A COMPARISON OF THE USE OF SUPPORT AND CONTROL IN THE CHILD-REARING PRACTICES OF FOSTER PARENTS

CLARINDA MARY SHARPE DAWE

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION HAS BEEN MICROFILMED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

A COMPARISON OF THE USE OF SUPPORT AND CONTROL IN THE CHILD-REARING PRACTICES OF FOSTER PARENTS

by

© Clarinda Mary Sharpe Dawe, B.A., B.S.W.

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Social Work

School of Social Work
Memorial University of Newfoundland
August 1978

St. John's Newfoundland

ABSTRACT

Viewing the foster family as fulfilling the same major role of socialization that natural families fill, this study examines one aspect of socialization, that of discipline and the use of parental power. Defining parental power as the force parents use to control their children's behaviour, this research looks at the use of support, assertive control, and inductive control in foster parents.

Recognizing that different foster parents raise children differently, the researcher divided the total foster parent population served by the St. John's District Welfare Office into two groups--those considered on an 8-point adequacy scale as being more adequate foster parents, and those considered less adequate. Those two groups were individually interviewed and asked questions regarding their use of behaviours related to support, assertive control, and inductive control. Twenty questions based on 20 hypotheses were developed and tested as measures of parental power.

Based on the work of Rollin and Thomas (1975) it was proposed that the foster parents rated as more adequate, called Group I, would use more support, more inductive control, and less assertive control than the foster parents rated less adequate, Group II.

This study also looked at the demographic characteristics of the foster parent population and found these similar to other foster parent populations studied in the United Kingdom (Wakeford, 1963) and the United States (Fanshel, 1966).

Because of the use of total population, no inferential statistics were used to examine the study results. A comparison of mean scores indicated that, in 15 of the 20 items measured, the differences of the means were in the direction predicted but the differences were not large. In the five remaining statements the direction was opposite to the direction predicted.

It is recognized that a large amount of support and inductive control, combined with small amounts of assertive control lead to effective child socialization. All the foster parents studied scored relatively high on the nine items measuring support, the six items measuring inductive control, and relatively low on the five assertive control statements.

This study therefore concludes that, even though the differences of means in three-quarters of the items were in the direction predicted, the closeness of the scores suggests that (1) all foster parents are approximately equal and rate well as effective socialization agents, or (2) that responses were biased by the need to give socially acceptable responses.

The research concludes that the concept of parent power should be studied further and the instrument used refined. The questionnaire could then be used by clinical social workers as an aid in the assessment of potential foster parents. The study further suggests that for a richer understanding of the dynamics of foster care, the child's compliance to parental power should also be examined.

Lastly, foster care is noted to be a difficult process for a child in view of his exposure to the social power and social exchange of more than one set of socialization agents. Supportive family programs which would prevent the need for children to be placed in care are seen as a necessary child welfare priority.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I sincerely thank all those foster parents who participated in this project. This research would not have been possible without the help they gave so readily.

Thanks go also to the provincial government's Department of Social Services for their co-operation, and to the social workers in the Child Welfare Division of the Department of Social Services in the Long Pond and St. John's district offices for their assistance.

Thanks are also offered to supervisor Dr. Victor Thompson for his prompt, constructive feedback, and to Dr. Paul Sachdev, co-supervisor.

Also appreciated was the assistance of the general office staff of the School of Social Work.

For their personal support, thanks to my husband, Bram, to Roxanne Nugent, and to my fellow students.

Very special thanks go to Eleanor Maud Mercer for her help in releasing the dangling participles while proofreading, typing, and retyping this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The family, as an institutional grouping, enjoys a great deal of study and attention, with philosophy, religion, the arts, and science offering comment on man's life in the family setting. Social science and social work, despite individual differences in orientation, are similarly interested in the structure, function, and process of that unit considered basic to any society (Murdock, 1965).

Various definitions indicate the family is a legally bound unit, with economic, religious, and other rights and obligations and with a network of sexual rights and prohibitions (Levi-Strauss, 1966).

While the single family unit consists of a man, his wife, and their offspring, family structures can vary considerably (Levi-Strauss, 1966). In North America, for example, the extended family, whose household included grandparents and other extended kin, has given way to a smaller nuclear family unit (Nimkoff & Ogburn, 1955). There has also been a recent growth in single parent family structures, while increased second marriages find the evolution of a structure that includes children from two former families (Master, 1970; Schulz, 1976). Yet another

legally sanctioned family structure that has existed for some time is that of the foster family (Heywood, 1959). This unit provides a home for children who cannot live with their natural parents.

Kadushin (1967) defines this structure as

> a child welfare service which provides substitute family care for a placement period for a child when his own family cannot care for him, for a temporary or extended period, when adoption is neither desirable nor possible (p. 355).

The foster family began as a British boarding arrangement in the late nineteenth century, and has continued as a form of child care since that time in a number of countries, including Britain, the United States of America, and Canada (Heywood, 1959). The Child Welfare League of America sees the foster family as promoting the healthy personality development of the child and preventing or intervening with problems that are personally or socially destructive (Dinnage & Pringle, 1967). Foster family care is said to aim at providing for the child experience and conditions which promote normal maturation, which prevent injury to the child, and which correct specific problems which interfere with development. Care, protection, and treatment of children in substitute families have become the objectives of foster care (Dinnage & Pringle, 1967).

The question arises as to the extent the foster family structure meets the objectives set by the professionals responsible for the organization and management of

foster home service.

Considering the large number of children exposed to foster care, David Fanshel (1966) relates that there is surprisingly little theory, or extensive research, regarding the foster family unit and its operation. The lack of firm theoretical concepts regarding foster families per se makes it appear reasonable that a study examining general family functions may prove useful in gaining further knowledge of the foster family, and how foster parents exercise parental power.

While changing lifestyles have resulted in a shift of some educational, religious, and child care functions to other institutions (Skolnick, 1971; Parsons, 1974; Vanier, 1969), the socialization of the child is still considered the major task of today's family (Clausen et al., 1968). Socialization of the child, whether in a natural family or in a foster family is a primary family function (Child & Zigler, 1969) for, as sociologist Robert Winch (1971) puts it:

> Childhood is roughly a period of twelve years from the time a child walks until he reaches adolescence. During that time for most children in North America, life is circumscribed by a family, and it is from that family that the child enters the community and encounters new modes of behaviour (p. 385).

Defined as early as 1828 (Clausen et al., 1968), socialization has become known as a process by which an

individual develops his specific pattern of socially relevant behaviour and experience through transaction with other people. Successful socialization is considered by anthropologists as being necessary, not only for the individual and the family, but for the continued order of society (Park & Burgess, 1921).

Socialization is a broad topic which involves information, motor skills, self-system, personal identity, language skills, cognitive content, attitudes, opinions, idea systems, values, ego development, affective modes of functioning, and modes of moral functioning (Clausen et al., 1968).

This study considers one aspect of socialization among parents with foster children, namely that of child-rearing practices and the use of discipline with foster children. The reasons for specifically focusing on disciplinary practices among foster parents are explored further in the next section.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Parents use various forms of discipline in order to produce from the unsocialized child an adult whose behaviour approximates that which parents feel to be socially appropriate (Clausen et al., 1968).

It can be assumed that foster parents similarly use various forms of discipline to socialize foster children. The foster parents' job of socialization agent would be a part of their function as providers of "normal childhood experiences . . . in a family life setting" (Department of Social Services, 1976, p. 229.2(i)).

Discipline, as we commonly know it, means to "bring under control or train to obedience" (Oxford, 1951, p. 341). When this definition is applied in regard to children, discipline becomes a means of controlling a child's behaviour to meet parental expectations. To exercise discipline, parents may use a variety of methods including praise, punishment, threats, rewards, or withdrawal of praise, or withdrawal of privilege (Cromwell & Olson, 1975). Any attempt to discipline a child requires the use of control or the exercise of power over a child's actions. A parent, whether encouraging, curtailing, or redirecting a child, exercises power over that child's behaviour.

Research in the area of parental power indicates that certain power used by parents is more effective in producing the child's effective socialization (Rollin & Thomas, 1975).

It could be assumed that, because foster care is a legally sanctioned and professionally supported child care alternative, foster parents would be very effective socialization agents, and would exercise the most effective

use of power in raising children.

However, we know from foster care literature that fostering is not without problems (Kadushin, 1970). Not all foster families are producing effectively socialized adults from the children in their care (Dinnage & Pringle, 1967). Thomas Ferguson (1966), for example, studied the performance of 205 young people who had just left care or were in care in the Glasgow (Scotland) Children's Department. While in care their school performance and social behaviour were poorer than average, and, two years after leaving care, they were not performing as well as a comparable group of working-class youths from natural families. For example, their recorded delinquencies and illegitimate pregnancies were more frequent than average. These deviations from society's mores and norms would indicate less effective or ineffective socialization.

U.S. researcher Meier (1965) studied an adult population of former foster children. He found a high proportion of marriage breakdown in males, and noted that women had had significantly larger numbers of illegitimate children. Meier (1965) interviewed the adult population that he studied, and determined that the former foster children, themselves, were not satisfied with their achievements.

However, the foster family picture is not completely bleak. Some foster placements are far more successful than

others (Dinnage & Pringle, 1967). A number of writers, including Jenkins (1966) and Fanshel (1961), recognize that there exist among licensed foster parents those who are "successful" and those who are "unsuccessful" in socially raising foster children. Because of their record of "success", successful foster parents, it can be assumed, would become known as more adequate than their "unsuccessful" or less adequate counterparts.

The problem to be examined here is whether or not there is any relationship between the use of power among those who are judged to be more adequate foster parents and the foster parents who are judged to be less adequate. The reason for exploring this question is contained in the next section of this study.

Significance of the Study

This study explores the use of power among two groups of foster parents.

In light of available research the study explores the relationship between the more adequate* foster parents and their use of power with foster children, and the less adequate foster parents and their use of power with foster children.

---

*Adequacy, as it applies to this study, is described in detail in Chapter 4.

Foster parents, like natural parents, socialize children and, like them, exercise power over the children. Because some foster parents are more adequate as parents than others, an examination of parental power among more adequate and less adequate foster parents becomes important in understanding one dimension of the socialization process experienced by foster children.

This study compares the use of different forms of behaviour in the child-rearing practices of foster parents such as physical punishment, verbal threats, privilege withdrawal, positive feedback, material rewards, the use of affection, the use of praise, and help in problem-solving.

In light of the child development literature related to the use of parental power with children, this examination leads to additional information about the relationships of foster parents with foster children.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Considered one of the most fundamental aspects of all social interaction, power has been defined as "the ability (potential or actual) of an individual to change the behaviour of other members in a social system" (Olson & Cromwell, 1975).

Family power, a property of a family system, is the ability (potential or actual) of individual members to change the behaviour of other family members (Olson & Cromwell, 1975).

In disciplining a child a parent utilizes power. Similarly the child, through his requests, tears, demands, and other behaviour, attempts to exercise control over the parents' reaction to him.

The overall concept of power has been noted in the child development literature since at least 1939 (Symonds, 1939). A wide variety of definitions, however, have been utilized in such studies, and the use of "power" as a label appears only in recent years (Cromwell & Olson, 1975).

That power has been a subject of interest can be seen through Martha Wolfenstein's work (1953). Reviewing women's magazines from 1915 to 1951 she found many examples of advice on discipline and the "best" techniques to control

and socialize children (Wolfenstein, 1953). Advice varied from year to year but the subject was always a popular one (Wolfenstein, 1952).

However, despite general interest in the disciplining of children there appears to have been very little attention given the subject as it pertains to foster parents. Dinnage and Pringle (1967), for example, reviewed research in foster home care in the United States, Western Europe, Israel, and Great Britain between 1948 and 1966. Their review contains no investigations relating to the use of discipline by foster parents in socializing children.

Fanshel's 1966 findings (Fanshel, 1966) are, perhaps, the only major ones which relate to the use of foster parent power with children, and his findings are only indirectly related to the subject. Fanshel (1966) examined foster parent attitudes toward child-rearing and found that more successful ("success" was rated by clinical social workers) foster parents were more permissive, less restrictive, and less authoritarian than their less successful counterparts. As attitudes are not the concern of this study Fanshel's work is relevant only to the extent that attitudes may be reflected in behaviour. It could be argued that foster parents will discipline children in accordance with their attitudes toward child-rearing. The problem with that argument is that in defining a particular attitude it is difficult to match exactly the behaviour a parent might

use and a particular attitude which he holds. Fanshel's work is, therefore, of no specific value in looking at the child-rearing practice of disciplining a child.

Because of the lack of social work literature related to the use of discipline among foster parents it is necessary to apply the child development literature on the subject of parental power to our existing knowledge of foster parents.

The evidence regarding the class origin of foster parents is not entirely clear. Although there is strong evidence to suggest their lower class origin, Peterson and Pierce (1974) found that they come from a mixture of social classes. In Britain, however, Wakeford (1963) saw most foster parents as "working class", and Fanshel (1966) notes that foster mothers originated from families of low social status with the majority identifying themselves as having come from the working class. Class differences in foster parents are noted in this study in view of the child development research findings related to discipline and social class.

Kohn (1963), for example, found that middle class parents used spanking by hand much less than working class families. Middle class families were concerned that children understand why their behaviour was considered unacceptable, and they gave more reasons for using discipline. In addition, middle class parents tended to express

interest in the motives for a child's disobedience. Kohn's (1963) major concern was with the value base related to the use of differing discipline among social classes. However, his findings did show that the value bases not only varied but the actual use of power among social classes was different, i.e., physical punishment versus explanations.

Bee et al. (1972) found the same phenomenon, as middle class mothers used more instruction, less physical intrusion, and less negative feedback than working class mothers. Much earlier, Jersild (1932) found the same results from his study, as did Sears et al. (1957).

Waters and Crandell (1964) found lower class parents more restrictive and coercive than their middle class counterparts. Maccoby and Gibbs (1954) and Davis and Havighurst (1946) had similar findings.

Bandura and Waters (1959) found that physical punishment of children led to more aggressive behaviour in boys, and suggested that aggression is learned by the discipline method utilized at home.

Foster parents are called upon to raise children of both sexes. Pringle and Dinnage (1967) in relation to this indicate that a smaller percentage of boys than girls enter foster care, and that foster home breakdown is higher for boys. This information does not appear to have been examined in relationship to the use of discipline with foster children. Again turning to the child development

literature, we find studies relating to discipline and the sex of the child.

We know from Bronfenbrenner (1961), Barry et al. (1972), and Hatfield et al. (1967) that parental discipline among natural families differs with the sex of the child. Girls, these authors maintain, are exposed to more physical affection and less physical punishment, while achievement is stressed more in boys, as is self-reliance. Physical punishment is used in greater degrees with boys.

From the foster home literature indications are that foster families are large families, limited in education, and home-centered (Babcock, 1965; Wakeford, 1963). In addition, foster families have been described as matriarchal (Fanshel, 1966). This description in the literature is interesting in terms of the following findings:

Hoffman (1960) found that nursery school children whose fathers dominated their mothers were more hostile and aggressive toward other children and exerted control over weaker children.

Rosen and d'Andrade (1959) related achievement to warmth of maternal behaviour, while Strodbeck (1958) found achievement training best fostered in matriarchal families.

From the foregoing it is evident that parental power is an important factor in the socialization of children, and that this power is exercised by a variety of methods. The literature indicates that the method used is related

to the effectiveness of the socialization. The theoretical rationale that follows enlarges upon the influence of parental power on children.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL RATIONALE

Socialization, as a broad concept, seeks to describe, when operationally defined, the actual use of behaviours of parents in disciplining their children and ultimately teaching them behaviours considered by parents to be socially appropriate. The theoretical gap between that broad idea of socialization and the specifics of the use of parental power to discipline foster children can be filled by examining social exchange and social power theories.

Social exchange theory views familial behaviour (among other social behaviours) as involving an exchange of resources at a variety of costs (Backman & Second, 1964). The theory maintains that among persons, most interaction in any situation occurs between actors occupying positions within a social structure and attempting to fill the role expectations of those positions. Behaviour is considered purposeful and goal-oriented, and it is implied that, generally, behaviour is rewarding and intended to avoid nonrewarding situations (Edwards, 1969).

The theory continues that rules exist pertaining to the association between actors regarding the exchange. Equivalent exchanges are striven for and compensation for costs would be an expectation if the parties involved were

both adults (Gouldner, 1960). Actors are assumed to strive to maximum rewards and to reduce costs (Second & Backman, 1964). Various exchanges have various values, depending on the actors involved.

In families, it may be argued that the child has unequal power. Certainly social exchanges are seldom as clearcut because so much family behaviour is informal in contrast, for example, to a bureaucracy (Edwards, 1969). Despite this possible ambiguity, such sociologists as Levi-Strauss (1957) maintain that social exchange theory explains the very root of family formation.

Social power, as a theory, helps to clarify some of the "rules", as it were, of social exchange. Power has already been defined as the potential or actual ability of Person (P) to change the behaviour of Other (O). However, in theorizing on this matter Raven and French (1959) have recognized five bases of social power, which are:

(1) Reward, and (2) coercive power. While numbered separately these are viewed together, with reward power being the type of power exerted on another person O by person (P), based on the perception by O that P has the ability to mediate rewards for him. Coercive power is O's perception that P has the ability to radiate punishment for him. In a family study Smith (1970) combined the power types into one, called outcome-control power, defining it as the child's perception of the parent's ability to mediate

rewards and punishment. As will be later seen, this study separates reward and coercive power but considers them both as possible types of power that parents use to control or discipline their children.

Raven and French's third type of power is that of (3) expert power, based on O's perception that P has some special knowledge in a given situation. The strength of this type of power varies with the degree of expertness attributed by O to P and is limited to behaviour relevant to such expert knowledge. Whether or not behaviour induced by such means will persist depends on its continued associations with the advice of the expert (Raven & French, 1959).

Referent power, the fourth power type, maintains that the desire to be like another person is vital to the maintenance of power. The attractiveness of person O to person P determines this power base. In order for it to be effective P will need to identify with some perceived positive in O (Raven & French, 1959).

The fifth type of power that Raven and French (1959) have noted is that of legitimate power, based on the acceptance by O of internalized norms and values which dictate that he accept influence from P. Because of certain characteristics, such as age, sex, class, or caste, or because of his position in some recognized hierarchy, or because he has been designated by some authority, P is perceived as having a legitimate right to dictate O's

behaviour, at least in certain areas. The strength of legitimate power depends upon the degree of O's adherence to the underlying norms and values. The scope of legitimate power can vary from narrow to wide (Raven & French, 1959).

Each of Raven and French's types of power may be possible in the use of parental power or control in disciplining a child, and thus socializing that child.

However, Rollin and Thomas (1975) have reduced to two the major variables involved in the disciplining of children.

Closely related to the types of power given by French and Raven (1959) is their concept of support or nurturance. This variable involves the use by parents of such behaviours as verbalizing kindly, displaying warmth, showing love and affection. Their second variable is that of "parental control" (Rollin & Thomas, 1975). Parental behaviour, such as giving the child directions, instructions, commands, and suggestions, as well as making requests and imposing rules and restrictions, would be considered as "parental control" (Strauss & Tallman, 1971).

However, as we have seen from Raven and French's theory of social power, parental control could have two components, that of reward, and that of coercion (Raven & French, 1959). The concept of parental control is then seen to contain two variables, (1) parental power assertion, and (2) parental induction (Hoffman, 1970).

Parental power assertion closely resembles coercive power in that it is defined as the force applied by a parent in a contest of wills in a child, and is defined as the use of physical punishment, deprivation of material objects or privileges, the direct application of force, or the threat of any of these (Hoffman, 1970).

Parental induction can be said to be composed of parts of Raven and French's reward, expert, and legitimate power definitions. Parental induction is defined as an attempt by a parent to gain voluntary compliance to parental desires by avoiding a direct conflict of wills with a child. Operationally defined, parental induction is seen as the parental behaviour by which a parent gives explanations or reasons (Hoffman, 1970).

Schaefer (1965), Strauss (1964), Becker (1964), and Rollin and Thomas (1975) feel that studies of power in families must look at parental control attempts (further divided into parental induction, and parental power assertion) and parental support or nurturance. These variables find basis in Raven and French's power theory but are operationally defined by Rollin and Thomas (1977) to apply specifically to family life.

Based on the theories of social exchange and social power, but drawn from the child development research in the area of child socialization, Rollin and Thomas (1975) theorize that the parental use of high frequencies of

support and of inductive parental control attempts, and low frequencies of parental assertive control constitute the most effective power combination in the socialization of the child. Their model develops the component of a child's compliance in response to the uses of parental power. In this study the researcher looks only at parental power usage, not at child compliance in response to that parental power. While Rollin and Thomas (1975) do not offer comment on the foster child per se, their theory is applicable when the role as child socialization agents that foster parents are expected to fill is considered (Dept. of Social Services, October 1976).

Some foster parents are more successful or adequate at parenting than other foster parents. They are identified as "more adequate" for purposes of this study because they are considered better able to raise children*. Foster parents who are more adequate at child-rearing, it logically follows, would also be more effective socialization agents, i.e., would produce a better "product" from the unsocialized child.

In light of the theory which maintains that effective socialization is the result of more use of support and inductive control, and less use of assertive control, it can be predicted that more adequate foster parents will make

---

*For the development of a scale measuring foster parent global adequacy, see Chapter 4.

use of more of the effective forms of power in child-rearing, i.e., socializing the child.

The next section of this study develops this reasoning in hypothetical form.

PROPOSITION AND HYPOTHESES

The theory accepted is that effective socialization of children is obtained through the utilization of high frequencies of support and of inductive control, and low frequencies of assertive control (Rollin & Thomas, 1975).

As foster parents who are rated more adequate do an effective job of raising foster children, it is proposed that more adequate foster parents utilize higher frequencies of support and inductive control, and lower frequencies of assertive control than their less adequate counterparts. Similarly, foster parents who are rated as less adequate are predicted to utilize lower frequencies of support and inductive control, and higher frequencies of assertive control than their more adequate counterparts.

Three propositions are generated by these predictions and these are:

> More adequate foster parents will use a higher frequency of support than less adequate foster parents.
>
> More adequate foster parents will use a higher frequency of inductive control than less adequate foster parents.

More adequate foster parents will use a lower frequency of assertive control than less adequate foster parents.

Parental Support

From the proposition that more adequate foster parents will use a higher frequency of support than less adequate foster parents, nine hypotheses emerge. Based on the operational definition of support (which states that support is measured by the frequency in parental use of behaviours that make a child feel comfortable confirming that he is basically accepted) parental behaviours of support include: praising, approving, encouraging, helping, co-operating, and expressing terms of endearment (Rollin & Thomas, 1975). The following hypotheses were developed from this definition:

1. More adequate foster parents tell their children they feel affection for the child more often than less adequate foster parents.
2. More adequate foster parents praise their children more often than less adequate foster parents.
3. More adequate foster parents are more available to their children for discussion than less adequate foster parents.
4. More adequate foster parents play with their children more than less adequate foster parents.
5. More adequate foster parents teach children more tasks than less adequate foster parents.
6. More adequate foster parents discuss a child's problems with the child more often than less adequate foster parents.
7. More adequate foster parents listen to a child's ideas more than less adequate foster parents.

8. More adequate foster parents more often comfort and talk away a child's fears than less adequate foster parents.

9. More adequate foster parents are more trusting of their children over three years playing outside alone than are less adequate parents.

Inductive Control

It is proposed that more adequate foster parents utilize more inductive control than their less adequate counterparts.

Based on the literature, inductive control is defined as the use of instructions, directions, suggestions, commands, and behaviours which result in the child's compliance to the parents' request by avoiding a contest of wills.

Evolving from the proposition and definition are the following hypotheses:

1. More adequate foster parents involve children in making rules more often than less adequate foster parents.

2. More adequate foster parents make more rule exceptions than less adequate foster parents.

3. More adequate foster parents reason with children more often than less adequate foster parents.

4. More adequate foster parents will more often explore rule disobedience and change rules as a result than less adequate foster parents.

5. More adequate foster parents give more explanations to children as to why they have rules for them than less adequate foster parents.

6. More adequate foster parents use more positive reinforcement in the form of concrete rewards

than less adequate foster parents.

Power Assertion

Parental power assertion is defined as the force applied by a parent in a contest of wills between child and parent, and is further defined as the use of physical punishment, deprivation of material objects or privileges, the direct application of force, or the threat of any of these behaviours. Assertive control attempts can be measured by the frequency of their use (Rollin & Thomas, 1975).

From the proposition that more adequate foster parents utilize less assertive control than less adequate foster parents, and based on the definition above, the following hypotheses have been developed:

1. More adequate foster parents will use spanking less than less adequate foster parents.
2. More adequate foster parents will use removal of privileges less often than less adequate foster parents.
3. More adequate foster parents will force children to go to their rooms for disobedience less often than less adequate foster parents.
4. More adequate foster parents use the threat of physical punishment less often than less adequate foster parents.
5. More adequate foster parents use the threat of privilege withdrawal less often than less adequate foster parents.

In an examination of the use by foster parents of parental support, inductive control and assertive control, there are a total of 20 hypotheses to examine. The first nine hypotheses deal with items related to support, while there are six items dealing with inductive control, and five items dealing with assertive control.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology used to test the hypotheses given, but before that discussion a number of definitions need to be clarified.

DEFINITIONS

1. Child-rearing refers to all the interactions between parents and child which constitute in total a class of events that prepare the child for continuing his life as an adult (Sears et al., 1957).

2. Socialization is the process by which an individual develops, through transactions with other people, his specific pattern of socially relevant behaviour and experience. Socialization of the child is seen as the primary function of today's family. This definition is used by Clausen et al. (1968) and is quoted in Chapter 1 of this study.

3. Socialization Agent is any individual or group active in promoting the process through which a child learns socially relevant behaviour. Natural parents, foster parents,

teachers, peers, could serve as examples. This definition has been developed as a logical sequel to the definition of socialization.

4. Discipline is considered the process of controlling or training to obedience. In this study discipline refers to attempts of parents to control a child's behaviour. This definition results from the 1954 Oxford Dictionary's definition (Oxford, 1954).

5. Parental Power is considered the actual or potential ability of a parent to change the behaviour of children they parent. This definition has basis in Olson & Cromwell's definition of power (1975).

6. Parental Support is considered the frequency in parental use of behaviours that make a child feel comfortable, confirming the child's acceptance. Parental behaviours include praising, encouraging, approving, helping, co-operating, and expressing terms of endearment. This definition is outlined in the section on Theoretical Rationale in this chapter. The definition is given by Rollin and Thomas (1975) in support of their theory of parental power.

7. Parental Inductive Control is defined as the use of instructions, commands, directions, and suggestions, to bring about change in a child's behaviour by avoiding a direct conflict of wills. Parental Inductive Control is measured by the frequency of its use. The definition is

given by Rollin and Thomas (1975) in support of their theory of parental power.

8. Parental Power Assertion is defined as the force applied by a parent in a contest of wills between child and parent, and is defined as the use of physical punishment, deprivation of material objects or privileges, the direct application of force, or the threat of any of these. Assertive attempts can be measured by the frequency of their use. The definition is given by Rollin and Thomas (1975) in support of their theory of parental power.

Now that the necessary definitions have been outlined it is possible to test the hypotheses. The methodology which was designed, pretested, and implemented in that test is reported in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Since this was an ex post facto study, the research design was restricted by the examination of a study group where the variables being measured had been, and continue to be on-going. Because behaviours of foster parents were being assessed there was no possibility of manipulation in terms of creating a purely experimental design. The subjects were not amenable to any examination of attributes other than those which existed at the time of the study.

Three student researchers designed the methodology of this study. Each student put forward an individual thesis and, therefore, developed a questionnaire related to that individual thesis. However, the methodology used was jointly developed.

The group examined comprised those foster parents who maintained regular foster homes for the Division of Child Welfare, Department of Social Services Office, St. John's, Newfoundland, as of 1 June 1978. It should be noted that the provincial Department of Social Services has divided the province into five regions, for the purpose of expediting delivery of all facets of its services, including child welfare. Each region has a number of foster homes with varying numbers of children. As of 31

May 1978 there were 485 regular foster homes in the province. The 82 families in the study group represented approximately 17 per cent of the provincial total.

Prior to commencement of the field work portion of this study the Department of Social Services head office, St. John's, was approached. The administration agreed to become involved in this project by providing easy access to records identifying foster parents who maintain regular foster homes in the St. John's area. Use of casefiles, if required, was authorized. Approval was given also for the researcher to solicit assistance from their field staff, including social workers and administrative personnel.

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Due to constraints imposed by time and finances, it was not feasible to select a sample from the total foster parent population in Newfoundland. Therefore, the entire foster parent population serviced by the Department of Social Services in St. John's was studied.

The study population was divided into two groups by means of an instrument, the Foster Parent Global Adequacy Scale, designed for this research. Assistance in developing the instrument was obtained from the social workers in the Child Welfare Division of the Department of Social Services, St. John's office.

Developing the Foster Parent Global Adequacy Scale

Martin Wolins (1963), an American researcher in child welfare, proposes that any applicant for licencing as a foster parent is rated by a social worker in terms of that social worker's perceptions of the applicant's ability to foster. He believes that each worker has a continuum by which he rates potential foster parents. Such a continuum rates from very bad to excellent. Based on Wolins' thinking, it logically follows that foster homes fall on a continuum after they are licensed. Kadushin (1970), and Wolins (1963), have found that the demand for foster homes is always greater than the supply. The result, they maintain, is that homes rated low on the continuum become licensed to meet the demand.

Based on these observations, the researchers believed that it was probable that two groups of foster parents would emerge by the use of a rating scale which would measure the global or overall adequacy of foster parents. The scale was designed so that foster parents could be rated as either more adequate or less adequate (see Appendix A). Foster parents would then fall into one or the other category, depending on the rating score each home received.

Each of the eight variables on the scale had four possible responses, and values were assigned as follows: Above Average, 4; Average to Slightly Above Average, 3;

Average to Slightly Below Average, 2; Below Average, 1. Foster homes with rating scores between 21 and 32 were considered more adequate. A foster home rating score totalling 20 or less was determined to be less adequate. Researchers believed that a scale which allowed more than two categories to emerge would produce groups which would be too small to produce meaningful results.

To insure that two groups of foster parents would emerge, social workers responsible for the foster homes were asked to divide their foster parent caseloads in two groups, more adequate and less adequate, before using the rating scale. This division was requested to preclude or overcome any bias or prejudice on the part of social workers which might lead them to view all foster parents in their caseloads as being more adequate if using the rating scale only.

The eight variables in the scale were those determined as being more relevant in measuring foster parents' global or overall adequacy. These variables were obtained in two ways. The first was through interviews with the social workers offering child care services in the Child Welfare Division of the Department of Social Services' office in St. John's. The second was through use of the child care literature related to adequacy in foster parenting.

Social workers were asked, independently of each other, to give written responses indicating which factors

they considered most important in an adequate foster home. From their replies researchers abstracted variables which appeared most frequently. The following variables emerged:

1. Emotional maturity of foster parents

This variable occurred in six of eight replies. Follow-up telephone conversations with the workers sought to learn what they considered would be an operational definition of this variable. They provided the following: Emotional maturity includes the capacity to love, give and take; the ability to cope with day to-day problems; flexibility and good judgement; adequate enactment of social roles; acceptance of one's weaknesses and strenghts; capacity to form satisfying interpersonal relationships. Kline and Overstreet (1972, p. 41) support this definition of emotional maturity. Trasler (1960) indicates that unsatisfactory placement outcomes of foster children is related to emotional illness in foster parents. His study is supportive of social workers correlating emotional maturity with fostering adequacy.

2. Ability of foster parents to understand and accept natural parents in the fostering process

Foster parents may express this ability through indicating beliefs that natural parents are normal people who are temporarily unable to cope with the care of their children. They understand that the foster child may

eventually return to the natural parents. They encourage the foster child to maintain a loyalty toward his natural parents. This variable occurred in four out of eight workers' replies. This is supported by Galaway (1972), in his observations regarding clarification of the role of foster parents.

3. Meeting the emotional needs of the child

This variable occurred in seven out of eight workers' replies. Emotional needs were defined by the workers as giving warmth, affection, understanding, and tolerance. Trasler (1960), in his research, defined emotional needs in a very similar way. He stated that warmth, feelings of self-worth, the developing of a moral conduct (sense of socially acceptable behaviour), and stimulation of learning are the key elements in a definition of emotional needs to be met in children. In his assessment of foster parents' ability to meet foster children's basic needs, Solomon (1969) found that these parents largely concentrate on meeting the child's physical needs. Only one-third of his study group showed an awareness or appreciation for emotional needs and intellectual stimulation of the child.

4. Capacity of foster parents to be child-centered rather than self-centered

This is defined as the parents' ability to accept the child for his own self, rather than as a means to

fulfilling their own needs. For example, do foster parents talk more about themselves than the child; or do they use the words home, love, and children frequently? This variable occurred in one form or another in five of the eight social workers' responses. Again, this variable has been found to be related to success in fostering (Stanton, 1956). His findings indicate that success in fostering is higher among those foster parents who love the foster child without reservation.

The remaining four variables did not clearly emerge from the social workers' replies, but are considered to be quite important in the literature on foster care and parenting.

First: Ability to meet basic physical needs

Physical needs are defined to include food, clothing, housing and medical services. This variable would be considered the base line for any human being. Solomon (1969), in looking at foster parents' ability to meet the emotional needs of the children, noted that this variable has, for years, been the focus of foster home progress. Consequently, foster parents have emphasized physical care and developed it well. This may explain why physical need was not included as a variable by the St. John's social workers, that is, it was taken for granted.

Second: Foster parents' ability to meet the intellectual needs of the child

Intellectual needs are operationally defined as providing new learning experiences, expressing interest in school progress, and encouraging the child's efforts in learning new tasks. While the social workers did not explicitly give this variable, its importance can be found in the literature related to the socialization of the child. Brophy (1977) reiterates that one of the major functions of the family is the socialization of the child, and, one of the key elements in that socialization process is developing the child's learning through experiences provided by the family.

Third: Ability of foster parents to understand, accept, and cope with different childhood behaviours

This is operationally defined to include foster parents' ability to independently evaluate the child's behaviour, for example, the awareness of reasons for slowness in toilet training, bed wetting or hyperactivity. This includes the parents' overall readiness to accept the child's behaviours at different ages and stages in his development (Meisels & Loeb, 1956; Solomon, 1969).

Fourth: Satisfactions which foster parents derive from the foster-parenting role

Foster parents may indicate such satisfactions by expressing positive comments about their relationship with

the social worker (agency); by indicating that they enjoy meeting the challenge of difficult tasks in fostering; of being able to serve the community (humanity) in this manner, and by expressing their fascination at watching children grow. These observations about foster-parent satisfactions are supported by Fanshel (1966); Jaffe and Kline (1970); and Kline and Overstreet (1972).

Pretesting the Scale

The Foster Parents' Global Adequacy Scale was pretested at the Long Pond district office of the Department of Social Services. Two social workers arbitrarily divided 20 foster families and used the scale to rate them. The foster parents, who were categorized by the social workers as being more adequate, were also rated more highly by them when using the scale. The converse was true for those categorized as less adequate.

It must be noted, however, that the method used by social workers to divide their caseloads into two groups may have biased their decisions. They were asked to divide the foster parents into two groups prior to using the rating scale. Having divided her caseload, a worker may have then consistently perceived a parent as being less adequate, for example, being committed to that decision, in her mind, prior to using the rating scale.

The rationale underlying asking the social workers to divide caseloads prior to using the scale relates to the earlier noted continuum (Wolins, 1963) on which foster parent applicants are rated by workers, and are either accepted or rejected. The continuum of ratings for foster parents at the time of application for licensing might range from excellent to very bad. The homes licensed would tend to fall mainly on the positive side of the continuum. Therefore, the rating of "more" or "less" adequate being on the positive side of the continuum was difficult for workers to determine. The home to have been licensed must have already been viewed as adequate and discrimination between more adequate and less adequate would be a difficult task. This could explain why any differences between the two groups in the tests administered could be minimal.

It should also be noted that the social workers who were initially called upon to identify variables which they saw as important in adequate fostering were the same social workers who were later asked to use the scale. The fact that they were involved in creating a scale that they were later called upon to use may also have created a bias.

Using Social Workers to Rate Foster Parents in the Study Group

Having used social workers to rate foster parents on the basis of adequacy, student researchers were following precedents established by researchers such as Fanshel (1966)

and Traslet (1960), and, as Wolins wrote in 1963 (p. 169),

> The social worker's image of a good foster parent is, we have seen, substantially clear, predictable, and consistent individually within agencies and among agencies (1963, p. 169).

It was expected, based on observed precedents in the literature, that social workers at the St. John's Social Services' office would be consistent with one another in using Foster Parents' Global Adequacy Scale. This was anticipated, to some extent, in that the majority of workers had identified similar criteria for rating foster parents when they assisted in the construction of the scale.

The underlying assumption was that social workers who would be rating foster parents were capable of making correct assessments based on their agency's guidelines for fostering (see Appendix B), their experience, and their academic training. The average education of the social workers who rated foster parents for this study was a Bachelor of Arts degree with a Social Work Major. The average number of years of experience in working with foster families and related child welfare activity was four years.

Subsequent analysis of the Foster Parents' Global Adequacy Scale rating forms completed by the social workers revealed that foster homes rated by them as less adequate consistently scored 20 or less. The more adequate foster parents achieved scores between 21 and 32. Although the workers were asked to divide their foster homes as being

more or less adequate, a subsequent comparison of foster home scores and assigned ratings confirmed that the ratings coincided with their initial judgements. Social workers were unaware of the scoring component used to check their rating of foster homes, but the biases already noted may have influenced their decisions.

INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire administered to the two foster parent groups that emerged from the adequacy rating scale was composed of three sections for use by three researchers. Section A dealt with satisfactions found in fostering. Section C dealt with parental attitudes. Section B contained 20 items for this study of parental inductive control, parental assertive control and parental support. The statements measuring these items were rotated so that alternate statements measured an item of support or an item of either assertive control or inductive control.

The nine items related to support are contained in Appendix C and Appendix D (Section B) numbered 7.9, 13, 17, 19, 21, 25, 27, and 29. Each item was stated to the foster parent as listed in Table 1 and the options of "Always", "Often", "Usually", "Sometimes", "Seldom", and "Never" were given as a wide range continuum of possible answers. The statements, dealing with the nine hypotheses related to items of support, are:

TABLE 1

Support Items as Stated in the Questionnaire

1. I tell my children that I feel affection for them.
2. I praise my children for doing things I approve of.
3. I am available to my children to discuss anything.
4. I sit down and play with my children.
5. I listen to my child's ideas.
6. If my child gets into trouble at school or play I talk with him about the problem.
7. I teach my children tasks around the house.
8. When my children are afraid I comfort them and talk to them.
9. I would trust my children over three years of age to play outside alone.

Each statement was read and the response recorded. "Always" had a numerical value of six, while "often" was rated numerically as five, "usually" rated four, "sometimes" rated three, "seldom" rated two, and "never" rated one.

In an attempt to validate the statements used, a pretest was conducted with 20 foster families from the Long Pond District Welfare Office. The families interviewed

were those that emerged in the pretest of the Foster Parents' Global Adequacy Scale and consisted of two groups--the more adequate and the less adequate foster parents.

In an examination of the results of the pretest, it was noted that the foster parents did use the range of answers available and the mean score of each question varied slightly on the replies given. Also pretested were the six items related to inductive control listed in Table 2, and give assertive control items listed in Table 3.

TABLE 2

Inductive Control Items as Used in Questionnaire

1.	Rules in our house are made by talking with the children.
2.	I make exception to the rules for children in our home.
3.	The children listen when I reason with them.
4.	If a child disobeys a rule I will try to see why I have rules for them.
5.	I give explanations to children as to why I have rules for them.
6.	I reward children whey they obey by giving them material items, e.g., money, ice cream, etc.

Note. Inductive control items are numbered 8, 10, 12, 18, 20 and 16 in Appendix C and Appendix D, Section B.

TABLE 3

Assertive Control Items Contained in the Questionnaire

1.	I spank my children for misbehaviour.
2.	If a child is late coming home I will remove his privileges.
3.	I have sent children to their rooms for misbehaviour.
4.	If children disobey I threaten the loss of privileges.
5.	If a child misbehaves I threaten the loss of privileges.

Note. Assertive control items are numbered 14, 22, 24, 26, and 30 in Appendix C and Appendix D, Section B.

The items related to inductive control and assertive control had a range of answers from "always" to "never" with similar numerical values.

No standardized questionnaire pertaining to support, inductive and assertive control were found in an exhaustive search of the literature. Therefore, the items identified by Rollin and Thomas (see page 25) were operationalized in the form of statements to which respondents could select the appropriate rating as noted above.

All the items tested related to behaviours that were seen to be defined as parental supportive, assertive controlling or inductive controlling. The behaviours tested

also are seen in the child development literature as behaviour exerted by parents in the disciplining of their children (Sears et al., 1957).

It was recognized that designing a new questionnaire related to the measurement of support, inductive control and assertive control might cause methodological problems. The difficulty in measuring one of these variables, support, was noted by Ellis et al. (1977) when they pointed out "few measures of the support function have been adequately examined to their reliability and validity" (p. 1).

Olson and Cromwell (1975) also note "power has proven to be one of the most complex and elusive concepts to describe" (p. 3). They also note that research in the area is relatively young and may be naive, therefore, until further work is developed. This study attempts to develop the power concepts into behaviourally formed items because parental power is seen as an essential element of child-rearing and in need of study. Therefore, the items tested were developed as a point from which further refinements can be made.

In the development of the questions, there was considerable discussion among the three researchers (who were to use the total questionnaire) as to the most appropriate items to include, and as to the method of questionnaire to develop.

Sears et al. (1957) used an open-ended questionnaire to look at child-rearing practices. However, this research group eliminated the open-ended questionnaire because of the problems that are encountered in trying to code responses appropriately. In addition, the research team wanted an instrument that could be administered in a short time frame. An open-ended questionnaire was felt to be too time consuming in view of the size of the population being studied.

A second form of research was considered in deciding the instrument to use. Observation has been noted as one popular way by which parent-child interaction has been researched (Olson & Cromwell, 1975). The problem with this method is that it is time consuming, and again there is the problem of the bias of the observer, who must make judgements on the behaviour observed. In addition the parent is aware of being observed and this can create what Stanley and Campbell (1966) call the "halo effect".

After eliminating the open-ended questionnaire and the observation technique, it was decided that the most straightforward manner by which to measure parental power was that of self-reporting. The items developed, therefore, asked parents to report on their child-rearing discipline practices. The wide range of six possible responses was believed to give the parents the necessary scope to respond accurately. Foster parents were told that the questionnaire

was not a test, there were no right or wrong answers, that respondents could not be identified by name, and that responses were confidential. In this manner it was felt that foster parents would feel able to respond freely to each statement.

Each item used was read in the first person "I" because the statements wished to measure the foster parent's behaviour. In retrospect, however, the use of this first person noun may have created a bias. It is questionable that any parent will admit, for example, to using high frequencies of physical punishment. The questionnaire may have suffered this bias by causing respondents to give a socially acceptable answer. In the future refinement of this questionnaire this bias must be addressed.

The questionnaire contained a number of other items related to discipline. These were noted, but are not reported upon in this study. These items included the nature of rule-making in the foster family, and rule differences by sex of the child (Appendix C and Appendix D, Section B).

The questionnaire consisted of 32 questions, and when compiled with the questions of the other two researchers took approximately 30 minutes to complete. After the pretest of the total questionnaire, clumsy wording and ambiguities as found in the pretest were adjusted.

The instrument was then administered to the population studied and the results are reported in the next chapter of this study.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In addition to the questionnaire related to parental support and control, demographic information was obtained from the population studied. Information of this nature was acquired to provide a profile of the population being examined, and, where possible, to relate differentiating characteristics of the foster parents to those covered in other studies in Britain and the United States.

The demographic questions directed to foster mothers (Section D of Appendix D), and foster fathers (Section D of Appendix C), were the same except in the following instances. The question regarding family income was on the father's questionnaire, but provided that the response should indicate if there was family income received from spouse's earnings as well as from the husband's earnings. Similarly, the question regarding living arrangements was asked only of the father.

The foster mother's questionnaire differed from the foster father's in the following manner. They were asked how many natural children they had had; how many natural children living at home at the time of the survey; and how many children they had fostered since becoming foster parents. Placing of the above noted questions was governed by the appropriateness of the questions directed to the spouse thought to be most likely to best handle the response.

The following questions were asked to determine socioeconomic characteristics of the study group:

Occupation. Responses to this question were taken as given, that is, if a person was a plumber the occupation was so written on the response sheet. Prior to the survey, the Newfoundland Government's Department of Manpower and Industrial Relations was contacted for assistance in coding occupations. As a result eight categories were developed. These were Homemaker, Homemaker with part-time employment, Retired, Unskilled, Semi-skilled, Skilled, and Professional. Responses to the occupational question were subsequently assigned to the category which they were thought to best fit in accordance with the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations, 1977, prepared by Employment and Immigration Canada, Ottawa.

Education. Categories were developed to determine those persons who had no high school, some high school, technical training with either of the foregoing, high school graduation, and university education.

Income. The Department of Manpower and Industrial Relations also assisted in devising income ranges wherein respondents could possibly be expected to fall, employed in current occupations in Newfoundland. Two ranges, $5,000.00 to $6,999.00, and $7,000.00 to $9,999.00 were determined to be the lower income category; $10,000.00 to $14,999.00 and $15,000.00 to $19,999.00 was the middle income range; and

over $20,000.00 was the higher income level.

Age. The question regarding age was asked to determine if a particular age group, for example, 40 to 50 years, provided the majority of foster parents, or if there were some other variations.

Two questions sought to determine if the foster families in this study tended to remain in the one place for lengthy periods. Indications of stable living arrangements, particularly if the home was occupant owned, would reveal a permanency of the arrangement, also length of residence.

Information was sought regarding the size of the place where the foster parents were raised, the number of siblings they had, and the size of their own families. The population ranges used for places where respondents were raised are the same as those used by Census Canada, but modified slightly for use in this study. Two new ranges were added, under 1,000 and over 100,000. Census Canada considers all areas with a population less than 1,000 to be rural. Considering the small size of Newfoundland's outport settlements, using the under 1,000 range was necessary. Since there is only one city in the Province with a population of more than 100,000 there was no reason to go beyond this range. The reason for asking this question, and the number of siblings, was to determine if foster parents in this area generally come from large families in rural areas.

Survey Procedure

Through use of the Foster Parents' Global Adequacy Scale, agency social workers provided two groups of foster parents, which together comprised the total regular foster parent population serviced by the Department of Social Services' office in St. John's. One group was designated as more adequate foster parents, and the other as the less adequate.

One week prior to the actual survey period researchers arranged with the Child Welfare Division of the above noted agency to mail a letter to each foster home. The letter, bearing the letterhead of the Department of Social Services, over the signature of the Child Welfare Supervisor, informed the foster parents that a research project in child care was underway and requested their cooperation (see Appendix E).

During the period 6-19 June 1978, foster parents were telephoned and appointments scheduled, at their convenience, for interviewers to visit them. Three graduate students (fellow researchers), and three undergraduates, all in social work, formed three interviewing groups, a researcher and a student in each. Before the survey began each interviewer was familiarized with the interview instruments and all were aware of the interview format, i.e., no prompting of responses, no explanations of the statements in the interview schedule. They were also briefed

in the use of the coding system devised and the response sheets (see Appendices F and G) used for recording the father's responses.

The interviewing teams visited with the foster parents usually in the late evenings, since this was the only time foster fathers were available. They were always advised that their responses would be treated confidentially. While one interviewer spoke with the mother, the other spoke with the father. Throughout the interviews the researchers alternately interviewed the mother or the father, though not by design. There was little possibility for an interviewer's bias to enter since interviewees' responses were limited, and prompting or explanations were prohibited (see Instructions to Interviewer in Appendix C). Response cards were given to the respondents, on which were printed the response choices. The team approach of interviewing necessitated, where possible, separating mother and father so that, with two conversations in progress, neither would be a distraction to the other. The use of research teams made possible as many as five interviews an evening and the accomplishing of the actual survey in a two-week period.

Collected data were collated and statistical tests applied through use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences at Memorial University's Computer Services. Subsequent analysis of the prepared data is reported in the section which follows.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS

Description of the Study Group

The foster parents interviewed consisted of the total population of foster families served by the St. John's District Office of the Department of Social Services. This included a total of 75 males and 81 females, there being seven widows and one widower among the family units interviewed. The population had been previously divided into more adequate and less adequate. The more adequate will be referred to in this analysis as Group I, of which there responded 35 foster fathers and 39 foster mothers, and the less adequate as Group II, of which there responded 22 foster fathers and 29 foster mothers.

Of the 156 total possible individual interviews with foster mothers and foster fathers, an 84 per cent response rate was received. Two couples (two male respondents and two female respondents) were excluded from the study at the outset as one couple had been erroneously licensed as a foster home and their status had not changed. The second exclusion was a newly transferred foster family for whom the worker felt unable to give a global adequacy rating. Twenty foster parents refused interviews, while four foster parents asked to be excused because of illness.

Two refused due to a death in the family, and one was out of the province at the time of interview. Thus, of 156 possible respondents, there was a total of 31 refusals, or 125 respondents. Of the 91 more adequate foster parents, 18.7 per cent refused to respond, as did 16.4 per cent of the 61 less adequate foster parents, for a total 16 per cent non-response rate. The following table illustrates the responses received.

TABLE 4

Foster Parent Response

	Female	Male	Total
Total Population	81	75	156
Refusal--no reason	9	11	20
Refusal--illness	3	1	4
Excluded from study	2	2	4
Death in family	1	1	2
Out of province	0	1	1
Total refusals	15	16	31

Total refusals = 31 Percentage respondents = 83%

Total population = 156 Number of respondents = 125

Profile of Foster Parent Population

The foster parents of this study were found comparable to those foster parents studied in the United States

(Fanshel, 1966) and Britain (Wakeford, 1963) in terms of a number of population characteristics.

Over 61 per cent of this study's foster fathers were raised in towns of less than 5,000 residents, while slightly over 60 per cent of the foster mothers in the study were raised in towns of less than 5,000 residents. Table 5 refers, as follows:

TABLE 5

Area Population of Foster Parents' Childhood

	FATHERS		MOTHERS	
Population Range	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
less than 1,000	22	38.6	34	50.0
1,000 – 2,499	12	21.0	5	7.4
2,500 – 4,999	1	1.8	2	2.9
5,000 – 9,999	3	5.2	4	5.9
10,000 – 29,999	1	1.8	3	4.4
30,000 – 99,999	14	24.6	13	19.1
Over 100,000	4	7.0	7	10.3
Totals	57	100.0	68	100.0

Fanshel (1966), Wakeford (1963), and Babcock (1965) similarly describe foster parents as being raised in rural

areas. In this study, 43.9 per cent of the foster fathers were raised as members of families containing more than seven siblings, while 38.2 per cent of foster mothers came from families with more than seven siblings; 59.7 per cent of the foster fathers came from families with more than five siblings, and 55.9 per cent of foster mothers came from families with more than five siblings. Similar characteristics are reported also by Fanshel (1966) and Wakeford (1963) as are described in Table 6. The foster parent population of this study also raised large families, with over 80 per cent of the study population having three or more natural children. Table 7 outlines the natural children of foster parents. Again this confirms findings of Fanshel (1966), Wakeford (1963), and Babcock (1965).

TABLE 6

Foster Parent Siblings

	FATHERS		MOTHERS	
No. Siblings	Freq.		Freq.	
None	0.0	0.0	1	1.5
1 - 2	12	21.0	13	19.1
3 - 4	11	19.3	16	23.5
5 - 6	9	15.8	12	17.7
7 or more	25	43.9	26	38.2
Totals	57	100.0	68	100.0

TABLE 7

Foster Parents' Natural Children

No. of Children	Freq.	%
None	5	7.4
1 - 2	8	11.8
3 - 5	36	52.9
6 or more	19	27.9
Totals	68	100.0

The average education of 70 per cent of the foster parents was less than high school. The educational range is illustrated in Table 8, and again is similar to the findings of Wakeford (1963) and Fanshel (1966).

Foster parent income is reported in Table 9 and represents the combined incomes of husband and wife. The largest income group, those earning between $10,000.00 and $14,999.00, represents 40.4 per cent of the population. The percentage of foster parents earning a total combined income of less than $15,000 a year is 70.4 per cent. This is slightly above the average income level of Newfoundland families as reported by Statistics Canada in 1971. However, since 1971 inflation and general wage increases would indicate that this income is an average one for the 1978 Newfoundland family.

TABLE 8

Foster Parents' Education

Education	FATHER Freq.	FATHER %	MOTHER Freq.	MOTHER %
Grade 8 or less	22	38.5	27	39.6
Some high school	15	26.3	23	33.8
Completed high school	12	21.1	4	5.9
Technical training with some high school	6	10.5	8	11.8
Technical training with no high school	0	0.0	5	7.4
Some university	1	1.8	1	1.5
University graduate	1	1.8	0	0.0
Totals	57	100.0	68	100.0

TABLE 9

Foster Parents' Combined Income

Income Category	Freq.	%
$ 5,000 - $ 6,999	8	14.0
7,000 - 9,999	9	15.8
10,000 - 14,999	23	40.4
15,000 - 19,999	10	17.5
20,000 and over	7	12.3
Totals	57	100.0

Table 10 outlines the occupation of the foster father.

TABLE 10

Foster Fathers' Occupation

Occupational category	Freq.	%
Retired	9	16.0
Unskilled	6	10.5
Semi-skilled	13	26.2
Skilled	24	42.1
Professional	3	5.2
Totals	57	100.0

The skilled group of foster fathers comprises the largest occupational group among the foster father population, representing 42.1 per cent of the total population. Rated together, the unskilled and semi-skilled comprise the second largest occupational category representing 36.7 per cent of the population.

Of the total study group of 68 foster mothers, only 13 per cent were employed outside their homes, and 6 per cent were employed part-time. This finding again relates positively to United States and British findings that mothers tended to be home-centered (Fanshel, 1966; Wakeford, 1963).

Foster Parent Age

The ages of foster parents in this study are reported in Table 11. It is evident from the table that the larger percentage of foster mothers (59 per cent) are under 40 years old and of Grade 8 educational standing.

The age of foster parents was tabulated by Group I and Group II in view of the findings of Trasler (1965), Parker (1963), and George (1970). Parker (1963) and Trasler (1965) found more successful foster mothers to be over 40 years of age, while George (1970) found foster mothers under 40 years to perform more successfully. The different definitions of "success" could account for the discrepancy in findings. Whatever the reason for the discrepancy, this study's more adequate group followed George's (1970) findings. Group I foster mothers had 23 mothers under 40, while Group II foster mothers had only eight foster under 40 years of age.

Foster Parent Religion

The religious distribution of foster families is indicative of the normal distribution of religions in the province of Newfoundland according to Canada Census, 1971. Table 12 indicates this religious distribution.

Foster Parent Profile

In summary, the findings in the demographic section of the questionnaire (Section D of Appendix C and Appendix D)

TABLE 11

Foster Parents' Age

Age Range	MOTHER				FATHER			
	GROUP I		GROUP II		GROUP I		GROUP II	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Under 40	23	59.0	8	27.6	16	45.8	5	22.7
40 - 49	8	20.5	6	20.6	11	31.4	5	22.7
50 and over	8	20.5	15	51.8	8	22.8	12	54.6
Totals	39	100.0	29	100.0	35	100.0	22	100.0

TABLE 12

Religions Denomination of Foster Parents

Religion	FATHER Freq.	%	MOTHER Freq.	%
Roman Catholic	22	38.6	29	42.6
Anglican	17	29.8	25	36.8
United Church	9	15.8	8	11.8
Salvation Army	2	3.5	2	2.9
Other	7	12.3	4	5.9
Totals	57	100.0	68	100.0

indicate that the foster parents in this study display a profile similar to that found by United States researcher Fanshel (1966) and British researcher Wakeford (1963). Foster parents who are born into large families tend to have larger families of their own, have low formal education levels, the foster mother's major role is that of homemaker, and tend to come from rural populations. Foster families tend to be working class families with incomes of less than $15,000.00 per annum.

Findings relating to age support the work of George (1970) in that foster mothers under 40 in this study were found in higher numbers in the more adequate group (Group I)

in comparison to the less adequate group (Group II) where the majority of mothers were over 40 years of age.

Comparative Results in Foster Parent Use of Support

The nine items tested individually as measures of support and the results of the tests are grouped together in Table 13. Because the relatedness of each of these items has not been tested they are not used as a scale (Kerlinger, 1964) but are reported as individual indices of support.

The difference of the means between Group I and Group II indicate that on item 1, Table 13, more adequate foster fathers verbalized affection for their children vary slightly more than Group II fathers. The difference found was 0.2 compared with a 0.4 difference of means between Group I mothers and Group II mothers, with Group I mothers verbalizing more affection by that much more on the average. The results of this statement were in the direction of the hypotheses given which stated that more adequate foster parents will more often tell children they feel affection for them.

Item 2, Table 13, represents the hypothesis that more adequate foster parents use more praise than less adequate foster parents. Here the difference of the means supported the direction of the hypothesis but marginally, as was the case in item 1. Group I fathers had 0.3 higher

TABLE 13

Comparative Results of Items Measuring Support

		GROUP I		GROUP II		Differences
	Parents	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	of Means
1. I tell my children that I feel affection for them	Father	4.9	1.2	4.7	1.1	0.2
	Mother	5.0	1.0	4.6	1.3	0.4
2. I praise the children for doing things I approve of	Father	5.4	0.8	5.1	0.7	0.3
	Mother	5.4	1.0	5.0	1.0	0.4
3. I am available to my children to discuss anything	Father	5.6	0.8	5.5	0.7	0.1
	Mother	5.7	0.7	5.4	1.0	0.3
4. I sit down and play with my children	Father	4.1	1.4	4.5	1.1	-0.4
	Mother	4.5	1.3	4.1	0.9	0.4
5. If my child gets into trouble at school or play I talk with him about the problem	Father	5.9	0.6	5.3	0.8	0.3
	Mother	5.3	0.9	5.0	1.1	0.3
6. I listen to my child's ideas	Father	5.2	1.1	4.8	1.1	0.4
	Mother	4.8	1.2	4.6	1.2	0.2
7. I teach my children tasks at home	Father	4.9	1.1	4.6	1.1	0.3
	Mother	5.3	1.0	4.8	1.2	0.5
8. I comfort my children when they are afraid	Father	5.4	0.9	5.0	1.3	0.4
	Mother	5.3	1.1	5.0	1.3	0.5
9. I would trust my child over three to play alone outdoors	Father	3.5	1.9	3.1	1.8	0.4
	Mother	3.4	1.7	2.7	1.5	0.7

mean score than Group II fathers. The mean score of Group I mothers was 0.4 higher than the mean scores of Group II mothers.

Item 3 reflects the same marginal support for the hypothesis that more adequate foster parents are more often available to their children to discuss things. Fathers of Group I had 0.1 higher mean score than Group II fathers, while Group I mothers had 0.3 higher mean score than Group II mothers.

Item 4 of the support items found Group I fathers with a lower mean score than Group II fathers. Group II fathers reported playing with their children slightly more than Group I fathers. This finding refutes the hypothesis that more adequate foster parents sit down more often and play with their children than less adequate foster parents. On the other hand, however, foster mothers in Group I showed marginal support for the given hypothesis with a 0.4 higher mean score than Group II mothers.

Group I mothers and Group I fathers were found to score higher than Group II parents in assisting children in trouble. Again this supports the direction of the hypothesis which stated that more adequate foster parents were more likely to talk with a child in trouble at school or play than less adequate foster parents. The difference of the mean is again minimal, however, with a 0.3 difference in both the fathers and the mothers.

Item 6 demonstrated the same tendency for Group I to score higher than Group II, with a marginal difference of means of 0.4 in the case of the fathers and 0.2 in the case of the mothers. The direction of the hypothesis on which the statement is based is found to be accurate to a very limited extent. The hypothesis predicted that more adequate foster parents were likely to listen more to a child's ideas than less adequate foster parents.

The hypothesis of item 7 predicts that more adequate foster parents will teach children more tasks at home than less adequate foster parents. Again the difference of the means is minimal (0.3 for fathers and 0.5 for mothers) but the Group I parents do respond with slightly higher mean scores than Group II parents.

Item 8 is based on the hypothesis that more adequate foster parents will talk to and comfort frightened children more than less adequate foster parents. Again the hypothesis is directionally supported but by very small differences in mean scores. Group I fathers have 0.3 higher mean scores than Group II fathers. Similarly, Group I mothers have 0.5 higher mean scores than Group II.

The final item tested in relationship to support, item 9, indicates again a tendency for Group I parents to have slightly higher mean scores than Group II foster parents. It was hypothesized that more adequate foster parents more often trust children over three to play outside

alone than less adequate foster parents. More adequate foster fathers had mean scores that were 0.4 higher than less adequate foster fathers. More adequate mothers had mean scores that were 0.7 higher than less adequate foster mothers.

Comparative Results in Foster Parent Use of Inductive Control

The six items tested individually as measures of inductive control are grouped together in Table 14. As the relationship of each of these items to one another has not been tested, they are not used as a scale (Kerlinger, 1964). Instead each item is an individual index of inductive control.

Item 1 of Table 14 resulted from the hypothesis that more adequate foster parents made more rules by talking with the children than less adequate foster parents. The direction of the hypothesis was supported rather weakly by Group I fathers who had a mean score that was 0.2 higher than the mean score of Group II fathers. Group I mothers displayed much stronger support of this hypothesis in that they scored 0.8 higher in a comparison of means than did group II mothers.

Item 2 of Table 14 came from the hypothesis that more adequate foster parents would show a greater tendency to make exceptions to rules than less adequate foster parents. Group I fathers had 0.1 higher mean score than Group II,

TABLE 14

Comparative Results of Items Measuring Inductive Control

Item	Parents	GROUP I Mean	GROUP I S.D.	GROUP II Mean	GROUP II S.D.	Difference of Means
1. Rules in our house are made by talking with the children	Father	4.9	1.1	4.7	0.9	0.2
	Mother	5.1	1.0	4.3	1.2	0.8
2. I make exceptions to rules	Father	3.6	1.4	3.5	1.3	0.1
	Mother	3.4	1.5	3.8	1.3	-0.4
3. The children listen when I reason with them	Father	4.9	1.1	4.7	1.1	0.2
	Mother	4.9	1.1	4.5	1.2	0.4
4. If a child disobeys a rule I find out why and change rules	Father	4.0	1.2	4.0	1.2	0.0
	Mother	4.1	1.3	3.7	1.1	0.4
5. I explain why I have rules to the children	Father	5.0	1.1	4.5	1.2	0.5
	Mother	5.2	0.8	4.5	1.1	0.7
6. I reward children whey they obey by giving them material items	Father	3.3	1.6	3.9	1.6	-0.6
	Mother	2.6	1.6	3.4	1.6	-0.8

which could hardly be said to support the hypothesis in any significant manner. The hypothesis was not accepted in the case of the mothers (Group II mothers obtained a 0.4 higher mean score). Group II mothers are marginally more likely to make exceptions to rules than Group I mothers.

It was hypothesized that more adequate foster parents would more often find children listening to them than less adequate foster parents. Item 3 of Table 14 reflects this hypothesis and the hypothesis direction is given some measure of support by the mean scores.

Another hypothesis that was tested in the examination of inductive control was that more adequate foster parents would be more likely to seek reasons for rule disobedience, and to change the rules more than less adequate foster parents. Item 4 measured this notion and found no difference in the mean scores of Group I fathers and Group II fathers. Group I mothers, however, had a mean score that was 0.4 higher than the mean score of the Group II mothers.

Item 5 tested the hypothesis which predicted that more adequate foster parents would more often give reasons for rules for the children. Group I foster fathers had a higher mean score than Group II foster fathers but again the difference of means was limited (0.5). Group I mothers demonstrated a 0.7 higher mean score than that demonstrated by Group II. The results indicate limited but directional support for the hypothesis.

The results of Item 6, Table 14, are interesting. The results contradict the hypothesized relationship between more adequate foster parents and a higher frequency of material rewards. Both Group I mothers and fathers use material rewards less than Group II parents do.

Comparative Results of Foster Parent Use of Assertive Control

The five items listed in Table 17 were tested individually as measures of assertive control. As there was no test done on the relationship of these items to one another, the items are reported upon individually (Kerlinger, 1964). Each item is seen as a separate index of assertive control.

It was predicted that more adequate foster parents would use a lower frequency of assertive control items. Table 15 indicates the results of these predictions.

It was hypothesized that more adequate foster parents spank their children less than less adequate foster parents. On this item (item 1, Table 15) foster parents' responses indicate that Group I fathers reject the hypothesis and use physical punishment slightly more than Group II fathers. However, Group I mothers as predicted were slightly less likely to use physical punishment.

Item 2 of Table 15 measured the parental removal of privileges as a form of assertive control. Group I foster parents were predicted to use less of this form of control

TABLE 15

Comparative Results of Items Measuring Assertive Control

	Item	Parents	GROUP I Mean	GROUP I S.D.	GROUP II Mean	GROUP II S.D.	Difference of Means
1.	I spank children for misbehaviour	Father	2.4	1.6	2.1	1.0	0.3
		Mother	2.3	1.2	2.5	1.0	-0.2
2.	If a child is late coming home I will remove his privileges to stay out the next night	Father	3.4	1.5	3.9	1.4	-0.5
		Mother	3.7	1.6	4.8	1.3	-0.9
3.	I have sent children to their rooms for misbehaviour	Father	3.6	1.5	1.4	3.6	0.0
		Mother	3.8	1.5	3.5	1.2	0.3
4.	I threaten children with physical punishment	Father	1.9	1.2	2.5	1.4	-0.6
		Mother	2.0	1.3	2.5	1.3	-0.5
5.	I threaten children with loss of privileges	Father	3.1	1.2	3.5	1.3	-0.4
		Mother	3.6	1.3	4.0	1.3	-0.4

than Group II parents. Findings support the direction of the hypothesis.

However, there is no difference in Group I and Group II fathers in their use of assertive control by sending a child to his bedroom for misbehaviour (item 3, Table 15). Group I mothers use this assertive control behaviour slightly more than did Group II mothers.

Group II parents used the threat of physical punishment more than Group I parents do (item 4, Table 15). This was predicted in a hypothesis which stated that more adequate foster parents would use less threat of punishment than would less adequate foster parents.

Again the statement dealing with the threat of privilege withdrawal (item 6, Table 15) found that Group II parents used a higher average of threat of privilege removal.

In the case of the 20 items measured, 15 items produced results with mean differences in the predicted direction. In five cases the direction of mean score results were opposite from the predicted direction. In all the items measured the differences of the means were marginal. This indicates that while the more adequate foster parents behaved as predicted, findings should be examined carefully before conclusions are drawn.

Data Interpretation

It is apparent from the results of the data collected that the direction of the difference in the means in the eight of the nine items measuring support was as predicted in the hypothesis. The direction of the difference of the mean in the case of the ninth item, which asks whether or not parents play with their children, is in the opposite direction from that predicted.

Similarly, in the case of the items which measure inductive control, four of the items were in the direction of the difference predicted, while two items were in the direction opposite to that predicted.

Lastly, the items which measured assertive control showed differences of means in the direction predicted in three cases. In a fourth case the item was opposite to the direction predicted, while in the fifth item the fathers did not follow the predicted direction and the mothers did.

In the case of all the items measured, the midpoint was 3.5, midway between the lowest possible score on each item (1) and the highest possible score on each item (6). Except in the case of statements which dealt with assertive control, both groups scored relatively high on each statement. In the case of the assertive control statements, all scores were relatively low, indicative of low use of assertive control behaviours.

It has been found that three-quarters of the hypotheses were directionally accepted but it is noted also that the difference of the means on all hypotheses was marginal. These findings indicate that more adequate foster parents are somewhat more effective child socialization agents. More meaningful, however, is the finding that both groups rated very similar scores. Both groups of parents received relatively high scores on support items, relatively high scores on inductive items, and relatively low scores on assertive items.

An interpretation of this finding indicates that all foster parents are relatively effective child socialization agents.

It was noted in Chapter 4 that foster parents can be said to fall on a continuum in terms of their adequacy as foster parents. Of the homes in St. John's, the "more adequate" and "less adequate" were selected for comparison. However, to be licensed a home must first be considered adequate. Therefore, the division of the licensed homes into two groups is not an easy division to make. The distinction between homes may be too fine.

Given this factor, it should not be surprising that both groups of foster parents would receive similar scores on the questionnaire. As the parents tested would fall to the positive end of the continuum, the scores could be predicted to be (1) similar, and (2) reflective of effective

use of support and control.

One possible interpretation of the data is that scores were biased by the respondents' use of socially acceptable answers. If this were the case, results would not reflect accurately foster parent use of support and control. To ensure that this has not occurred further testing and development of the instrument used would increase its accuracy. The use of projective questions that do not involve the first person "I" would possibly make the questionnaire less susceptible to this bias.

This study's summary and limitations are outlined next, followed by the conclusions and recommendations which arise from the data analysis.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Viewing the foster family as fulfilling the same major role of socialization that natural families fill, this study examines one aspect of socialization, that of discipline and the use of parental power. Defining parental power as the force parents use to control their children's behaviour, this research looks at the use of support, assertive control, and inductive control in foster parents.

Recognizing that different foster parents raise children differently, the researcher divided the total foster parent population served by the St. John's District Welfare Office into two groups--those considered on an 8-point adequacy scale as being more adequate foster parents, and those considered less adequate. Those two groups were individually interviewed and asked questions regarding their use of behaviours related to support, assertive control, and inductive control. Twenty questions based on 20 hypotheses were developed and tested as measures of parental power.

Based on the work of Rollin and Thomas (1975) it was proposed that the foster parents rated as more adequate, called Group I, would use more support, more inductive

control, and less assertive control than the foster parents rated less adequate, Group II.

This study also looked at the demographic characteristics of the foster parent population and found these similar to other foster parent populations studied in the United Kingdom (Wakeford, 1963) and the United States (Fanshel, 1966).

Because of the use of total population no inferential statistics were used to examine the study results. A comparison of mean scores indicated that, in 15 of the 20 items measured, the differences of the means were in the direction predicted but the differences were not large. In the five remaining statements the direction was opposite to the direction predicted.

It is recognized that a large amount of support and inductive control, combined with small amounts of assertive control lead to effective child socialization. All the foster parents studied scored relatively high on the nine items measuring support, the six items measuring inductive control, and relatively low on the five assertive control statements.

This study therefore concludes that, even though the differences of means in three-quarters of the items were in the direction predicted, the closeness of the scores suggests that (1) all foster parents are approximately equal and rate well as effective socialization agents, or (2)

that responses were biased by the need to give socially acceptable responses.

Study Limitations

As this study used a total population it is not possible to generalize its findings in the same way as might be possible with a random sample. However, while study results cannot be generalized to all populations of foster parents, the fact that the demographic characteristics so clearly match those of other populations studied means that the study results are worth noting in populations other than St. John's.

Another limitation of this study relates to the earlier mentioned continuum on which foster parents are rated by social workers and applications for licensing are accepted or rejected (Wolins, 1970). The continuum of ratings regarding foster parents at the time of application ranged from "very poor" and "not licensed" to "excellent" and "licensed". The homes licensed would fall to only one side of the continuum. Therefore, it should be recognized that the rating of high adequacy and low adequacy is a difficult one to reach, as at the outset each home had already been considered sufficiently adequate to be licensed.

Lastly the bias outlined earlier, that of the socially acceptable response, may have limited the findings in the study. Parents are not likely to deny that they use

high frequencies of support, for example. This bias is explored in the methodology and noted also in the conclusions.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In this ex post facto study, the direction of the mean scores on three-quarters of the items indicates that more adequate foster parents are more supportive, and use more inductive control than do less adequate foster parents. In addition more adequate foster parents are somewhat less likely to use assertive control than less adequate foster parents would. The findings were supported by 15 of 20 hypotheses but the difference of means was slight and therefore conclusions must be reviewed with caution.

Despite differences in both groups, all foster parents had relatively high support scores, relatively low assertive control scores, and relatively high inductive control scores. This finding indicates that either both groups of foster parents are effective socialization agents, or that socially acceptable responses have affected the scores.

It is felt that refinement of the research instrument is necessary to deal with the problem of the above mentioned bias. This study points to the importance of parental power in child socialization. An instrument to measure the use of parental power could be administered with potential

foster parents. The findings from the use of such a questionnaire would assist the clinical social worker in making decisions regarding the licensing of future foster homes.

Accepting the finding that all foster parents are effective child socialization agents, the question remains as to what factors influence the ineffective socialization of the foster child. A study of the foster child's compliance to foster parent power would help to gain further understanding of the dynamics of this unique form of family.

In conclusion, further consideration should be given by child welfare researchers and policy makers to the following recommendations:

1. This study points to the importance of parental power in effective child socialization. The concept of parental power should be studied further and the instrument used to measure parental power refined. In this way, a questionnaire could be developed for use by social work practitioners as a tool in the assessment and licensing process.

2. This study deals with the exercise of parental support and control. It is suggested that for a richer understanding of the dynamics involved in foster parent power, the area of foster child compliance to foster parents

be researched.

3. It is noted that foster care is a substitute form of family care. As substitute parents, foster parents are asked to socialize children who have already been subjected to the parental power of one set of parents. Foster children in turn are expected to adjust to the social power and social exchanges of a second family. This process must, by its very nature, be a difficult one. Therefore, it is felt that supportive family services should be the focus of social workers. Such services could prevent the need for natural family breakdown and strengthen the socialization abilities of the natural family so that substitute care is unnecessary.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Babcock, C. Some psychodynamic factors in foster parenthood. Child Welfare, 1965, 44, 485-93; 570-77.

Bandura, A. & Walters, R. Adolescent Aggression. New York: Ronald Press, 1959.

Barry, J., Bacon, M. & Child, I. A cross-cultural survey of some sex differences in socialization. In Kanwar (Ed.), The Sociology of the Family. New York: The Free Press, 1967.

Baumrind, D. Parental control and parental love. Children, 1963, 12, 230-234.

Baumrind, D. Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behaviour. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1967, 75, 43-83.

Becker, W. Consequences of different kinds of parental discipline. In L. Hoffman and M. Hoffman, Review of Child Development Research. New York: Rossell Sage Foundation, 1964.

Bee, H., Egeran, L., Strussgreth, A., Nyman, B. & Lackie, M. Social class difference, maternal teaching strategies and speech patterns. In U. Bronfenbrenner, Influences on Human Development. Illinois: Dryden Press, 1972.

Blood, R. The Family. New York: The Free Press, 1972.

Bronfenbrenner, U. Influences on Human Development. Illinois: Dryden Press, 1972.

Bronfenbrenner, U. The changing American child: A speculative analysis. Journal of Social Issues, 1961, 17, 6-18.

Bronfenbrenner, U. Toward a theoretical model for the analysis of parent-child relationships in a social context. In J.C. Glidewell (Ed.), Parental Attitudes and Child Behaviours. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1961.

Bronfenbrenner, U. Socialization and social class through time and space. In E. Maccoby, T.M., Newcomb and E.L. Hartley (Eds.), Readings in Social Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958.

Brophy, J. Child Development and Socialization. Chicago: Science Research Association, Inc., 1977.

Burgess, E. & Park, R. Introduction to the Science of Sociology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921.

Burgess, E. The Function of Socialization on Social Evolution. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1916.

Campbell, D. & Stanley, J. Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Reprinted from Handbook of Research on Teaching, Copyright 1963, American Educational Research Association, 1966.

Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations. Ottawa: Employment and Immigration Canada, 1977.

Child, I. & Zigler, E. Socialization. In L. Gardner & E. Aronson. Handbook of Social Psychology. Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1969.

Child Welfare Policy Manual, Revision No. 282. Department of Social Services, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 31 May 1978.

Clausen, J. Family structure, socialization and personality. In L. Hoffman and M. Hoffman, Child Development Research (Vol. 2). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1966.

Clausen, J., Brien, O., Inkeles, J., Maccoby, E., Smith, M. Socialization and Society. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1968.

Cooley, C.H. Human Nature and the Social Order. New York: Scribners, 1902.

Costin, L. & Gruener, J. Licensing of Family Homes in Child Welfare. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1965.

Cromwell, R. & Olson, D. Power in Families. New York: Halsted Press Division, 1975.

Davis, A. & Havighurst, R. Social class and color differences in child-rearing. American Sociological Review, 1946, 11, 698-710.

Dinnage, R. & Pringle, M. Foster home care facts and fallacies. London: Longmans, Green & Company Limited, 1967.

Edwards, J. Familial behaviour as social exchange. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1969, 13, 518-526.

Ellis, G., Thomas, D., Rollins, B. Measuring and conceptualizing parental support: An extension of previous research. Unpublished data gathered 1975, Department of Sociology, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, 1977.

Ellis, G., Thomas, D. & Rollin, B. Measuring parental support: The interrelationship of three measures. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1976, 38, 713-721.

Fanshel, D. Foster Parenthood: A Role Analysis. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1966.

Fanshel, D. Studying the role performance of foster parents. Social Work, 1961, 6, 74-81.

Ferguson, T. Children in Care and After. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1966.

Fowler, H.W. & Fowler, C.G. (Eds.), The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. London: Oxford Press, 1951.

Galaway, B. Clarifying the role of foster parents. Children Today, 1972, 1, 32-33.

George, K. The Family in Transition. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1971.

George, V. Foster Care. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1970.

Goode, W. The Contemporary American Family. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1971.

Gordon, M. The Nuclear Family in Crisis: The Search for an Alternative. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.

Gouldner, A.W. The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. American Sociological Review, 1960, 25, 161-178.

Gray, P. and Parr, A. Children in Care and the Recruitment of Foster Parents. London: Social Survey, 1957.

Hatfield, J., Ferguson, P. & Albert, R. Mother-child interaction and the socialization process. Child Development, 1967, 38, 365-414.

Heer, D. The measurement and bases of family power: An overview of marriage and family living. Marriage and Family Living, 1963, 25, 133-139.

Heywood, J. Children in Care. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1959.

Hoffman, M.L. Moral development. In P.H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology (3rd ed.) New York: John Wiley, 1970.

Hoffman, M.L. Power assertion by the parent and its impact on the child. Child Development, 1960, 31, 129-143.

Jaffe, B. & Kline, D. New Payment Patterns and the Foster Parent Role: A Study of Two Experimental Programs in Long-term and Permanent Foster Care. New York: Research Centre, Child Welfare League of America, 1970.

Jenkins, S. & Sauber, M. Paths to Child Placement. New York: The Community Council, 1966.

Jersild, A.T. Training and growth in the development of children. Monograph Social Research Child Development 1932, No. 10, in J. Swift, Effects of Early Group Experience: The Nursery School and Day Nursery. In L. Hoffman and M. Hoffman, Child Development Research (Vol. 1). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.

Johnson, O. & Bommarido, J. Tests and Measurements in Child Development: A Handbook. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971.

Kadushin, A. Child Welfare Services. New York: Collier-MacMillan Limited, 1967.

Kadushin, A. Child Welfare Services. New York: Collier-MacMillan Limited, 1970.

Kerlinger, F. Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.

Kline, D. & Overstreet, H. Foster Care of Children: Nurturance and Treatment. New York: Studies of the Child Welfare League of America, 1972.

Kohn, M. Social class and parent-child relationships: An interpretation. American Journal of Sociology, 1963, 68, 893-896.

Levi-Strauss, C. The family. In H.L. Shaparo, Man, Culture and Society. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966.

Martin, B. Parent-child relations. In F. Horowitz, Review of Child Development Research. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

Masters, E. Parents in Modern Society, A Sociological Analysis. Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1970.

Medinnus, G. & Johnson, R. Child and Adolescent Psychology. New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc.

Meier, E. Current circumstances of former foster children. Child Welfare, 1965, 44, 196-206.

Meier, E. The needs of adolescents in foster care. Child Welfare, 1958, 37, 27-31.

Meisels, J. & Loeb, M. Unanswered questions about foster care. Social Service Review, 1956, 30, 239-246.

Murdock, G. Social Structure. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

Nimkoff, M. & Ogburn, W. Technology and the Changing Family. Chicago: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1955.

Parker, R. Decisions in Child Care. London: George Allen & Unwin Limited, 1966.

Parker, R.A. Success and failure in fostering. New Society, 1963, 1, 25-32. In R. Dinnage and M. Pringle, Foster Home Care: Facts and Fallacies. London: Longmans, Green & Company Limited, 1967.

Parsons, T. Family structure in the modern United States. In R. Coser, The Family: Its Structures and Functions. New York: Macmillan Company Limited, 1974.

Petersen, J. & Pierce, A. Socioeconomic characteristics of foster parents. Child Welfare, 1974, 53, 295-304.

Raven, B.H. & French, J.R. Legitimate power, coercive power and observability in social influence. Sociometry, 1958, 21, 83-97.

Rollin, B. & Thomas, D. A theory of parental power and child compliance. In R. Cromwell and D. Olson, Power in Families. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975.

Rosen, B. & d'Andrade, R. The psychosocial origins of achievement motivation. Sociometry, 1959, 22, 185-218.

Schaefer, E. A circumplex model for maternal behavior. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1959, 59, 226-235.

Schaefer, E. Children's reports of parental behavior: An inventory. Child Development, 1965, 36, 413-424.

Schlesinger, B. Families: A Canadian Perspective. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Limited, 1972.

Schulz, D. The Changing Family. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.

Sears, R., Maccoby, E. & Lewin, H. Patterns of Child-Rearing. Illinois: Row Peterson and Company, 1957.

Sears, R.R., Maccoby, E.E. & Lewin, H. Patterns of Child-Rearing. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson, 1957.

Secord, P. & Backman, C. Social Psychology. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1964.

Skolnick, A. The Family in Transition. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1971.

Smith, T.E. Foundations of parental influence upon adolencents: An application of social power theory. American Sociological Review, 1970, 35, 860-873.

Solomon, M. Foster parents' perceptions of foster child's roles. Child Welfare, 1969, 48, 202-211.

Stanton, H. Mother love in foster homes. Marriage and Family Living, 1956, 18, 301-307.

Straus, M. Power and support structure of the family in relation to socialization. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1964, 26, 318-326.

Strodbeck, F. Family interaction values and achievements. In D.C. McClelland, A. Balwin, U. Bronfenbrenner and F. Strodbeck, Talent and Society. New York: Van Nostrand, 1958.

Symonds, P.M. The Psychology of Parent-Child Relationships. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1939.

Trasler, G. In Place of Parents: A Study of Foster Care. New York: The Humanities, 1960.

Vanier, J. The Evolution of the Family and Modern Crisis. Montreal: Vanier Institute of the Family, 1969.

Wakeford, J. Fostering: A sociological perspective. British Journal of Sociology, 1963, 14, 335-346.

Waters, W. & Crandell, V. Social class and observed maternal behavior from 1940-1960. Child Development, 1961, 35, 1021-32.

Winch, R. The Modern Family (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971.

Wolfenstein, M. Trends in infant care. American Journal of Othopsychiatry, 1953, 23, 120-130.

Wolins, M. Selecting Foster Parents. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.

Yorburg, B. The Changing Family. New York: Columbia University Press, 1967.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FOSTER PARENTS' GLOBAL ADEQUACY SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS COMPLETING THE FOSTER PARENTS GLOBAL ADEQUACY SCALE

Using your foster home index cards, please divide your foster parents into two groups, having approximately the same number in each. One group should represent those foster parents who, at this point in time, have been above average or average to slightly above average in overall performance. The other grouping should contain those foster parents whose performance is average to slightly below average or below average. Then, please complete a questionnaire on each foster home in each group.

The rating you circle on the Foster Parents Global Adequacy Scale should best represent your overall rating as it applies to a particular home.

For example: Statement Number one on the Scale:

EMOTIONAL MATURITY OF FOSTER PARENTS

Referring to the definition just below this statement, you may determine that the foster parents in a particular home may be able to cope quite well on a day to day basis, requiring an 'above average' rating for that. However, they (or one of the foster parents) may have difficulty in forming satisfying interpersonal relationships, or a weaknesses in some other area outlined in the definition. In that case the overall rating would then be less than 'above average', perhaps requiring an 'average to slightly above average' rating, depending on your judgement of the overall adequacy in regard to the foster parents' matching with the definition given for this particular scale.

FOSTER PARENTS GLOBAL ADEQUACY SCALE

This information is part of a research project being conducted by graduate students at the School of Social Work, Memorial University. In this study we are interested in understanding more about the attitudes, behaviours and satisfactions of foster parents. In order to do so, it is first necessary to rate each of your foster families. We would like you to complete the following questionnaire for each of the regular foster homes in your district. While we have asked you to give the name, address and telephone number of each foster home, your answers to this questionnaire will be maintained in confidence and used for research purposes only. Thank you for your co-operation.

Foster Parents' Name _____

Address _____

Phone Number _____ Length of Time Fostering _____ (years)

Please complete one questionnaire for each foster home. The following statements have 4 possible ratings. Please circle one rating for each statement. The rating you circle should best represent your overall rating of the statement as it applies to this particular foster home.

1. EMOTIONAL MATURITY OF THE FOSTER PARENTS

This statement is defined as the foster parents ability to love, give and take; the ability to cope with day to day problems; flexibility and exercise of good judgement; adequate enactment of one's social roles; acceptance of all one's weaknesses and strengths; capacity to form satisfying interpersonal relationships.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

2. ABILITY OF FOSTER PARENTS TO UNDERSTAND AND ACCEPT NATURAL PARENTS

This may be expressed by the foster parents by their indicating that they view the natural parents as normal people, temporarily unable to cope; that the foster child may eventually return to the natural parents; by their encouraging foster child to maintain a loyalty toward the natural parents.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

3. ABILITY OF FOSTER PARENTS TO MEET THE EMOTIONAL NEEDS OF THE CHILD

Emotional needs are defined as giving the child love and warmth; enhancing the child's feelings of self-worth; developing child's socially acceptable behaviour.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

4. CAPACITY OF FOSTER PARENTS TO BE CHILD CENTERED RATHER THAN SELF CENTERED

This is defined as the ability to accept the child for his own self, rather than a means to fulfilling own needs; for example, do foster parents more often talk about their own wishes, needs, problems, than those of the child; do they use the words, home, love and child, quite a lot.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

5. ABILITY OF FOSTER PARENTS TO MEET THE PHYSICAL NEEDS OF THE CHILD

These are defined as clothing, food, housing; giving proper attention to medical needs.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

6. ABILITY OF FOSTER PARENTS TO MEET THE CHILD'S INTELLECTUAL NEEDS

Examples of this are represented by foster parents efforts to provide the child with new learning experiences; expressing interest in his school progress; encouraging the child in learning new tasks.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

7. ABILITY OF FOSTER PARENTS TO UNDERSTAND, ACCEPT, AND COPE WITH DIFFERENT CHILDHOOD BEHAVIOURS

Can foster parents independently evaluate child's behaviour; for example, do they indicate an awareness of reasons for slowness in toilet training, bed-wetting, or hyper-activity; an overall readiness to accept child's behaviour at various ages and stages of his development.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

8. SATISFACTION WITH FOSTER PARENTING ROLE

Foster parents may express this in making positive comments about their relationship with social worker, (agency); by indicating that they enjoy meeting challenge of difficult tasks in fostering; of being able to serve the community (humanity) in fostering; expressing fascination at watching children grow up.

Above Average | Average to Slightly Above Average | Average to Slightly Below Average | Below Average

APPENDIX B

POLICY REGARDING FOSTER HOME CARE

PREVIOUSLY COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL,

IN APPENDIX B, LEAVES 94-117,

NOT MICROFILMED.

CHILD WELFARE POLICY MANUAL,
REVISION NO. 282.

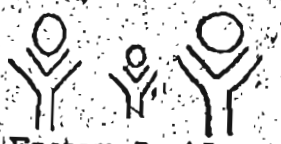
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES,
GOVERNMENT OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR,
31 MAY 1978.

LEAVES 232.6(b)-238.4.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE--FATHER FORM

A STUDY OF FOSTER FAMILIES IN ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND



Foster Family

Foster Child

Natural Parents

The Agency

Interview Schedules

for

Foster Fathers

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

St. John's, Newfoundland

1978

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INTERVIEWER

There are two interview schedules, each containing four sections A-D. One schedule labelled M is for use with foster mothers, while schedule F is for use with foster fathers. As the questions vary, please ensure that the correct schedule is used for each interview. Interviews are to be carried out separately and answer sheets are labelled - Foster Mother ♂ Interview Schedule and Foster Father ♀ Interview Schedule. Please ensure the correct answer sheet is utilized and that answers are clearly coded.

Please do not prompt answering, give subjective reactions or attempt any input with regard to the statements or questions. Before each section of the interview schedule begins, please read the written explanations given. The given interview format should be adhered to beginning with reading the following paragraph:

INTRODUCTION FOR RESPONDENT

This survey is part of a research project on family life being completed by graduate students at the School of Social Work, Memorial University of Newfoundland. Opinions are used for research purposes only and will be strictly confidential. This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers.

CHILD REARING PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE SECTION B

"The questions in this section of the questionnaire seek to find out something of how you raise children. You are being asked to answer the questions along with a number of other foster parents. Your answers are confidential. The questionnaire basically wants to find out about the rules and regulations you use in raising children. Different parents raise children differently and there are no right or wrong answers to the questions."

1. First of all, do you have different rules in your home generally for boys than for the girls?

   1 _____ 2 _____
   Yes No

2. In a sentence or two, give examples of rules you have that are different for the boys than for the girls.

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. In your experience with children have you had more or fewer rules for girls than for boys?

   more rules _____ less rules _____ same for both _____
   1 2 3

4. Who usually makes most of the rules in your house for the children?

   mother _____ father _____ together _____
   1 2 3

5. Who usually enforces the rules in your house for the children?

   mother _____ father _____ together _____
   1 2 3

6. If you and your wife disagree about how a child must be treated, who usually wins out in deciding the child's treatment?

   mother _____ father _____ varies _____
   1 2 3

SECTION B (Cont'd)

Please respond to the following statements by giving one answer from these six possible choices; always, often, usually, sometimes, seldom, never.

	Always 6	Often 5	Usually 4	Sometimes 3	Seldom 2	Never 1
7. I tell my children I feel affection for them.						
8. Rules in our house are made by talking with the children.						
9. I praise my children for doing things I approve of.						
10. I make exceptions to rules for the children in our home.						
11. My children solve their problems without any help.						
12. The children listen when I reason with them.						
13. I am available to my children to discuss anything.						
14. I spank my children for misbehaviour.						
15. I say nice things to my children, and call them affectionate names.						
16. I reward children when they obey by giving them material items. (e.g., money, ice-cream, etc.)						
17. I sit down and play with the children.						
18. If a child disobeys a rule, I will try to see why and perhaps change the rule.						

SECTION B (Cont'd)

	Always 6	Often 5	Usually 4	Sometimes 3	Seldom 2	Never 1
19. I teach my children tasks around the home.						
20. I give explanations to children as to why I have rules for them.						
21. If my child gets into trouble at school or play, I will talk with him about the problem.						
22. If a child is late coming home, I will remove his privileges to stay out.						
23. If I tell my child to do something (take out the garbage, wash dishes) I will leave him to finish the task alone.						
24. I have sent children to their rooms for misbehaviour.						
25. I listen to my children's ideas.						
26. If children disobey, I threaten them with physical punishment.						
27. When my children are afraid, I comfort them and talk to them.						
28. I try to get children to listen to me before using other discipline forms.						
29. I would trust my children over three years of age to play outside alone.						
30. If a child misbehaves I threaten the loss of privileges.						

SECTION B (Cont'd)

31. As a foster parent do you find that it is necessary to have different rules for your children than foster children?

Different Rules _____ 1 Same Rules _____ 2

32. If you have different rules for your foster children, could you give examples:

_____

_____

_____

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE SECTION D

Demographic Questions

1. What religion do you follow now?

R.C.	Ang.	U.C.	S.A.	Pent.	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. What is your occupation? (Write response on answer sheet)

3. What is the last grade you completed at school?

1. 8th grade or less.
2. 9th thru 12th grade, didn't graduate.
3. High school graduation.
4. Some University, no degree.
5. Special or technical training, but no high school.
6. Special or technical training, with some high school or graduation.
7. University graduation, specify.

4. What is your age?

20-24	25-29	30-40	40-49	50-60	Over 60
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. What is the approximate amount of your yearly earnings? (husband and wife) (excluding family allowance and foster home payments)

$5,000. - $6,999.	$7,000 - $9,999	$10,000. - $14,999.	$15,000. - $20,000
1	2	3	4

Over $20,000.
5

6. How many brothers/sisters were there in your family?

1 - 2	3 - 5	5 - 7	7 or more
1	2	3	4

7. What was the approximate population of the city, town or village in which you were raised?

1. Less than 1000
2. 1,000 - 2,499
3. 2,500 - 4,999
4. 5,000 - 9,999
5. 10,000 - 29,999
6. 30,000 - 99,999
7. Over 100,000

8. What are your living arrangements?

Own Home	Rent	Other
1	2	3

SECTION D (Cont'd)

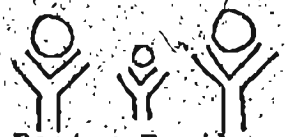
9. How long have you been living in this area? (city, town or village)

less than 1 year	1 - 5 years	over 5 years	lifetime
1	2	3	4

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE--MOTHER FORM

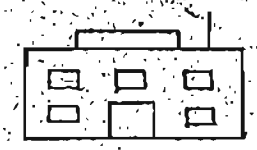
A STUDY OF FOSTER FAMILIES IN ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND



Foster Family

Foster Child

Natural Parents



The Agency

Interview Schedules

for

Foster Mothers

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

St. John's, Newfoundland

1978

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INTERVIEWER

There are two interview schedules, each containing four sections A-D. One schedule labelled M is for use with foster mothers, while schedule F is for use with foster fathers. As the questions vary, please ensure that the correct schedule is used for each interview. Interviews are to be carried out separately and answer sheets are labelled - Foster Mother ♂ Interview Schedule and Foster Father ♂ Interview Schedule. Please ensure the correct answer sheet is utilized and that answers are clearly coded.

Please do not prompt answering, give subjective reactions or attempt any input with regard to the statements or questions. Before each section of the interview schedule begins, please read the written explanations given. The given interview format should be adhered to beginning with reading the following paragraph:

INTRODUCTION FOR RESPONDENT

This survey is part of a research project on family life being completed by graduate students at the School of Social Work, Memorial University of Newfoundland. Opinions are used for research purposes only and will be strictly confidential. This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers.

CHILD REARING PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE SECTION B

"The questions in this section of the questionnaire seek to find out something of how you raise children. You are being asked to answer the questions along with a number of other foster parents. Your answers are confidential. The questionnaire basically wants to find out about the rules and regulations you use in raising children. Different parents raise children differently and there are no right or wrong answers to the questions."

1. First of all, do you have different rules in your home generally for boys than for the girls?

   1 _____ Yes 2 _____ No

2. In a sentence or two, give examples of rules you have that are different for the boys than for the girls.

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. In your experience with children have you had more or fewer rules for girls than for boys?

   more rules _____ 1 less rules _____ 2 same for both _____ 3

4. Who usually makes most of the rules in your house for the children?

   mother _____ 1 father _____ 2 together _____ 3

5. Who usually enforces the rules in your house for the children?

   mother _____ 1 father _____ 2 together _____ 3

6. If you and your husband disagree about how a child must be treated, who usually wins out in deciding the child's treatment?

   mother _____ 1 father _____ 2 varies _____ 3

SECTION B (Cont'd)

Please respond to the following statements by giving one answer from these six possible choices; always, often, usually, sometimes, seldom, never.

	Always 6	Often 5	Usually 4	Sometimes 3	Seldom 2	Never 1
7. I tell my children I feel affection for them.						
8. Rules in our house are made by talking with the children.						
9. I praise my children for doing things I approve of.						
10. I make exceptions to rules for the children in our home.						
11. My children solve their problems without any help.						
12. The children listen when I reason with them.						
13. I am available to my children to discuss anything.						
14. I spank my children for misbehaviour.						
15. I say nice things to my children, and call them affectionate names.						
16. I reward children when they obey by giving them material items. (e.g., money, ice-cream, etc.)						
17. I sit down and play with the children.						
18. If a child disobeys a rule, I will try to see why and perhaps change the rule.						

SECTION B (Cont'd)

	Always	Often	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. I teach my children tasks around the home.						
20. I give explanations to children as to why I have rules for them.						
21. If my child gets into trouble at school or play, I will talk with him about the problem.						
22. If a child is late coming home, I will remove his privileges to stay out.						
23. If I tell my child to do something (take out the garbage, wash dishes) I will leave him to finish the task alone.						
24. I have sent children to their rooms for misbehaviour.						
25. I listen to my children's ideas.						
26. If children disobey, I threaten them with physical punishment.						
27. When my children are afraid, I comfort them and talk to them.						
28. I try to get children to listen to me before using other discipline forms.						
29. I would trust my children over three years of age to play outside alone.						
30. If a child misbehaves I threaten the loss of privileges.						

SECTION B (Cont'd)

31. As a foster parent do you find that it is necessary to have different rules for your children than foster children?

Different Rules _____ Same Rules _____
1 2

32. If you have different rules for your foster children, could you give examples.

_____

_____

_____

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE — SECTION D

Demographic Questions

1. What religion do you follow now?

R.C.	Ang.	U.C.	S.A.	Pent.	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. What is your occupation? (write response on answer sheet)

3. What is the last grade you completed at school?

1. 8th grade or less.
2. 9th thru 12th grade, didn't graduate.
3. High school graduation.
4. Some college, no degree.
5. Special or technical training, but not high school.
6. Special or technical training, with some high school or graduation.
7. University graduation, specify.

4. What is your age?

20-24	25-29	30-40	40-49	50-60	Over 60
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. How many brothers and sisters were there in your family?

1 - 2	3 - 5	6 - 7	8 or more
1	2	3	4

6. What was the approximate population of the city, town or village in which you were raised?

1. Less than 1000
2. 1,000 - 2,499
3. 2,500 - 4,999
4. 5,000 - 9,999
5. 10,000 - 29,999
6. 30,000 - 99,999
7. Over 100,000

7. How long have you lived in this area? (city, town or village)

less than 1 year	1 - 5 years	over 5 years	lifetime
1	2	3	4

8. How long have you been married?

1 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	11 - 15 years	16 or more years
1	2	3	4

9. How many natural children have you had?

None	1 - 2	3 - 5	6 or more
1	2	3	4

SECTION D (Cont'd)

10. How many foster children have you had since becoming a foster mother?

None	1 - 3	4 - 7	8 or more
1	2	3	4

11. How many children of your own do you still have living with you?

None	1 - 2	3 - 5	6 or more
1	2	3	4

12. List children, if any, by sex and age; e.g., M - 11 years; F - 3 years, etc.

N.B. This includes all children in the home now. (Adopted children are considered natural children). Please write in FC after Foster Child, NC after Natural Child.

APPENDIX E

LETTER TO FOSTER PARENTS

GOVERNMENT OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES

ST. JOHN'S

1978 05 29

Dear Foster Parents:

Sometime in the near future you will probably receive a telephone call from a Social Work Student at Memorial University. Three of the Social Work students are interested in obtaining more information about fostering as part of their work in graduate studies.

Foster home care for children has been in existence in Newfoundland for over twenty-five years, and is considered to be quite successful. The Social Work students are interested in learning about foster home care. In order to do so, they would like your opinion on a number of questions, requiring approximately 45 minutes of your time.

Your co-operation in helping these students will be greatly appreciated.

Yours truly,

S. Callahan

S. Callahan (Mrs.)
Social Worker Supervisor

SC/pd

APPENDIX F

RESPONSE SHEET FOR FATHERS

Code: _____

♂

FOSTER FATHER
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Answer Sheet

SECTION A
SATISFACTIONS

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

SECTION B
BEHAVIOURS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____

SECTION C
ATTITUDES

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
25. _____
26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____
31. _____
32. _____
33. _____
34. _____
35. _____
36. _____
37. _____
38

APPENDIX G

RESPONSE SHEET FOR MOTHERS

CODE: _____

135

FOSTER MOTHER

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Answer Sheet

SECTION A

SATISFACTIONS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____

SECTION B

BEHAVIOURS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____
31. _____
32. _____

SECTION C

ATTITUDES

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____

[redacted]

SECTION D

SATISFACTIONS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____

BEHAVIOURS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____
31. _____
32. _____

ATTITUDES

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____

SECTION D

DEMOGRAPHIC

[redacted]

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. F _____ yrs. M _____ yrs.
F _____ yrs. M _____ yrs.
F _____ yrs. M _____ yrs.
F _____ yrs. M _____ yrs.

POOR P