FAMILIES IN POVERTY: EXPLORING PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTING STYLES AND COMMUNICATION

by

Tonya Stephens-Price

August, 2016

Director of Thesis: Bernice Dodor, PhD

Co-Director of Thesis: Sharon Ballard, PhD

Major Department: Human Development and Family Science

The present study evaluated parent-child communication and parenting styles of families in poverty. Participants were 62 parents of children from organizations who currently treat and supervise children in poverty. Data were collected using paper surveys and Qualtrics, an online survey program. A self-developed survey was distributed to the participants to complete in person via paper or online via ECU Qualtrics. Results suggest that parents in poverty displayed uninvolved parenting styles (low care and low control).

Keywords: parent-child communication, parenting styles, poverty, family stress theory, parental bonding

FAMILIES IN POVERTY: EXPLORING PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTING STYLES AND COMMUNICATION

A Thesis

Presented To the Faculty of the Department of Human Development and Family Science

East Carolina University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

Child Development and Family Relations

By

Tonya Stephens-Price

August 2016

FAMILIES IN POVERTY: EXPLORING PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTING STYLES AND COMMUNICATION

by

Tonya Stephens-Price

APPROVED BY:

DIRECTOR OF THESIS: _____
Bernice Dodor, PhD

CO-DIRECTOR OF THESIS: _____
Sharon Ballard, PhD

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
Chia Jung Yeh, PhD

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
Sheresa Blanchard, PhD

CHAIR OF THE DEPARTMENT
OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
AND FAMILY SCIENCE:_____
Sharon Ballard, PhD

DEAN OF THE
GRADUATE SCHOOL: _____
Paul J. Gemperline, PhD

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Maurice Jordan from East Carolina University Lucille W. Gorham Intergenerational Community Center and Gary Bass from Pride In NC, Inc. for their assistance in contacting the participants for the current study.

I would also like to thank Dr. Bernice Dodor, Dr. Sharon Ballard, Dr. Sheresa Blanchard, and Dr. Chia Jung Yeh for their guidance and support through this process. You have been wonderful role models and continue to inspire me to do well.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents for instilling a work ethic to never give up and to constantly push myself to excel. I would like to thank my husband for his constant support to continue my education and encouraging me to push forward through all obstacles that I have faced during this journey. Last, I want to dedicate this to my daughter Emma. You have been such an inspiration to me and remind me daily never give up and always reach for my dreams.

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Poverty is a growing and continuous concern around the world. According to The World Bank (2014), in 1989, there were nearly 2.9 billion individuals around the globe living in extreme poverty. In 2011, 2.2 billion individuals living in extreme poverty were barely surviving on less than $2 each day. The amount of pay 1.7 billion of those living in extreme poverty decreased to less than $1.75 each day. Even though the poverty rate around the world is decreasing each year, the poverty rate in the United States has increased from 12.5 % of total population in 2007 to 15.0% (46.2 million Americans) in 2012 (Stanford Center on Poverty and Inequality, 2014). The child poverty rate has increased from 18.0 % in 2007 to 21.8 % in 2012. The current poverty rates for Americans, both adults and children rank among the very worst over 13 years since 2000.

The increased rate of poverty can be attributed to several factors. The number of Americans working full-time, full-year fell by 4.6 million—a loss heavily concentrated among male workers but which has noteworthy ramifications for women and children who depend on these men's contributions (Stanford Center on Poverty & Inequality, 2014). Sawhill (2006) showed that the 5% increase in child poverty from 1970 to 1996 could nearly all be attributed to the rise in single-parent families, especially never married mothers, and a shift over time in the composition of the pool of single mothers from divorced to never married exacerbated child poverty during this period.

Many families living in poverty are susceptible to losing the capability to pursue self-interest, qualities that are critical for ideal functioning (Okech, Howard, & Kim, 2013). Recent studies using the family stress model, show that the effects of economic hardship on children are interceded by factors such as economic stress, parental emotional states, marital relationship, and parenting (Conger & Elder, 1994; Conger, Rueter & Conger, 2000). A connection has been

confirmed between parent–child relationship quality and psychological symptoms (Brumariu & Kerns 2010; Fowler et al. 2009). Some areas within the family that may be effected by poverty are emotional development support, and sense of security. The experience of economic pressure, of not being able to afford basic necessities like housing, food, clothing, health care, or household goods, has adverse effects on individuals and families (Conger, Rueter, & Conger, 2000; Duncan, Yeung, Brooks-Gunn, & Smith, 1998).

Importance of Study

Gap in Literature.

More research is needed to explore the contributing factors to parent-child relationships when the family lives in poverty; as there is a paucity of research on lack of health and basic needs pertaining to parent and child interaction (Bouverne-De Bie, Roets, & Roose, 2013; Dallago, Currie & Levin, 2012). Although many studies have focused on poverty and its effect on physical and emotional health in parents and children separately, few have looked at the relationships between parents and their children living in poverty. The research that is available ranges from 10 to 20 years old where a multitude of research provides evidence that parents in poverty are more likely to abuse their children (Brown, Cohen, Johnson, & Salzinger, 1998; Kotch et al., (1995); Paat, 2011; Patterson, 1982). However, more recent literature suggests that families in poverty are able to adapt and have healthy relationships (Brown, & Lynn, 2010). With inconsistent findings, more research needs to be conducted to understand how poverty effects parent-child relationships. Additionally, there is a lack of research that compares parent-child relationships with one-parent families and two-parent families. There are a few studies that look at the absence of a father in low income homes and how that affects their children's behavior problems (Choi & Jackson 2011; Jackson & Scheines 2005; Jackson, Choi, & Franke,

2009b; King & Sobolewski 2006). These studies found that single families with high economic disadvantages were indirectly linked with more child behavior problems transmitted through more maternal depressive indicators. Most research is based on parents who are experiencing depression and their likelihood to harshly punish their children (Brown & Lynn, 2010; Browne, Dufort, Holt, Jung, Kotch, Ringwalt, Ruina, & Stewart, 1997; Weaver, Shaw, Crossan, Dishion, & Wilson, 2015).

Research Questions.

The purpose of the present study is to explore the perceptions of parenting styles and communication within families living in poverty. The following questions guided this study:

1. How do parents living in poverty communicate with their children?
2. Do parents living in poverty have an emotional connection with their children?
3. What type of parenting styles do parents have who are living in poverty?

Theoretical Foundation

Family Stress Model.

The family stress model illustrates how an event can cause stress or a crisis based on the resources available and the perception of the event (Hill, 1958). This model was chosen for this study to see if poverty plays any roles in how a family perceives and copes with the stress. Family functioning, parent-child relationships, and how the family perceives their condition depends on the resources provided to them. Moreover, this model proposes that financial stressors such as balancing family finances are linked to a child's development through the relationship with parent and parenting practices (Conger, Conger, Elder, & Lorenz, 1992; McLoyd, 1990, 1998). The state of poverty creates a magnitude of distressing situations that contribute to mental health problems for children and adults. Examples of these poverty-related

stressors include economic strain, family conflict, exposure to violence, and frequent moves or transitions (Wadsworth & Berger, 2006).

Classical authors offer that having parental social support is important for children's development (Conger, et al., 1992; Conger, Rueter, & Conger, 2000; McLoyd, 1990, 1998). Additionally, the family stress model shows that financial stress effects a child's mood through the toll on the parental emotions (Brown & Lynn, 2010). Family stress not only includes economic conditions, but also interrelated circumstantial factors within low-income environments (Brown & Lynn, 2010). Wadsworth and Berger (2006) built on McLoyd's (1990, 1998) "context of stress" model to shape poverty- related stress as other stressors that are generated, intensified, and sustained by poverty, including being exposed to violence in the home and community, family modification and changes, and family conflict. When communication exchanges between parents involve a high level of *hostility*, strain can affect the family process by creating conflict and tension between parents, which is then extended to the parent-child relationship (Almeida, Wethington, & Chandler,1999; Patterson, 1982).

Definition of Terms

Poverty.

Poverty has a multifaceted definition that describes a variety of meanings. Individuals commonly perceive someone living in poverty when that person or family is unable to pay for basic needs such as food, rent, household bills, and clothing. An individual or family that experiences poverty lacks the essential resources for functioning. Recent studies define poverty more elaborately as a family or individual that is deprived of not only material assets and basic health but also social, emotional, biological, and intellectual growth (Engle & Black, 2008; Mistry & Lowe, 2006).

2015 POVERTY GUIDELINES FOR THE 48 CONTIGUOUS STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Persons in family/household	Poverty guideline
1	$11,770
2	15,930
3	20,090
4	24,250
5	28,410
6	32,570
7	36,730
8	40,890
For families/households with more than 8 persons, add $4,160 for each additional person.	

Figure 1. 2015 Poverty Guidelines for the 48 Contiguous States and The District Of Columbia. This figure illustrates how a family is determined to be living in poverty by comparing the individuals living in the home to the annual income for that household.

For the purpose of this study, a family living in poverty will be defined as a family meeting the requirements listed in figure 1. A caregiver income can be measured to determine if he or she falls under the poverty line by using the following 2015 Department of Health and Human Services federal poverty level (FPL) scale which was published in the Federal Register on January 22, 2015.

These guidelines are used to for administrative purposes to determine if a family or individual is eligible for a service or program. For example, a family of 4 earning less than $24,250 a year would be eligible for programs designated for those who meet the regulation (Federal Register, 2015).

Emotional Connection.

Bowlby (1969) posited that, due to the dependence of an infant on his or her caregiver for survival, behavioral processes such as the infant's signs of fear are observed by the caregiver, who then provides comfort and protection. The caregiver will also provide a secure base from which the infant can explore his or her environment. As their relationship develops, an attachment bond is established (Bowlby, 1969). For example, parents who often reject their child or do not respond to them in a caring or concerned manner, may have a child that becomes self-reliant and refrains from being vulnerable with their parents. These children are typically viewed as avoidant and find it difficult to trust their caregiver (Faber & Wittenborn, 2010).

Caregiver.

According to the American Psychological Association (n.d.), parents and caregivers are the individuals who assure that their children are healthy and safe, as well as teach them important values that will serve them well as an adult. In this study, the "parent" in Parent-Child relationship is used encompassing parents, grandparents, and other caregivers. This could be the biological parent, grandparent, or adoptive parent. Typical parents and caregivers provide emotional support, love and acceptance. As a child develops their personality and identity, parents provide nurturing for their child to appropriately develop their cognitive, behavior, and emotional skills.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this review of literature, an overall perspective of poverty is explored. This is followed by the potential effects of poverty on needs, communication, parent-child emotional connection, and parenting.

Poverty

Income Poverty.

How an individual or family lives day to day can depend on their financial status (Jorgensen & Savla, 2010). A critical element of poverty is the lack of adequate income to support basic individual and family needs such as food, shelter, and health care. Family financial issues can come from insufficient financial awareness and is known to relate to the physical health of the individual and their family members (Norvilitis, Szablicki, & Wilson, 2003) as well as increased levels of parental conflict (Tse, 2007). Therefore, economic stress is an important issue in human relationships and within families (Raijas, 2011). Similarly, families that experience poverty are considerably susceptible to stress and inconsistencies in income can create momentous issues within the family as a whole (Rothwell & Han, 2010).

In an effort to make ends meet, economic stress also may be related to the stress that families experience in other areas of their lives. Interestingly, families who report being in steady debt were more likely to have children under the age of five, receive unemployment services, and live in government housing (Goode, 2010). Vulnerability is common for children that live within families encountering financial pressure (Kindle, 2010). Low parental involvement with the child has been linked to financial strain (Newman & Chen, 2007), as well as low quality parenting (Hilton & Desroches, 2000; Park, Turnbull, & Turnbull, 2002), and conflicting mental

health conditions among parents or the destructive influence of low-income neighborhoods (Newman & Chen, 2007).

Non-Income Poverty.

Individuals who experience poverty do not only lack monetary goods and resources, they lack other basic needs as well. These individuals have limited access to affordable social and physical services such as schooling, health care, medicines, safe water, good sanitation, and reliable transport. Children who live in poverty are more likely to have poor health and social development, which include high rates of sickness and chronic diseases; low school achievement; and an increased likelihood of emotional and behavior problems (Attree 2006; Moore, Redd, Burkhauser, Mbwana, & Collins, 2009). Research documents a variety of symptoms of low socio-economic status that are relevant for children's subsequent educational development including poor health, limited access to home environments with rich language and experiences, low birth weight, limited access to high-quality preschool opportunities, less participation in many activities in the summer and after school that middle-class families take for granted, and more movement in and out of schools because of the way the housing market operates for low-income families (Ladd, 2012).

According to the 2010 U.S. Census Bureau population reports, an individual's poverty status is associated with out-of-pocket health care expenditures. For example, the national poverty rate increases by 3.3 % points when family incomes are adjusted for out-of-pocket health care spending (Short, 2011). Banthin and Bernard (2006) found that individuals who are living below the federal poverty line were more likely to suffer from higher financial burden due to out-of-pocket health care costs compared to their high-income counterparts.

Family Communication

During high stress level/crisis events, parents can experience eminent parenting stress, and struggle to communicate, even if they have demonstrate positive communication skills during low stress events (Rodriguez, Nichols, Javdani, Emerson, & Donenberg, 2015). Poor or inconsistent communication and quality time within the family or among family members may lead to challenges due to lack of communication between parents and their children. Inconsistent parenting is likely to lead to less conformity to parental rules on the children's behalf. Children need consistent rules and that is unlikely when parents don't agree on ways to discipline and show love and warmth to their children (Moses-Passini, Pihet, & Favez, 2014).This can lead to children being confused about their parents' expectations. Furthermore, socioeconomic status was positively linked with demonstrated parent positive communication (Rodriguez et al., 2015).

Emotional Connection

Literature suggests that poverty is detrimental to parent-child relationships (Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz, & Simmons, 1994). Strong parent–child relationships are important for all families, particularly families that are poor as they face additional challenges and stressors (Leung & Shek, 2014). Research suggests that many of the effects of poverty on children are reinforced by the family's behavior (Engle & Black, 2008). Past research provided evidence that parents from higher SES backgrounds are more loving and affectionate towards their children than those from lower SES backgrounds (Maccoby, 1980). When a parent displays warm and loving characteristics, those actions foster the child's ability to be securely attached, in which those children are able to regulate their positive and negative emotions (Contreras & Kerns 2000). Parental warmth has been linked to selflessness and compassion in children (Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1994; Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 2000).

Family socioeconomic status is interrelated to parent child relationships. The well-being of parents and children depends on the quality of the relationship they share. Poor families who demonstrate positive parenting qualities tend to participate more in family-related research than those with poorer parenting qualities (Hoff, Laursen, & Tardif, 2002). Parents who are poor share common traits such as being more likely to have more health issues, both emotionally and physically, than those who are not low income (Adler, Boyce, Chesney, Folkman, & Syme, 1993). Parent moodiness and depressive symptoms are linked with more hostile parent interactions with their children, leading to low levels of satisfaction in emotional, social, and cognitive development. Children from low-income families, in particular, have a higher risk of encountering inter-parental conflict and multiple family disturbances (Kwon, Rueter, Lee, Koh, & Ok, 2003; Liker & Elder, 1983). Most research is based on how children behaviors are related to one parent homes that are subjected to poverty (Choi, Palmer, & Pyun, 2014). Select family theorists offer that parent–child discrepancy are the direct results of conflict between parents and their children. Stresses within the family result in different views of family processes among family members (Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1983). Minuchin (1985) also suggested that parent– child discrepancies reflect family disorganization, mal- adaptive family interaction patterns, and a lack of cohesion. Different perceptions of family processes are associated with maladjustment of families, which in turn results in poor adjustment in adolescents (Guion, Mrug, & Windle, 2009; Welsh, Galliher, & Powers, 1998).

Parenting Styles

In the eyes of children in poverty, an attachment figure refers to a parent or caregiver who he or she has perceived as someone that is open to communication, physically accessible, and receptive if called on for support (Bowlby, 1989). Low stress environments with sensitive

and supporting parenting lead to interactions characterized by high levels of confidence and mutuality. In contrast, a stressful environment with a rejecting and harsh parenting style lead to distrust of others and an opportunistic interpersonal style (Abell, Lyons, & Brewer, 2014). Kaiser and Delaney (1996) have looked at how parenting is affected by poverty. They found that parenting capability is debilitated by living in conditions of poverty and by the effects of the stressors associated with poverty on mental health.

Parenting style is defined as the attitudes and behaviors parents employ in interactions with their children that influence the socialization process (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). There are different parenting styles to describe parents. Authoritative parenting can be defined as high control and high responsiveness. Dissimilarity, authoritarian parenting is defined as high control with lower levels of warmth (Baumrind, 1973). Parents who are described as authoritarian are demanding and insensitive to the emotional needs of child. Permissive parents display high levels of warmth and low levels of control. Adolescents of permissive parents tend to lack verbal and behavioral control. Uninvolved parents display low care and low control and are not engaged (Baumrind, 1973). Poverty contributes to parental stress, which can have an effect on the amount of stimulation within the home, resulting in a diminished number of positive interactions between a parent and their child (Park, Turnbull, & Turnbull, 2002; Unger, Jones, & Park, 2001).

Focusing on the dimensions of parenting, a child's development was almost always linked to parents' supply of nurture (i.e., warmth, responsiveness), encouragement of independence (i.e., democratic, autonomy), and proper control (e.g., Baldwin, 1948; Sears, Macoby, & Levin, 1957). Securely attached children can expect their parents to provide assurance that his or her sharing/expressing of both positive and negative emotions is appropriate within balance (Guttmann- Steinmetz & Crowell 2006). Children who are victims of sexual abuse have often

described their relationships with their parents as poor as well as their family as a whole (Fergusson, Linskey, & Horwood, 1996; Finkelhor, Hoteling, Lewis, & Smith, 1990). Moreover, current research finds that low parental involvement and low parental warmth from poor parent-child relationships were associated with risk for child maltreatment (Brown, Cohen, Johnson, & Salzinger, 1998).

The minor effects associated with stressful events that accompany economic hardship on child social maladjustment are assumed to be facilitated through parenting concordance and inter-parental assurance. That is, children from families suffering from financial hardship are at an elevated risk of developing more behavioral problems, in part because the induced stress on household financial circumstances can interfere with the dyadic relationships among the parents and between parents and their children (Paat, 2011).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology used to collect and analyze data including research design, population, sample selection, survey instrument, data collection procedures, and data analysis. The purpose of the present study is to explore the perceptions of parenting styles and communication within families living in poverty. The following questions guided this study:

1. How do parents living in poverty line communicate with their children?
2. Do parents living in poverty have an emotional connection with their children?
3. What type of parenting styles do parents have who are living in poverty?

This study employed a survey design (quantitative description of opinions, trends, and attitudes) to study a sample of a population (Creswell, 2014). There are several advantages of using surveys in quantitative studies. Administering surveys allows researchers to gather large amounts of data to generalize their results to a population (Fowler, 2009). Surveys can be cost effective, particularly when the surveys are online. Online systems save money and time as most systems will arrange results and data. Furthermore, internal validity and consistency is among the strengths and advantages of a survey design (Creswell, 2014). Internal validity is important to a study as it increases the likelihood that variables are linked. The reasons listed above is why a survey design was chosen for this study.

Population and Sample

The data for the present study were collected from families in Eastern North Carolina who are living in poverty. A convenience sample of families that visit the East Carolina University (ECU) Intergenerational Community Center (IGCC) and Pride In NC, Inc. participated in the study. ECU's IGGC is an afterschool organization where school-aged students who are low income can go to receive help with homework and care while their parents work.

Pride In NC, Inc. is a mental health agency that assists individuals with medication management as well as enhanced services to assist school aged children with coping skills, anger management, and other skills that pertain to their mental health diagnosis. A total of 85 individuals who were available on the day the survey participated in the study; however, only 62 individuals met the poverty guideline requirements and were used in this study. These participants consisted of 35 parents of school-aged children at ECU's Intergenerational Community Center and 27 parents of children served from Pride In NC, Inc.

Data Collection

In this study, not all participants were biological parents of the target child; however, we use the term "parent" with the understanding that it encompasses biological parents, grandparents, and other caregivers such as a foster parent. Parents were given the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) that measured their personal parenting styles. Parents were also given the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire-Short Version (PSDQ-Short) to measure how they communicate with their children and the emotional connection they share with their children. Participants at ECU's IGGC were given a paper version of the survey. The researcher met with the participants one day to collect data after the organizations monthly parent meeting. Their responses were later entered into ECU Qualtrics survey system. While present during the survey, participants were informed that if they had any questions, they could ask the administrator.

Participants at Pride In NC, Inc. completed the survey on the researcher's iPad using ECU Qualtrics survey system in the lobby as they waited for their child to be seen by the nurse practitioner. The Nurse Practitioner sees patients on Mondays, so the researcher met on two

different Monday's to gather data. The researcher was present to answer any questions the participant may have had while completing the survey.

The first page of the survey was a consent form. If the individual was willing to participate, they moved to the next page and began the survey. If the individual wanted to participate in the drawing to win a $10 gift certificate, they clicked on a participation link at the end of the survey that took them to a new page not connected to their survey.

Measures

Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI).

Parenting styles were assessed with the PBI (Parker, Tupling, & Brown,1979) using a 4-point scale ("Very like", "Moderately like", "Moderately unlike", or "Very unlike"). Caring and protection are the two quadrants for this scale. The combination of these make four quadrants (high care and high protection, low care and high protection, high care and low protection, low care and low protection). These quadrants correspond with Diana Baumrind's four patterns of parenting styles or behaviors: authoritative (high care and high protection), authoritarian (low care and high protection), permissive (high care and low protection), and uninvolved (low care and low protection) (Baumrind, 1973). The 25 item questionnaire asks participants to score based on their experiences as a child with their own parents. For the purpose of this study, the items were modified so that the participants were able to respond based on how they parent their child. For example, "Spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice" was modified to "speak in a warm and friendly voice." Total PBI scores range from 0 to 75, with higher scores indicating high care and high protection making up the two quadrants. The average scores for this instrument are as follows: Quadrant one (care), the average score of a mother was 27.0 and for a

father was 24.0. For quadrant two (protection), the average score for a mother was 13.5 and for a father was 12.5.

Federal Poverty Measure.

Poverty was measured using the Department of Health and Human Services Federal Poverty Measure. This scale measures the income level based on how many members are in a family. For example, if a family of four has an annual income of $23,850 or below in one of the contiguous states (e.g., Alabama, North Carolina), the family would be considered living in poverty. On the survey, participants were asked "What is your annual household income?" and were given a range to choose from such as "$1-11,770" and "$11,771-15,930". Participants were also asked "How many individuals live in your home" and were given the options such as "2", "3", or "4". The answer combination to these two questions determined the participant's poverty status.

Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire-Short Version

Communication and emotional connection were assessed using the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire-Short Version (PSDQ-Short Version; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001). The PSDQ-Short Version is a modification of the original 62-item PSDQ, which has demonstrated strong psychometric qualities (Robinson, et al., 2001). The PSDQ-Short Version was created to measure parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting style). It contains 32 items with each item being answered on a 5-point Likert scale with response options ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). For the purpose of this study, only 9 items that measured communication and emotional connection were selected for use (See Appendix C). The items selected were determined by the scoring guide provided for each item. Items 3, 6,

7, 8, and 9 were listed as communication items. Items 1, 2, 4, and 5 were listed as connection items.

Data Analysis

The proposed study explored the perceptions of parenting styles and communication in families who live in poverty. Descriptive statistics were computed with SPSS-PASW 23.

Table1

Summary of Research Analysis

Variable Name	Research Question	Item on Survey	Statistical Test Used
IV: Parents living in poverty. DV: How parents speak to their child(ren).	How do parents living in poverty line communicate with their children?	PSDQ-Short items 3, 6, 7, 8, and 9 on Survey (Appendix C).	Descriptive Analysis of the mean scores of survey items selected.
IV: Parents living in poverty. DV: Emotional Relationship with child(ren).	Do parents living in poverty have an emotional connection with their children?	PSDQ-Short items 1, 2, 4 and 5 on Survey (See Appendix C).	Descriptive Analysis of the mean scores of survey items selected.
IV: Parents living in poverty. DV: Parenting style.	What type of parenting styles do parents have who are living in poverty?	All questions "Parental Bonding Instrument" measure parenting styles.	Descriptive Analysis of the percent of each parenting style present in study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to explore the perceptions of parenting styles and communication within families living in poverty. The following research questions guided the study and would be used to organize the findings

1. How do parents living in poverty communicate with their children?
2. Do parents living in poverty have an emotional connection with their children?
3. What type of parenting styles do parents have who are living poverty?

Demographic Information of Participants

A total of 85 families completed the survey; however, only 62 met federal poverty guidelines used for this study, resulting in a final sample size of 62. Results in Table 2 show the demographic characteristics of the participants. A majority of the participants in this study were female (77.4%). The most common ages ranged between 37-42 and 43-48 (25.8% each). A majority of the participants were Black/African American (58%) and 22% were White. Forty-three percent of the participants were married (43.5%) and 41.9% were single. Most participant's education level was a High-School Diploma (48.4%). The employment status for most participants was full time (48.4%). The income level of participants range between $20,091-24,250 (22.6 %).

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Characteristic		*n*	*%*
Gender			
	Male	14	22.6
	Female	48	77.4
Age			
	18-24	3	4.8
	25-30	6	9.7
	31-36	14	22.6

37-42	16	25.8
43-48	16	25.8
49-54	4	6.5
55-60	1	1.6
61-66	1	1.6
67-74	1	1.6
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian, Pacific Islander	4	6.5
Bi-racial	3	4.8
Black, African American	36	58.1
Hispanic or Latino	5	8.1
White	14	22.6
Marital Status		
Single	29	46.7
Married	33	53.3
Education Level		
Some high school with no diploma	1	1.6
High School Diploma or GED	30	48.4
College credit	31	50.0
Employment Status		
Employed Part Time	21	33.9
Employed Full Time	30	48.4
Not Employed	11	17.7
Household Income		
$1-11,770	7	11.3
$ 11,771-15,930	6	9.7
$15,931-20,090	11	17.7
$20,091-24,250	14	22.6
$24,251-28,410	9	14.5
$28,411-32,570	4	6.5
$32,571-36,730	7	11.3
$36,731-40,890	3	4.8
$40,891-45,050	1	1.6

N=62

Parent-Child Communication

The following research question was used to assess the parent-child communication pattern: How do parents living in poverty communicate with their children? The survey items

listed in Table 3 are a subscale from the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) that specifically look at communication between a parent and their child. Scores range from 1(never) to 5 (always), with high score indicating good communication skills. The mean score for parents explaining consequences of behavior to their child was 4.47 (standard deviation [SD] = 1.05) and the average score of (parents) encouraging children to talk about consequences was 4.42 (SD = 1.00). The mean for parents allowing their child to give input was 3.68 (SD = 1.37). Results shown below depict parent-child communication pattern across all parenting styles (See Table 3).

Table 3

Parent-Child Communication Frequencies

Communication Survey Item	Mean	SD
Encourage To Freely Express Himself/Herself	4.24	1.019
Allow Child to Give Input	3.68	1.376
Gives Reasons Why Rules Should Be Obeyed	3.85	1.458
Encourage Child to Talk About Consequences	4.42	1.001
Explain Consequences	4.47	1.051

Note. Adapted from "Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire" by Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S. F., & Hart, C. H. (2001). The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ). In B. F. Perlmutter, J. Touliatos, & G. W. Holden (Eds.), Handbook of family measurement techniques: Vol. 3. Instruments & index (pp. 319 - 321). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Emotional Connection

The following research question was used to assess the parent-child emotional connection Do parents living in poverty have an emotional connection with their children? The following survey items are a subscale from the PSDQ that specifically look at the emotional connection between a parent and their child. The following items were used to measure emotional connection: "I am responsive to my child's feelings and needs", "I encourage my child to talk about his/her troubles", "I give comfort and understanding when my child is upset." and "I give

praise when my child is good." Mean scores were calculated to determine the most frequently reported answers to the selected items asked on the survey. Scores range from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with high mean scores indicating a positive emotional connection between a parent and their child. The mean value of parents' responsiveness to their child feelings was 4.60 (SD = 0.89) and the mean for giving comfort and understanding when child is upset was 4.48 (SD = 0.88) (See Table 4).

Table 4

Parent-Child Emotional Receptiveness Frequencies

Emotional Connection Items	Mean	SD
Responsive To Childs Feelings	4.60	0.89
Encourage to Talk About Troubles	4.52	0.93
Give Comfort and Understanding	4.48	0.88
Give Praise When Good	4.34	0.94

Note. Adapted from "Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire" by Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S. F., & Hart, C. H. (2001). The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ). In B. F. Perlmutter, J. Touliatos, & G. W. Holden (Eds.), Handbook of family measurement techniques: Vol. 3. Instruments & index (pp. 319 - 321). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Parenting Styles

The following research question was used to assess parenting styles: What type of parenting styles do parents have who are living in poverty? To determine parenting styles, the Parental Bonding Instrument [PBI] was used. Total Parental Bonding Instrument scores range from 0 to 75, with higher scores indicating high care and high protection (authoritative). The cutoff score for caring is 27.0 for a mother and 24.0 for a father. The cutoff score for protection 13.5 for a mother and 12.5 for a father. For breakdown of each parenting style/quadrant, see figure 2.

Authoritative high care and high protection	Authoritarian high protection and low care
Permissive high care and low protection	Uninvolved low care and low protection

Figure 2. Parental Bonding Instrument Parenting Styles/Quadrants

Data were analyzed based on gender and parenting style (score for caring and protection) of the participants. For mothers, 40% (19 out of 48) were uninvolved, 35% of mothers (17 out of 48) were authoritarian, 19% (9 out of 48) were permissive, and only 6% of mothers (3 out of 48) were authoritative. Regarding fathers, scores indicate that 50% of fathers (7 out of 14) were uninvolved, 36% (5 out of 14) were permissive, and 14% (2 out of 14) were authoritarian. No males (fathers) participating in the study were authoritative.

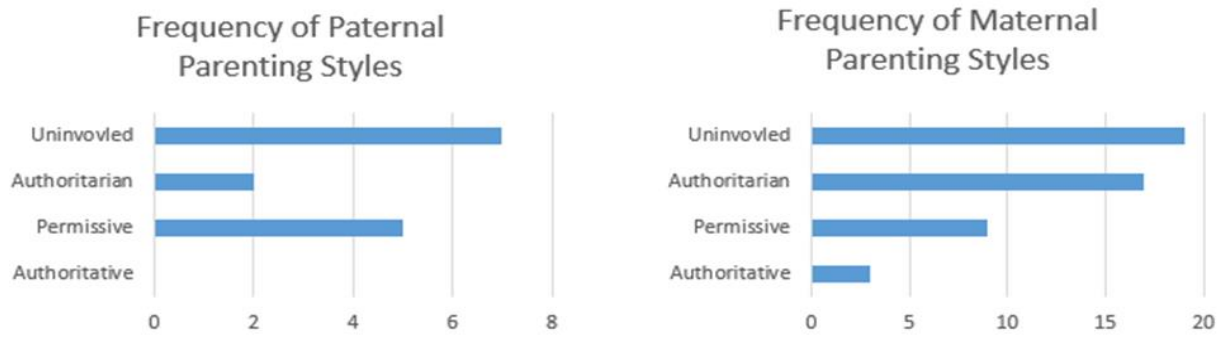


Figure 3. Frequency of Paternal and Maternal Parenting Styles.

A cross tabulation of educational status and parenting styles was conducted. Results show that one parent who did not receive a high school diploma was an authoritarian parent. Few parents with high school diploma were authoritative (4.6%), 36.7% were authoritarian, 23.3%

permissive, and 36.7% uninvolved. For parents with at least some college credit, 6.4% were authoritative, 22.6% authoritarian, 22.6% permissive, and 48.4% uninvolved. See figure 4 below.

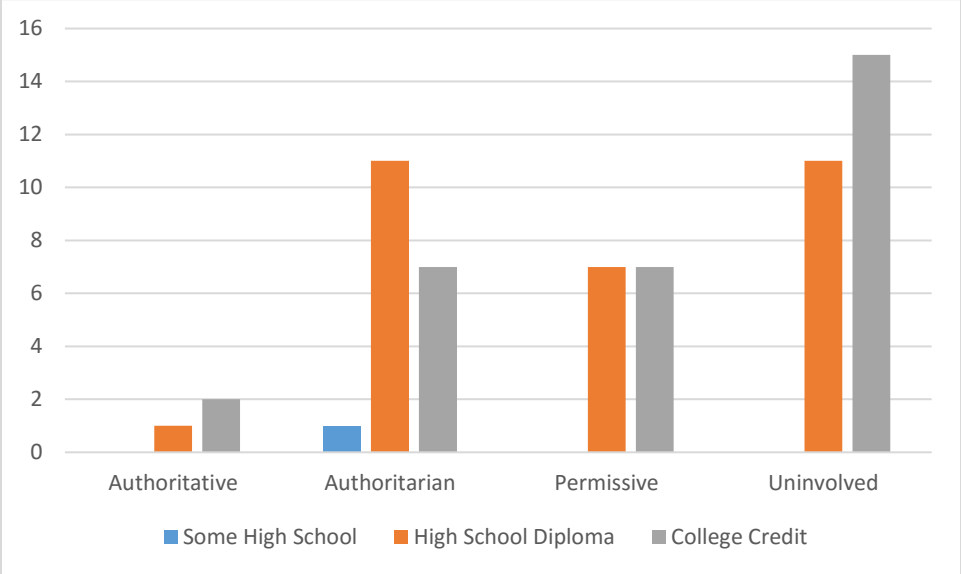


Figure 4. Parenting Styles and education status of participants.

A cross tabulation of marital status and parenting styles was conducted. Results indicate that among married parents in the study, 3% were authoritative, 36.3% authoritarian, 21.2% permissive, and 39.3% uninvolved. With parents who are not married, 6.8% were authoritative, 24.1% authoritarian, 24.1% permissive and 44.8% uninvolved. See figure 5 below.

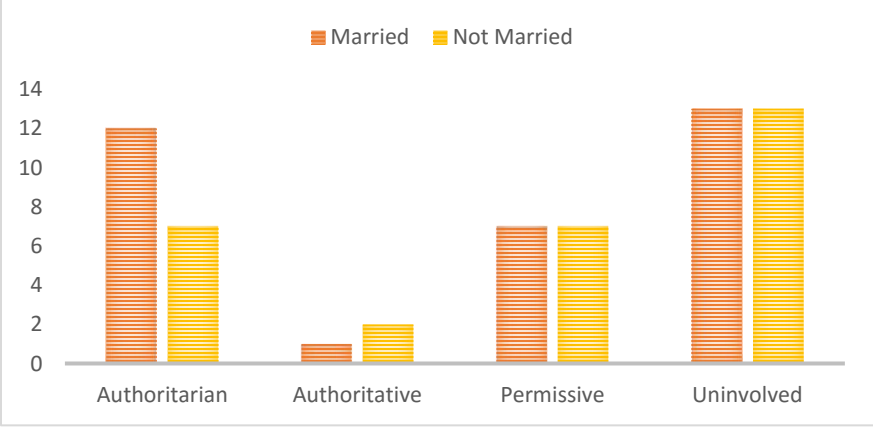


Figure 5. Parenting Styles and marital status of participants.

A cross tabulation of employment status and parenting styles was conducted. Results showed that only 4.7% of parents who are employed part time were authoritative, 33.3% of these parents were authoritarian, 19% permissive, and 42.8% uninvolved. On the other hand, 6.6% of parents working full time were authoritative, 20% authoritarian, 30% permissive, and 43.3% uninvolved. For parents who are unemployed, 54.5% were authoritarian, 9% permissive, and 36.4% uninvolved. See figure 6 below.

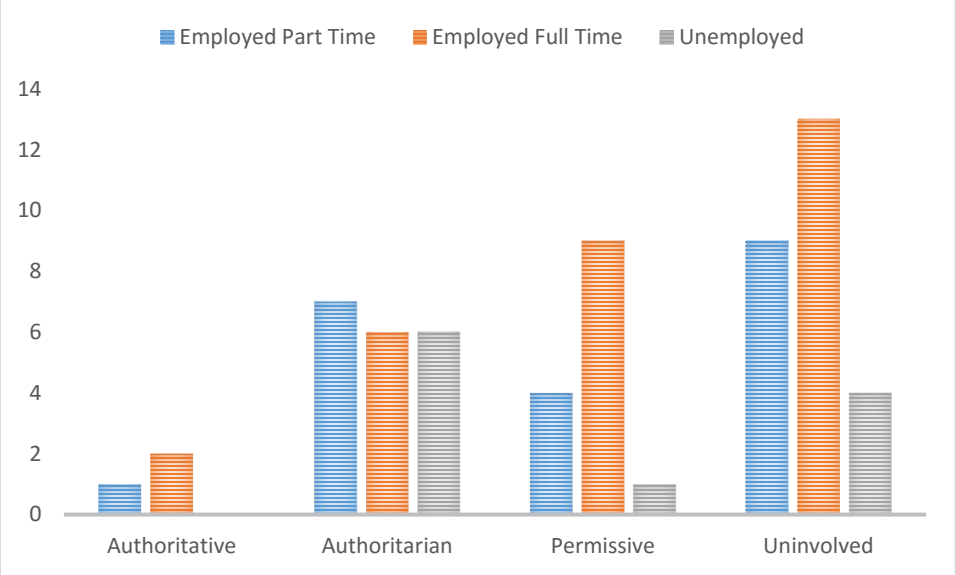


Figure 6. Parenting Style and participant employment status.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

A gap exists in the literature on parent-child emotional connection in families who live in poverty, which is of concern given the large and growing population of families living in poverty in the United States. Recent research on parenting styles has been focused on parenting stress and how it relates to parenting styles and parent-child relationships (Marton, Rogers, Theule, & Wiener, 2011). Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore the perceptions of parenting styles and communication of families living in poverty. This chapter discusses the findings of this study, implications, limitations, and future directions for research

Communication

Open and effective communication is important for both parents and their children. When this type of communication takes place in the home, relationships between parents and their children improve (Zolten & Long, 2006). The findings from this study indicate that parents living in poverty are attuned to their child's feelings and communicate well with them, by being responsive to their child's feelings, encouraging them to talk about their troubles, expressing themselves, and talking about consequences giving comfort and understanding, praising when they are good, and explaining consequences. This study's findings were consistent with literature regarding rules and obedience. In this study, families were less likely to communicate about why rules should be obeyed as well as children being given the opportunity to give input on the creation of those rules. It is common for parents to make decisions without their child's input as well as not explain why rules should be obeyed (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart,1995). The results also indicate that parents (both father and mother) are not likely to include their children in making rules or explain why those rules should be obeyed.

Results suggest that there is no link between family income and lack of parent-child communication. A large percentage of participants in this study reported as always communicating with their children regarding their feelings, rules and consequences, praising their children when they have done something well or acted appropriately, and giving comfort when their child was upset or sad. This finding is inconsistent with current research that low-income families have been linked to poor communication between parents and their children (Rodriguez, Nichols, Javdani, Emerson, & Donenberg, 2015). It also contradicts literature that identified SES as having a negative influence on parents encouraging their children to communicate about their feelings (Lunkenheimer, Shields, & Cortina, 2007). Other literature identified that parents and children had positive relationships when there was consistent discipline and the explanation of rules/regulation (Barkley & Mash, 2006).

Family stress theory adapted by McCubbin and Patterson (1982) determined that families adapt to their situations. Although literature trends report that families in poverty have poor family interactions, it is possible that families can adapt to living in poverty with community resources and can have positive interactions within the family. Families at East Carolina University (ECU) Intergenerational Community Center (IGCC) are encouraged to spend time with one another and communicate how they feel about their life experiences. ECU IGCC hosts events for parents and their children to spend time with one another in positive settings and are able to have positive interactions with one another. ECU Intergenerational Community Center requires parents to volunteer at the agency at least once per week to spend time with their children and sign up to cook dinner for an event or to help clean. The children are encouraged to participate with their parents to provide opportunities for one on one communication in a structured environment that can help mediate any disagreements or miscommunications. It may

be that these structured parent-child activities at the ECU IGCC provide an important resource to families have positively influenced parent-child communication.

Emotional Connection

When families experience stress, the emotional relationship between a parent and their child can suffer. Stressors can have a detrimental effect on how the child feels towards their parent and how often they are willing to open up to their parent (Harrison, Albanese, & Berman, 2014). A family's interpretation of a crisis or situation can determine how the family interacts with each other. Such interaction could be how they share time with one another and talk about their experiences (Patterson, 2002). Families try to achieve balance by engaging in their daily activities while they face challenges and demands that could potentially exceed their capabilities. A family's perception of the stress could lead to two outcomes, bonadaptation or vulnerability (McCubbin & Patterson, 1982). Results from this study seem to show that families experience bonadaptation when faced with poverty living situations.

In this study, parents scored over 4.0, which indicates that they are overall responsive to their children's needs and feelings. At the agencies participants were recruited from, parents and children are given tools to use to strengthen their relationships with one another. For example, children at Pride In NC, Inc. are given suggestions on how to cope with situations that upset them such as learning to walk away when angry, counting to 10 before saying something hurtful, and deep breathing to calm their nerves before saying something that will make them vulnerable to who they are talking to. Parents are given tools to learn how to actively listen to their child and appear more approachable to their children so they want to explain how they feel and not worry that their parent will not understand. The coping skills learned and other aspects of the services

received may explain the high emotional connection between parents and their children in this study.

Parenting Styles

Parents were placed into 1 of 4 parenting styles (authoritative, permissive, authoritarian, and uninvolved) depending on how they answered the questions on the Parental Bonding Instrument (breakdown listed above). Results from this study suggest that 40% of mothers and 50% of fathers in poverty are more likely to demonstrate an uninvolved parenting style with their children. Uninvolved parents are non-demanding and non-controlling. These parents are loving as well as concerned about their children's well-being, however, place few to no rules or boundaries on them. According to Torres, Martín, Gómez-Fraguela, and Triñanes (2003) children who have parents with uninvolved and permissive parenting styles are likely to have behavior problems and lack communication skills. In this study, 35% of mothers demonstrated an authoritarian parenting style. More current research suggests that mothers who lack a secure attachment with the child is likely to have a strict and disapproving parenting style such as authoritarian (Mano & Uno, 2007).

Park, et al. (2002) theorized that poverty restricts a parents' capacity for positive interaction and found that parents in poverty showed limited positive behavior such as hugs, praise, or positive affirmations toward their children. Results from this study suggested that nearly 73% of parents were categorized as uninvolved and authoritarian, who are less likely to express love, support, or praise to their children. According to the literature on typical parents that are uninvolved or authoritarian, parents in this study with those parenting styles would be expected to show less compassion and fulfilment with parenting and more frequent use of intimidating discipline methods.

Many researchers have tried to gain a better perspective on how parenting styles reflect their financial situation (Bluestone & TamisLeMonda, 1999; Conger et al., 1994; Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994; McLoyd, 1990; Posner, Shumow, & Vandell, 1998). Each study has linked poverty to authoritarian parenting styles in both the mothers and the fathers. Thirty-five percent of mothers and 14% of fathers who participated in this study were categorized as having authoritarian parenting styles. Authoritarian parenting has been found to be harmful in some cultures, helpful for other cultures, and in some instances it has been suggested that authoritarian parenting may be the product of stress or even low socioeconomic status (Lansford, Criss, Dodge, Shaw, Pettit, & Bates 2009; Querido, Warner, & Eyberg 2002). Parents with high levels of stress are more likely to engage in harsh discipline practices such as those found in authoritarian parenting (Lansford et al., 2009). Additionally, poor mothers have higher expectations, expect their child to be obedient, and are likely to use physical punishment as a discipline of choice. Responses from this study also indicate that parents give demands without explaining why and ordinarily do not gain their child's input on rules.

Results from this study suggest that parents who are employed part time and full time are more likely to demonstrate an uninvolved parenting style with their children with Part time (PT) parents scoring 42.8% and Full Time (FT) parents scoring 43.3%. A total of 36.4% of unemployed parents categorized as uninvolved. Although the percentage is somewhat lower than employed parents, overall these scores indicate that parenting styles do not differ by employment status. Permissive parenting styles were slightly lower for employed parents with part time parents at 19%, full time parents at 30%. Sigelman and Rider (2009) define permissive parents as demonstrating neglect towards their children as a result of being overwhelmed with life stressors. It might be that parents who work full time are more stressed than those who work

part-time, resulting in a more permissive parenting style. Poverty can be one of the life stressors that overwhelms the parents, they seem unable to implement adequate rule setting in their homes.

Parents who are employed either part time or full time have closer scores concerning their parenting style than those parents who are unemployed. Of the unemployed parents in this study, 54.5% of them were categorized as authoritarian. Consistent with recent literature, parents who are unemployed are more likely to use authoritarian parenting styles when punishing their children than parents who are employed (Slack, Holl, McDaniel, Yoo, & Bolger, 2004; Hunt, 2013).

Results from this study suggest that parents who are married and unmarried are equally likely to be uninvolved parents. Uninvolved married participants scored 39.3% and uninvolved unmarried participants scored 44.8 percent. Although literature suggests that parents who are married are less likely to use authoritarian punishment such as spanking or hitting and are more concerned for their child's health (Guzzo & Lee, 2008; Osborne, 2004), this study suggests that married parents are as likely to use physical punishment as unmarried parents. Married parents scored 36.3% authoritarian and unmarried parents scored 24.1% authoritarian. With the exception of spanking, there is no evidence that changing relationships status makes any impressions on parenting styles or practices stress (Guzzo & Lee, 2008).

Results from this study also suggest that parents who have not graduated from high school are likely to be authoritarian. However, only one of the participants did not have a high school diploma, so this percentage is not a reliable description of parents without high school diplomas. With a percentage of 17.7, parents who have received a high school diploma are more likely to demonstrate uninvolved parenting styles. Similarly, 24.2% of the parents who have at least some college credit categorized as having an uninvolved parenting style. These results are

inconsistent with literature as Lee, Vandell, and Posner (1998) found that parents who were less educated than their counterpart were more likely to exhibit characteristics of the authoritarian parenting style. Parents who have low academic achievement are also at risk for being unemployed. Stormont's (2001) longitudinal study determined that mothers with lower educational attainment had less effective parenting practices than that of mothers with higher educational attainment. Button, Pianta, and Marvin (2001) also validated that higher education levels is linked to higher levels of parenting skills, parental self-efficacy, and low levels of parental stress.

Study Limitations

Some limitations may have swayed the results and interpretation of this study. First, although convenience sampling was deemed necessary to access this hard-to-reach population, the use of a sample that is more representative of families in poverty in North Carolina, or the U.S., would have been preferable. Based on this study's participants, any generalizations must be made cautiously and are likely most applicable, if at all, to families of poverty living in Eastern North Carolina. However, it may be best to forego attempts at generalizations and consider this study to be descriptive of the poverty population who participated in this study. Also, self-report is a limitation to this study as participants may not have been honest when answering questions fearing what may be thought about them if they were to answer in a way that would describe them as resentful and neglectful.

Implications and Future Research

Knowing that poverty affects various scopes of an individual's (or family's) functioning, it is important to implement services that support families in the home, school, and community such as meal programs, financial assistance, and education. Given the amount of time children

and adolescents spend in the home with their parents, providing stability and validation is vital. Practitioners working with families in poverty such as educators and human service providers can create programs that help educate parents to learn more effective ways of parenting while building a positive relationship with their children. A large percentage of the parents in this study are either overly protective or demonstrate low care and protection. Parents in poverty do care for their children as shown by this study, however they need education on how appropriately demonstrate affection, concern, as well as delivering punishment. All parents can benefit from parent education, including those who struggle with balancing care and protection, as well as providing needed structure and boundaries.

Suggestions for future research include examining the possible indirect relationship between parenting stress and poverty and acculturation as it relates to parenting styles. Also, future research could expand on how the level of education and marital status relate to parenting styles in families living in poverty. Further validation of measures with poverty populations used in this study including the PSDQ-Short Version and PBI are suggested to more clearly determine if these measures are appropriate for use with families in poverty; as these scales have not been exclusively used for families in poverty.

Conclusions

The results of this study provide a contribution to the literature by relating parenting styles and communication to families who live in poverty. Findings from the current study suggest that poverty is not necessarily related to parent-child communication patterns. This study shows that families in poverty communicate well with one another. Mothers and fathers communicated well most of the time with their children when it pertained to letting their children express themselves as well as explaining that rules have a purpose. Parenting styles are known to

dictate how parents communicate and show affection to their children (Endicott & Liossis, 2005). The discrepancy of this study's results could be explained by the participants parenting styles and the resources offered to them. Although the parents in this study encourage their children to talk about their feelings, their parenting styles, such as authoritarian, can lead how parent's availability is perceived. For example, authoritarian parents are rigid and are known to be demanding, and children do not feel they are able to communicate how they feel (Endicott & Liossis, 2005). Parents in this study are given tools from the agency's their children are involved with to appear more available to their child, to increase their communication skills, and improve the overall parent child relationship. Therefore, although literature has informed readers that poverty and parenting styles have the potential to decrease parent-child communication and affection, the availability of community resources can improve their relationships. This study gives insight to practitioners and human service providers that families living in poverty have the capacity to love their child and provide care and protection to them despite their financial circumstances.

REFERENCES

Abell, L., Lyons, M., & Brewer, G. (2014). The relationship between parental bonding, Machiavellianism and adult friendship quality. *Individual Differences Research, 12*(4-B), 191-197.

Adler, N. E., Boyce, W. T., Chesney, M. A., Folkman S., & Syme, S. L. (1993). Socioeconomic inequalities in health: No easy solution. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 269*, 3140—3145

Almeida, D. M., Wethington, E., & Chandler, A. L. (1999). Daily transmission of tensions between marital dyads and parent-child dyads. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 61*, 49-61.

American Psychological Association (nd). Parents and caregivers are essential to children's healthy development. Retrieved March 2, 2015, from http://www.apa.org/pi/families/resources/parents-caregivers.aspx

Attree, P. (2006). The social costs of child poverty: A systematic review of the qualitative evidence. *Children and Society, 20*, 54–66

Baldwin, A. L. (1948). Socialization and the parent–child relationship. *Child Development, 19*, 127–136.

Banthin, J.S., & Bernard, D.M. (2006). Changes in financial burdens for health care: national estimates for the population younger than 65 years, 1996 to 2003. *JAMA, 296(22)*, 2712–2719.

Barkley, R.A, & Mash, E. J. (2006). Treatment of childhood developmental disorders (3rd ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Baumrind, D. (1973). The development of instrumental competence through socialization. In A. Pick (Eds.), *Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology* (pp. 3-46). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Bluestone, C., & Tamis-LeMonda, C.S. (1999). Correlates of parenting styles in predominantly working- and middle-class African American mothers. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61*, 881-893

Bouverne-De Bie, M., Roets, G. & Roose, R. (2013). Researching child poverty: Towards a lifeworld orientation. *Childhood: A Global Journal of Child Research*, *20*(4), 535-549. doi:10.1177/0907568212475101

Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment and loss: Vol. 1. Attachment.* London: Hogarth.

Bowlby, J. (1989). The role of attachment in personality development and psychopathology. In S.I. Greenspan & G.H. Pollock(Eds.), The course of life: Vol.1(pp.229-270). Madison, CT: International University Press

Brown, J., Cohen, P., Johnson, J. G., & Salzinger, S. (1998). A longitudinal analysis of risk factors for child maltreatment: Findings of a 17-year prospective study of officially recorded and self-reported child abuse and neglect. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *22*(11), 1065-1078. doi:10.1016/S0145-2134(98)00087-8

Brown, E. D., & Lynn, T. K. (2010). Daily poverty-related stress and mood for low-income parents, as a function of the presence of a cohabiting partner relationship. *Individual Differences Research, 8*(4), 204-213

Browne, D., Dufort, V., Holt, K., Jung, J., Kotch, J., Ringwalt, C., Ruina, E, & Stewart, P. (1997). Stress, social support, and substantiated maltreatment in the second and third years of life. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 21*(11), 1025-1037.

Brumariu, L. E., & Kerns, K. A. (2010). Parent–adolescent attachment and internalizing symptoms in childhood and adolescence: *A review of empirical findings and future directions. Development and Psychopathology*, 22, 177–203.

Button, S., Pianta, R. C., & Marvin, R. S. (2001). Mothers' representations of relationships with their children: relations with parenting behavior, mother characteristics, and child disability status. *Social Development, 10*(4), 455-472.

Choi, J.-K. & Jackson, A.P. (2011) Fathers' involvement and child behavior problems in poor African American single mother families. *Children and Youth Services Review, 33,* 698–704.

Choi, J., Palmer, R., & Pyun, H. (2014). Three measures of non-resident fathers' involvement, maternal parenting and child development in low-income single-mother families. *Child & Family Social Work*, *19*(3), 282-291.

Clark, K. E., & Ladd, G. W. (2000). Connectedness and autonomy support in parent–child relationships: Links to children's socioemotional orientation and peer relationships. *Developmental Psychology, 36,* 485–498.

Conger, R. D., Ge, X., Elder, G. H., Lorenz, F. O. & Simons, R. L. (1994). Economic stress, coercive family process, and developmental problems of adolescents. *Child Development, 65,* 541–561. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00768.x

Conger, R.D., Conger, K.J., Elder, G.H., & Lorenz, F.O. (1992). A family process model of economic hardship and adjustment of early adolescent boys. *Child Development, 63,* 526-541.

Conger, K.J., Rueter, M.A., & Conger, R.D. (2000). The role of economic pressure in the lives of parents and their adolescents: The Family Stress Model. In L.J. Crockett, and K. Rainer

(Eds.). Negotiating adolescence in times of social change (pp. 201-223). New York: Cambridge University Press

Conger, R. D., & Elder, G. H., Jr. (1994). *Families in troubled times*. New York: DeGruyter.

Contreras, J., & Kerns, K. (2000). Emotion regulation processes: Explaining links between parent-child attachment and peer relationships. In K. A. Kerns, J. M. Contreras, & A. M. Neal Barnett (Eds.), *Family and peers: Linking two social worlds* (pp.1–25). Westport, CT: Praeger

Creswell, J. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*.

Dallago, L., Currie, C., & Levin, K. A., (2012). The association between adolescent life satisfaction, family structure, family affluence and gender differences in parent–child communication. *Social Indicators Research*, *106*(2), 287-305. doi:10.1007/s11205-011-9804-y

Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting styles as context: an integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, *113*, 487–496. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487

Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. E. (1994). Socialization mediators of the relation between socioeconomic status and child conduct problems. *Child Development, 65,* 649-665.

Duncan, G. J., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2000). Family poverty, welfare reform, and child development. *Child Development, 71*(1), 188-196. doi:10.1111/1467-8624.00133

Duncan, G. J., Yeung, W. J., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Smith, J. R. (1998). How much does childhood poverty affect the life chances of children? American Sociological Review, 63, 406 – 423. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2657556

Endicott, R., & Liossis, P. (2005, June). Australian adolescents' perceptions of their parents: an analysis of parenting styles, communication & feelings towards parents. *Youth Studies Australia*, *24*(2), 24+.

Engle, P. L., & Black, M. M. (2008). The effect of poverty on child development and educational outcomes. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1136, 243-256. http://dx.doi.org/10.1196/annals.1425.023

Faber, A. J., & Wittenborn, A. K. (2010). The role of attachment in children's adjustment to divorce and remarriage. *Journal of Family Psychotherapy, 21*(2), 89-104. doi:10.1080/08975353.2010.483625

Federal Register (2015). Annual update of the HHS poverty guidelines. Retrieved from https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2015/01/22/2015-01120/annual-update-of-the-hhs-poverty-guidelines#t-1

Fergusson, D. M., Linskey, M. T., & Horwood, L. J. (1996). Childhood sexual abuse and 4 psychiatric disorder in young adulthood: I. Prevalence of sexual abuse and factors associated with sexual abuse. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 35, 1355–1364.

Finkelhor, D., Hoteling, G., Lewis, I. A., & Smith, C. (1990). Sexual abuse in a national survey of adult men and women: Prevalence, characteristics, and risk factors. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 14*, 19–28.

Fowler, J. (2009). *Survey research methods.* Thousand Oaks, USA: Sage Publications

Goode, J. (2010). The role of gender dynamics in decisions on credit and debt in low income families. *Critical Social Policy, 30*(1), 99-119. doi:10.1177/0261018309350810

Grimm-Thomas, K., & Perry-Jenkins, M. (1994). All in a day's work: Job experiences, self-esteem, and fathering in working-class families. *Family Relations, 43,* 174-181.

Guion, K., Mrug, S., & Windle, M. (2009). Predictive value of informant discrepancies in reports of parenting: Relations to early adolescents' adjustment. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *37*(1), 17-30. doi:10.1007/s10802-008-9253-5

Guttmann-Steinmetz, S., & Crowell, J. (2006). Attachment and externalizing disorders: a developmental psychopathology perspective. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, *45*, 440–451. doi:10.1097/01.chi.00001 96422.42599.63.

Guzzo, K. B., & Lee, H. (2008). Couple relationship status and patterns in early parenting practices. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *70*(1), 44-61. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2007.00460.x

Harrison, D., Albanese, P., & Berman, R. (2014). Parent-adolescent relationship s in military families affected by post-traumatic stress disorder. *Canadian Social Work Review*, *31*(1), 85-107.

Hill, R. (1958). Generic features of families under stress. *Social Casework, 49,* 139-150.

Hilton, J. M., & Desroches, S. (2000). The influence of economic strain, coping with roles, and parental control on the parenting of custodial single mothers and custodial single fathers. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage*, *33,* 55–76

Hoff, E., Laursen, B., & Tardif, T. (2002). Socioeconomic status and parenting. In M. H. Bornstein (Ed.), Handbook of parenting, vol. 2: Biology and ecology of parenting (pp. 231–252). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Hunt, J.C. (2013). Associations between different parenting styles and child behavior. *PCOM Psychology Dissertations*. Paper 262.

Jackson, A.P. & Scheines, R. (2005) Single mothers' self-efficacy, parenting in the home environment, and children's development in a two-wave study. *Social Work Research, 29*, 7–20.

Jackson, A.P., Choi, J.-K. & Franke, T.M. (2009b) Poor single mothers with young children: mastery, relations with nonresident fathers, and child outcomes. *Social Work Research, 33*, 95–106

Jorgensen, B. L., & Savla, J. (2010). Financial literacy of young adults: The importance of parental socialization. *Family Relations: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Applied Family Studies, 59*(4), 465-478.

Kaiser, A. & Delaney, E. (1996). The effects of poverty on parenting young children. *Peabody Journal of Education, 71*(4), 66-85.

Kindle, P. A. (2010). Student perceptions of financial literacy: Relevance to practice. *Journal of Social Service Research, 36*(5), 470-481.

King, V. & Sobolewski, J.M. (2006) Nonresident fathers' contributions to adolescent well-being. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 68*, 537–557.

Kotch, J. B., Browne, D. C., Ringwalt, C. L., Stewart, P. W., Ruina, E., Holt, K., Lowman, B., & Jung, J. (1995). Risk of child abuse or neglect in a cohort of low-income children. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 19*(9), 1115-1130. doi:10.1016/0145-2134(95)00072-G

Kwon, H., Rueter, M., Lee, M., Koh, S., & Ok, S. W. (2003). Marital relationships following the Korean economic crisis: applying the family stress model. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 65,* 316–325.

Ladd, H. F. (2012). Education and poverty: Confronting the evidence. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 31*(2), 203-227.

Lamb, M. E., & Lewis, C. (2011). *The role of parent child relationships in child development. In M. E. Lamb, & M. H. Bornstein (Eds.), Social and personality development: An advanced textbook (pp. 259– 307).* New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Lansford, J.E., Criss, M.M., Dodge, K.A., Shaw, D.S., Pettit, G.S., & Bates, J.E. (2009). Trajectories of physical discipline: Early childhood antecedents and developmental outcomes. *Child Development, 80,* 1385 – 1402.

Lee, S., Vandell, D. L., & Posner, J. K. (1998). Harsh, firm, and permissive parenting in low-income families. *Journal of Family Issues*, *19*(5), 483-507.

Leung, J., & Shek, D. (2014). Parent-Adolescent Discrepancies in Perceived Parenting Characteristics and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes in Poor Chinese Families. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, *23*(2), 200-213. doi:10.1007/s10826-013-9775-5

Lunkenheimer, E. S., Shields, A. M., & Cortina, K. S. (2007). Parental emotion coaching and dismissing in family interaction. *Social Development*, *16*(2), 232-248. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9507.2007.00382.x

Liker, J. K., & Elder, G. H., Jr. (1983). Economic hardship and marital relations in the1930s. *American Sociological Review, 48,* 343 –359.

Maccoby, E. E. (1980). *Social development*. San Diego, CA: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

Mano, S. & Uno H. (2007). Relationship between characteristic behaviors of children with AD/HD and mothers' parenting styles. *No To Hattatsu 39*(1), 19-24.

Marton, I., Rogers, M. A., Theule, J., & Wiener, J. (2011). Predicting parenting stress in families of children with ADHD: Parent and contextual factors. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 20,* 640–647.

McCubbin, H., & Patterson, J. (1982). Family adaptation to crises. *In H. McCubbin, A. Cauble, & J. Patterson (Eds.),* Family stress, coping and social support. Springfield, IL: C.C.

McLoyd, V. (1990). The Impact of Economic Hardship on Black Families and Children: Psychological Distress, Parenting, and Socioemotional Development. *Child Development 61,* 311-46.

McLoyd, V.C. (1997). The impact of poverty and low socioeconomic status on the socioemotional functioning of African-American children and adolescents: Mediating effects. In R.D. Taylor & M.C. Wang (Eds.). Social and emotional adjustment and family relations in ethnic minority families (pp. 7-34). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McLoyd, V.C. (1998). Socioeconomic disadvantage and child development. *American Psychologist, 53,* 185-204.

McLoyd, V., Jayaratne, T., Ceballo, R., & Borquez, J. (1994). Unemployment and work interruption among African American single mothers: effects on parenting and socioemotional functioning. *Child Development 65,* 562-589.

Minuchin, P. (1985). Families and individual development: Provocations from the field of family therapy. *Child Development, 56, 289–302*

Mistry, R., & Lowe, E., (2006). What earnings and income buy: the basics, plus a little extra: implications for family and child well-being." Pp. 173–205 in Making It Work: Low-Wage Employment, Family Life, and Child Development, edited by H. Yoshikawa, T. Weisner, and E. D. Lowe. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Moore, K. A., Redd, Z., Burkhauser, M., Mbwana, K., & Collins, A. (2009). Children in poverty: Trends, consequences, and policy options. Washington: Child Trends

Moses Passini, C., Pihet, S., & Favez, N. (2014). Assessing Specific Discipline Techniques: A Mixed-Methods Approach. *Journal of Child & Family Studies, 23*(8), 1389-1402.

Newman, K. S., & Chen, V. T. (2007). *The missing class: Portraits of the near poor in America*. Boston: Beacon Press

Norvilitis, J., Szablicki, P., & Wilson, S. (2003). Factors influencing levels of credit card debt in college students. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33,* 935–947.

Okech, D., Howard, W. J., & Kim, J. (2013). Efficacy and agency among poor families with and without children. *Child & Family Social Work, 18*(4), 417-428

Olson, D. H., Russell, C. S., & Sprenkle, D. H. (1983). Circumplex Model of marital and family systems: VI. Theoretical update. *Family Process, 22*(1), 69-83. doi:10.1111/j.1545-5300.1983.00069.x

Osborne, C. (2004a). Maternal stress and mothering behavior in stable and unstable families. *Working Paper #03-08-FF. Princeton,* NJ: Center for Research on Child Wellbeing, Princeton University.

Paat, Y. (2011). The link between financial strain, interparental discord and children's Antisocial Behaviors. *Journal of Family Violence, 26*(3), 195-210. doi:10.1007/s10896-010-9354-0

Park, J., Turnbull, A., & Turnbull, H. R. (2002). Impacts of poverty on quality of life in families of children with disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 68*(2), 151-170.

Parker, G., Tupling, H., & Brown, L. B. (1979). A parental bonding instrument. *The British Journal of Medical Psychology, 52,* 1-10.

Patterson, G. R. (1982). *Coercive family process*. Eugene: Castalia Publishing Company.

Patterson, J. (2002). Integrating family resilience and family stress theory. *Journal of Marriage And Family, 64(2),* 349-360. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2002.00349.x

Posner, J. K., Shumow, L., & Vandell, D.L. (1998). Harsh, firm, and permissive parenting in low-income families. *Journal of Family Issues, 19* (5), 483- 507.

Querido, J.G., Warner, T.D., & Eyberg, S.M. (2002). Parenting styles and child behavior in African-American families of preschool children. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, 31,* 272–277.

Raijas, A. (2011). Money management in blended and nuclear families. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 32*(4), 556-563.

Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S. F., & Hart, C. H. (2001). The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ). In B. F. Perlmutter, J. Touliatos, & G. W. Holden (Eds.), *Handbook of family measurement techniques: Vol. 3. Instruments & index* (pp. 319 - 321). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S. F., & Hart, C. H. (1995). Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting practices: development of a new measure. *Psychological Reports, 77*(3), 819-830. doi:10.2466/pr0.1995.77.3.819

Rodriguez, C. M. (2010). Parent-child aggression: Association with child abuse potential and parenting styles. *Violence and Victims, 25*(6), 728-741. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.25.6.728.

Rodriguez, E. M., Nichols, S. R., Javdani, S., Emerson, E., & Donenberg, G. R. (2015). Economic hardship, parent positive communication and mental health in urban adolescents seeking outpatient psychiatric care. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 24(3),* 617-627. doi:10.1007/s10826-013-9872-5

Rothwell, D. W., & Han, C. (2010). Exploring the relationship between assets and family stress among low-income families. *Family Relations, 59*(4), 396-407.

Sawhill, I. V. (2006). Teenage sex, pregnancy, and nonmarital births. *Gender Issues, 23*, 48–59.

Sears, R. R., Macoby, E., & Levin, H. (1957). *Patterns of child rearing*. New York: Harper & Row.

Short, K. (2011). *The Research Supplemental Poverty Measure: 2010.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce.

Sigelman, C.K. & Rider, E.A. (2009). Life-span human development. (6th ed.). Belmont, CA. Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Slack, K. S., Holl, J. L., McDaniel, M., Yoo, J., & Bolger, K. (2004). Understanding the risks of child neglect: An exploration of poverty and parenting characteristics. *Child Maltreatment*, *9*(4), 395-408.

Stanford Center on Poverty and Inequality (2014). The poverty and inequality report 2014. Retrieved from http://inequality.stanford.edu/sotu/SOTU_2014_CPI.pdf

Stormont, M. (2001). Preschool family and child characteristics associated with stable behavior problems in children. *Journal of Early Intervention, 24*(4), 241-251.

The World Bank (2015). The global monitoring report 2014/2015: ending poverty and sharing prosperity. Retrieved from http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/gmr/gmr 2014/ GMR_2014_Full_Report.pdf

Tse, S. (2007). Family violence in Asian communities, combining research and community development. *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand, 31*, 170–194.

Unger, D., Jones, C., & Park, E. (2001). Promoting involvement between low-income single caregivers and urban early intervention programs. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 21*(4), 197-212.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. (2010). Income, poverty, and health insurance coverage in the United States. Report P60, 238, 61.

Torres, P. V., Martín, M. L., Gómez-Fraguela, J. A., & Triñanes, E. R., (2003). Una propuesta de evaluación de variables familiares en la prevención de la conducta problema en la adolescencia. *Psicothema, 15(*4), 581-588.

Wadsworth, M.E., & Berger, L.E. (2006). Adolescents coping with poverty-related family stress: Predictors of coping and psychological symptoms. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 35*, 57-70.

Weaver, C. M., Shaw, D. S., Crossan, J. L., Dishion, T. J., & Wilson, M. N. (2015). Parent–child conflict and early childhood adjustment in two-parent low-income families: parallel developmental processes. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, *46*(1), 94-107. doi:10.1007/s10578-014-0455-5

Welsh, D. P., Galliher, R. V., & Powers, S. I. (1998). Divergent realities and perceived inequalities: Adolescents', mothers', and observers' perceptions of family interactions and adolescent psychological functioning. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *13*(4), 377-402. doi:10.1177/0743554898134002

Zolten, K., & Long, N. (2006). Parent/child communication. Retrieved from https://extension.tennessee.edu/centerforparenting/TipSheets/Parent%20Child%20Communication.pdf

APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL

EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board Office
4N-70 Brody Medical Sciences Building· Mail Stop 682
600 Moye Boulevard · Greenville, NC 27834
Office **252-744-2914** · Fax **252-744-2284** · **www.ecu.edu/irb**

Notification of Exempt Certification

From: Social/Behavioral IRB

To: Tonya Stephens-Price

CC:
Bernice Dodor

Date: 2/23/2016

Re: UMCIRB 15-001924
Influences of Poverty on Parent-Child Emotional Bond

I am pleased to inform you that your research submission has been certified as exempt on 2/22/2016 . This study is eligible for Exempt Certification under category # 2 .

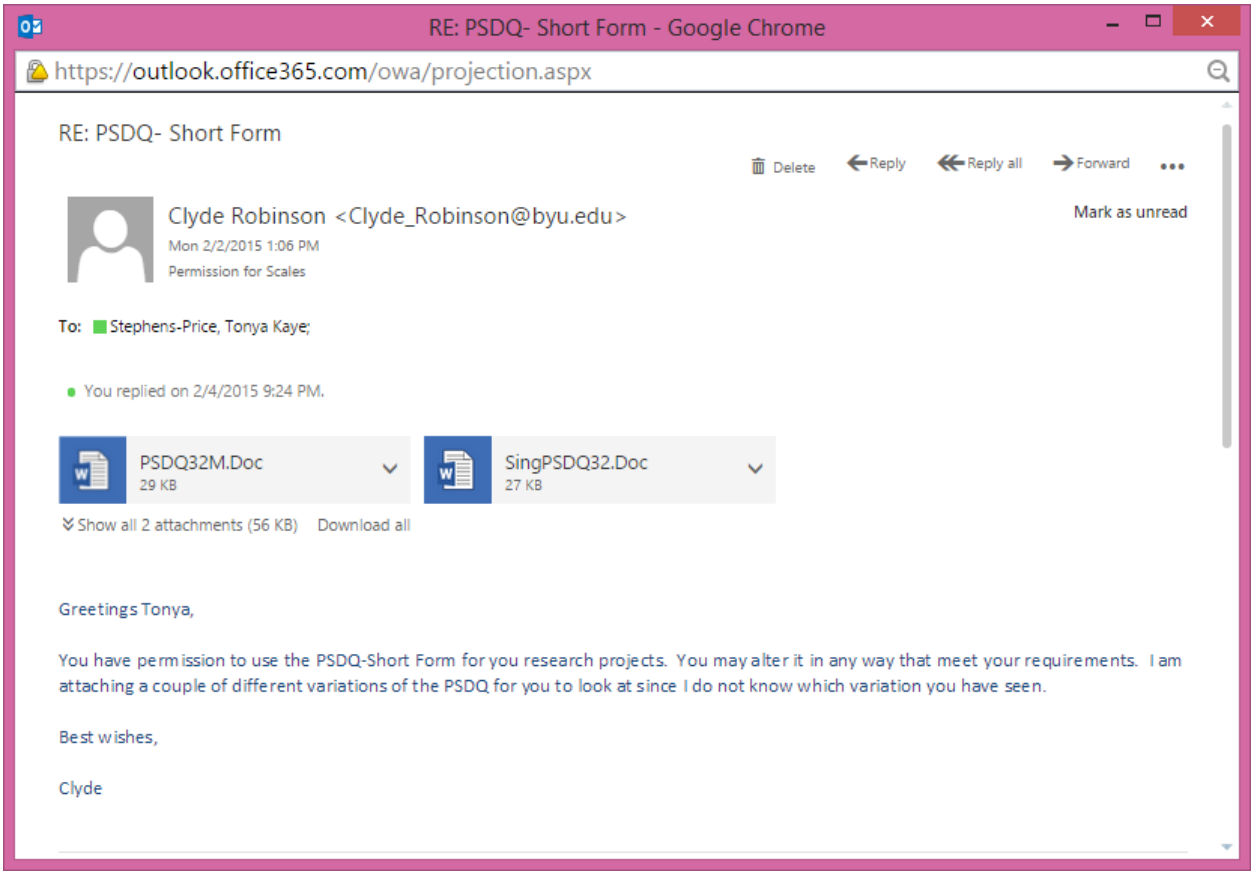
It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your application and/or protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for review andapproval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

The UMCIRB office will hold your exemption application for a period of five years from the date of this letter. If you wish to continue this protocol beyond this period, you will need to submit an Exemption Certification request at least 30 days before the end of the five year period.

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.

APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY



RE: PSDQ- Short Form - Google Chrome

https://outlook.office365.com/owa/projection.aspx

RE: PSDQ- Short Form

Delete Reply Reply all Forward ...

Clyde Robinson <Clyde_Robinson@byu.edu>

Mon 2/2/2015 1:06 PM

Permission for Scales

Mark as unread

To: Stephens-Price, Tonya Kaye;

You replied on 2/4/2015 9:24 PM.

PSDQ32M.Doc
29 KB

SingPSDQ32.Doc
27 KB

Show all 2 attachments (56 KB) Download all

Greetings Tonya,

You have permission to use the PSDQ-Short Form for you research projects. You may alter it in any way that meet your requirements. I am attaching a couple of different variations of the PSDQ for you to look at since I do not know which variation you have seen.

Best wishes,

Clyde

APPENDIX C: PSDQ SURVEY

For each item, rate how often you exhibit this behavior with your child.

	Never	Once In A While	About Half The Time	Very Often	Always
1. I am responsive to my child's feelings and needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I encourage my child to talk about his/her troubles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I encourage my child to freely express (himself)(herself) even when disagreeing with me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I give comfort and understanding when my child is upset.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I give praise when my child is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I allow my child to give input into family rules.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I give my child reasons why rules should be obeyed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I help my child to understand the impact of behavior by encouraging my child to talk about the consequences of his/her own actions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I explain the consequences of the child's behavior.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D: PARENTAL BONDING INSTRUMENT

This questionnaire will determine which parenting style category that you fit in. Please choose one option for each item. If you have questions, please ask administrator.

	Very Like	Like	Unlike	Very Unlike
1. Speak to my child in a warm and friendly voice.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Help my child as much as he/she needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Let my child do things he/she likes to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Seem emotionally cold to my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Appear to understand my child's problems and worries.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Affectionate to my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Let my child make their own decision.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Do not want my child to grow up.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Try to control everything my child does.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I invade my child's privacy.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Enjoy talking things over with my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Frequently smile at my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Tend to baby my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Do not seem to understand what they want or need.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Let my child decide things for himself/herself.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Make my child feel unwanted.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Can make my child feel better when they are upset.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Do not talk to my child much.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Try to make my child feel dependent on me	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Make my child feel they cannot look after himself/herself unless I am there.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Give my child as much freedom as he/she wants.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Let my child go out as often as he/she want.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Overprotective of my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Praise my child.	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Let them dress in any way he/she pleases.	☐	☐	☐	☐