, 97).

**Self-Concept and Self-Esteem**

Through their interaction with their children, parents mold and maintain the children's self-concept (71). The self-concept is significant to children because it determines the way they behave toward themselves and other people. Children maintain consistency between their self-perception and their actions (98, 100). Many of the difficulties which people experience in most areas of life are closely connected with the ways they see themselves and the world in which they live (71).

Individuals evaluate their behavior on the basis of a set of self-accepted standards and if their evaluation is favorable their self-esteem is high (58). Coopersmith (21) found that parents of children with high self-esteem had high self-esteem themselves. They treated their children as responsible individuals. Mothers expected their children to have opinions and to share them with others. They set strict specific limits for their children and were consistent in applying those limits.

How the children are treated in the family determines their perceptions of how they are valued by them and consequently, their perceptions of themselves. How their
family is viewed by society similarly affects the development of their self-concept. Because they are an extension of their family, how society views the children's family will affect their self-concept (89).

Social Competence

Parents' childrearing practices have an impact on their children's social behavior (58). Results of research indicated that children's social-psychological development was fostered if their parents

(1) were committed to their children's welfare and were responsive to their needs (10, 26, 58);

(2) made age-appropriate demands on their children for socially mature behavior (10, 21, 58);

(3) created structure in their children's lives in the form of reasonably predictable environments and schedules of daily events (10, 58);

(4) allowed the children a role in family decision making, insofar as this was compatible with efficient family functioning (10, 21, 58);

(5) listened to their children's points of view and explained parental actions as the children would understand (10, 58);

(6) allowed children to solve their own problems whenever possible, but set up situations that facilitated success (58);

(7) showed affection, noticed and gave approval for good behavior (10, 20, 58); and

(8) fostered development of a system of joint values (58).
Play

Play exploration, creative expression, and decision making encourage self-reliance, self-assertion and self-confidence, all of which are keys to healthy self-concept and learning (100). Through play, children learn to master their environment and feel a sense of competence (100). When parents participate in imaginary play with their children, success is mutual for the parents and the children. Therefore, they can respect the creative strength of their children by sharing dominance with them during play (86).

Cognitive Competence

Cognitive factors include the goals and educational aspirations parents have for their children, whether parents perceive themselves as their children's teachers; whether they give their children academic guidance; or whether they use descriptive language with their children and encourage their children to engage in conversation (34, 94, 95, 96, 97). Five general characteristics of families whose children achieved higher intelligence quotient scores follow. Such parents (1) provided appropriate play materials for the child (85, 86, 94, 95, 96, 97), (2) were responsive to their children (86, 86, 94, 95, 96, 97), (3) gave their children many opportunities for language development (86, 87, 94, 95, 96, 97), (4) avoided excessive restrictiveness giving the child room to explore and opportunities to make mistakes
and (5) had high expectations of their children emphasizing school achievement (34, 85, 86, 94, 95, 96, 97).

Childrearing attitudes are products of the parents' own personalities and values (79, 100). Child care practices characteristic of different cultures are keys in explaining the character structure and institutions of these cultures (99). Investigations on Mexican-American childrearing attitudes might provide more information about the Mexican-American community. Because the Mexican-American community is very heterogeneous, comparing members within the group might help identify characteristics of the Mexican-American culture. Investigations comparing individuals within the Mexican-American community might also provide an understanding to the changes that have taken place in the Mexican-American community.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTION AND TREATMENT OF DATA

Various researchers have explored childrearing practices and attitudes of Mexican-American mothers (6, 10, 13, 15, 16, 21). Laosa (15, 16) explored the mother-child interaction of mothers with different levels of education. However, these researchers did not explore the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with different levels of education. By controlling for education, this study provided a better understanding of attitudes pertaining to childrearing within the Mexican-American culture on the basis of the mothers' responses to the Parent As A Teacher Inventory (PAAT).

The PAAT is an attitude scale which reveals how parents feel about their role in the development of their child and their standards for assessing child behaviors. The childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher were identified with respect to parental acceptance and support of creative functioning in their child, parental childrearing frustration, parental feelings about control of their children, parental understanding of the role of play in their child's
development, and the parental attitude of their role in the teaching-learning process for their child.

In addition to exploring the possible effects of education on childrearing attitudes, the relationship of the following demographic variables to childrearing attitudes were examined: mother's age, mother's marital status, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, generational status, mother's language, and mother ethnicity.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects were Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower who had preschool children three to five years of age and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher who had preschool children three to five years of age. The respondents included in the sample were Mexican-American mothers who completed the PAAT questionnaire and gave information on their educational level. If a respondent left missing data in the Parent Information Questionnaire which was not critical to the study such as mother's age, the respondent was included for analysis of the PAAT scores and Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 compared the mothers' educational level with the PAAT subsets. Therefore, the sample consisted of 112 Mexican-American mothers, 54 with ten years of education or lower and 58 with eleven years of education or higher. Hypothesis 2 compared all demographic variables in addition to
education to the PAAT subsets. Therefore the sample for Hypothesis 2 consisted of 84 of the 112 respondents who completed both questionnaires with no missing data for an effective rate of 75 per cent.

The population from which these subjects were drawn was mothers from Mexican-American communities in a county in North Texas. Some of the subjects were mothers who were members of Catholic churches in the Mexican-American communities. The majority of the individuals from the Catholic church volunteering to participate in the study were mothers with eleven years of education or more. A few of the volunteers came from an elementary school and a day care center across the street from the elementary school in a predominantly Mexican-American neighborhood. Several of the volunteers came from the Women, Infants, and Children Program (WIC) in a predominantly Mexican-American neighborhood. WIC is a federally funded program whose purpose is to help low-income childbearing mothers, their infants, and children. The program provides nutrition counseling and supplemental foods rich in protein, iron, and vitamin C to pregnant or lactating women, infants and children up to five years of age who have been evaluated as being at risk by professional health assessment.
Instrumentation

To gather the demographic information, a questionnaire was developed to record demographic variables including the mother's age, the mother's marital status, the mother's educational level, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, mother's generational status, mother's language and mother's ethnicity. The questionnaire contains twenty demographic items (Appendix). Professional validation was obtained as to the accuracy of the questionnaire's Spanish translation (Appendix).

The Parent As A Teacher Inventory (PAAT) was developed in 1972 by Robert D. Strom at the University of Arizona. The PAAT is intended for parents with children between three and nine years of age. The content for the PAAT items was derived from an extensive search of the literature regarding the influence of parents on the development of their children (3, 4, 7, 8, 11, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25). Parents' response to the PAAT items identify parental expectations of their child, and their response to specific child behavior (24). This instrument was appropriate for this study because parental attitudes evolve from their parenting experiences, values, and beliefs regarding child behavior.

The PAAT reveals differences in childrearing attitudes related to ethnicity and is sensitive to cultural differences (10, 13, 18, 21, 23). The PAAT is available through a publisher in both English and Spanish. It has been
translated into the Spanish, French, Hopi, Navajo, Aboriginal, Arabic, German, Greek, Italian, Turkish, and Korean languages.

The PAAT is composed of fifty items which are grouped into five subsets with ten items each pertaining to creativity, frustration, control, play, and teaching-learning. It is important to describe each subset in order to understand parental influence on childrearing. The subsets are as follow.

1. Creativity subset—The demands of the future will require individuals to be creative in problem solving, more tolerant of ambiguity, more accepting of complexity and to make independent judgments (24). The best time to support creativity is during early childhood when young children prefer learning in creative ways. The subset which consists of ten items on creativity reveals the level of parental acceptance and support for creative development (24).

2. Frustration subset—The child's concept of self begins at home and is greatly influenced by parental expectations of the child and parental response to the child. When parent expectations are consistent with developmental needs, the tendency is to have less frustration in their role as parents and support a favorable self-concept (24). The inventory contains a ten-item subset to identify a parent's locus of frustration in childrearing.
3. Control subset—A child's sense of power influences his identity. A child feels a favorable sense of self when he has some feeling of control, of being able to influence events. Parents can be supportive of their children through interaction which includes a respect for the child's imaginative strength, a wide range of possible conflicts, consequences that are nonpunitive, and an adult model who is able to generate and accept alternatives. The control subset reflects the parents' need for controlling their child by examining their willingness to share dominance, decision-making and uncertainty with their child. The control subset also measures the parents' ability to allow the child to be spontaneous, to have privacy and to disagree. The inventory contains a ten-item subset to identify parental feelings about control and the extent to which parental control of child behavior is deemed necessary (23).

4. Play subset—Research on play indicates relationships between play, development, and early learning (23, 26). Research on creative play indicates that the single most important distinguishing factor between children of high and low imagination is parental attitude toward pretending and the quality of involvement in this sphere (23). Children who easily engage in symbolic play are more able to concentrate, persist at tasks, cope with anxiety, tolerate frustration, and manifest greater self-control.
The ten-item play subset assesses parental understanding of play and its influence on child development (23).

5. Teaching-learning subset--Parents play an important role as teachers of their children. However, not all parents perceive themselves as their children's continuous teachers. The ten-item teaching-learning subset reveals the parents' self-impression of their ability to facilitate the teaching-learning process for their child (23).

Reliability and Validity of PAAT

Since its development in 1972, Form A of the PAAT has been the subject of formative research analysis, and revision for the purpose of gathering baseline data, clarifying items, establishing internal consistency of items within subsets, and improving item subset correlation coefficients (23). Initially the PAAT was field tested in the Parent Child Laboratory School at Arizona State University. In addition it has been the basis for two doctoral studies involving black mothers and white mothers (9, 19) and two cross-cultural peer teaching studies involving fourth-grade children who were teaching kindergarten children (5, 14).

The PAAT has been useful in diagnosing parenting attitudes which were either supportive or non-supportive of the child's development of academic skills (9). Comprehensive field testing of the PAAT Form A was initiated in 1973 through the Research Department of the Tucson Public
Schools in the ESEA Title I Parent and Child Education Project--PACE (23). Form B of the PAAT contains twenty-three items revised on the basis of feedback from the PACE staff.

Assessment of validity was undertaken by Johnson (13), who compared parent responses and parent behavior on thirty-eight observable items. The resulting consonance showed parental behavior was consistent with parental expression 66 per cent of the time.

Another validation study was completed by Panetta (17). In Panetta's study (17), home visitors were required to submit two records of parental consistency, one after six weekly visits and the other after six months of weekly observations. The levels of consonance between parental response and observed behavior were 75 per cent and 85 per cent; thus confirming the validity of PAAT.

**PAAT Scoring Procedures**

PAAT consists of fifty items which are divided into five subsets of ten statements each. Responses on the PAAT are scored on a four-point weighted scale. On this scale respondents indicate if they strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with each item. The most desired responses based upon child development research are valued four, with diminishing values assigned to responses which
are less desirable. Items omitted by respondents are scored three (23).

Subtotals may be derived for the subsets creativity, frustration, control, play, and teaching-learning. A separate score on each subset may range from a low mean of ten to a high mean of forty. A score of twenty-five is the average for any subset. The sum of all five subtotals is the total PAAT score. The average total PAAT score is 125 (23).

Collection of Data

The administration of the PAAT and the Parent Information Questionnaire (Appendix) took place at three Catholic churches, an elementary school, a child care center, and at the Tri-Ethnic Center which is one of the locations for the Women, Infant, and Children program (WIC). The data were collected in the months of September, October, November, and December of 1985.

In order to work in the Catholic Churches, the Vicar General of the Catholic Diocese of Fort Worth was contacted in person. The purpose of the study and procedures for collecting the data were explained to him. The Vicar General wrote a letter of approval and suggested to the researcher pastors to be contacted whose congregations are predominantly Mexican-American. Each pastor was contacted
by telephone initially, followed by a letter and a personal interview.

An announcement with criteria for participating in the study was placed in the church bulletin requesting volunteers for the study. The announcement appeared in the church bulletin one week before the volunteers were to participate and on the date the volunteers were to participate in the study. In addition, the priests made an announcement at the end of mass inviting people to volunteer for the study. The announcement in the church bulletin and the announcement at the end of mass asked volunteers to remain after mass in order to participate in the study. At each church there was a liaison, a priest or a member of the church, who assisted the researcher in administering the PAAT and the Parent Information Questionnaire.

In order to obtain volunteers from the elementary school, the principal of the school was contacted. The purpose of the study was explained. The principal agreed to have the teachers in the two four-year-old classes ask for volunteers to participate in the study. The teachers served as liaison. Few of the mothers volunteered to participate in the study.

For volunteers from the child care center the director of the center was contacted in person and the study was explained to her. The director agreed to serve as liaison
and requested volunteers, Mexican-American mothers whose children attended the center.

In order to obtain volunteers from the WIC program the director of the program was contacted by telephone which was followed by a personal interview. The study was explained and the director suggested that the researcher go to the Tri-Ethnic Center where WIC participants were predominantly Mexican-American. Most of the mothers had ten years of education or less. The WIC staff served as liaisons and assisted the researcher in collecting the data.

Participants at each location were asked to complete a questionnaire for demographic information and the PAAT. The instructions were read from the PAAT (Appendix) to ensure consistency of instructions to all subjects. Both instruments were available in English and in Spanish. For those participants who could not read, the liaison or the researcher assisted them with both instruments.

Procedures for Analysis of Data

Multivariate statistics were used to analyze the data obtained for this study.

Hypothesis 1 was tested using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The dependent variables were the five subsets of the PAAT: creativity, frustration, control, play, and teaching-learning. The independent variable was education. Participants reported the number of years of
education. In testing hypotheses 1 and 2, the sample was divided into two groups by education. Group one had ten years of education or less and group two had eleven years of education or more.

MANOVA was used to test for a difference between the two education groups on some combination of the five dependent variables. Four tests of significance are reported from MANOVA: Wilk's lambda, Hotelling's trace, Pillai's trace and Roy's largest root criterion. If the overall test statistics show a significant difference between the education groups, univariate F tests, at .05/5 or .01, are conducted on each of the five variables separately to determine which of the dependent variables contribute most to the overall effect (1, 2).

Hypothesis 2, assessing the relationship between two sets of variables, was tested by canonical correlation. The variables of the first set were mother's age, mother's marital status, mother's education, family income, sex of first child, age of first child, access to child, generational status of mother, language, and ethnicity. The variables of the second set were the five subsets of the PAAT which were creativity, frustration, control, play, and teaching-learning.

Canonical correlation uses the same overall test statistics as MANOVA (12). Significance on Wilk's lambda,
Hotelling's trace, Phillai's trace, and Roy's largest root criterion shows that there is a relationship between the two sets of variables. Further analysis reveals the nature of the relationship between the two sets of variables. First, examination of the five eigenvalues reveals the dimensionality of the relationship. Eigenvalues less than 1 are not considered significant. Second, the relationship between the observed variables and their respective canonical variable shows which of the variables is contributing most to the canonical correlation. Variables which load most strongly on the canonical variable are the ones which contribute most to the canonical correlation (12).
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The intent of this study was to investigate childrearing in the Mexican-American culture. In order to explore the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with different levels of education, the subjects were grouped by level of education. Specifically the problem under investigation was twofold. First, the childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher were identified with respect to parental acceptance and support of creative functioning to their child, parental childrearing frustration, parental feelings about control of their children, parental understanding of the role of play in their child's development, and the parental attitude of their role in the teaching-learning process for their child. Second, the relationship of the demographic variables to childrearing attitudes were examined: mother's age, mother's marital status, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, generational status, mother's language, and mother's ethnicity.

The instruments used to conduct this investigation were the Parent As A Teacher Inventory (PAAT), English and
Spanish versions and the Parent Identification Questionnaire which provided particular demographic data for the population assessed. Eighty-four of 112 respondents completed both questionnaires with no missing data for an effective response rate of 75 per cent.

Statistical Analysis of Data

Multivariate statistics were used to analyze the data obtained for this study. Statistical level of significance was set at .05. (In testing hypotheses 1 and 2, the sample was divided into two groups by using the criterion of education.)

Hypothesis 1 was tested using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine whether there was a difference between the two groups divided by level of education on some combination of the five dependent variables: creativity, frustration, control, play, and teaching-learning. Four tests of significance are reported from MANOVA: Wilk's lambda, Hotelling's trace, Phillai's trace and Roy's largest root criterion. If the overall test statistics show a significant difference between the education groups, univariate F tests, at .05/5 or .01, were conducted on each of the five variables separately to determine which of the dependent variables contributed most to the overall effect (6, 7).
Canonical correlation was used to assess the relationship between two sets of variables in hypothesis 2. The first set of variables was the demographic variables and the second set was the five subsets of the PAAT. Canonical correlation uses the same overall test statistics as MANOVA. Significance on Wilk's lambda, Hotelling's trace, Pillai's trace, and Roy's largest root criterion show that there is a relationship between the two sets of variables. The presentation of the data is divided according to demographic results, results of responses on the PAAT, analysis of hypothesis 1 and analysis of hypothesis 2.

Demographic Data

For a better understanding of the respondents in this investigation, the demographic variables were analyzed using analysis of variance. F test significance was set at the .05 level. The demographic variables are mother's age, mother's marital status, mother's education, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, generational status, mother's language and mother's ethnicity.

**Mother's Age**

The respondents ranged in age from sixteen to fifty-two years. Of the 112 respondents, 108 respondents provided information about their age. Their mean age was twenty-eight years with a standard deviation of six years. For the
group of mothers with ten years of education or lower, the mean age was twenty-seven and for the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher, the mean age was twenty-eight. The two groups were not significantly different (p < .5461). However, results of this study correlate with the investigation conducted by Sears and others (26) in that the better educated mothers are older than the less well educated mothers (Table I).

**TABLE I**

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF AGE FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire Sample</td>
<td>28.37</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or lower</td>
<td>27.98</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or higher</td>
<td>28.69</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Marital Status**

When separating the sample into groups by education, both groups are similar with regard to marital status (p < .0675). See Table II.

The low divorce rate in the two groups could indicate stability in the Mexican-American family unit. The fact that there were no divorces in the group of women with ten
years of education or lower might indicate less acculturation and closer ties to traditional Mexican values. These findings substantiate results of previous research on the Mexican-American family which indicate that the family is the most important institution for Mexican-Americans (20).

### TABLE II

CROSSTABULATION OF MARITAL STATUS FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living together</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Mother's Education

Table III shows the total sample consists of 54 mothers (48.2 per cent) with ten years of education or lower and 58 mothers (51.8 per cent) with eleven years of education or higher. Of the 54 respondents with ten years of education or lower, 34 mothers (63.1 per cent) had six years of education or lower while 20 (36.7 per cent) had seven to ten years of education.
TABLE III
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, PER CENT AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE GROUP OF MOTHERS WITH TEN YEARS OF EDUCATION OR LOWER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 58 respondents with eleven years of education or higher, 38 (65.5 per cent) had eleven to twelve years of education and 20 (34.5 per cent) had some college (see Table IV). Even though the groups were separated by educational level ($p < .000$), as a whole the women in this sample were quite low in educational attainment. This finding correlates with findings from other studies which indicate the levels of education achieved by Mexican-Americans are very low as
compared to Anglo-Americans and other minorities (2, 11, 18, 28, 34).

TABLE IV

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, PER CENT, AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE GROUP OF MOTHERS WITH ELEVEN YEARS OF EDUCATION OR HIGHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High school 11</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school 12</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College 9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Generational Status

The generational level with the most mothers was third generation (45 per cent), followed by first generation (36 per cent), and second generation (19 per cent). There was a significant difference between the two groups investigated (p < .0035).
A greater number of the mothers with ten years of education or lower was first generation Mexican-American. This finding helps explain in part why this group of women tends to identify more closely with the traditional Mexican values in other segments of this study.

The group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher had more mothers that were third generation Mexican-Americans than the other group. The fact that this group was farther removed by generational level from the traditional Mexican values might help explain why their responses throughout the study indicated more acculturation with the Anglo-American culture. See Table V.

TABLE V
CROSSTABULATION OF GENERATIONAL STATUS FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Family Income

Of the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower, 72.3 per cent were in families with incomes less than $10,000 annually. The higher the educational level of the
mother the higher the family income. Of the better educated mothers, 30.4 per cent were in families with incomes of $30,000 or more annually (see Table VI). This finding correlates with Sowell's (28) findings on the income of Mexican-Americans. There was a significant difference ($p < .001$) between the two groups investigated. Nine of the 112 respondents did not respond to this question.

**TABLE VI**

**CROSSTABULATION OF FAMILY INCOME FOR SAMPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Income</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$5,000 or less</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$5,001 to $9,999</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10,000 to $14,999</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15,000 to $19,999</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,000 to $29,999</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,000 to $49,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50,000 or over</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Work Outside the Home**

Of the total sample, 52 respondents worked outside the home and 2 worked part-time. There was a significant difference between the two groups ($p < .001$). The higher the level
of education, the more likely it was for the mother to work outside the home. Of the group of respondents with ten years of education or lower, 26 (31.4 per cent) had full-time jobs and 35 (68.6 per cent) did not have jobs outside the home. Of the respondents with eleven years of education or higher, 36 (62.1 per cent) had full-time jobs and 20 (34.5 per cent) did not have jobs outside the home. See Table VII.

**TABLE VII**

CROSSTABULATION OF FAMILY WORKING STATUS FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Working Status</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Yes</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work No</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sex of Child**

In reference to sex of the first child of the total sample, 58 were male and 54 were female. For the sex of the second child, 9 were male and 16 were female. There was no significant difference in the two groups.

**Age of Child**

There was no significant difference in the two groups for age of first and second child.
Care of Children: First Choice

As indicated by Table VIII, 88.9 per cent of the mothers with ten years of education or lower cared for their children themselves or had a relative care for their children. The higher the mother's educational level the more likely it was that someone else cared for her children. Of the better educated mothers, 67.3 per cent cared for their children themselves or had a relative care for their children.

**TABLE VIII**
CROSSTABULATION OF CARE OF CHILDREN
FIRST CHOICE FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Care of Children</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbor or friend</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daycare center</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the two groups were significantly different (p < .01), both groups were unlikely to use any type of day care. This finding is similar to findings of studies investigating patterns of child care for Mexican-Americans (24, 25, 33).
Results of the studies about preference of child care by Mexican-Americans indicated that Mexican-Americans favored care by relatives over any other type of child care (24, 25, 33).

Preferred Ethnic Descriptor

There was no significant difference between the two groups. Of the better educated mothers, 50 per cent identified themselves as Mexican-Americans. The mothers with less education identified themselves as Mexican (38.9 per cent) or Mexican-American (35.2 per cent). This finding correlates with the fact that most of the mothers with ten years of education or lower were first generation Mexican-American while the mothers with eleven years of education or higher were third generation.

TABLE IX
CROSSTABULATION OF PREFERRED ETHNIC DESCRIPTOR FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preferred Ethnic Descriptor</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicano</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican-American</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Descent</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Language 1: Language Spoken

There was a difference at the .0026 statistical level of significance between the mothers with ten years of education or lower and the mothers with eleven years of education or higher. The group of mothers with ten years of education or lower tended to speak more Spanish than English. Conversely, the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher tended to speak more English than Spanish. See Table X.

TABLE X
CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE SPOKEN FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Spoken</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total sample, 36.6 per cent of the mothers spoke both English and Spanish. This finding is closely related to those of Sowell (28), who found that about half of the
Mexican-American population in major cities with a large Mexican-American population consider themselves bilingual.

Language 2: Language Spoken with Child

The two groups differ significantly (p < .05). The mothers with ten years of education or lower were more likely to speak Spanish with their children while the mothers with eleven years of education or higher were more likely to speak English with their children. Of the entire sample, 33 (29.5 per cent) spoke Spanish and English with their children. See Table XI.

TABLE XI
CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE SPOKEN WITH CHILDREN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Spoken with Children</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Language 3: Language Spoken with Friends

As Table XII indicates, the two groups differed in the language they spoke with friends \((p < .0005)\). The higher the educational level of the mother, the more likely that she spoke English with her friends rather than Spanish. Both groups had approximately one-fourth of the mothers who spoke both English and Spanish with friends.

**TABLE XII**

CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE SPOKEN WITH FRIENDS FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Spoken with Friends</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language 4: Language Preference for Reading

The difference between the two groups was at the .0003 level of statistical significance. The group of mothers with ten years of education or lower tended to prefer
reading books and magazines which were written in Spanish. Conversely, the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher were more likely to prefer reading in English. See Table XIII.

**TABLE XIII**

CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE PREFERENCE FOR READING FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Preference for Reading</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language 5: Language Preference of Radio Station**

There was a difference between the two groups at the .0016 level of statistical significance. The group of mothers with ten years of education or lower were more likely to listen to Spanish radio programs while the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher tended to listen to English radio programs. See Table XIV.
### TABLE XIV

**CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE PREFERENCE OF RADIO STATION FOR SAMPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preference of Language of Radio Station</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preference of Language of Radio Station</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language 6: Language Spoken at Work**

The difference between groups was only slightly significant with regard to language spoken at work (p < .0544).

While 26.5 per cent of the less educated mothers always spoke Spanish at their place of employment, 67.6 per cent had to use some English. Of the better educated mothers, 93.3 per cent either spoke both English and Spanish or English most of the time at their place of employment. See Table XV.

**Total Language Score**

Table XVI, which shows the total language scores for the population, indicates that the total language score was
TABLE XV
CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE SPOKEN AT WORK FOR SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Spoken at Work</th>
<th>Entire Sample</th>
<th>Ten Years of Education or Lower</th>
<th>Eleven Years of Education or Higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish always</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish most of the time</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish and English</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English most of the time</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English always</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

different between the two groups. The higher the mean score, the more English the person used. The better educated mothers had a mean score of 21.32 which indicates that they tended to use more English than the less well educated mothers who had a mean score of 14.92. Table XVII indicates that the language factor was significantly different between the two groups (p < .001). This finding correlates with Sowell's (28) findings which indicate that Mexican-Americans whose first language is English complete high school about 50 per cent more often than Mexican-Americans whose first language is Spanish.

As a measure of changes in acculturation into the Anglo society, the use of Spanish or English language has
TABLE XVI
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE OF TOTAL LANGUAGE SCORE FOR THE SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire sample</td>
<td>18.24</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or less</td>
<td>14.92</td>
<td>8.04</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or more</td>
<td>21.32</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE XVII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF TOTAL LANGUAGE SCORE FOR THE SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>1146.01</td>
<td>1146.01</td>
<td>21.35</td>
<td>.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>5902.47</td>
<td>53.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

been used in various investigations (4, 10, 19, 21, 22, 28). The fact that the better educated mothers used more English than the less educated mothers might indicate a language shift away from Spanish and thus more acculturation into Anglo-American society. This finding correlates with findings from other studies on changes in acculturation among Mexican-Americans (4, 10, 19).
The group of mothers with ten years of education or lower spent more time with their children per day than the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher. The difference was at the .0322 level of significance (see Tables XVIII and XIX).

### TABLE XVIII

**MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE OF MINUTES SPENT PLAYING WITH CHILD PER DAY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire sample</td>
<td>139.07</td>
<td>126.02</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or less</td>
<td>171.525</td>
<td>169.39</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or more</td>
<td>115.89</td>
<td>75.96</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE XIX

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF MINUTES SPENT PLAYING WITH CHILD PER DAY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>72215.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>72215.15</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>.0322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>1436543.33</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>15282.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analysis of the PAAT Scores

As the mean scores indicate, there was a difference between the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower and the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher on the total PAAT score (see Table XX).

**TABLE XX**

**MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE TOTAL PAAT SCORE BY PARENT GROUP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or lower</td>
<td>132.74</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or higher</td>
<td>135.81</td>
<td>7.62</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups total</td>
<td>134.33</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the total PAAT score, the value of F was 5.617 and was statistically significant at the .02 level of significance (see Table XXI). The mothers with eleven years of education or higher had higher PAAT scores which indicate their child-rearing attitudes were more positive.

It is important to note that the total mean scores for both groups of mothers were above the total PAAT mean average of 125. This finding indicates that both groups of mothers tended to have positive parental attitudes (30, 31, 32).

Table XXII presents mean scores for the creativity subset of the PAAT by parent group. The table indicates
TABLE XXI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF TOTAL PAAT SCORES BY PARENT GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>263.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>263.49</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>.0207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within group</td>
<td>5257.28</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>47.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

that there is a very slight significant difference between the two groups. The difference is at .0589 level of significance. The mean scores for the creativity subset for both groups of mothers were above the PAAT average of 25. This indicates that the participants were likely to accept and support the creative development of their children.

TABLE XXII
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE CREATIVITY SUBSET OF PAAT BY PARENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire sample</td>
<td>26.37</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or less</td>
<td>26.72</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or more</td>
<td>26.05</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table XXIII presents results of the analysis of variance for the creativity subset of the PAAT by parent group. The F value is .058 and is only slightly statistically significant.

**TABLE XXIII**

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES FOR CREATIVITY SUBSET OF PAAT BY PARENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>379.67</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table XXIV presents the mean scores for the frustration subset of the PAAT by parent group. The table indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups for the frustration subset.

**TABLE XXIV**

MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE FRUSTRATION SUBSET OF PAAT BY PARENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire sample</td>
<td>27.19</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or less</td>
<td>27.29</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or more</td>
<td>27.10</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Both groups had mean scores above the PAAT average of 25. The findings indicate that the participants tended to have parental expectations which were consistent with their children's development needs. Consequently, they tended to have less frustration in their role as parents and were more likely to support a positive self-concept.

Table XXV presents results of the analysis of variance for the frustration subset of the PAAT by parent group. The F value is .2608, and is not statistically significant.

While there was no significant difference between the two groups, the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower scored slightly higher than the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher. It is also true that the mothers with ten years of education or lower spent more time with their children than the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher. This finding correlates with previous studies about childrearing which indicate that the more time a parent spends with her child the more likely it is that she will have a more positive score on the frustration subset (23, 32).

Table XXVI presents mean scores for the control subset of the PAAT by parent group. The table indicates that there was a significant statistical difference between the two groups. The group of respondents with ten years of education or lower had lower mean scores (23.07) than the group of respondents with eleven years of education or higher (25.08).
Table XXV presents results of the analysis of variance for the control subset of the PAAT by parent group. For the control subset, the F value is 19.75 and is statistically significant at the .001 level of significance. This indicates that the mothers with ten years of education or lower had a greater need to control their children. The group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher scored slightly above the PAAT average of 25. This score indicates that
they were more willing to share dominance, decision making and uncertainty with their children, as well as allow them to have disagreement, spontaneity and privacy.

Table XXVIII presents mean scores for the play subset of the PAAT by parent group. The table indicates that there were no significant differences between the two groups.

TABLE XXVIII
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE PLAY SUBSET OF PAAT BY PARENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire sample</td>
<td>28.75</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or lower</td>
<td>28.46</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or higher</td>
<td>29.03</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table XXIX presents results of the analysis of variance for the play subset of the PAAT by parent group. The F value is 1.35 and is not statistically significant. Both groups scored above the PAAT average of 25 on the play subset, indicating a parental understanding of play and its importance for the development of their children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.2469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within group</td>
<td>741.35</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table XXX presents mean scores for the teaching-learning subset of the PAAT by parent group. The group of respondents with eleven years of education or higher had significantly higher scores (28.5) on the teaching-learning subset than the group of respondents with ten years of education or lower (27.18).

Table XXXI presents results of the analysis of variance for the teaching-learning subset of the PAAT by parent group. The F value is 8.45 and is statistically significant at the .004 level of significance.
TABLE XXX
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SAMPLE SIZE FOR THE TEACHING-LEARNING SUBSET OF PAAT BY PARENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entire sample</td>
<td>27.88</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten years of education or lower</td>
<td>27.18</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven years of education or higher</td>
<td>28.53</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE XXXI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES FOR TEACHING-LEARNING SUBSET OF PAAT BY PARENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>50.91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.91</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>.0044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within group</td>
<td>662.57</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings indicate that the mothers with eleven years of education or higher were more likely to perceive themselves as teachers of their children than the mothers with ten years of education or lower. However, both groups had mean scores above the PAAT average of 25 which suggests that the mothers in the study tended to see themselves as active participants in the teaching-learning process for their children.
Analysis of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. There will be a significant difference in the profile of childrearing attitude scores on the Parent As A Teacher Inventory between Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher.

Results of the multiple analysis of variance indicate that there was an overall difference between groups with a Wilk's lambda value of .8 (p < .001). The univariate F tests indicate control followed by teaching-learning contributed to the overall difference with creativity approaching a significance. Overall, hypothesis 1 is supported by the results, therefore it is retained. See Table XXXII.

TABLE XXXII

UNIVARIATE F TESTS OF THE DIFFERENCE IN THE PROFILE OF CHILDREARING ATTITUDE SCORES BETWEEN PARENT GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>113.21</td>
<td>113.21</td>
<td>19.75</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-learning</td>
<td>50.91</td>
<td>50.91</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DF = 1,110. Overall significant at .001 level.
Hypothesis 2. There will be a significant relationship between the following two sets of variables: (a) the PAAT childrearing set, including creativity, frustration, control, play, teaching-learning and (b) the demographic set, including mother's age, mother's marital status, educational level of mother, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, mother's generational status, mother's language and mother's ethnicity.

A significant relationship was found between the two sets of variables with a Wilk's lambda value of .320 with an F value of 1.80 with 50, 318.05 degrees of freedom (p < .001). As indicated in Table XXXIII, the two sets of variables are correlated along one dimension with 68.98 per cent of the variance explained by one canonical variable.

TABLE XXXIII

EIGENVALUES, PER CENT, AND CANONICAL CORRELATIONS OF THE PAAT SUBSETS WITH THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root Number</th>
<th>Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
<th>Canonical Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>68.98</td>
<td>.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.245</td>
<td>16.29</td>
<td>.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>8.68</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table XXXIV indicates that the PAAT subset control accounts for most of the relationship found with its canonical variable.

**TABLE XXXIV**

**UNIVARIATE F TESTS FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CANONICAL VARIABLE AND THE PAAT SUBSETS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mul. R</th>
<th>Sq.Mul.R</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sign. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>.403</td>
<td>4.940</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>1.550</td>
<td>.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-learning</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>1.750</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DF (10, 73).

As indicated in Table XXXV and Table XXXVI, the correlation found between the two sets of variables is due primarily to the PAAT subsets control and teaching-learning and the independent variables educational status, income, generational status and language. Overall, hypothesis 2 is supported by the results, therefore it is retained.

**Discussion**

The intent of this study was to investigate the child-rearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers. Participants were grouped by level of education for a number of reasons.
**TABLE XXXV**

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DEPENDENT AND CANONICAL VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Canonical Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>-.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
<td>-.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>.381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-learning</td>
<td>.546</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE XXXVI**

CORRELATION BETWEEN INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND CANONICAL VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Canonical Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>-.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of first child</td>
<td>.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of first child</td>
<td>.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>-.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generational status</td>
<td>.580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>.359</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, to explore features which are characteristic of Mexican-Americans. Second, to identify differences within
The findings of this study indicate that the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower and the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher have some similarities. Mothers in the two groups have a very low divorce rate and are most likely to be married. This finding could indicate that both groups of mothers place a strong emphasis on the family unit. Emphasis on the family unit has consistently been a significant characteristic in other studies of the Mexican-American family (1, 3, 20, 28).

The mean scores of the two groups on the frustration subset of the PAAT indicate a similarity in the two groups. These results substantiate results of a previous study which indicates that Mexican-American mothers tend to have an authoritative parenting style thus having a mother-child relationship with fewer conflicts and discipline problems (9). The results of this study are also similar to the findings in a study conducted by Banuelos (5). Banuelos suggests that Mexican-American mothers express less frustration in their parent-child relationship because they have more control over their children (5).

The two groups also have similar responses on the play subset of the PAAT. Their scores which are above average indicate a tendency to have positive feelings about their
children's play. This finding suggests an understanding of children's needs and a willingness to meet the needs of the children.

The findings indicate that there are differences between the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower and the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher. In addition to the difference in educational achievement between the two groups, there are significant differences in other independent variables including income, generational status, and language. The two groups also differ significantly on the PAAT control and teaching-learning subsets.

The mothers' responses indicate that the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower were more likely to have features which are characteristic of the traditional Mexican. The mothers in this group were more likely to be first generation Mexican-American, to identify themselves as Mexican or Mexican-American, and to prefer Spanish language usage more than English. Another feature which suggests strong ties to the traditional Mexican values is that none of the women in this group were divorced.

The group of mothers with ten years of education or lower was also less likely to work outside the home. As a result, they had more time for their children and spent more time playing with their children (mean 171.52) than the better educated mothers (mean 115.89) who were more likely to work outside the home. Because most of the mothers with
ten years of education or lower were less likely to work outside the home, their annual family incomes were also much lower. The characteristics of the mothers with less education correlate with Sowell's (28) findings that the economic progress of Mexican-Americans is affected by three factors. First, Mexican-Americans who are first generation earn less than later generations. Second, Mexican-Americans have low educational achievement. Third, Mexican-American females are less likely to join the labor force.

The group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher had higher family incomes, were more likely to work outside the home, were more likely to identify themselves as Mexican-American, and preferred English language usage more than Spanish. These factors are among those identified by Padilla and Carlos (21, 22) as significant in the measurement of acculturation. Results of this study indicate that the group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher were more acculturated. This finding correlates with Berry's (8) findings which indicate that education greatly influences acculturation.

The purpose of the questions about language was to determine whether there was a difference between the two groups in their language usage and preference in an attempt to have another measure of acculturation. The results indicate that the higher the education of the mother the more likely it is that she will use and prefer to use
English rather than Spanish. The finding correlates with Sowell's \( (28) \) statement that Mexican-Americans whose first language is English are more likely to complete high school. While use of Spanish language in the home does not have a significant negative effect on school achievement \( (12, 35) \), preference for English could indicate a better command of the language which in turn is helpful for school success. In addition, the fact that English is the dominant language in the schools and for most jobs could help explain why the mothers with more education tended to use more English.

Another important finding related to language is that approximately one-fourth of the mothers in both groups spoke English and Spanish. In addition, the mothers used both languages when speaking with their friends and children. This finding is similar to Sowell's \( (28) \) finding that about half of the Mexican-American population in major cities which have large Mexican-American populations are bilingual.

Social scientists \( (2, 11, 28) \) suggest that occupational opportunities and income are adversely affected by the low level of educational achievement. The results of this study confirm the statement in that the higher the mother's level of education, the higher the family income. This finding is explained in part by the fact that mothers in this group are more likely to have jobs which increase the family income.

Results of the PAAT scores support hypothesis 1. There is a significant difference in the profile of scores of
childrearing attitudes on the PAAT between Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher. The group of mothers with more education had higher PAAT scores which indicate that their childrearing attitudes were more positive. These results substantiate the statement that the mothers' education greatly influences the experiences of their children (13, 16). Hess (13, 14) suggests that changes in maternal behavior occur more rapidly through education.

The group of mothers with eleven years of education or higher had a significantly higher score on the control subset of the PAAT than the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower. This finding indicates that the mothers with more education were more likely to allow their children to have more independence while the mothers with less education tended to have a greater need to control the behavior of their children. This result is similar to those of Johnson (15) who found that Mexican-American parents who expressed the most significant need for control of their children's behavior were parents with less than a ninth-grade education, poverty income level parents, and parents who spent less than two hours weekly with their children.

Results of other studies (15, 29, 35) correlate more closely with the group of mothers with ten years of education or lower in that the parents in the studies expressed
a greater need to control their children. The parenting attitudes of the more educated mothers parallel those of middle-class mothers (12, 17, 27).

A significant difference between groups was also found in the teaching-learning subset of the PAAT. The mothers with eleven years of education or higher scored higher which indicates that they were more likely to perceive themselves as teachers of their children than mothers with ten years of education or lower. These findings confirm Spiwak's (29) findings which indicate that the higher the parent's education the higher the score on the teaching-learning subset of the PAAT.

Results of the study support hypothesis 2. There is a positive relationship between the PAAT subsets control and teaching-learning and the independent variables educational level, income, generational status and language.

The group of mothers who had more positive scores on the PAAT subsets control and teaching-learning were more likely to have a higher level of educational achievement, were more likely to have a higher family income, were more likely to be third generation Mexican-American, and were more likely to use and prefer English rather than Spanish. The results indicate that the mothers with eleven years of education or higher tended to have developmentally appropriate expectations of their children which could help prepare the children for success in school.


CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem of this study was to identify childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with children ages three to five years of age. By controlling for education, this study provided a better understanding of childrearing attitudes within the Mexican-American culture. Specifically, the first purpose of this study was to determine childrearing attitudes of Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher as identified by the Parent As A Teacher Inventory (PAAT). The second purpose was to identify the relationship of the following demographic variables to childrearing attitudes: mother's age, mother's marital status, family income, sex of child, age of child, access to child, generational status, mother's language, and mother's ethnicity.

The instruments used were the PAAT and the Parent Information Questionnaire. The PAAT was developed by Robert Strom and consists of fifty items. The Parent Information Questionnaire, developed by the researcher, consists of twenty...
demographic items. The PAAT reveals how parents feel about their role in the development of their child and their standards for assessing child behaviors. The fifty PAAT items are grouped into five subsets with ten items each pertaining to creativity, frustration, control, play, and teaching-learning. The Parent Information Questionnaire was developed to record the ten demographic variables.

The subjects were Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower who had preschool children three to five years of age and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher who had preschool children three to five years of age. The respondents included in the sample were Mexican-American mothers who completed the PAAT questionnaire and gave information as to their educational level. If a respondent left data from the Parent Information Questionnaire which was not critical to the study, such as mother's age, the respondent was included for analysis of the PAAT scores and hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 compared the mothers' educational level with the PAAT subsets. Therefore, the sample consisted of 112 Mexican-American mothers, 54 with ten years of education or lower and 58 with eleven years of education or higher. Hypothesis 2 compared all demographic variables in addition to education to the PAAT subsets. Therefore the sample for hypothesis 2 consisted of 84 of the 112 respondents who completed both
questionnaires with no missing data for an effective rate of 75 per cent.

Responses of the sample were analyzed using multivariate statistics. Hypothesis 1 was tested using multivariate analysis of variance and hypothesis 2 was tested using canonical correlation.

Findings

The findings of this study apply solely to the subjects in this study. The findings are contingent upon the variables considered, the instruments used to collect the data, and the conditions under which the data were collected. The following findings resulted from the study.

1. A significant difference was found in the profile of childrearing attitude scores on the PAAT between Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher.

2. A significant relationship was found between the PAAT subsets control and teaching-learning and the independent variables educational level, income, generational status, and language.

3. No significant difference was found between the mothers with ten years of education or lower and the mothers with eleven years of education or higher for the PAAT subset creativity.
4. No significant difference was found between the mothers with ten years of education or lower and the mothers with eleven years of education or higher for the PAAT subset frustration.

5. A significant difference was found between the mothers with ten years of education or lower and the mothers with eleven years of education or higher for the PAAT subset control.

6. No significant difference was found between the mothers with ten years of education or lower and the mothers with eleven years of education or higher for the PAAT subset play.

7. A significant difference was found between the mothers with ten years of education or lower and the mothers with eleven years of education or higher for the PAAT subset teaching-learning.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are based upon the findings from the sample in this study.

1. The Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher have childrearing attitudes which are more positive than the Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower.

2. Control is related to the mother's educational level, income, generational status, and language. The
mothers with more education and a higher income, who are third generation and who prefer English language usage, tend to allow their children more independence.

3. Teaching-learning is related to the mother's educational level, income, generational status, and language. The mothers with higher levels of education and a higher income, who are third generation and who prefer English language usage, are more likely to perceive themselves as influential in their children's learning process.

4. Agreement may be expected between the childrearing attitudes of the Mexican-American mothers with ten years of education or lower and Mexican-American mothers with eleven years of education or higher toward creativity, frustration, and play.

Implications

The following implications are suggested from the data in this study.

1. The findings may be useful in planning a parent education program for Mexican-American parents.

2. The findings may be useful in planning a teacher education program for teachers working with Mexican-American children.

3. Since the findings indicate that the mother's level of education has a positive effect on the mother's childrearing attitudes; Mexican-American women should be
encouraged to continue their education for the benefit of their families.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the findings and conclusions of this study.

1. It is recommended that this study be replicated using a larger sample of Mexican-American mothers.

2. It is recommended that this study be replicated using Mexican-American fathers.

3. It is recommended that this study be replicated in diverse geographical locations and community settings.

4. It is recommended that a longitudinal study be conducted to further investigate the effects of education on Mexican-American mothers' childrearing attitudes.
Appendix
Dear Ms. Allie,

I understand you are researching a proposal for academic purposes on the subject, "Child Rearing Attitudes of Mexican-American Mothers: Effects of Education." I heartily endorse your research and trust that you will share the results with us. At the same time I also realize you will be in need of subjects to help you validate your work. Please contact Father Valentin Ramon, Director of Hispanic Ministry for the Diocese. He will do what he can to help you in this matter. He is in residence at All Saints Church in Fort Worth. It would be to your advantage to contact him and make an appointment to discuss the work you are undertaking. Since the research is in partial fulfillment of the work needed for an academic degree, much of that work must be done by you. Whatever help we can give will be done, however; I wish you well.

Sincerely,

Reverend Joseph A. Schumacher
Vica! General
July 3, 1986

Dr. Valma Schmidt
Chairman
Mrs. Elva Concha Allie's
Doctoral Advisory Committee
North Texas State University
Denton, Texas 76203

RE: Mrs. Elva Concha Allie
Doctoral Student

Dear Dr. Schmidt:

It is my pleasure to write this letter on behalf of the above-referenced Mrs. ELVA CONCHA ALLIE. Mrs. Allie has requested that I review her translations of English materials into Spanish and then write you regarding the accuracy and validity of her translations.

I have reviewed her Spanish translations of the following materials: (1) "Parent Information Questionnaire" designed by Mrs. Allie herself, containing 20 items of demographic questions, and (2) "Consent Form" also designed by Mrs. Allie.

I am very happy to state that Mrs. Allie's Spanish translations are accurate and that they communicate very well the meaning and intent of the questions to the Hispanic reader. Also, the Spanish translations have already been field-tested in order to secure the necessary data for Mrs. Allie's investigation.

At Mrs. Allie's further request, I disclose my credentials as follows:

1. BA in Foreign Languages (French, German, and Spanish), Texas Technological University; studies in Spain and Mexico.

2. MA in French and Spanish from the University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, Texas.

3. Ed. D. in Curriculum and Instruction with a minor in Spanish from East Texas State University, Commerce, Texas.

4. Taught French, German, and Spanish at the secondary, college and university levels in the United States.

5. Translated the Spanish modules from English to Spanish for the language calculator designed and manufactured by Texas Instruments in Dallas, Texas.
I hope this letter would be of assistance to you and to Mrs. Allie.

Very truly yours,

Juan R. Franco

Juan R. Franco
Professor of Spanish
Consent Form

You are answering two questionnaires as part of a research project which is being conducted on child rearing.

Your answers to the questions will be kept in strictest confidence. Your name will not be associated with them. If you so desire, you can withdraw from participating at any time.

I will be happy to answer any questions which you might have pertaining to either questionnaire. Your cooperation and willingness to participate is greatly valued.

This is to certify that I, ________________________, hereby agree to participate as a subject in the study described above.

Participant's Signature ________________________ Date ____________

I, the undersigned, have explained the study involved to the above participant.

Researcher's Signature ________________________ Date ____________
PARENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions. Your answers to the questions will be kept in strictest confidence. Your name will not be used with the answers you give. Check one (1) item in each question.

(4) (5)  ______ Your age.  ______

(6) Marital status.

(1) never married
(2) currently married
(3) currently separated
(4) divorced
(5) widowed
(6) living together (common-law marriage)

(7) Circle the highest level of school you have completed.

(First grade through High School)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

(College and University education, years completed)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

(8) (College, highest degree earned)

(1) 2 year degree
(2) 4 year degree
(3) Master's degree
(4) Doctorate

(9) Generational status (check one)

(1) first generation—born in Mexico.
(2) second generation—born in the United States.
(3) third generation—born in the United States with both parents born in the United States.

(10) Check one of the following which describes your family income or earnings from all sources.

(1) $5,000 per year or less
     ( $417 per month or less)
(2) $5,001 per year to $9,999 per year
     ($418 to $833 per month)
(3) $10,000 per year to $14,999 per year
     ($834 to $1,250 per month)
(4) $15,000 per year to $19,999 per year
     ($1,251 to $1,667 per month)
(5) $20,000 per year to $29,999 per year
     ($1,668 to $2,500 per month)
(6) $30,000 per year to $49,999 per year
     ($2,501 to $4,167 per month)
(7) over $50,000 per year
     (over $4,168 per month)
(11) Do you work outside the home? ________________________________

(12) If yes, what is your present occupation? ________________________________

PLEASE CHECK THE ITEMS THAT APPLY TO YOUR CHILDREN.

(13) I have a child three (3) years old who is a __________ boy, __________ girl

(14) I have a child four (4) years old who is a __________ boy, __________ girl

(15) I have a child five (5) years old who is a __________ boy, __________ girl

(16) In a typical day, I play with my child (children) ____________________ hours, ____________________ minutes.

(17) Who usually cares for your child?

(1) "I do"
(2) relative
(3) neighbor or friend
(4) daycare center
(5) other (please explain)

(18) People use different words to refer to people of your (our) ethnic group. Which word do you use?

(1) Chicano
(2) Mexican
(3) Mexican American
(4) Spanish descent
(5) American
(6) other (please explain)
Please circle the number that best describes your feelings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spanish always</th>
<th>Spanish most of the time</th>
<th>Spanish/half/half</th>
<th>English most of the time</th>
<th>English always</th>
<th>Does not apply</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Which language do you like to speak?

1 2 3 4 5 6 ________

--- (21)

Which language do you speak with your child (children)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 ________

--- (22)

Which language do you speak with your friends?

1 2 3 4 5 6 ________

--- (23)

In what language are the books and magazines you read?

1 2 3 4 5 6 ________

--- (24)

What language does your favorite radio station use?

1 2 3 4 5 6 ________

--- (25)

Which language do you speak at work?

1 2 3 4 5 6 ________

--- (26)

The following information if voluntary.

Date __________________________ Church __________________________

Name __________________________ Telephone ________

Address __________________________ Street __________ City __________ State __________ Zip __________

Language of the PAAT: Spanish ______ English ______
Autorización Para Participar

Usted va a contestar dos cuestionarios que son parte de una investigación sobre la crianza del niño.

Sus respuestas permanecerán en el anonimato. Nadie se enterará de sus comentarios. Usted puede retirarse de esta investigación en el momento deseado.

Si tiene alguna pregunta o comentario sobre los cuestionarios, por favor pregúnteme con toda confianza. Su cooperación y deseo de participar serán agradecidos.

 Esto certifica que yo, ____________________________, por la presente estoy de acuerdo en participar en el estudio arriba indicado.

Firma del Participante       Fecha

Yo, el suscrito, he explicado al participante el estudio arriba indicado.

Firma del Investigador       Fecha
Cuestionario
Información de Padres

FAVOR DE CONTESTAR LAS SIGUIENTES PREGUNTAS. MARQUE UNA RESPUESTA PARA CADA PREGUNTA.

(1) ___ Edad.
(2) Estado Civil.
   ___ (1) Soltera
   ___ (2) Casada
   ___ (3) Separada
   ___ (4) Divorciada
   ___ (5) Viuda
   ___ (6) Viviendo juntos
(3) Marque el nivel más alto de su educación.
   (Primaria y Secundaria)
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
   (Colegio y Universidad, años terminados)
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
(4) Título Universitario.
   ___ (1) Título de 2 años
   ___ (2) Título de 4 años
   ___ (3) Maestría
   ___ (4) Doctorado
(5) Generación.
   ___ (1) Primera generación--nacida en México.
   ___ (2) Segunda generación--nacida en los Estados Unidos con uno o dos de los padres nacidos en México.
   ___ (3) Tercera generación--nacida en los Estados Unidos y los dos padres nacidos en los Estados Unidos.
(6) ¿Cuál de las siguientes cantidades describe sus ingresos colectivos?
   ___ (1) $5,000 por año o menos
       ($417 al mes o menos)
   ___ (2) de $5,001 a $9,999 por año
       (de $418 a $833 por mes)
| (3) de $10,000 a $14,999 por año | (de $834 a $1,250 por mes) |
| (4) de $15,000 a $19,999 por año | (de $1,251 a $1,667 por mes) |
| (5) de $20,000 a $29,999 por año | (de $1,668 a $2,500 por mes) |
| (6) de $30,000 a $49,999 por año | (de $2,500 a $3,167 por mes) |
| (7) $50,000 por año o más | ($4,168 por mes o más) |

(7) ¿Trabaja fuera de casa?

(8) Si la contestación es sí. ¿En qué trabaja?

FAVOR DE MARCAR LAS CONTESTACIONES QUE DESCRIBEN SU SITUACIÓN.

(9) Tengo un hijo (a) de tres (3) años

(10) Tengo un hijo (a) de cuatro (4) años

(11) Tengo un hijo (a) de cinco (5) años

(12) En un día típico, yo juego con mi hijo (a) ___ horas ___ minutos.

(13) Generalmente, ¿Quién cuida a su hijo (a)?

    ___ (1) Yo lo cuento
    ___ (2) Un familiar
    ___ (3) Un vecino o amistad
    ___ (4) Una guardería infantil
    ___ (5) Otro (favor de explicar)

(14) ¿Qué usa usted para describir su grupo étnico?

    ___ (1) Chicano
    ___ (2) Mexicano
    ___ (3) México Americano
    ___ (4) Español
    ___ (5) Americano
    ___ (6) Otro (favor de explicar)
FAVOR DE MARCAR EL NÚMERO QUE MEJOR DESCRIBE SUS COSTUMBRES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Español siempre</th>
<th>Español la mayor parte del tiempo</th>
<th>Español e Inglés mitad y mitad</th>
<th>Inglés la mayor parte del tiempo</th>
<th>Inglés siempre</th>
<th>No es pertinente</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(15) ¿Qué idioma prefiere hablar?

| 1    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(16) ¿Qué idioma usa con su hijo (a) normalmente?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(17) ¿Qué idioma usa con sus amistades?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(18) ¿En qué idioma están escritos los libros y las revistas que usted lee?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(19) ¿Qué idioma hablan en la estación de radio que usted escucha?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(20) ¿Qué idioma usa en el trabajo?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

LO SIGUIENTE ES VOLUNTARIO

Fecha de Entrevista________________________ Iglesia________________________

Nombre______________________________Teléfono________________________

Dirección____________________________

Idioma del PAAT: Español______ Inglés______
The tests to gather the data for this study are the Parent As A Teacher Inventory, copyright 1984 by Robert Strom and published by Scholastic Testing Service, Inc., Bensenville, Illinois 60106-8056. Copies of the tests are available from the publisher.
Autorización Para Participar

Usted va a contestar dos cuestionarios que son parte de una investigación sobre la crianza del niño.

Sus respuestas permanecerán en el anonimato. Nadie se enterará de sus comentarios. Usted puede retirarse de esta investigación en el momento deseado.

Si tiene alguna pregunta o comentario sobre los cuestionarios, por favor pregúnteme con toda confianza. Su cooperación y deseo de participar serán agradecidos.

 Esto certifica que yo, _______________________, por la presente estoy de acuerdo en participar en el estudio arriba indicado.

Firma del Participante ______________________ Fecha __________

Yo, el suscrito, he explicado al participante el estudio arriba indicado.

Firma del Investigador _______________ Fecha __________
Cuestionario
Información de Padres

FAVOR DE CONTESTAR LAS SIGUIENTES PREGUNTAS. MARQUE UNA RESPUESTA PARA CADA PREGUNTA.

(1) ___ Edad.

(2) Estado Civil.
   ___ (1) Soltera
   ___ (2) Casada
   ___ (3) Separada
   ___ (4) Divorciada
   ___ (5) Viuda
   ___ (6) Viviendo juntos

(3) Marque el nivel más alto de su educación.
   (Primaria y Secundaria)
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
   (Colegio y Universidad, años terminados)
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

(4) Título Universitario.
   ___ (1) Título de 2 años
   ___ (2) Título de 4 años
   ___ (3) Maestría
   ___ (4) Doctorado

(5) Generación.
   ___ (1) Primera generación--nacida en México.
   ___ (2) Segunda generación--nacida en los Estados Unidos con uno o dos de los padres nacidos en México.
   ___ (3) Tercera generación--nacida en los Estados Unidos y los dos padres nacidos en los Estados Unidos.

(6) ¿Cuál de las siguientes cantidades describe sus ingresos colectivos?
   ___ (1) $35,000 por año o menos
   (de $417 al mes o menos)
   ___ (2) de $35,001 a $39,999 por año
   (de $418 a $3833 por mes)
(3) de $10,000 a $14,999 por año  
(de $834 a $1,250 por mes)  
(4) de $15,000 a $19,999 por año  
(de $1,251 a $1,667 por mes)  
(5) de $20,000 a $29,999 por año  
(de $1,668 a $2,500 por mes)  
(6) de $30,000 a $49,999 por año  
(de $2,500 a $4,167 por mes)  
(7) $50,000 por año o más  
($4,168 por mes o más)  

(7) ¿Trabaja fuera de casa?  
(8) Si la contestación es sí. ¿En qué trabaja?  
__________________________________________________________________________________  
 Favor de marcar las contestaciones que describen su situación.  

(9) Tengo un hijo (a) de tres (3) años  niño niña  
(10) Tengo un hijo (a) de cuatro (4) años  
(11) Tengo un hijo (a) de cinco (5) años  
(12) En un día típico, yo juego con mi hijo (a)  ____ horas ____ minutos.  
(13) Generalmente, ¿Quién cuida a su hijo (a)?  
 _____ (1) Yo lo cuido  
 _____ (2) Un familiar  
 _____ (3) Un vecino o amistad  
 _____ (4) Una guardería infantil  
 _____ (5) Otro (favor de explicar)  
(14) ¿Qué usa usted para describir su grupo étnico?  
 _____ (1) Chicano  
 _____ (2) Mexicano  
 _____ (3) México Americano  
 _____ (4) Español  
 _____ (5) Americano  
 _____ (6) Otro (favor de explicar)
FAVOR DE MARCAR EL NUMERO QUE MEJOR DESCRIBE SUS COSTUMBRES.

<table>
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<th>Español</th>
<th>Inglés</th>
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<td>siempre</td>
<td>la mayor</td>
<td>parte del</td>
<td>tiempo</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>Inglés</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(15) ¿Qué idioma prefiere hablar?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(16) ¿Qué idioma usa con su hijo (a) normalmente?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(17) ¿Qué idioma usa con sus amistades?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(18) ¿En qué idioma están escritos los libros y las revistas que usted lee?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(19) ¿Qué idioma hablan en la estación de radio que usted escucha?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

(20) ¿Qué idioma usa en el trabajo?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

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Fecha de Entrevista_________________ Iglesia_________________

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Escobedo, Theresa H., "Are Hispanic Women in Higher Education the Nonexistent Minority?" Educational Researcher, 59 (October, 1980), 7-12.


Reports


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