Identifying The Impact of Specific Parenting Routines On Self-Reported Parenting Satisfaction

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Department of Community Care and Counseling, Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

Parents face many challenges when raising a child, and how a parent handles these situations and their outcomes influence that parent's perception of their success. This current research determined that there were not specific routines a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child each day which positively correlate with reported parental satisfaction (Ha1). However, there are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction (Ha2). A quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design was utilized to understand the linear relationship between the dependent variable (perceived parenting satisfaction) and eight independent variables (the eight subscales of the Family Time and Routines Index). The analysis used Pearson's *r* to ascertain single linear relationships and, finally, multiple regression analysis to predict which independent variables have the most significant impact on perceived parenting satisfaction.

Keywords: parenting satisfaction, parenting routines, parenting style,

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List of Abbreviations

Comprehensive General Parenting Questionnaire (CGPQ)

Family Times and Routines Index (FTRI)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)

Parental Self-Agency Measure (PSAM)

Parenting Practices Questionnaire (PPQ)

Parenting Sense of Competency Scale (PSOCS)

Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)

Self-Perceptions of the Parenting Role (SPPR)

Chapter One: Introduction

Overview

This research project investigates specific parenting routines and their relationship to the parents' satisfaction with their parenting. Challenges parents may face when raising a child include social challenges such as sibling arguments, disobedience, and demand for attention; emotional challenges such as fear, anxiety, and temper tantrums; and finally, physical challenges, including bedtime routines, engaging in chores, and homework struggles (Rasmussen, 2014). Each preceding challenge must be dealt with in the context of a fluid and unpredictable dance between parent and child. The parent's perception of their success as a parent is determined by this interaction with their child (Rasmussen, 2014). This study examined the time parents spent with their children in one-on-one interaction. This study also examined the time families spent together participating in activities as a family unit. Parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction during both of these interactions were identified. These identified routines are presented in an effort to assist current and future parents in equipping themselves better as they raise their children.

Background

Two working mothers sit on a bench at the neighborhood playground one evening. Their children, both six-year-old boys, play enthusiastically on the play equipment. As the mothers talk, one shares her enthusiasm for her child and her love of parenting while the other listens with shame as she thinks to herself how hard it is to be a parent and how she feels so much like a failure when it comes to being a mother. What drives each of these mothers to think differently about their parenting success? What factors contribute to this satisfaction? Do parents consistently participate in parenting routines that lead to greater parenting satisfaction? The

answer to these questions helps reveal the correlation between parenting routines and parenting satisfaction. They formed the basis for this study.

Parenting satisfaction is "the belief that a parent holds concerning perceptions of themselves as parents and their capabilities to organize and execute a set of tasks related to parenting a child" (Brown et al., 2018). This research explored how a parent perceives their parenting skills and success within this definition. Many factors influence a parent's satisfaction with their parenting abilities, and each has been addressed through this dissertation. Literature produced by Parker & Wang from a 2013 Pew Research study noted that 69% of all parents reported that they had done an excellent or very good job parenting. Those indicating they did a good or fair job were 24% and 6%, respectively (Parker & Wang, 2013). A similar Pew Research study completed two years later in 2015 found that the number of parents who felt they were doing an excellent or very good job rose to 92% (Parker et al., 2015).

In past decades, the increased interest in and study of parenting (Farzand et al., 2017) revolved primarily around parenting styles. They focused mainly on the impact of parenting styles on child outcomes. Parenting styles are a definition of general categories of a parent's approach to raising their children and are an essential step in the evolution of the study of parenting. In her research, Diana Baumrind (1966) defined three distinct parenting styles: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. Then, in her third research study, published in 1971, she categorized a fourth dimension of parenting identified as rejecting-neglecting (Power, 2013). A decade later, in 1983, Maccoby and Martin published research that defined Baumrind's fourth dimension of the parenting styles and initially labeled it neglectful but settled on the term "uninvolved" (Maccoby & Martin, 1983), which is the generally accepted term used in counseling since that time. Within the authoritative parenting style, an interdependence between

a child's behavioral compliance and psychological autonomy develops (Baumrind, 1966). Children are expected to respect adult authority while remaining free to engage in independent thought processes (Baumrind, 1966, 1996; Macoby & Martin, 1983). For the last half-century, this premise has been the foundation for study and research in the field of parenting (Power, 2013). Powers points out that in the 40-plus years of research that has taken place on parenting styles since the original work by Baumrind, and substantiated and expanded on by Maccoby and Martin, the four original parenting styles are the only styles exemplifying strong empirical basis in Western cultures. Further, it is widely accepted and substantiated by extensive empirical research that the authoritative parenting style is the most effective for child outcomes (Baumrind, 1966, 1971, 1996, 2013; Gunnoe, 2013; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Power, 2013). However, past research stops short of examining parental satisfaction.

Simmons (2014) explains that some researchers and marriage and family therapists have suggested additional categories of parenting styles. These other researchers feel that Baumrinds' and Macoby and Martins' four parenting styles do not capture physically abusive parents. They suggest a third dimension of parenting characteristics that measures physical abuse in addition to demandingness and responsiveness. They contend that when parents display low demandingness, low responsiveness, and high physical abuse, the results are always worse than any of the four original parenting styles. While this approach does have some merit, it has not been widely accepted in the field of marriage and family therapy (Simmons, 2014). Therapists and researchers tend to utilize separate assessment tools to measure physical abuse and deal with this topic separately in therapy (Simmons, 2014). It is a topic that would benefit from further investigation.

A different study by Thomas Jungert and his cohorts (2015) found that parenting

satisfaction was directly associated with a parent's motivation for parenting. Their study found that parents who saw parenting as meaningful and interesting (autonomous motivation) reported higher levels of parenting competence (role satisfaction and life satisfaction) than those who felt obligated to raise children in specific ways. These results were linked to various external or internal pressures. Contributors to this increased satisfaction include employment ability, income status, health situation, leisure time, marital quality (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014), social support, parental alliance (Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015), and age (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016). Each contributor presents a confounding variable when examining perceived parenting satisfaction and must be addressed accordingly in any research. These confounding variables are explored in detail later in this paper and have been accounted for during the analysis of data collected in this research project.

Social support is an aspect that impacts parenting satisfaction, especially in the case of parental well-being and the parent-child relationship (Brown et al., 2018). Research conducted over recent decades indicates that there has been a trend of parents reporting higher levels of happiness and well-being as it relates to their social connectedness (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016). Ponomartchouk and Bouchard (2015) found a direct positive correlation between many new mothers' feelings of competence in raising their children and the degree of social support they receive. Ponomartchouk and Bouchard contend that increased social support leads to higher self-esteem in mothers, resulting in a more positive self-view of their parenting. One of the social influencers impacting a parent is their religious practices (Mahoney et al., 2020). Mahoney and his team of researchers discovered that between 1980 and 2020, an estimated 500 peer-reviewed research studies addressing spirituality and religious factors surrounding parental functioning were published in journals.

The volume of research across the globe concerning the impact of parenting in recent years indicates a growing interest in and importance of this field of study (Farzand et al., 2017). However, most of this research focuses on the general characteristics of parenting style, stopping short of identifying specific parenting routines that may contribute to parenting satisfaction. (Ashioni & Mwoma, 2013; Carlo et al., 2018; Carreteiro et al., 2016; Farzand et al., 2017; Inam et al., 2016; Majumder, 2016).

Problem Statement

A significant amount of research indicates that the authoritative parenting style is the most effective form of parenting (Baumrind, 2013; Chou & Uata, 2012; Gunnoe, 2013). However, studies in the field of parenting style generally focus on the overall characteristics that describe the parents utilizing this approach and do not specifically identify parenting routines that contribute to the parents' satisfaction with their parenting.

One area that has received some attention within the field of parenting satisfaction, though, is that of a parent's interaction with their child, focusing on reading. Current literature reveals much information pertaining to parental involvement in reading to and with their children, resulting in elevated test scores in various reading indicators (Mitchell & Begeny, 2014; Pagan & Seneschal, 2014). However, these studies focus more on the child's outcome than the parent's perceived parenting success. The concern is that more research is needed to identify the types of specific parenting routines that have a direct positive correlation to parental satisfaction.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction.

Significance of the Study

The results of this study introduce empirical evidence that may be used in developing educational material for parenting in the future. Recent research has mixed results attempting to determine a correlation between a sense of happiness as an adult and having children (Grossbard & Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Stanca, 2012). Conservative, traditional family beliefs hold parenthood as a path toward a meaningful and fulfilled life (Brajsa-Zganec et al., 2022; Hansen, 2012; Mikolajczak et al., 2019). However, some research reveals different information. In the culture of the United States over the past couple of decades, Hansen's 2012 research revealed that many people feel better off not having children. Those individuals completing Hansens' surveys reported feeling that children hinder the adult's well-being, especially among women, single adults, and those within the lower socioeconomic strata. Additional research studies support this theory and indicate that parents are less happy, more depressed, and have less fulfilling marriages than non-parents (Grossbard & Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Stanca, 2012).

However, numerous recent studies support an alternate viewpoint (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016; Jungert et al., 2015; Nelson et al., 2013; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015). Findings from Herbst and Ifcher's (2016) study concerning the happiness of U.S. parents indicated that parents are gradually reporting greater happiness over time as opposed to non-parents. Their research revealed that non-parents are becoming less happy.

However, none of the literature discussed in this section identifies a correlation between happiness and parental satisfaction. Rizzo and his fellow researchers (2013) found that happiness in parenting may be less associated with being a parent and more related to the style of parenting and the techniques utilized (Rizzo et al., 2013). This result, as reported by Rizzo and others, supports the belief that more research is needed concerning the relationship between a parent's

perceived parenting satisfaction and parenting routines. This current study addresses this gap in the literature.

Research Questions

This study was designed to investigate family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction. The research questions are as follows:

RQ1: Does the time a parent spends interacting one-on-one with their child impact the parent's satisfaction with their parenting?

RQ2: Does the time that families participate in activities together as a family unit impact the parent's satisfaction with their parenting?

Definitions

1. *Act of Parenting* – Any interaction between a parent and their child that may involve "psychological costs" (worries, fatigue, sleep deprivation, and sacrifice and loss of personal freedom), "marital costs" (marital discord and dissatisfaction that are either direct [reducing sex, affection, and time spent together] or indirect [psychological distress]), "financial costs," or "opportunity costs" (sacrifice of career, income, or education) (Hansen, 2012).
2. *Demandingness* - The degree to which a parent monitors and outwardly controls the child's integration into and contribution to the family unit (Baumrind, 2013).
3. *Family Time Together* - The family's emphasis on time spent together as a family, including special events and quiet times (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013).
4. *Parent-Child Togetherness* - The family's focus on communication between parents and their children (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013).
5. *Parenting Routine* - Aspects of family time together, or activities families adopt, as

indicators of family integration and stability (McCubbin et al., 2012) and the routines that the family adopts (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013). This includes the techniques, skills, or methods a parent utilizes when interacting with their child during the act of parenting.

6. *Parenting Satisfaction* - The beliefs a parent holds concerning their capabilities to organize and execute a set of tasks related to parenting a child (Leahy-Warren et al., 2011).
7. *Parenting Skills* – The actions carried out by parents while parenting indicating their capability, competence, and problem-solving ability (Rogers & Matthews, 2004).
8. *Parenting Style* - Four distinct parenting approaches are permissive, authoritarian, authoritative (Baumrind, 1966, 2013; Power, 2013), and uninvolved (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Power, 2013).
9. *Parenting Style (Authoritarian)* - A parenting style in which the parent displays low responsiveness and high demandingness (Baumrind, 2013).
10. *Parenting Style (Authoritative)* - A parenting style in which the parent displays high responsiveness and high demandingness (Baumrind, 2013).
11. *Parenting Style (Permissive)* - A parenting style in which the parent displays high responsiveness and low demandingness (Baumrind, 2013).
12. *Parenting Style (Uninvolved)* - A parenting style in which the parent displays low responsiveness and low demandingness (Power, 2013).
13. *Parenting Techniques* – Interventions parents use to affect child behaviors, including psychoeducation (explanation), positive reinforcement (praise and reward), discipline (time out, consequences), proactive intervention (rule setting, monitoring), relational enhancement (parent-child play), active listening, parental skills (emotional regulation or

problem-solving) and child skills (emotional regulation or problem-solving) (Leijten et al., 2019).

14. *Responsiveness* -The emotional warmth and supportive actions directed by a parent to their child's vulnerabilities and cognitions in support of the child's needs and plans (Baumrind, 2013).

Summary

While ample research draws a correlation between parenting style and parenting success, little empirical evidence identifies specific parenting routines that correlate directly with the parent's actions and parenting satisfaction. This issue applies across all aspects of parent/child interaction. This study investigates specific one-on-one parenting as well as parenting interactions with the family in an effort to identify specific parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Overview

The purpose of this study was to investigate parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. This literature review examines the literature concerning the perceived aspects that influence parental satisfaction or dissatisfaction, including gender, age, education, marital status, and employment. The literature pertaining to parenting satisfaction as it relates to the child's age and the number of children present in the home is also explored, as well as literature focusing on parenting styles related to parenting satisfaction with a focus on the authoritative parenting style and the possible need for consistency in parenting style. Other confounding factors that impact parental satisfaction, included in this literature review, are parental social support, social media use, social comparison, and religious involvement. Finally, there is a review of assessment tools and processes utilized by other researchers in this field of study.

Conceptual Framework

There is no more significant way to influence the future of humanity than to invest in a child (Rasmussen, 2014). By building strong individuals in the present, future societal communities will remain strong and grow and flourish. However, this begins with each individual parent investing in their children (Rasmussen, 2014). Alfred Adler determined that five "constraints and necessities" of the human condition must be present in a child's life for that child to thrive (Rasmussen, 2014). Rasmussen indicates that in Adler's theory, each of these constraints and necessities was embroiled in the responsibilities of parents as they invest in their children. Adler stated that the first and the most basic construct is that all human beings require specific resources to survive. These resources include food, shelter, and clothing; without them,

the child will not flourish. The second construct is that humans seek physical and emotional enhancements. Every child must be provided physical and emotional security. The third construct is that we all desire companionship and to be socially embedded into the world around us. A fourth construct established by Adler is that a person's greatest joys and most serious threats are embedded in their relationships with others. Finally, all individuals inherently seek to establish meaning in their lives relative to their existence (Rasmussen, 2014).

Adler believed that it is within the context of these five constraints and necessities that the success or failure of a parent is found (Rasmussen, 2014). When parents are able to provide these necessities, their children will flourish, but when they are denied, the child suffers (Rasmussen, 2014). Unfortunately, no precise method exists to measure these constraints and necessities without many confounding variables. As a result, they quite often present themselves in an imbalanced manner (Rasmussen, 2014). Paul Rasmussen (2014) contends that quite often, many parents are influenced by their own needs when caring for their children due to the fact that these parents are also seeking these same factors in their own lives as a result of their own imbalance. Because of this, Rasmussen believes they fail to provide optimum care for their children. A parent's lack of happiness in their upbringing may influence them to desire always to please their child and keep them happy (Rasmussen, 2014). The parent may also have experienced neglect as a child and is determined to be there for their children, resulting in an overinvolved parent. As a result of these influencers and many others, the parent may become neglectful in one or more areas of their parenting duties to their children (Rasmussen, 2014).

These constructs laid out in Adlers' theory remind the researcher that there are many challenges that a parent may face when raising a child, including developmental challenges such as engaging in chores, sibling arguments, disobedience, and demand for attention; social-

emotional challenges such as fear, anxiety, temper tantrums; and finally, physical challenges including bedtime routines and homework struggles (Rasmussen, 2014). Each of these must be dealt with in the context of a fluid and unpredictable dance between parent and child. As a result, how a parent handles these situations and their outcomes influence that parent's perception of their success (Rasmussen, 2014).

Related Literature

Parent Satisfaction

Parenting satisfaction is defined by Leahy-Warren and her co-researchers (2011) as "the beliefs that a parent holds concerning their capabilities to organize and execute a set of tasks related to parenting a child ." This research explored how a parent perceives their parenting skills and success within this definition. Literature produced by Parker & Wang from a 2013 Pew Research study noted that 69% of all parents reported that they had done an excellent or very good job parenting. Those indicating they did a good or fair job were 24% and 6%, respectively (Parker & Wang, 2013). A similar Pew Research study conducted two years later in 2015 found that the number of parents who felt they were doing an excellent or very good job rose to 92% (Parker et al., 2015). While these statistics are intriguing, they warrant further scrutiny. One potential issue with both of these studies is the potential for bias in self-reporting surveys by the parents. This concern is explored in a later section of this literature review.

Mixed Results in Parenting Research

There are mixed results in research attempting to determine if there is a correlation between a sense of happiness in life and satisfaction as a parent (Grossbard & Mukhopadhyay, 2013). Beliefs held over recent decades are that parenthood is a path toward a meaningful and fulfilled life (Hansen, 2012); however, some research reveals a different story. In the past few

decades, Hansen's research indicated that most people feel better off not having children. They report feeling that children hinder the adult's well-being, especially among women, single adults, and those within the lower socioeconomic strata. These beliefs increased the higher the individual's socioeconomic status and education level (Hansen, 2012). Other research supports this belief that people are better off not having children, indicating that parents are less happy, more depressed, and have less fulfilling marriages than non-parents (Grossbard & Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Stanca, 2012).

On the other hand, numerous more recent studies support an alternate viewpoint (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016; Jungert et al., 2015; Nelson et al., 2013; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015). Findings from Herbst and Ifcher's (2016) study of 117,535 adults (42,298 from the General Social Survey and 75,237 from the DDB Lifestyle Survey) indicated that parents are gradually reporting greater happiness over time as opposed to non-parents. In fact, Herbst and Ifcher's research showed that non-parents are becoming less happy.

Thomas Hansen (2012) found in his research that parents report lower satisfaction levels during parenting; however, later in life, when they reflect back on their time with their child, they report to have been more satisfied than when they did not have children. This finding is supported by subsequent research by Deaton and Stone (2014), who found that while parents report higher levels of stress and fatigue during parenting, they also report higher levels of satisfaction with their lives than non-parents.

Rizzo, Schiffrin, and Liss (2013) also support this finding. However, their research indicated that happiness in parenting might be less associated with being a parent and more related to the parenting style and techniques utilized. This result reported by Rizzo supports the fact that more research is needed concerning the relationship between a parent's perceived

parenting satisfaction and the parenting routines used.

Contributors to Parenting Satisfaction

There is consensus that there is a need to differentiate between general life satisfaction and parenting satisfaction and the impact that life satisfaction has on perceived parenting satisfaction. Ponomartchouk & Bouchard's (2015) research indicated a correlation between the feelings of competence and satisfaction of many new mothers in raising their children and the degree of social support they receive, as well as their positive alliance with their parenting partners. Their research indicated that parents who supported one another in their parenting strongly affected their positive feelings as parents. It is also reported that parents enjoy some childcare activities better than others (Connelly & Kimmel, 2015). Mothers reported higher satisfaction corresponding directly to the amount of time they spent with their children engaged in leisure activities such as walking and playing together (Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015).

Herbst and Ifcher (2016) contend that much of this increase in satisfaction may be due to multiple other factors. Two notable factors are that the number of mothers in the workforce rose 24% between 1975 and 2008, resulting in mother's higher level of contribution to the family, and the fact that the average age of mothers at their first birth rose over four and a half years between 1970 and 2006 (Pew Research Center, 2010). Research by Kyle Murdock (2013) reported that scores on general self-efficacy assessments had a direct positive correlation to the same parents' scores on parenting self-efficacy assessments. Murdock contends that the more satisfied a parent is with their life in general, the more satisfied they will be with their parenting outcomes. However, many other research studies would challenge Murdocks' findings.

One study by Thomas Jungert and his cohorts (2015) found that parenting satisfaction was directly associated with a parent's motivation for parenting. Those parents who saw

parenting as meaningful and interesting (autonomous motivation) reported higher levels of parenting competence, role satisfaction, and life satisfaction than those parents who felt obligated to raise children in specific ways due to various external or internal pressures (Jungert et al., 2015). Jungert also indicated that a mother's parenting satisfaction was higher when raising daughters than sons and younger children than pre-teens and teenagers. Another significant finding by Jungert and his colleagues was a direct correlation between the level of autonomous motivation for parents and the authoritative parenting style.

All of this research by Ponomartchouk and Bouchard (2015) and Herbst and Ifcher (2016), along with additional research by Myrskylä and Margolis (2014), leads the researcher to an understanding that a differentiation must be established between general life satisfaction and specific satisfaction with parenting. Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014 report that there are many contributors to the satisfaction that a parent may feel, including employment ability, income status, health situation, leisure time, and marital quality, as well as social support, parental alliance (Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015), and age (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016). Each of these presents a confounding variable when examining perceived parenting satisfaction and must be dealt with accordingly when research is conducted.

Social and Cultural Influencers

Social Media Use.

Research by Brandon McDaniel and his associates (2012) gave evidence that a new mother's frequency of social media use, in particular - blogging, had a direct correlation to her sense of connectedness with family and friends and was a predictor of maternal well-being and the reduction of parenting stress and depression. However, mothers who utilized social media without blogging did not report these findings. McDaniel found that 86% of participants reported

that their primary reason for blogging was to remain connected with family and friends. Through this means, they could share parenting experiences, receive feedback concerning those experiences, and learn from others' blogs on the exact situations they were encountering. While this direct path from social connectedness leading to feelings of social support and ultimately to maternal well-being was evident in their study, McDaniel and his associates felt that further research was necessary to explore particulars about the content of the blogs and whom the mothers were specifically connecting with that made them feel more adequate as parents.

Social Support.

Sara Brown and her cohorts (2018) continued to expand on the original work presented in McDaniel's 2012 study by further exploring the impact of social media use and, in particular, social support. They conducted a longitudinal study on the effects of four types of social support (emotional, informational, tangible, and problematic) by surveying mothers at one week, six weeks, three months, and six months post-partum concerning their perceived parenting competence and parenting role satisfaction. Brown's findings indicated two significant results. First, mothers who engaged in social support were consistent in its use, and second, three of the four independent variables (emotional, informational, and tangible support) displayed a significant correlation, concurrently and predictively, with a parent's perceived parental competence and parenting role satisfaction. The fourth support, problematic support, was not found to be significant.

Leahy-Warren (2011) and Whitson (2011) previously drilled deeper into the four types of support that Brown examined in her 2012 study and found that greater maternal competence was directly predicted by emotional support and tangible support (Leahy-Warren et al., 2011; Whitson et al., 2011) more so than informational support. Just as Brown discovered in her

research, Leahy-Warren and Whitson found that problematic support held no positive relation.

Social support benefits all parents, especially regarding parental well-being and the parent-child relationship (Brown et al., 2018). Research by Herbst and Ifcher (2016) indicates that there has been a trend in recent decades of parents reporting higher levels of happiness and well-being. Herbst and Ifcher found a correlation between this trend and a parent's increased level of social connectedness. Ponomartchouk and Bouchard (2015) add to Herbst and Ifcher's research by reporting a direct correlation between new mothers' sense of competence in raising their children and the degree of social support they receive. Ponomartchouk and Bouchard's research indicated that increased social support leads to higher self-esteem in mothers, resulting in a more positive self-view of their parenting. While a correlation was indicated, their results hinted that other confounding variables might impact these findings. They suggested that further research was needed in this area to identify other parenting factors contributing to this parent satisfaction.

Edison Research (2018) reported that moms spend over three hours daily online, and up to 59% of mothers check in online multiple times daily with as many as 9 to 10 other parents in their social support group. Charlotte Chalklen and Heather Anderson (2017) found that 72% of parents felt that using Facebook made them feel more connected to others, and 71% reported that it helped them solve various parenting problems. They also reported that 42% of parents claimed Facebook enabled them to feel less isolated and, therefore, a better parent. This research by Herbst and Ifcher (2016) and Chalklen and Anderson (2017) reveals a positive correlation between a parent's time spent online and that parent's increased level of social connectedness.

Cecily Strange and her fellow researchers (2018) asked respondents an open-ended question concerning why they used parenting websites, blogs, and forums. The three primary

responses, in order, were 1) to find information on a particular parenting issue, 2) to seek reassurance about parenting, and 3) to reduce loneliness and isolation. However, in their response, parents indicated that while much of the information was especially useful, there was a significant amount of contradicting information, and they felt considerable judgment from peer-based forums.

All of the research findings reviewed in the Social Support section of this literature review support the core concepts of Social Support Theory (Leahy-Warren, 2014). Leahy-Warren believes that with the advancement of social media outlets, there is a growing trend to secure social connectedness via online methods. Her research findings indicate that parenting social networks consist of an interactive field of individuals, each providing some form of intended aid, helpfulness, and protection (Leahy-Warren, 2014). While this support can be incredibly positive in a parent's life, Leahy-Warren feels there is a downside. She contends that many parents can become overwhelmed by their various roles and responsibilities, so when the added weight of parenting is added to the mix, they may become anxious, fearful, and even depressed. Leahy-Warren surmises that for many parents in these social support networks, social media may negatively influence the parent, leading to a false sense of failure as a parent. So, where is the line that separates the benefits from the detriments of social use? The answer to this question can only be discovered through additional research.

Social Comparison.

When Cecily Strange and her co-researchers (2018) studied the social support discussed in the previous section of this literature review, they concluded that social media directly impacted a parent's perception of their parenting ability due to social comparison (Strange et al., 2018). Chalklen and Anderson (2017) felt that many parents were using social media to problem-

solve when they encountered parenting issues with their children, which often led the parents to feel inadequate as they saw the perceived success of other parents in the same situation they are in (Amaro et al., 2019; Coyne et al., 2017). Coyne and her co-researchers found that the more an individual exercised social comparison, the more overwhelmed they felt in their parenting role. There was also a direct correlation between social media use, a rise in conflict over social network use, and higher levels of maternal depression (Coyne et al., 2017). Coyne's research also showed that this increased maternal depression led to lower levels of parenting competence, feelings of reduced support, and negative co-parenting relationships as mothers would compare their husbands' participation in co-parenting to how they perceived other couples' co-parenting from the social media they viewed.

Strange (2018) reports that parents have to remember when viewing these social media sites that they all present the opportunity for anonymity. This factor alone creates an environment suitable for people to be unkind to one another or to paint a glowing picture of themselves as a false front to their own reality. In the context of this truth, the observer must proceed with caution when comparing themselves to others (Strange et al., 2018).

Lauren Amaro's (2019) study of 336 mothers concurred with and built upon Sarah Coyne's (2017) findings. Both studies determined that the less a mother engages in social comparison, the higher her self-reported parenting satisfaction will be. Amaro's research also indicated that while social comparison did not promote parenting satisfaction, a sense of belonging and emotional connectedness derived from social engagement did help to bolster satisfaction. Amaro also indicated that the lower the sense of belonging and emotional connectedness a mother reported, the higher her rate of social comparison.

All of this research on the relationship between social connectedness and parenting

satisfaction is supported by Cramer and her associates (2016). Their study found that the lower a person's self-esteem was, the more they tended to compare themselves to others on social media. This finding lends to the theory that the more an individual compares themselves to others on social media, the more depressed they may become, and the more depressed they are, the more they compare themselves to others (Cramer et al., 2016). Cramer found that these individuals enter a downward spiral that affects all aspects of their lives, including parenting. Cramer's study also supported the converse theory that the higher a person's self-esteem was, the less they compared themselves to others and the less depressed they were.

All of these studies concerning social support shared two things: They all agreed that comparison on social media directly influenced a parent's perception of their parenting success and indicated that further study was needed in this field.

A Parent's Own Social Upbringing.

Kelly Musick (2016) and her fellow researchers determined that there is a constant battle among parents to balance their own personal experiences with the need to provide for their children physically and emotionally, which leads a parent to feel success or failure in their parenting performance (Musick et al., 2016). Musick found that parents often perceive they are doing a great job because they are providing things for their children that the parents need in their own lives. These parents feel they are doing a good job as a parent, but the reality is that they may need to be more balanced in their parenting approach. Musick reports that there are other times a parent may feel they are doing a terrible job as they rate themselves based on their own needs and desires, but in reality, they may be doing a good job balancing their child's needs. This research gives evidence that a parent's own social upbringing presents a confounding variable and must be dealt with when examining self-reported parenting evaluations (Musick et

al., 2016).

Parenting and Religion

Mahoney, Flint, and McGraw (2020) estimate that between 1980 and 2020, over 500 peer-reviewed research studies addressing spirituality and religious factors surrounding parental functioning were published in journals. Richard Petts (2012) reports that much of the research in this field has shown the positive relationship between an individual's religion and marital satisfaction, marriage duration, family cohesiveness, higher levels of affection between parents and children, increased parental responsiveness and involvement, and lower instances of corporal punishment. Mahoney and her co-researchers (2020) found that in addition to Petts' (2012) list of positive correlations for individuals, married heterosexual couples engaging in organized religious activity also reported elevated levels of parenting satisfaction. Chelsea Weyland and her team of researchers (2013) reported that the more a parent leaned on their faith and its teachings concerning parenting and viewed their role as being sanctified by God, the higher their level of parenting competency when faced with a child exhibiting behavioral issues. Henderson, Uecker, and Stroope (2016) contend that all of this influence of religion is a personal matter between an individual and their God; however, the church, synagogue, or temple they associate with provides them with various social support systems and a completely different perspective and set of resources. As a result, these differences must be identified and isolated to assess the impact accurately.

Jack and Judith Balswick (2014) state that how a parent lives out their faith in the context of the family unit has a significant impact on the spirituality of the entire family; however, nearly all studies on religion and parenting focus on parenting outcomes concerning the child. Henderson's (2016) study of over 4,000 mothers and 2,000 fathers went beyond previous

research. He investigated the link between religion and parental stress, and parental satisfaction. His findings indicated a direct positive correlation between parenting satisfaction and the frequency of religious attendance, the importance of religion in daily life, and the frequency of personal prayer. Henderson's research also indicated a negative correlation between these three independent variables and parenting stress. However, Henderson goes on to report that Catholics and those individuals who were religious but did not indicate religious affiliation both showed higher levels of parental stress than all other religious individuals. These findings were consistent regardless of the parent's gender (Henderson, 2016).

Two results of Henderson's study that did indicate a difference between parents' genders were religious saliency and overall participation in a religious community. However, he cautions when interpreting these findings, indicating that the gender differences were minor. While the mother's parenting satisfaction showed no significant influence from religious saliency, the father's parenting satisfaction increased in direct positive correlation to their religious saliency. Henderson's findings indicated that fathers gained this satisfaction from internalizing their religious teachings and instituting them in their family relationships. The greater a father perceived that he could accomplish this, the higher his reported parenting satisfaction was (Henderson, 2016).

Henderson also reported that mothers reported an increase in parenting satisfaction in direct correlation to their level of participation in their religious community. The more mothers were involved with other individuals in that community via worship services, ministry, bible studies, or social gatherings, the higher their level of parenting satisfaction (Henderson, 2016). Henderson speculates that this could be due to religious mothers being more involved in child-rearing than fathers and that their connection to the religious community offers additional

parental support.

An earlier study by Lim and Putnam (2010) had findings similar to Henderson's concerning participation in a religious community, except their findings were significant for both men and women. While Lim and Putnam did not specifically look at parenting satisfaction, they found that developing social networks within a religious congregation increased life satisfaction. They report that attending religious services alone was not a determining factor in life satisfaction; however, as the number of friendships developed within that congregation rose, so did the reported life satisfaction. They found that individuals who attended religious gatherings but did not socialize had lower life satisfaction than those who were not religiously involved (Lim & Putnam, 2010). While Lim and Putnam's study was directed at life satisfaction, it does present the need for further research concerning this finding as applied to parenting satisfaction.

Nelson and Uecker (2018) expanded on Lim, Putnam, and Henderson's work by sampling all parents' ages and including a mechanism in their data analysis intended to mediate the relationship between the parent's general religiosity individually and as a couple and their reported parenting satisfaction. Nelson and Uecker's findings indicated that individuals who were not religiously inclined actually reported higher parenting satisfaction than those who indicated they were religious. They attribute their findings to a belief that religious parents may be highly idealistic concerning their parent-child relationships, which leads to disappointment when struggles arise in this dyad, resulting in lower parenting satisfaction (Nelson & Uecker, 2018). Nelson and Uecker believe this perceived failure is hidden in the context of the parent's relationship with other religious individuals. In these relationships, guilt arises, exacerbating the poor parenting perception. While this is a plausible explanation for their findings, their results are an outlier in a larger body of research concerning parenting satisfaction. They also present no

empirical evidence to support their theory.

However, Nelson and Uecker's second hypothesis (2018) was supported and validated by previous research. They found that both religious attendance and religious saliency had a positive correlation to parenting satisfaction. However, they reported that a parent's prayer life did not indicate any correlation to parental satisfaction. They deduced that general religiosity as a whole was not an indicator of parenting satisfaction. However, when the researcher identified various aspects that are sub-categories of religiosity, such as religious tradition, worship attendance, and religious salience, they were able to identify distinct relationships to a parent's satisfaction (Nelson & Uecker, 2018).

Demographic Influences on Parenting Satisfaction

When exploring parenting satisfaction, it is imperative to consider the many demographic influences that may muddle a parent's view of their success as a parent. Research has identified multiple contributing factors, including the parent's and child's gender, a parent's education and employment status, a parent's age, and the number of children the parent has in their care. Each of these factors is addressed as follows:

Parent's Gender.

Garcia-Mainar and associates (2011) report that a significant amount of research has been conducted concerning the satisfaction of parents related to their gender, and this research has indicated significant differences between mothers and fathers. More recently, Kelly Musick and her co-researchers (2016) report that much of this difference between parental genders can be factored into the emotional responses of each gender to the parenting process. Shira Offer (2014) offers a reason for the parental gender difference, reporting that mothers disproportionately engage with their children in routine childcare while fathers spend more time with their children

in leisure activities. Research by Parker and Wang (2013) indicates that mothers spend two times as much time acting as their child's primary caregiver than the child's father and 1.5 times as much time in childcare in general. This trend is common in many Western cultures (Gimenez-Nadal & Sevilla, 2012). The body of research indicates that mothers take a more active role in parenting concerning the day-to-day care of the child, which results in less time available for play with the child (Raley et al., 2012) partly due to the fact that they spend more time alone with their children than the child's father (Kalil et al., 2014).

Musick and her co-researchers (2016) found that 49% of a mother's time with her child is in a solitary environment. In these families, the father tends to take on more of a "helper" role (Latshaw & Hale, 2016; Pedersen, 2012), and his involvement is heavily found in leisure and play activities (Musick et al., 2016; Offer, 2014). Also, mothers tend to spend more time in a dual role as they combine household chores with childcare (Offer, 2014). This all results in mothers reporting higher levels of stress and fatigue than fathers (Connelly & Kimmel, 2015; Roeters & Gracia, 2016) and lower levels of well-being in general (Musick et al., 2016).

Walzer and Czopp (2011) indicated a distinct bias by observers of mothers and fathers in a controlled environment. Walzer and Czopp found that observers judged a mother more harshly than a father in a hypothetical scenario involving an infant death due to parental neglect. Also, when prison time was warranted, mothers consistently received longer sentences than fathers given the same circumstances (Walzer & Czopp, 2011).

Adrian Villicana and her associates (2017) built on this previous work by Walzer and Czopp and found similar results. Villicana discovered that observers objective scores on a parent's "success" in their parenting task varied significantly between mothers and fathers, as mothers were consistently seen as out-performing fathers. This bias continued when determining

custody in hypothetical divorce scenarios unless mothers were observed to fail at a parenting task (Villicana et al., 2017). In this case, they were judged much harsher than fathers in the same situation. Upon reviewing this literature, it becomes clear that there is social and gender bias by a parent's contemporaries, which may be a source of added stress on parents, especially mothers. This topic was explored in-depth in the Parenting and Social Support section earlier in this literature review.

Research by Latshaw and Hale (2016) took a different angle in their study. They analyzed the time used by non-working fathers in homes where the mother was the sole financial contributor to the household. Their findings showed that in most of these families, there was a complete gender role reversal from traditional parenting responsibilities while the mother was at work. However, upon arriving home, traditional roles were resumed during evening and weekend hours.

In another study, Meghan Lee and her associates (2012) evaluated three dependent variables - parenting stress, the parent's perceived satisfaction with their parenting role, and parenting self-efficacy (the belief that the parent could successfully complete a parenting task) using the source of parenting expectations as the independent variable. They analyzed the three dependent variables as subjects responded to whether the parental expectations were derived from social and peer expectations or the parent's own expectations. Their findings indicated that when both mothers and fathers measured the three variables by the expectations of others, mothers reported lower parenting self-efficacy, and fathers reported higher parenting stress. However, when both parents evaluated themselves based on their parenting expectations, both mothers and fathers reported high satisfaction with their parenting. The researcher's findings indicated that both mothers and fathers responded positively when they established their own

expectations of parenting rather than trying to comply with the expectations of others. The fundamental differences between the genders in this study can be found in the parent's responses to external expectations (Lee et al., 2012).

Matthew Henderson and his team of researchers (2016) report that the difference between genders in parenting becomes less when both parents place a high value on religion. As discussed earlier, Henderson found that only two results indicated a slight difference between the parents' genders. They are participating in a religious community and religious saliency. Henderson speculates that this could be due to religious mothers being more involved in child-rearing than fathers and that their connection to the religious community offers additional parental support.

Henderson also indicated that a father's parenting satisfaction increased in direct positive correlation to their religious saliency. This research indicated that fathers gained this satisfaction from internalizing their religious teachings and instituting them in their family relationships. The greater a father perceived that he could accomplish this, the higher his reported parenting satisfaction was (Henderson et al., 2016).

Parent's Age.

Another demographic factor impacting perceived parenting satisfaction concerns a parent's age when their first child is born (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014). Mikko Myrskylä and Rachel Margolis discovered in their research that parents who have their first child at an older age express more happiness and success as parents. The researchers found this is also true of a parent's second child. One reason Myrskylä and Margolis attributed to this finding is that older parents report feeling more ready to have and parent children than younger parents. These older parents also report having more social capital and a higher status at work, which both lighten

stress levels and provide more resources for parenting (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014).

Myrskylä and Margolis also found that while first-time parents between the ages of 18 and 22 indicated declining happiness levels that did not increase above baseline levels even during the year of their child's birth, parents ages 23-34 indicated increasing happiness during this same time. This second group did return to baseline or below within two to three years after their child's birth, though. However, while first-time parents between ages 35 and 49 showed the same increase in happiness during the birth year as the second group, after a slight drop in happiness levels, their happiness remained at or above baseline levels throughout their child's time at home (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014).

These findings hold true until the parents have more than two children. Older parents with three or more children tend to express a decreased sense of happiness (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014).

Parent's Education.

One of the factors influencing parenting satisfaction is the parent's education level. Mikko Myrskylä and Rachel Margolis (2014) discovered in their research that parents with more education express more happiness and perceived success as parents. Mothers with higher education levels also experienced less post-partum depression. Amuedo-Dorantes & Sevilla, 2014 add that these same parents also spend more time with their children in various educational activities and play. Myrskylä and Margolis surmise that these findings may be due to the fact that parents who focused on their education tend to wait until they are older to have children and are more emotionally mature and financially stable.

The earlier research of Nomaguchi and Brown (2011) substantiates the findings of Myrskylä and Margolis, stating that higher levels of parent education gave an opportunity for

more significant resources, thereby easing the anxiety that a parent with less education may feel. However, Namaguchi and Brown also found that this same advanced education led to the parent experiencing greater perceived demands of being successfully involved in a career. This resulted in a reduction of overall life satisfaction and reduced the meaning they received from parenting. This information was also supported by research by Alison Parkes and her associates (2015). So, while the parent may have felt less anxiety about their abilities as a parent, they felt role conflict between their career and parental responsibilities (Nomaguchi & Brown, 2011; Parkes et al., 2015). This conflict and subsequent reduction of life satisfaction needs to be examined further as it may impact a parent's self-reported perception of their overall success as a parent.

Working Parents.

In a world of two-income households, many parents struggle to balance their work environment and parenting responsibilities (Parker & Wang, 2013). Parker and Wang found that 56% of working mothers and 50 % of working fathers report difficulties balancing these two roles.

Musick's (2016) research indicates a direct correlation between a mother's increased involvement in the labor field and the stressful demands on her as a mother. Raley, Bianchi, and Wang (2012) revealed that the reason for this is that as mothers increase their career hours and workload, their childcare responsibilities reduce only minimally. Raley says that the same is not true for fathers. A negative correlation is found when comparing a father's career time expenditure and workload to their involvement with childcare. As career demands increase, childcare availability decreases (Raley et al., 2012). Raley found that the exception to this is the contrast between homes with mothers working outside of the home compared to mothers who are not employed. In cases where the mother is employed outside of the home, the fathers spent an

average of two hours more each week with their child (Raley et al., 2012) as compared to husbands of unemployed mothers.

Marianne Bertrand (2013) found that women reported significantly high scores for personal well-being when they had children or were involved in a career. However, when they did them in tandem, the satisfaction was lower. Roeters and Gracia (2016) had similar findings in their research. They also found that while a working mother had higher stress levels while caring for her child, the exact opposite was true for a father. Roeters and Gracia found that working fathers' stress levels actually lowered when engaging their children during non-working hours. This may have to do with self-imposed feelings of guilt generated by mothers who would rather be home with their child than working (Craig & Mullan, 2013) and the fact that father's involvement with childcare tends to gravitate toward leisure activities instead of child maintenance (Offer, 2014).

Number of Children.

As indicated in a previous section of this review, Mikko Myrskylä and Rachel Margolis (2014) discovered in their research that upon having their first two children, parents express happiness; however, that pleasure was not increased when a third child was added to the mix.

One issue with nearly all of the research studies reviewed for this current research project concerns the question of, “How many children have you had?” in their demographics survey. Herbst and Ifcher (2016) report that only a small handful of the studies separate empty-nesters and non-custodial parents from currently active parents at the time of their studies. This current study addressed this issue by differentiating these respondents via a detailed demographics survey.

Child’s Age.

Roeters and Gracia's (2016) research indicates a significant difference between mothers' and fathers' reported personal well-being regarding the age of the child they have in their care. Their research found that mothers reported childcare was highly meaningful and fulfilling when caring for a pre-teen child and highly stressful when caring for a teenager. However, fathers reported the exact opposite, with their highest reported stress while caring for an infant. Kei Nomaguchi (2012) found that this stress could be measured through a parent's reported quality of relationship with their child, self-esteem level, self-efficacy level, and degree of depression, and was directly impacted by the age of the parent's oldest child. Nomaguchi also found that these measures of personal well-being became less significant when a measure of satisfaction with their parenting performance was included (Nomaguchi, 2012).

Single Parents.

Chris Herbst (2012) found that the group of parents that display the least life satisfaction of any parent is single parents. Ifcher and Zarghamee (2014) indicate that single parents account for over 40% of U.S. births, up from 10% in 1970. Kelly Musick and her co-researchers (2016) found similar numbers of single parents in their research, as 26% of their female and 7 % of their male respondents indicated they were single.

Ifcher and Zarghamee's (2014) research found that single mothers were 46% less likely to report on their survey that they were "very happy ." In fact, these women reported less happiness than all other women regardless of whether the other respondents had children or were married. Their research also indicated that these single mothers were more likely to be experiencing poor or fair health, not have graduated high school, be non-white, and report half of the income as other respondents (Ifcher & Zarghamee, 2014).

Research indicates single parents typically report lower access to emotional support

(Parkes et al., 2015), a painful and complicated separation or divorce and financial struggles (Baranowska-Rataj et al., 2014), and an absence of anyone else in their lives to share in the physical child-rearing responsibilities (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014), which all may indicate reasons for the lack of happiness in single mothers. Myrskylä and Margolis explain that parents' separation often fractures the child's relationship with one set of grandparents and reduces the resources available to the custodial parent in the form of childcare and emotional support. In cases where the single parent is also the product of a single-parent household, there is the potential for even more reduction of support resources from that generation (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014). Myrskylä and Margolis explain that this parental situation often results in over-utilizing the one available grandparent and a subsequent strain in that relationship, furthering the lack of emotional support for the single parent. Ifcher and Zarghamee (2014) also indicate that parenting satisfaction decreases when the youngest child is six or younger.

Herbst (2012) and Ifcher and Zarghamee (2014) both report that while these statistics reveal a struggling reality, the trend for single mothers is that they are experiencing more happiness as of 2008 than in 1972. Ifcher and Zarghamee suggest that one possible explanation for this is that many more single mothers may be cohabitating with a partner, friend, or extended family member who helps with many parenting responsibilities. While this is a plausible suggestion, Ifcher and Zarghamee acknowledge that no research is present to substantiate this theory.

Matthew Henderson and his fellow researchers (2016) add a twist to all of these reported findings from Herbst, Ifcher, and Zargamee though. Henderson's research indicated that when a mother or father places a high value on religion, they report consistent parenting satisfaction levels regardless of whether they are married, single, or cohabitating.

Parenting Routines

This research study's definition of parenting routines is taken from the Family Times and Routines Index developed by Hamilton McCubbin, Marilyn McCubbin, and Anne Thompson in 2012. They state that parenting routines are any family time together and routines families adopt as indicators of family integration and stability (McCubbin et al., 2012). This includes any routine, technique, skill, or method used by a parent when interacting with their child during the act of parenting. Unlike the purpose of this current research project, which will assess parenting routines as they relate to parent satisfaction, most previous research has been conducted pertaining to parenting routines and drug use (Cioffi et al., 2019), child eating habits (Moore et al., 2018), general parenting intervention (Tully et al., 2017), play intervention (Shah et al., 2017), music intervention (Teggelove et al., 2019), teen parenting (Brown et al., 2018), externalizing and aggressive youth behaviors (Bornstein et al., 2018; Chen & Raine, 2018), youth emotional development and adjustment (García-Linares et al., 2018; Murry & Lippold, 2018), youth academic achievement (Hill et al., 2018), and racial and ethnic issues (Doyle et al., 2017).

The closest study related to this present research topic was the relationship between parenting routines and marital satisfaction (Pedro et al., 2012). Pedro and her co-researchers discovered that marital satisfaction was elevated when parents co-parented. While Pedro's study did not indicate any specific parenting routines that contributed to the satisfaction, it does introduce the concept of parents acting together when parenting. Pedro reported that the more couples were united in the form of co-parenting, the higher their level of marital satisfaction. Their findings also indicated that when one parent's marital satisfaction was elevated over the other parent, it had a positive influence on the other parent's relationship with their children,

resulting in stronger parent-child relationships and the enhancement of respect, cooperation, and commitment between parents (Pedro et al., 2012).

Parenting Styles

Maryam Farzand and her fellow researchers (2017) report that increased global research concerning the impact of parenting styles on children in recent years indicates a growing interest in and importance of this field of study. In order to comprehend the full implications of parenting styles on the perceived success of a parent, there must be a clear understanding of parenting styles and their relationship to parent/child interaction, as well as consistency in the execution of style. A clearer understanding of parenting satisfaction can be established when these variables are determined. The literature pertinent to this research is addressed as follows.

The Authoritative Parenting Style.

Diana Baumrind (1966, 1996) and Macoby and Martin (1983) explain that within the authoritative parenting style, there is an interdependence between the behavioral compliance of a child and their psychological autonomy. Children are expected to respect adult authority while being free to engage in an independent thought process (Baumrind, 1966, 1996; Macoby & Martin, 1983). This premise has become the foundation for study and research in this field for the last half-century Powers (2013). In an effort to test Macoby and Martin's 1983 advancement of Baumrind's original 1966 work on parenting styles, Susie Lamborn and her associates (1991) conducted research that confirmed earlier theories that children with authoritative parents maintained the highest levels of academic performance when compared to children of each of the three other parenting styles. Gustavo Carlo and his team of researchers (2018) point out that parents utilizing an authoritative parenting style were also more likely to have children who expressed prosocial behaviors, which positively correlated to higher academic performance.

Carlo found that this relationship was more substantial with authoritative mothers than authoritative fathers, indicating the possibility that there may be a more significant correlation pertaining to the responsive aspect of the parenting style than the demanding aspect; however, further research has not been discovered to confirm this theory.

Sofie Kuppens and Eva Ceulemans (2018) took the research on authoritative parenting to a deeper level. Their investigation evaluated hundreds of parents utilizing an authoritative parenting style to determine what parenting behaviors increased positive behavioral outcomes. Their findings indicated that parents who focused more on rule-setting and positive expectations rather than the punishment aspect of discipline produced children with higher positive behavioral outcomes.

Farzand and his co-researchers (2017), however, believe that the success of the authoritative parenting style may be due to the environment in which it manifests. They conducted an empirical study on available research from 2008-2017 concerning parenting styles. They found that when parents utilize an authoritative parenting style, an environment is created in which the child develops a willingness to learn and be parented. One explanation for this environment is that parents who displayed elements of the authoritative parenting style were more sensitive to their children's needs and emotions and gave their children the freedom to express their desires and feelings (Ashioni & Mwoma, 2013). Bingham and his associates (2017) report another possible explanation: authoritative parents tend to spend more time interacting with their children, including time spent learning and studying. They found that an authoritative parenting style was directly associated with the parental practices of reading with their child at home and actively teaching reading skills.

While each of these research studies agrees that the authoritative parenting style has the

highest correlation to a child's academic performance and behavior, none definitively identify specific parenting routines within the authoritative parenting style as key contributors to parenting satisfaction.

Consistency in A Parenting Style.

While each of the four parenting styles has been well documented in their correlation to a child's development and behavior, Inam and associates (2016) show a negative correlation between the use of inconsistent parenting styles and child performance. They contend that this may occur as two parents each have different parenting styles, or it may be a discrepancy in one or both parents' ability to maintain a consistent style. In milder forms of this scenario, a parent's parenting style generally reflects recurring patterns of parental behaviors, practices, and values (Inam et al., 2016). Estlein (2016) reports that these patterns, while unstable, do vary consistently and often result in differing relationships between each parent and child. When this occurs, the child adapts to the differences and responds appropriately to each of the parents; in extreme cases, this inconsistency of parenting tends to create an environment in which the child becomes uncertain of parental expectations and may become anxious (Estlein, 2016). Each of these factors surrounding parenting style indicates variables impacting parenting satisfaction and must be isolated when conducting research in this area.

Review of Assessment Tools and Process

Parenting Satisfaction Scales.

One concern discovered during this literature research was the blurred line between the assessment of parenting satisfaction and general life satisfaction (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016; Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015). Recently, Justin Nelson and Jeremy Uecker (2018) developed their own survey tool to assess parenting satisfaction; however,

there are various tools available, including the Self-Perceptions of the Parenting Role (SPPR), Parental Self-Agency Measure (PSAM), and Parenting Sense of Competency Scale (PSOCS) which have been validated to a greater extent than Nelson and Uecker's tool.

Thomas Jungert and his team of researchers (2015) report that the SPPR utilizes 22 items to assess four aspects of the parenting role. It evaluates competence, satisfaction, investment, and role balance. Each question is derived from two contrasting statements establishing the poles at either end of a spectrum. The respondent is asked to select their position on the spectrum. Cronbach's *a* scores for the competence and satisfaction scales were .75. No information was available for the investment and role balance scales.

The PSAM, a ten-item survey that measures a parent's overall perception of their ability to function as a parent successfully, is a shorter assessment tool than the SPPR. In 1996, Larry Dumka and his associates evaluated the PSAM and reduced the items to only five, significantly improving the tool's validity and reliability. Internal consistency increased to $a = .85$.

These two tools, the SPPR and PSAM, were only used in isolated instances in the literature found for this review; however, the PSOCS has been widely used over the last four decades (Gilmore & Cuskelly, 2008; Hess et al., 2002; Johnston & Mash, 1989; Karp et al., 2015; Ohan et al., 2000; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015; Rogers & Matthews, 2004; Weyand et al., 2013). The PSOCS was developed in 1978 by Jonatha Gibaud-Wallston as part of her Ph.D. dissertation (Rogers & Matthews, 2004). It is a 17-item scale designed initially to measure the parenting satisfaction of the parents of infants. The PSOCS contains two subscales: skill/knowledge (8 items) and valuing/comfort (9 items). The skill/knowledge subscale evaluates capability, competence, and problem-solving ability, while the value/comfort subscale reflects anxiety, frustration, and motivation. This second subscale is the one that more clearly indicates a

parent's parenting satisfaction (Rogers & Matthews, 2004). The tool was intended to score the subscales as a dyad or separately. The higher the score, the greater the perceived parenting competence (Karp et al., 2015). Gibaud-Wallston's initial study utilizing the PSOCS resulted in Chronbach alpha scores of .80 and .69 for the subscales skill/knowledge and valuing/comfort, respectively. When scored in combination, the Chronbach alpha was .80.

In 1989, Johnston and Mash renamed the two subscales. Skill/knowledge became "efficacy" (8 items), and valuing/comfort became "satisfaction" (9 items) (Johnston & Mash, 1989). They also substituted the word "child" in any item that originally used the word "infant" to make the tool usable for parents of older children. Their amended scale quickly gained notoriety and became widely used. In 2004, Rogers and Matthews discovered that the satisfaction scale demonstrated a strong correlation to a parent's parenting style (Rogers & Matthew, 2004). The more controlling and overactive a parent was, the lower their satisfaction score was. Conversely, the more authoritative the parent was, the higher their satisfaction scores. This finding was unintended, and further research is needed to establish consistency in this correlation.

Parenting Practices Assessment Tools.

While each of the measures in both the Parenting Practices Questionnaire (PPQ) and the Parenting Style and Dimension Questionnaire (PSDQ) are descriptive of the parenting style, they are general and do not identify a wide variety of specific parenting routines, so a separate tool is necessary to identify these factors. Since the general purpose of the Family Times and Routine Index (FTRI) is to measure family integration and stability, it is a more useful tool for this study. The FTRI is a 32-item assessment examining family time together and the routines they adopt (Corcoran & Fischeer, 2013). These 32 individual items present parenting factors measured

across eight family life categories. This tool assesses both the action carried out by the parent as well as the importance that the parent places on that action (Larson & Miller-Bishoff, 2014). Each statement on the FTRI uses two four-point Likert scales to qualify the answers. The first scale records the accuracy of the statement as false, mostly false, mostly true, and true. The second scale records the importance of the activity as not important, somewhat important, very important, or not applicable. The FTRI has good concurrent validity, displaying significant correlations with the Family Bonding scale of FACES II, the Family Coherence scale of F-COPES, the Family Celebration Index, and the Quality of Family Life. It also demonstrates high internal reliability with an alpha of .88 (McCubbin et al., 2012, pp. 338-341).

The Comprehensive General Parenting Questionnaire (CGPQ) is a final assessment tool reviewed here. The CGPQ was developed in 2014 by Ester Sleddens and her associates to assess general parenting due to their finding that most existing instruments designed to assess parenting factors were limited, and none were comprehensive in their scope (Sleddens et al., 2014). The CGPQ is comprised of 85 statements that are responded to using a five-point Likert scale with choices ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. It identifies and details 17 parenting practices within five key parenting constructs, which categorize significant differences in parenting implementation (Sleddens, 2017).

In 2014, Sledden validated the CGPQ when it contained its original 62 items, but 23 more were added to increase the reliability, and it was retested. Cronbach's alpha scores for each construct were finally listed as follows: Nurturance 0.74, Overprotection 0.63, Coercive Control 0.63, Structure 0.53, and Behavioral Control 0.33 (Philips et al., 2014).

Self-Assessment Issues.

A Pew Research Study on Modern Parenting Trends (Parker & Wang, 2013) noted that

just over 18% of all parents reported that they had done an excellent job parenting, while 45% reported doing a very good job. Those indicating they did a good or fair job were 24% and 6%, respectively. While these numbers are factually based on the research, they open the door for questions concerning bias in self-reporting (De Los Reyes, 2013). Discrepancies between parents' reported behaviors of their children and actual behavior often result in a failure to recognize signs of impending issues, missed diagnosis, and treatment errors (De Los Reyes, 2013). This concern can also be applied to parental behaviors. Other factors that skew data during collection include the physical and emotional state of the subject at the time of data collection, such as mood, purpose, recent significant life events, current life circumstances, and recent sleep patterns (Diener et al., 2013; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012). Physical illness, aches and pains, emotional distress, and sleep quantity all influence a respondent's attitude when presenting information via self-assessment and must be considered during research (Diener et al., 2013).

Research by Shannon Bennetts and her cohorts (2016) of over 400 parent/child dyads indicated poor agreement between parents' self-assessment of their parenting behaviors compared to directly measured behaviors. They concluded that parents are responsible reporters when assessing extreme issues in their children but unreliable reporters when assessing unremarkable child performance or their own parenting behaviors (Bennets et al., 2016).

Culture is another consideration for the assessment tools used. While Ishak, Low, and Lau (2012) researched the topic of parenting styles and academic performance, their study was limited to students of Malaysian, Chinese, and Indian nationalities. The assessment tool Ishak and associates used was the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), a tool evaluated for use in Western cultures. It is imperative that the assessment tool has been evaluated for use in the culture in which the study takes place.

De Los Reyes (2013) Recommends that in order to help alleviate some of these issues in research, the researcher should secure assessments from multiple persons involved in the research objective. When researching parent behaviors, researchers should utilize self-assessment tools for the parents and observations by the researcher, along with child reports concerning their parent's actions. These three assessment mediums would reveal a more accurate picture of what is being studied (De Los Reyes, 2013). However, prohibitive issues with this process involve cost, the extended time it would take to achieve the data, and securing multiple subjects willing to participate in the study (De Los Reyes, 2013).

Summary

While many studies investigate the happiness and well-being of parents, none were found that specifically reported on a parent's perceived parenting satisfaction in conjunction with an analysis of parenting routines that may contribute to that satisfaction. It has been established that there are many contributors to parenting satisfaction, such as parent's gender, age, education, employment, and marital status, along with the number of children and children's ages (Connelly & Kimmel, 2015; Herbst and Ifcher, 2016; Jungert et al., 2015; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015). Moreover, to conduct a study as proposed in this paper, these factors must be isolated in the research process to control the variables during data analysis. Parenting style is also a contributing factor to parenting success, with the authoritative style showing the most significant results (Carlo et al., 2018; Lamborn et al., 1991); however, little research has been done to link parenting style to parenting satisfaction.

The impact of social support is also an influencer of parenting satisfaction (Herbst and Ifcher, 2016; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015; Whitson et al., 2011). With the increase of social media outlets such as Facebook, Twitter, and blogs, there is instant access to infinite

amounts of information, some of which is factual and some that is misleading or even false (Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015). All of this information, good and bad, has a direct impact on a parent's perception of their parenting abilities and perceived success. While Ponomartchouk & Bouchard's research indicated that increased social support leads to higher self-esteem in mothers, resulting in a more positive self-view of their parenting, they admitted that there may be other confounding variables that were impacting these findings. This suggests that further research is needed in this area to identify how social media factors influence parenting satisfaction.

Religion is another influencer of parenting satisfaction (Mahoney et al., 2020) and must be controlled when investigating parenting satisfaction. Many studies have been done concerning the relationship between religious involvement and life satisfaction, and some studies have been done investigating the relationship between religious involvement and parenting satisfaction; however, no in-depth study has been found that assesses religious involvement with parenting satisfaction as it pertains to parenting routines.

The literature reviewed in this paper has identified many studies pertaining to individual pieces of the subject matter in this research project; however, none were found that link both of the variables of this study: parenting satisfaction and parenting routines.

Chapter Three: Methods

Overview

This study was designed to investigate parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. There are many challenges that a parent may face when raising a child: chores, fear and anxiety, demand for attention, bedtime routines, disobedience, sibling arguments, homework struggles, and temper tantrums, to name a few, and how a parent handles these situations, and the outcomes of them, influences that parent's perception of their success (Rasmussen, 2014). This study examined these factors in order to identify parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction. The following pages outline the specific research questions and hypothesis, identify eligible participants, define the research instrumentation, explain the project's procedural process, and identify the data analysis utilized.

Design

This research is a quantitative study of the correlation between various parenting routines and that same parent's perceived parenting satisfaction. Due to this simple association, a quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design will be utilized (Heppner et al., 2016, p. 295). This research method is used to describe two or more independent variables and their relationships as they impact the dependent variable. In this research project, there are multiple questions in the surveys that comprise each independent variable, and by using a quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design, the impact of each question can be determined as it relates to all of the others.

The value of this design is the ability to quickly and relatively easily determine possible relationships among the independent and dependent variables. This design allowed the researcher

to either rule out causal relationships or identify them as an indicator that a more in-depth study may be warranted.

Research Questions

This study was designed to investigate parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. The research questions are as follows:

RQ1: Do the parenting routines a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child impact the parent's satisfaction with their parenting?

RQ2: Do the parenting routines a parent engages in when families participate in activities together as a family unit impact the parent's satisfaction with their parenting?

Hypotheses

This study was designed to investigate parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. The results of this research were expected to determine the following:

Ha1: There are specific routines that a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child each day that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.

Ha2: There are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.

Participants and Setting

The participants of this study were solicited via two methods. The first respondents were drawn from a convenience sample of the student body enrolled in the School of Behavioral Sciences at Liberty University during the school year of 2023. A blanket email was sent to

students following administrative approval from the school and IRB approval of the research project. The second method was through the distribution of solicitation flyers at churches agreeing to participate in the study. The IRB-approved flyer was distributed upon securing written agreement from the church administration. Qualification for participation required that the respondent must have been at least 18 and currently parented one or more children in their place of residence. Those individuals who qualified to participate and responded to the email or the flyer became part of the sample population assessed in this research. Participation was strictly voluntary.

Determining the sample size for this research was based on the desire to achieve an Alpha of .05 (confidence interval of 95%) with a statistical power of .90 and a squared population correlation coefficient of .10. This combination warranted a sample size of 100 (Warner, 2013, p. 300-301), which is the minimum suggested number of participants in any correlation study. However, when initial data screening was finalized, the population totaled 88. This meant that in order to maintain a confidence interval of 95% and a correlation coefficient of .10, the statistical power had to be reduced to 85%. This resulted in the minimum population for this study being set at N =85, which is below the actual participant number of 88.

The rationale for maintaining the confidence level at 95% and the squared population correlation coefficient at .10 is the desire to keep the risk of a Type I error low and eliminate the rejection of H_0 when H_0 is actually true (Warner, 2013, p. 85). By lowering the statistical power from .90 to .85, the study loses some strength and raises the risk of a Type II error. This results in the greater possibility of not rejecting H_0 when H_0 is actually false; however, statistical power is still above .80, which is the recommended lower limit of statistical power for correlation studies (Warner, 2013, p.108).

Instrumentation

Demographic Questionnaire

A general demographics questionnaire was administered to collect basic participant information, including age, gender, cultural background, relationship status, employment, economic status, number and age of children, and education. The inclusion of each item on the demographic questionnaire was influenced by the findings and limitations of previous research studies included in this proposal's literature review. Limiting the confounding variables that impacted previous research was necessary to limit that impact in this study. This included the following items (Each item number referenced indicates the item number on the demographic questionnaire):

- Number of children (item 1) (Herbst and Ifcher, 2016; Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014),
- child's ages (items 2 &3) (Roeters & Gracia, 2016),
- parent's gender (item 4) (Connelly & Kimmel, 2015; Garcia-Mainar et al., 2011; Musick et al., 2016; Roeters & Gracia, 2016),
- parent's age (item 5) (Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014),
- parent's education (item 6) (Nomaguchi & Brown, 2011; Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014),
- working parents (items 7 & 8) (Bertrand, 2013; Nomaguchi & Brown, 2011; Parker & Wang, 2013),
- parent's relationship status (item 9) (Herbst, 2012; Ifcher & Zarghamee, 2014),
- co-parenting situation (item 10) (McCubbin et al., 2012),
- parenting approach (item 11) (Estlein, 2016; Inam et al., 2016; Parker & Wang, 2013),

- religious involvement (items 12, 13, & 14) (Balswick & Balswick, 2014; Henderson et al., 2016; Nelson & Uecker, 2018; Petts, 2012),
- self-reporting influencers (items 15, 16, 17 & 18) (Diener et al., 2013; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012),
- and the parent's social support (items 19 & 20) (Brown et al., 2018; Leahy-Warren, 2014; McDaniel et al., 2012; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015; Strange et al., 2018; Whitson et al., 2011).

The total length of the demographic questionnaire was 20 items (Appendix A - Assessment Instruments - Demographic Questionnaire)

Family Time and Routines Index (FTRI)

The assessment tool utilized in this study to collect independent variable data concerning the time and type of routines parents spend interacting with their children one-on-one or engaged in activities together as a family unit was the 32-item Family Time and Routines Index (FTRI) developed by Hamilton McCubbin, Marilyn McCubbin, and Anne Thompson in 1986 (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013). Each item on the assessment examines an aspect of family time together and the routines that the family adopts (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013).

The FTRI measures the routines across eight subscales of family life: Child Routines (four items), Couple's Togetherness (four items), Meals Together (two items), Parent-Child Togetherness (five items), Family Togetherness (four items), Relative's Connection (four items), Family Chores (two items), and Family Management (five items) (McCubbin, & Sievers, 2016). Child Routines assesses the child's sense of autonomy and order. Couple Togetherness is centered around communication between the couple. Meals Together addresses routines around promoting togetherness in the family during mealtime. Parent-Child Togetherness assesses the

family's focus on communication between parents and their children. Family Togetherness examines the family's emphasis on time spent together as a family, including special events and quiet times. Relatives Connection Routines assesses the family's effort to make meaningful connections with extended family. Family Chores Routines focuses on promoting a child's responsibilities in the family unit. Finally, Family Management Routines focus on the family's routines, promoting family organization and accountability. While the overall focus of the FTRI is to measure family routines and family health, when each subscale is addressed separately, the tool becomes useful to the researcher to assess individual parenting routines. Data collected from the Parent-Child Togetherness and the Family Time Together subscales of the FTRI was used to establish the eight independent variables for use in this study.

The actual items on the FTRI are divided into different groupings than those organized on the subscales. The categories on the actual assessment are Work Day and Leisure Time Routines (ten items), Parent Routines (four items), Family Bedtime Routines (two items), Family Meals (two items), Extended Family Routines (four items), Leaving and Coming Home (four items), Family Disciplinary Routines (two items), and Family Chores (four items). No explanation was found to clarify this difference between the subscales listed when scoring the tool and the organizational structure of the assessment.

The appealing factor for this tool is that it assesses both the action carried out by the parent as well as the importance that the parent places on that action (Larson & Miller-Bishoff, 2014). Each statement on the FTRI is measured across two separate Likert scales. The first is a four-point scale to record the "accuracy of the statement" as false, mostly false, mostly true, and true. The value of each answer is zero through three, respectively. The second scale records the "importance of the activity" to the respondent as not important, somewhat important, or very

important. The value of each answer on this scale is zero through two, respectively. The respondent also has the option of declaring any item as "Not Applicable" if the content of that item does not apply to their situation. In cases when this option is selected, the item has been removed from consideration during analysis.

To score the FTRI, the researcher calculates the mean of the items under each subscale. The total possible values for each subscale will range from six to 15, and the total possible high score for the "accuracy of the statement" for families with preschool or school-aged children is 96 (McCubbin & Sievers, 2016). The total average score is 65 (McCubbin & Sievers, 2016).

The FTRI has good concurrent validity displaying significant correlations with the Family Bonding scale of FACES II, the Family Coherence scale of F-COPES, the Family Celebration Index and Quality of Family Life. It also demonstrates high internal reliability with an alpha of .88 (McCubbin et al., 2012, pp. 338-341).

No training is required to utilize the FTRI. A copy of the FTRI and scoring instructions are included in Appendix A.

Parenting Sense of Competency Scale (PSOCS)

The PSOCS was developed in 1978 by Jonatha Gibaud-Wallston as part of her Ph.D. dissertation and presented the following year in Toronto at a meeting of the American Psychological Association (Gibaud-Wallston & Wandersman, 1978). It was initially designed to measure parenting competence in the parents of infants. A decade later, it was adapted by Johnston and Mash (1989) to be used by parents of children up to nine years of age by changing the word "infant" in any item with the word "child ."Finally, Gilmore and Cuskelly (2008) validated its' use with children up to 18 years of age.

The PSOCS is a 17-item scale that contains two subscales, "parental efficacy" and

"parental satisfaction ."The parenting efficacy subscale evaluates capability, competence, and problem-solving ability. In contrast, the parental satisfaction subscale reflects anxiety, frustration, and motivation and more clearly indicates a parent's overall parenting satisfaction (Rogers & Matthews, 2004) as it pertains to serenity and mastery. The tool was intended to score the subscales either together as a dyad or separately.

Each item on the scale is rated on a 6-point Likert scale from “Strongly Disagree” (1 point) to “Strongly Agree” (6 points). Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 14, and 16 make up the satisfaction subscale and are all reverse coded when scored (1=6, 2=5, 3=4, 4=3, 5=2, 6=1). Items from each of the subscales are totaled to establish subscale scores for the PSOCS. A higher subscale score indicates a higher parenting sense of efficacy or satisfaction. The total score of both subscales indicates a higher overall sense of parenting competency (Karp et al., 2015). The total possible score is 102, with the average score ranging from 64-83 (Johnston & Mash, 1989; Karp et al., 2015)

The parenting satisfaction subscale in the PSOCS was utilized in this study to establish the dependent variable. These nine items measured parenting satisfaction and were assessed to indicate a parent's general satisfaction with their parenting effectiveness. The highest possible score on this scale is 54.

Gibaud-Wallston's initial study utilizing the PSOCS resulted in Chronbach alpha scores of .80 and .69 for the subscales parental efficacy and parental satisfaction, respectively. When scored in combination, the Chronbach alpha was .80. The internal consistency was determined to be .82. When Johnston and Mash used the PSOCS with older children, they found that internal consistency was .75. Gilmore and Cuskelly derived an internal consistency of .72 with mothers and .76 with fathers of children up to 18 years old (Annenberg Institute for School Reform at

Brown University, n.d.). Gibaud-Walstom and Wandersman also reported test-retest scores ranging from .46 to .82. While some criterion validity scores were low, they were attributed to child behavioral issues. Construct validity scores have been consistent throughout the many years of use of the PSOCS (Karp et al., 2015).

No training is required to utilize the PSOCS. This assessment tool is listed as free of charge. It is categorized as open access (Annenberg Institute for School Reform at Brown University, n.d.), indicating that its' use is preauthorized by the tool's authors. A copy of the PSOCS and scoring instructions are included in Appendix A.

Procedures

This research was designed to investigate parenting practices in an effort to identify specific parenting routines utilized by parents that correlate with perceived parenting success or failure. It drew its data from three self-administered surveys.

The participants of this study were solicited via two methods. The first respondents were drawn from a convenience sample of the student body enrolled in the School of Behavioral Sciences at Liberty University during the school year of 2023. A blanket email was sent to students following administrative approval from the school and IRB approval of the research project. The second method was through the distribution of solicitation flyers at churches agreeing to participate in the study. The IRB-approved flyer was distributed upon securing written agreement from the church administration.

Qualification for participation in this research was that the respondent must have been at least 18 years of age and parent one or more children in their place of residence. Those parents who desired to participate and followed the online link were greeted by a consent page that briefly described the research and contained an explanation of the consent form. By clicking the

"consent" button, they consented to participate in this study and were taken to the surveys.

The first survey they encountered was a 20-item basic demographics questionnaire. Completion of this opened an online version of the 32-item FTRI. Parents were given instructions for completing this assessment, and upon completion of the final question on the FTRI, the Parental Satisfaction Subscale of the PSOCS automatically opened. Instructions were then given for completing this 9-item survey. Finally, after completing the FTRI, a thank you message greeted them to finish the process.

Data from the Parental Satisfaction Subscale of the PSOCS was used as the dependent variable, and data from the Demographics Survey, along with the eight subscales of the FTRI, was used to establish the independent variables for use in this study. Raw data was entered into the SPSS program for analysis via a quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design utilizing Pearson's *r* and multiple regression after testing for normal distribution and eliminating outliers.

The full results of this study are being presented to Liberty University as a dissertation.

Data Analysis

Variables

This research project investigated parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. This study has one dependent variable identified as "a parent's satisfaction with their parenting" and is defined by the total score of the Parenting Satisfaction Subscale of the PSOCS. This tool identifies a parent's beliefs regarding their general satisfaction with their parenting effectiveness.

The independent variables, Child Routines, Couple's Togetherness, Meals Together, Parent-Child Togetherness, Family Togetherness, Relative's Connection, Family Chores, and

Family Management, have been collected via the eight subscales of the FTRI. Five of these subscales were used to examine Ha1, and the other three were used to examine Ha2.

The impact these independent variables have on the dependent variable has been independently analyzed. All assessments were administered to the parents online between March and November 2023.

Analysis

This research proposal involves two hypotheses centered around investigating parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction. For this reason, a quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design focusing on simple correlation was utilized (Heppner et al., 2016, p. 295). Understanding the linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables is crucial in this study. This was accomplished using Pearson's *r* (Warner, 2013, p. 261-314) and multiple linear regression.

To begin this process, a preliminary data screening was done utilizing a histogram to test for normal distribution of each independent variable. This analysis checked for skewness and kurtosis. A second preliminary assessment, a bivariate scatter plot, was then utilized to test for linear relationships by analyzing each independent variable against the dependent variable. Completing the scatterplot also identified outliers that may have impacted linear relationships and were then dealt with appropriately. The final results determined which independent variables are linearly related to the dependent variable.

Once an independent variable was identified as having a positive linear relationship with the dependent variable, the data was then analyzed to determine the strength of that relationship using Pearson's *r* (Warner, 2013, p. 261-314). A final analysis was then done using multiple linear regression. This analysis process determined which independent variables have the most

significant impact on perceived parenting satisfaction.

Validity

When conducting research utilizing the proposed quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design, there is always a potential for statistical validity issues due to Type I and Type II errors (Heppner et al., 2016, pp. 141-142).

There were a few ways of reducing the risk of Type I error in this study. One was to remove any outliers before analyzing the data in a Pearson's *r*. This was checked for via a scatterplot and boxplot. A second way to reduce the chance of this type of error was to conduct a cross-validation study. In this process, the N is randomly divided into two separate groups, and the same analysis is conducted on each group; then, the two groups' statistics are compared with each other for consistency. The concern with the cross-validation study for this research was that there was not a suitable number of study participants. A final way of reducing the potential for Type I errors in this study was to conduct a Bonferroni Procedure (Warner, 2013, p. 284). While this is possible, it is a very conservative approach. It may actually limit the potential to find correlations, create low statistical power, and cause a Type II error, so it was not used.

However, the risk of Type I errors can be alleviated by increasing the N (Heppner et al., 2016, p. 143). Since the cross-validation study and the Bonferroni Procedure both require additional subjects, they were not a possible solution for this study.

For this study, it was not desired to conduct a Bonferroni Procedure and risk a potential Type II error, so it was determined that the N would be increased, and all outliers would be dealt with individually in an appropriate manner.

Summary

There are many challenges that a parent may face when raising a child: chores, fear and

anxiety, demand for attention, bedtime routines, disobedience, sibling arguments, homework struggles, and temper tantrums, to name a few, and how a parent handles these situations, and the outcomes of them, influences that parent's perception of their success (Rasmussen, 2014). This study was designed to investigate family interactions in an effort to identify specific parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction. A quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design was employed utilizing Pearson's *r* and multiple regression to analyze the data in an effort to identify any possible correlations.

Chapter Four: Findings

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation study was to investigate relationships between parental satisfaction, as derived from the Parenting Satisfaction Subscale of the PSOCS, and parent-child and family interactions, revealed in the eight subscales of the FTRI: Child Routines, Couple's Togetherness, Meals Together, Parent-Child Togetherness, Family Togetherness, Relative's Connection, Family Chores, and Family Management. This chapter reviews the descriptive statistics of the data collected, followed by an analysis utilizing Pearson's *r* (Warner, 2013, p. 261-314) and multiple linear regression to determine the strength of the relationships.

Now that the demographics have been established, the next step in identifying the linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables involves testing for the normal distribution of both types of variables. This process begins with analyzing the eight independent variables and then examines the dependent variable.

Descriptive Statistics

Independent Variables

When reviewing the descriptive statistics for the mean, median, and mode of the independent variables (Table 1), it is noted that the mode and median are relatively close together in many of the variables, indicating evidence of potentially symmetrical distribution and central tendency.

Table 1

Mean, Median, and Mode - Independent Variables

		Total Score FTRI Child Routines Subscale	Total Score FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale	Total Score FTRI Meals Together Subscale	Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale	Total Score FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale	Total Score FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale	Total Score FTRI Family Chores Subscale	Total Score FTRI Family Management Subscale
N	Valid	88	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		5.534	4.793	5.318	5.486	6.506	5.568	4.648	5.618
Median		5.500	4.750	5.500	5.400	6.750	5.750	5.000	5.700
Mode		5.25[a]	4.75	5.50	5.60	7.25	7.00	7.00	6.60

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

However, to further evaluate distribution, a test for skewness and kurtosis was conducted (Table 2). Evaluating the skewness and kurtosis revealed that the FTRI Child Routines Subscale data is highly negatively skewed since the value is greater than -1. Five of the seven remaining independent variables are moderately negatively skewed since the data is between -1 and -0.5. Only the Parent-Child Togetherness and the Family Togetherness subscales indicate skewness within normal distribution; however, they are slightly negatively skewed even then.

When evaluating Kurtosis, the FTRI Child Routines, Couples Togetherness, and Family Management Subscales are all leptokurtic (greater than +1), indicating that the data points are spread out. The remainder of the subscales are within normal distribution limits.

Table 2

Skewness and Kurtosis Tests - Independent Variables

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Total Score FTRI Child Routines Subscale	88	-1.385	.257	4.607	.508
Total Score FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale	88	-.787	.257	1.294	.508
Total Score FTRI Meals Together Subscale	88	-.632	.257	.248	.508
Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness	88	-.239	.257	.312	.508
Total Score FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale	88	-.357	.257	-.581	.508
Total Score FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale	88	-.950	.257	.487	.508
Total Score FTRI Family Chores Subscale	88	-.641	.257	-.262	.508
Total Score FTRI Family Management Subscale	88	-.861	.257	1.262	.508
Valid N (listwise)	88				

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was then conducted to further detail the data's normalcy (Table 3). Since scores of non-normalcy on this test are indicated by a significance of < 0.05, it

is determined that the only normally distributed subscale is the Family Management subscale D(88) = .086, p = .151.

Table 3

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test - Independent Variables

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score FTRI Child Routines Subscale	.116	88	.006
Total Score FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale	.099	88	.033
Total Score FTRI Meals Together Subscale	.141	88	<.001
Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness	.103	88	.022
Total Score FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale	.111	88	.009
Total Score FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale	.138	88	<.001
Total Score FTRI Family Chores Subscale	.122	88	.003
Total Score FTRI Family Management Subscale	.086	88	.151

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The next step in this process was to run histograms, Q-plots (Figures 1 - 8), and boxplots (Figure 9). The histograms and Q-plots revealed a visual picture of skewness and kurtosis, indicating all of the subscales except Family Togetherness (Figure 5) had data points on the lower end of the theoretical normal line distanced from the expected normal distribution.

Figure 1

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Child Routines Subscale

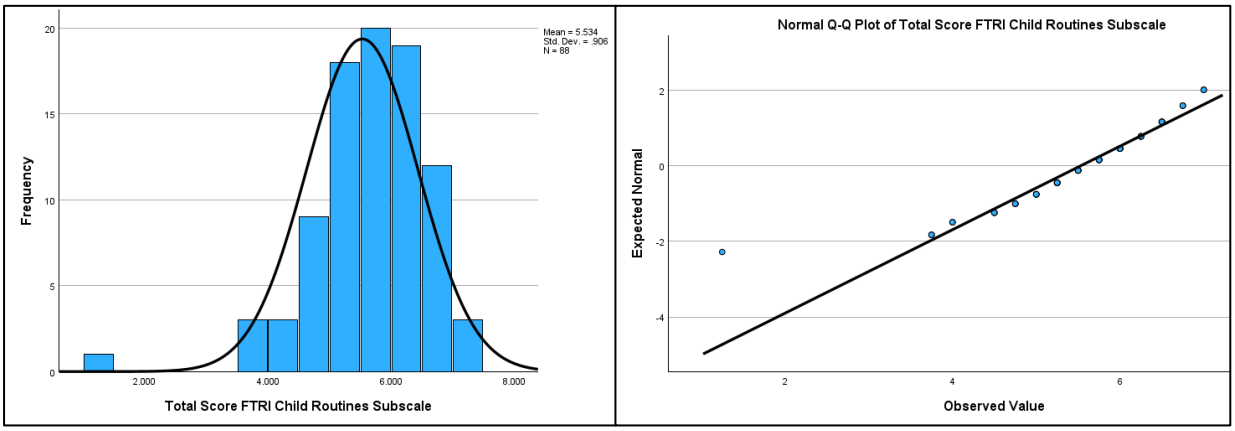


Figure 2

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale

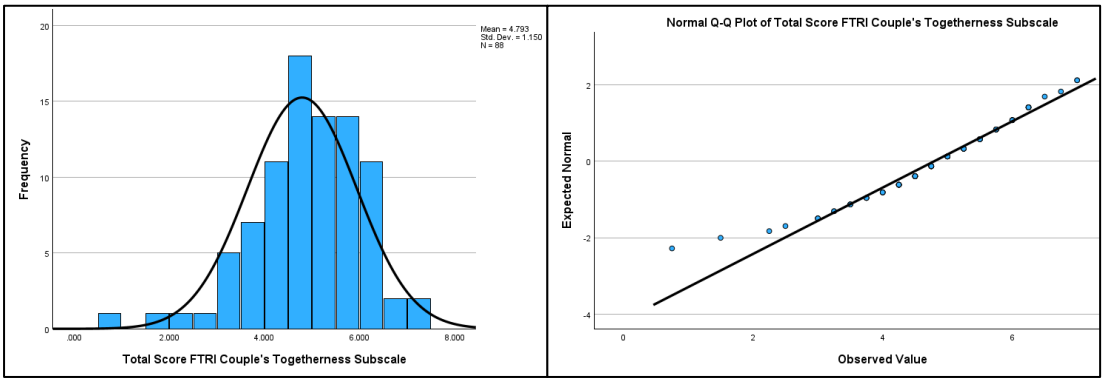


Figure 3

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Meals Together Subscale

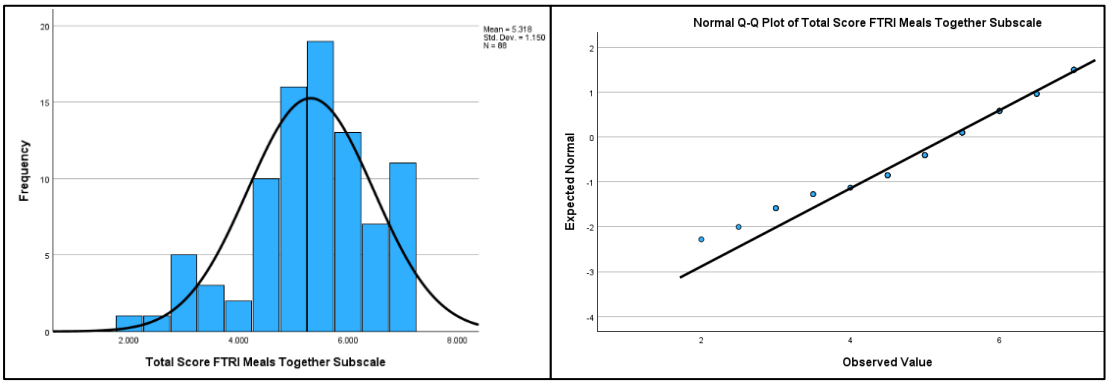


Figure 4

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale

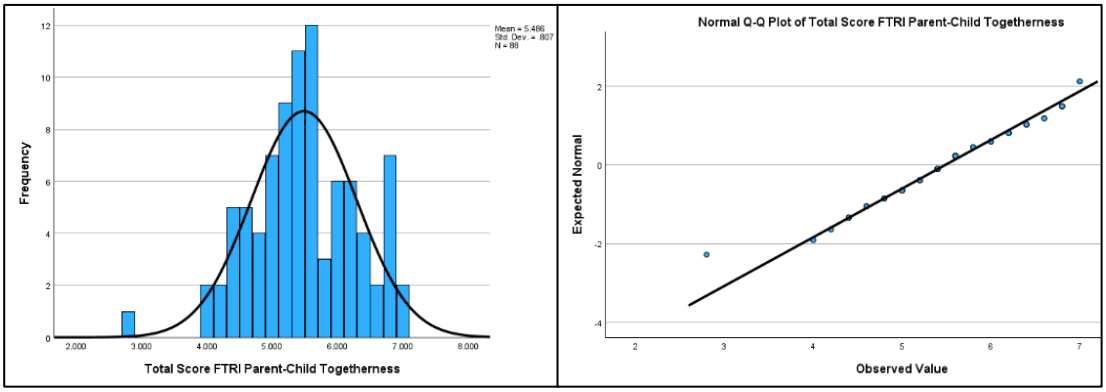


Figure 5

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale

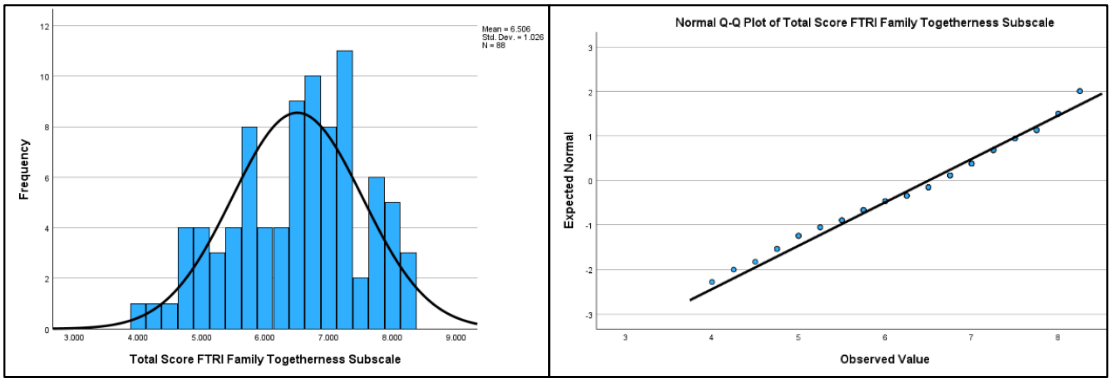


Figure 6

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale

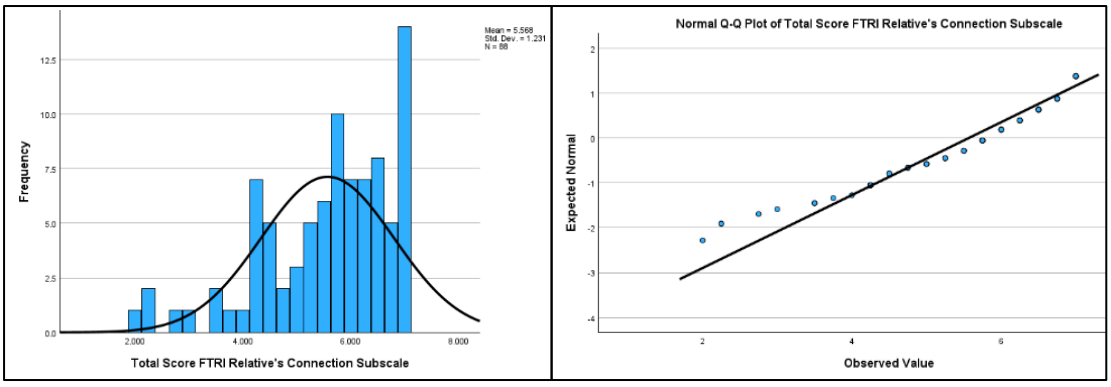


Figure 7

Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Family Chores Subscale

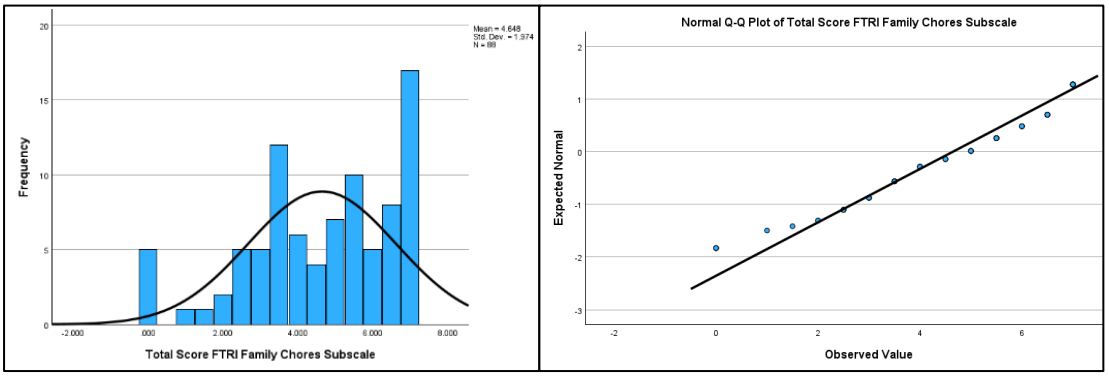
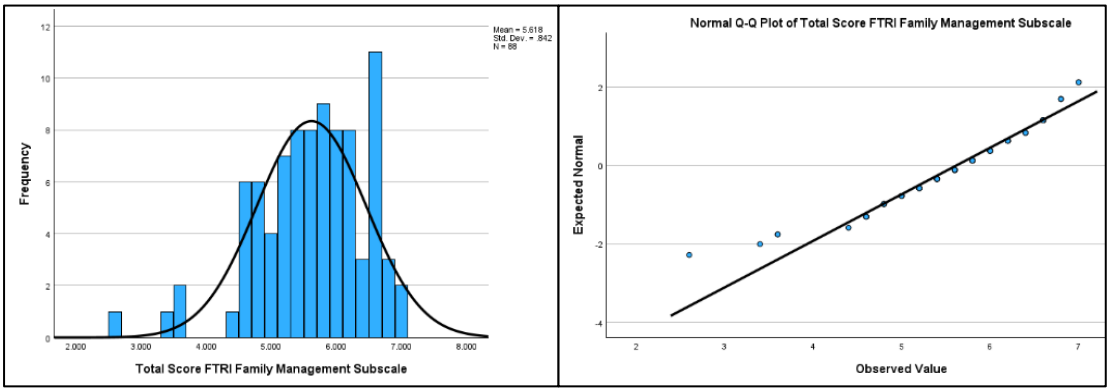


Figure 8

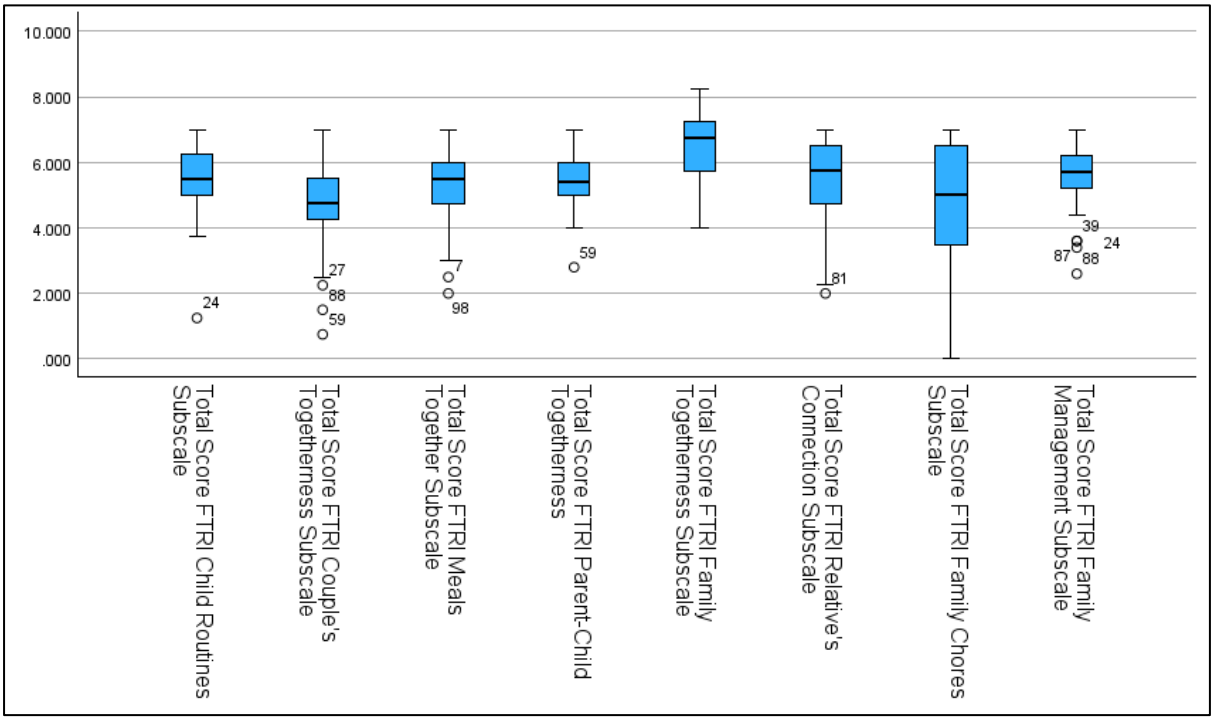
Histogram and Q-plot - FTRI Family Management Subscale



The boxplots (Figure 9) shed light on these abnormal Q-plot data points by revealing the respondent number for each identified outlier.

Figure 9

Boxplots for all PSOCS Subscales



Dependent Variable – PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

The initial data screening for the dependent variable, Parenting Satisfaction, included 88 respondents with an average score of 36.9 (Table 4). Frequency distribution recorded scores ranging from 18 to 54 (Table 5).

Table 4

Mean, Median, and Mode - PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

N	Valid	88
	Missing	0
Mean		36.909
Median		37.000
Mode		34.000[a]

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table 5

Satisfaction Subscale Frequency Distribution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18.000	2	2.3	2.3	2.3
	19.000	1	1.1	1.1	3.4
	20.000	1	1.1	1.1	4.5
	22.000	2	2.3	2.3	6.8
	23.000	2	2.3	2.3	9.1
	24.000	2	2.3	2.3	11.4
	25.000	1	1.1	1.1	12.5
	26.000	1	1.1	1.1	13.6
	27.000	2	2.3	2.3	15.9
	28.000	2	2.3	2.3	18.2
	29.000	2	2.3	2.3	20.5
	30.000	3	3.4	3.4	23.9
	31.000	3	3.4	3.4	27.3
	32.000	4	4.5	4.5	31.8
	33.000	1	1.1	1.1	33.0
	34.000	6	6.8	6.8	39.8
	35.000	3	3.4	3.4	43.2
	36.000	4	4.5	4.5	47.7
	37.000	3	3.4	3.4	51.1
	38.000	4	4.5	4.5	55.7
	39.000	6	6.8	6.8	62.5
	40.000	1	1.1	1.1	63.6
	41.000	3	3.4	3.4	67.0
	42.000	2	2.3	2.3	69.3
	43.000	3	3.4	3.4	72.7
	44.000	3	3.4	3.4	76.1
	45.000	5	5.7	5.7	81.8
	46.000	6	6.8	6.8	88.6
	47.000	2	2.3	2.3	90.9
	49.000	1	1.1	1.1	92.0
	51.000	2	2.3	2.3	94.3
	53.000	2	2.3	2.3	96.6
	54.000	3	3.4	3.4	100.0
	Total	88	100.0	100.0	

Tests were run for skewness and kurtosis to evaluate normal distribution (Table 6). Skewness, while within the normal range, showed a slight negative skew. Kurtosis, however, was moderately platykurtic, although well within the normal distribution range. This indicates that there are few to no outliers.

Table 6

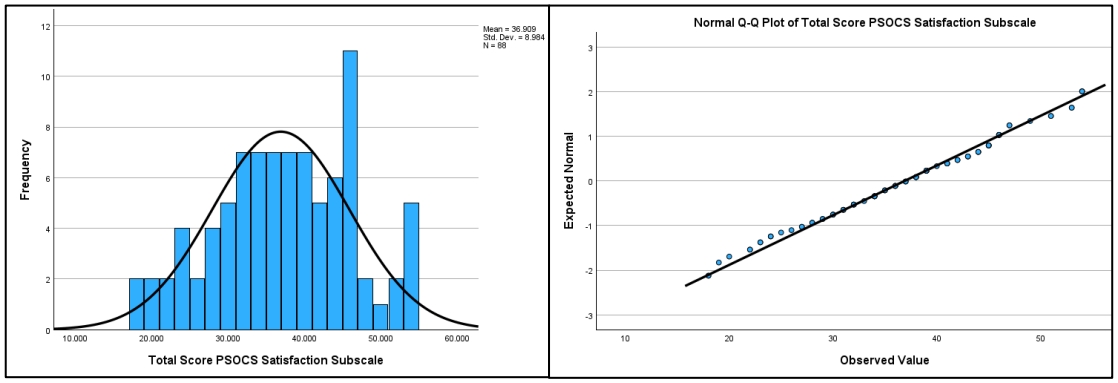
Skewness and Kurtosis Tests - Parenting Satisfaction

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	88	18.000	54.000	36.90909	8.983556	-.128	.257	-.564	.508
Valid N (listwise)	88								

A histogram and Q-plot were run on the dependent variable (Figure 10) to verify the absence of outliers. The results of the histogram displayed a nicely shaped bell curve.

Figure 10

Histogram and Q-plot - Parenting Satisfaction



To confirm this normal distribution, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run: D(88) = .058, p = .200 (Table 7). This test revealed that the dependent variable did, in fact, display a normal distribution since the significance was > 0.05.

Table 7

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test - Parenting Satisfaction

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	.058	88	.200*

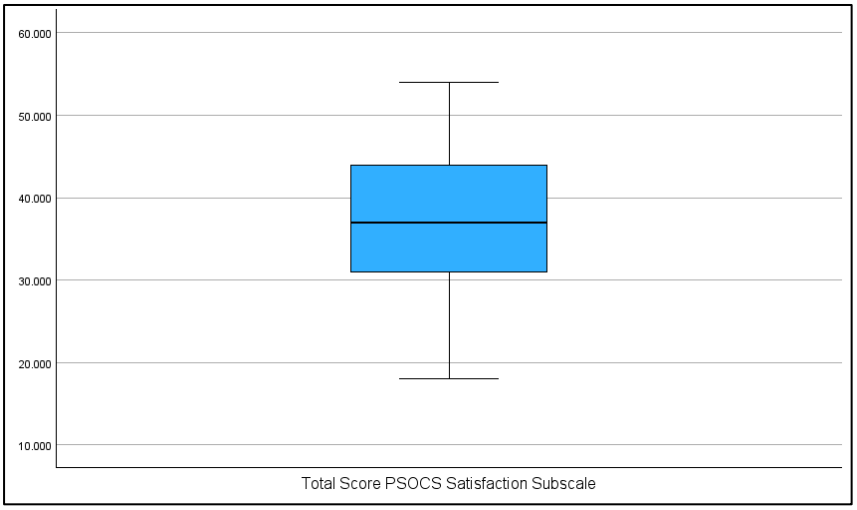
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

One final test, a boxplot (Figure 11), was run to clarify the normal distribution. This revealed a very balanced distribution, with the mean nearly centered within the box while both whiskers were roughly equal in length.

Figure 11

Boxplot - Parenting Satisfaction



Inferential Statistics

Once descriptive statistics had all been run, it was time to examine the findings and begin dealing with potential issues that may impact the analysis outcome. This process involved exploring each identified outlier to determine a possible reason for their existence and then dealing with them appropriately as required.

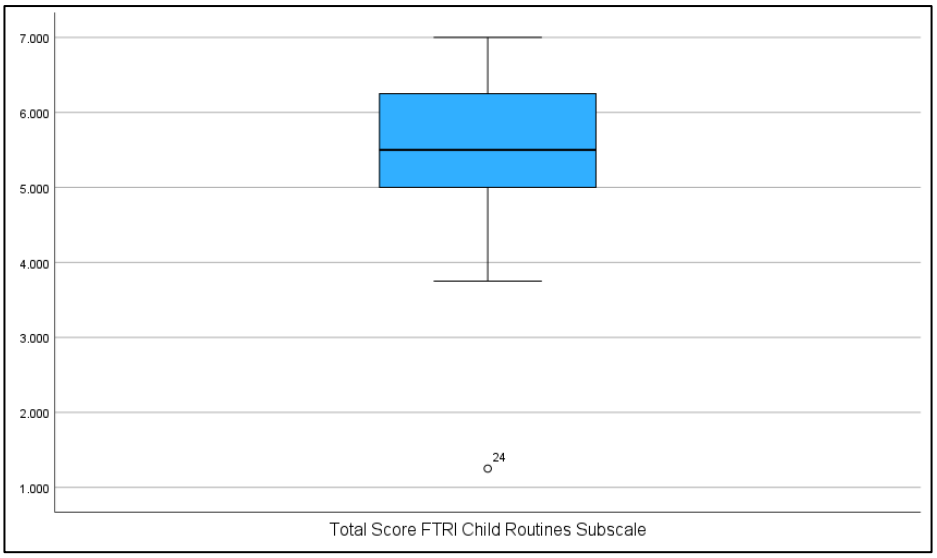
Independent Variables

FTRI Child Routines Subscale.

The previously run Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the independent variables (Table 3) indicated that the FTRI Child Routines Subscale score did not follow a normal distribution, $D(88) = 0.116$, $p = .006$. However, the outlier, identified as respondent 24 by the boxplot (Figure 12), did not answer three of the four questions that comprised the subscale. Therefore, respondent 24 was excluded from the data making up this subscale, leaving (N=87).

Figure 12

Boxplot - FTRI Child Routines Subscale



A new Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run, D(87) = .093, *p* = .059 (Table 8), and a new histogram (Figure 13), both of which indicate a normal distribution.

Table 8

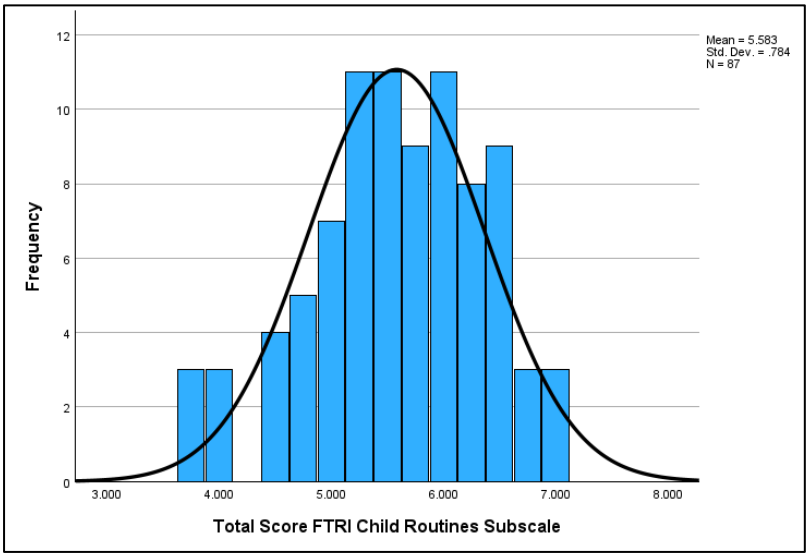
Revised Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test - FTRI Child Routines Subscale

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score FTRI Child Routines Subscale	.093	87	.059

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Figure 13

Revised Histogram - FTRI Child Routines Subscale

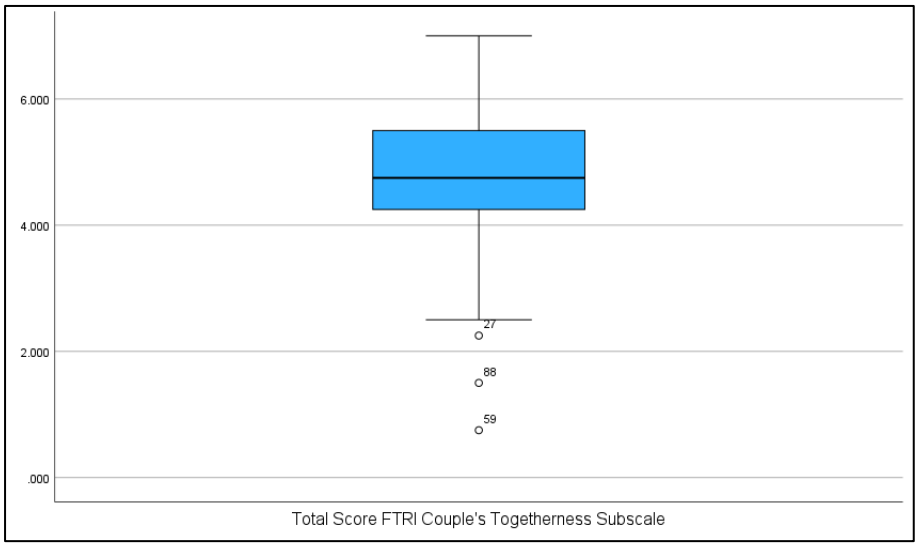


FTRI Couples Togetherness Subscale.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test previously run on the FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale (Table 3) indicated a non-normal distribution, which required further examination. The boxplot for this subscale (Figure 14) reveals three outliers to be dealt with.

Figure 14

Boxplot - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale



Participant 59 is widowed and parenting by herself, and both participants 88 and 27 are divorced single parents parenting by themselves. All three did not meet the criterion for inclusion in this Couples Togetherness Subscale, so they were excluded along with respondents 71, 77, 80, and 98, who were also all single parents due to divorce, as well as respondents 36, 76, 89, and 95 who were all single parents and never married. This left the total number of FTRI Couples Togetherness Subscale respondents at (N=77).

Once these respondents had been removed from consideration in this subscale, a new Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run D(77) = .073, p = .200 (Table 9) as well as a new histogram (Figure 15). The new Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated a significance of >0.05, confirming a normal distribution, as supported by the histogram.

Table 9

Revised Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale

Tests of Normality

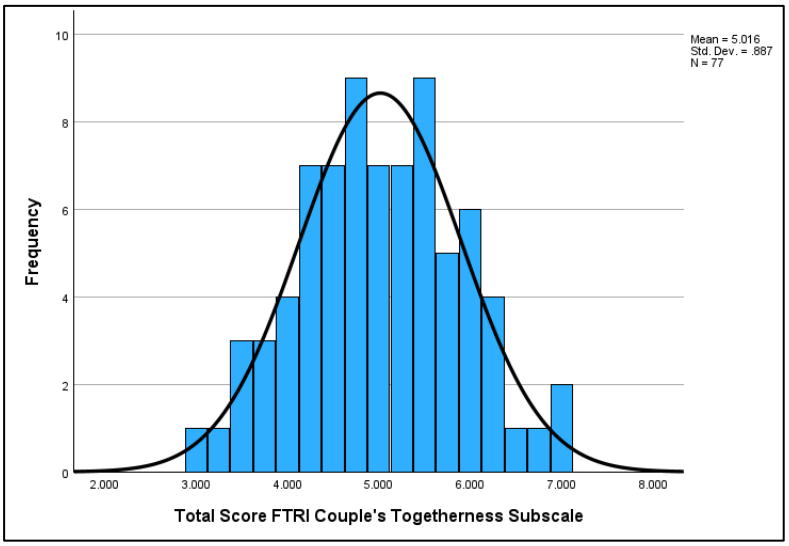
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale	.073	77	.200*

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Figure 15

Revised Histogram - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale

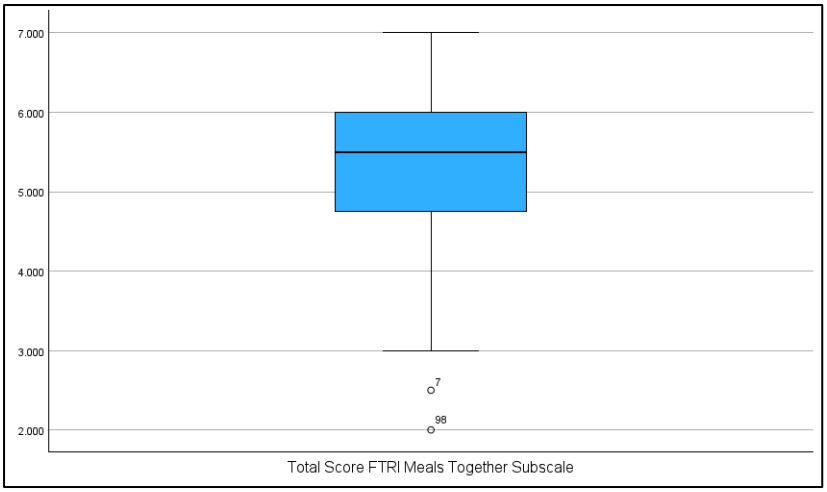


FTRI Meals Together Subscale.

The boxplot for the FTRI Meals Together Subscale (Figure 16) reveals two outliers, respondents 7 and 98.

Figure 16

Boxplot - FTRI Meals Together Subscale



Respondent 7, married to her children's biological parent, has a 16 and 17-year-old teenager, and Respondent 98 is a divorced single parent with three children ranging in age from 5 to 19. While both parents scored low on this subscale, their answers are accurately scored and must be included in data analysis. This results in data that is not normally distributed according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test D(88) = .141, p = <.001 (Table 3).

However, even if these two respondents were eliminated from consideration (along with four others that had similar low scores but did not show on the boxplot), a revised Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 10) still indicated non-normal distribution D(82) = .134, p = <.001. It was determined that none of these respondents gave evidence that they needed to be removed from consideration, nor did their removal impact distribution results, so all respondents are included in this subscale for further analysis.

Table 10

Revised Kolmogorov-Smirnov test – FTRI Meals Together Subscale

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score FTRI Meals Together Subscale	.134	82	<.001

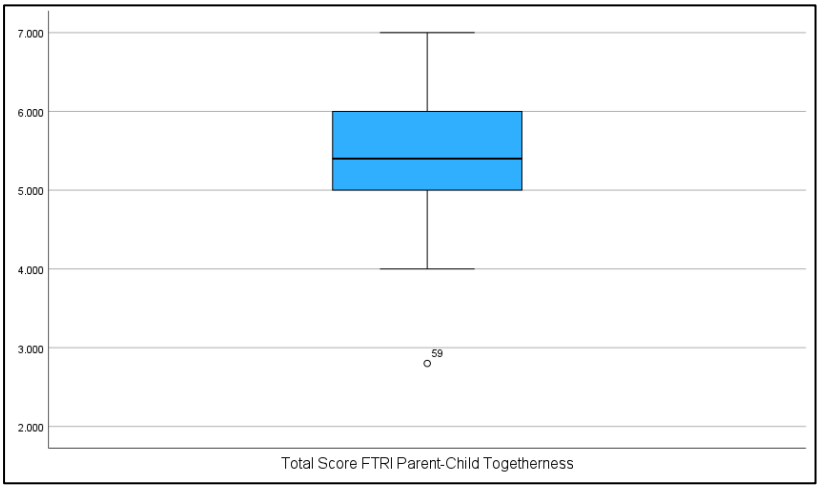
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale.

The boxplot for this subscale (Figure 17) revealed one outlier, respondent 59.

Figure 17

Boxplot - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale



Respondent 59 is a widowed single parent who is unemployed and has a 10-year-old and 11-year-old child. Questions included in this subscale deal with working parents and parents of teenagers. For these reasons, respondent 59 was excluded from the data set pertaining to the Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale. This resulted in a boxplot with no outliers (Figure 18) and only a minimal skew and moderate kurtosis in the data (Table 11). However, when the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run with respondent 59 eliminated, it still showed a non-normal distribution $D(87) = .112$, $p = .009$ (Table 12). Nonetheless, a revised histogram (Figure 19) showed a normal distribution, as evidenced by the classic bell curve. So, based on the clean boxplot, normal bell curve, and minimal skewness and kurtosis, the data gives evidence of near-normal distribution and will be used for further analysis (Warner, 2013, p. 153).

Figure 18

Revised Boxplot - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale

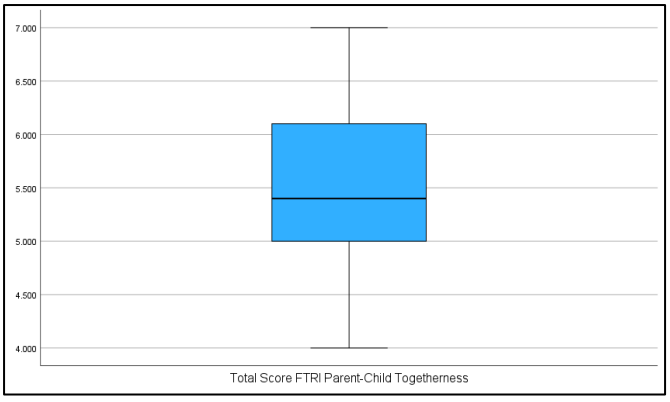


Table 11

Revised Skewness and Kurtosis - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness	87	4.000	7.000	5.51724	.757936	.112	.258	-.650	.511
Valid N (listwise)	87								

Table 12

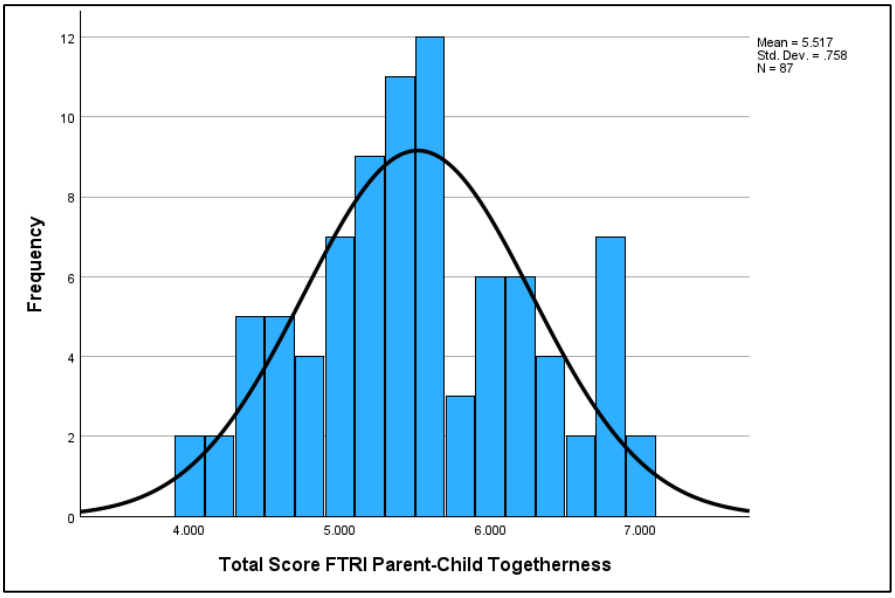
Revised Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness	.112	87	.009

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Figure 19

Revised Histogram - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale



FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale.

When analyzed, data in the FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale originally appeared to be

relatively normally distributed. Skewness and kurtosis tests (Table 2) indicate a slightly negative skew and slightly platykurtic, and the Histogram and Q-plot (Figure 5) show nearly normal distribution. Finally, the Boxplot (Figure 9) shows no outliers. The only clear indication of possible non-normal distribution was the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test D(88) = .111, p =.009 (Table 3). However, based on the clean boxplot, normal bell curve, and minimal skewness and kurtosis, the data gives evidence of near-normal distribution and will be used for further analysis without altercation (Warner, 2013, p. 153).

FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale.

Descriptive statistics indicated that this subscale was moderately negatively skewed (Table 2) and very close to being highly negatively skewed (-.950), as illustrated by the histogram and Q-plot (Figure 6). A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test further supports this, showing a non-normal distribution D(88) = .138. p = <.001 (Table3). A boxplot indicated one outlier, respondent 81 (Figure 9).

When reviewing respondent 81's answers relating to the Relative's Connection Subscale, it was determined that all answers were accurately recorded and that the answers given were genuinely low. Therefore, this respondent should not be excluded from the analysis even though it is an outlier. The same results were determined concerning other respondents who recorded low scores but were within the boxplot, as evidenced by the Q-plot (Figure 6). The result is a negatively skewed bell curve on the Histogram (Figure 6). However, while this data has a non-normal distribution, it is within the limits to move forward with analysis.

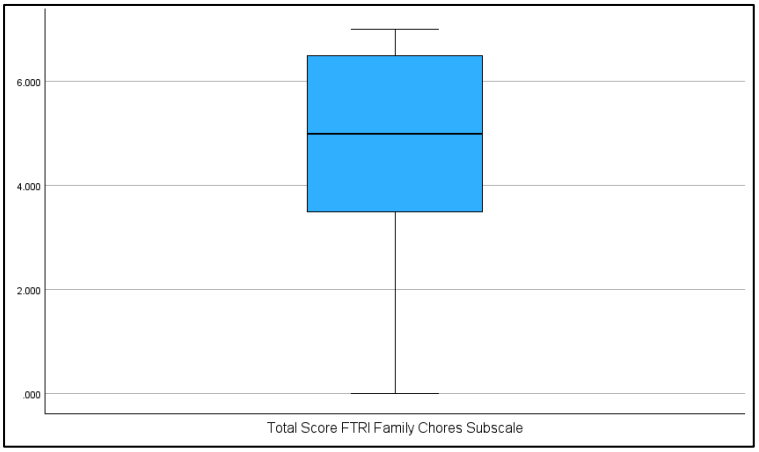
FTRI Family Chores Subscale.

The Family Chores Subscale displayed a moderately negative skew (-.641) in the Descriptive Statistics (Table 2), which is evidenced by the Histogram and Q-plot (Figure 7). The

Boxplot (Figure 20) does not show any outliers. However, it does reveal a very extended lower whisker. This indicates a wide range of answers to this subscale, with the answers clustered heavily toward the high end. While this data has a non-normal distribution, it is within limits to move forward with analysis.

Figure 20

Boxplot - FTRI Family Chores Subscale

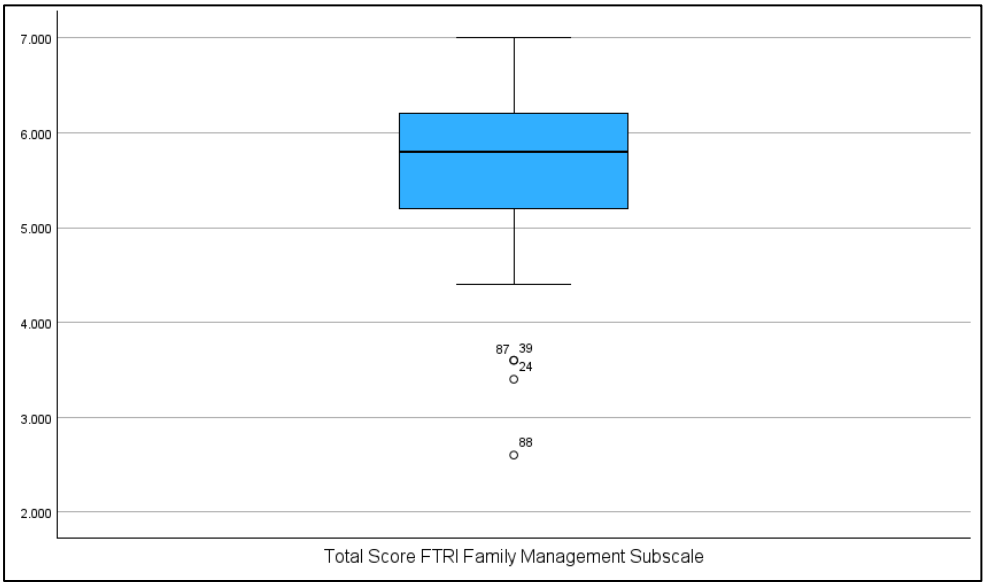


FTRI Family Management Subscale.

The Family Management Subscale was the only subscale that indicated normal distribution in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test D(88) = .086, p = .151 (Table 3); however, the Histogram and Q-plot (Figure 8) gave evidence of a moderate negative skew. This is seen in the Boxplot (Figure 21), which reveals four outliers: respondents 24, 39, 87, and 88.

Figure 21

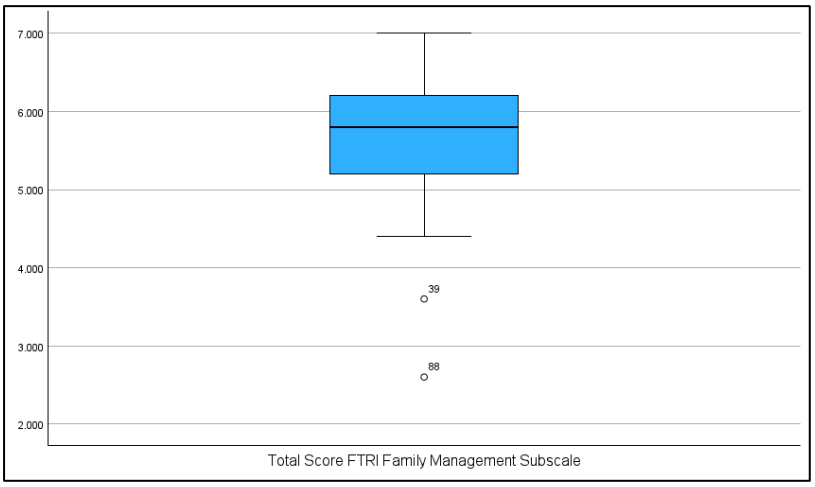
Boxplot - FTRI Family Management Subscale



Respondents 24 and 87 did not answer two of the five questions that made up this subscale, so they have been removed from consideration. Respondents 39 and 88 answered all of the questions, and while their answers all had low values, no reason is evident to disqualify them. After removing the two disqualified respondents, a new boxplot was run (Figure 22), still showing the two remaining outliers.

Figure 22

Revised Boxplot - FTRI Family Management Subscale.



A new histogram (Figure 23) was then run, displaying a reasonably normal distribution despite the two remaining outliers. A new Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated a rise in significance D(86) = .079, p = .200 (Table 13). Even with the outliers, this subscale shows a normal distribution and is acceptable for further analysis.

Figure 23

Revised Histogram - FTRI Family Management Subscale

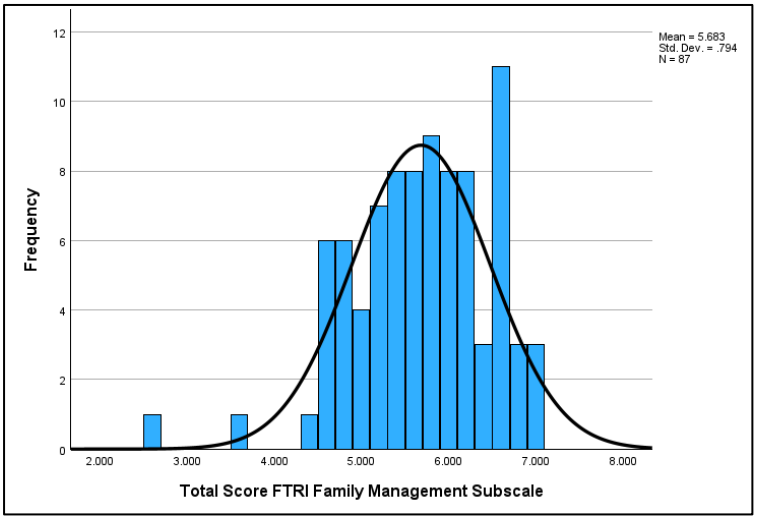


Table 13

Revised Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test - FTRI Family Management Subscale

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total Score FTRI Family Management Subscale	.079	86	.200*

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Dependent Variable – PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

All evidence from the preliminary data screening indicated that the Parenting Satisfaction Subscale was normally distributed. This was evidenced by the classic bell curve in the histogram (Figure 10) and the textbook boxplot (Figure 11). The boxplot revealed a very balanced

distribution, with the mean nearly centered within the box while both whiskers were equal in length. No further investigation into this variable is required before further analysis of linear relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

Results

This study was designed to investigate parent-child and family interactions in an effort to identify specific parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction. The results of this research were expected to determine the following:

Ha1: There are specific routines that a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child each day that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.

Ha2: There are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.

After completing the preceding inferential statistical analysis, the next step was to test for linear relationships between the independent and dependent variables. This was done using Pearson's *r*. Through the process of the inferential statistical analysis, it was determined that all assumptions for conducting Pearson's *r* had been confirmed (Warner, 2013, p. 267-270). Each score on *X* and *Y* is independent of other X and Y scores, respectively. Scores on both *X* and *Y* are quantitative and normally distributed. Scores on *Y* are linearly related to scores on *X*. All *X*-*Y* scores have a bivariate normal distribution. And scores on *Y* have homogeneous variance across levels of *X* (and vice versa).

The results of Pearson's *r* testing indicated that all eight FTRI Subscales showed a positive linear correlation; however, five of the eight FTRI Subscales were extremely weak and insignificant, with correlation scores ranging from .001 to .181 and significance values from .994

to .095 (Tables 14-18). Each of these five will be discussed as they relate to Hypothesis 1. The remaining three of the eight FTRI Subscales each have a moderate positive linear correlation to Parenting Satisfaction: Meals Together (Table 19), Family Togetherness (Table 23), and Couple's Togetherness (Table 27). These three will be discussed as they relate to Hypothesis 2.

Alternate Hypothesis One (Ha1)

Five of the FTRI Subscales, Family Chores, Relative's Connection, Child Routines, Parent-Child Togetherness, and Family Management were used to investigate Ha1: *There are specific routines that a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child each day that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.* Each of these subscales measured specific interactions between parents and their children. Pearson's *r* was used to explore their support of Ha1.

FTRI Family Chores Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Family Chores and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 14). The results indicated that the relationship between Family Chores and Parenting Satisfaction was not significant, r(86) = .001, p = .994 (Two-tailed).

Table 14

Pearson's r - FTRI Family Chores Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Family Chores Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Family Chores Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.994
	N	88	88
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.001	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.994	
	N	88	88

FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Relative's Connection and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 15). The results indicated that the relationship between Relative's Connection and Parenting Satisfaction was not significant, r(86) = .025, p = .817 (Two-tailed).

Table 15

Pearson's r - FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Relative's Connection Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.817
	N	88	88
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.025	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.817	
	N	88	88

FTRI Child Routines Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Child Routines and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 16). The results indicated that the relationship between Child Routines and Parenting Satisfaction was not significant, r(85) = .105, p = .333 (Two-tailed).

Table 16

Pearson's r - FTRI Child Routines Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Child Routines Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Child Routines Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.105
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.333
	N	87	87
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.105	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.333	
	N	87	87

FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between

Parent-Child Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 17). The results indicated that the relationship between Parent-Child Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction was not significant, r(85) = .126, *p* = .246 (Two-tailed).

Table 17

Pearson's r - FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Parent-Child Togetherness	Pearson Correlation	1	.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.246
	N	87	87
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.126	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.246	
	N	87	87

FTRI Family Management Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Family Management and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 18). The results indicated that the relationship between Family Management and Parenting Satisfaction was not significant, r(84) = .181, *p* = .095 (Two-tailed).

Table 18

Pearson's r - FTRI Family Management Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Family Management Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Family Management Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.181
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.095
	N	86	86
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.181	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.095	
	N	86	86

The purpose of this study was to investigate family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. Ha1 supposed that there are specific

routines that a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child each day that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction. The preceding Pearson's *r* tests were run to determine if any of these subscales supported Ha1.

For Pearson's r to be considered as a valid support of correlation, the r value needs to be above .3, and the significance value needs to be <.05. However, none of the Pearson's *r* tests for the FTRI Subscales, Family Chores, Relative's Connection, Child Routines, Parent-Child Togetherness, or Family Management (Tables 14-18) showed statistical significance; therefore, Ha1 is rejected thereby maintaining the null hypothesis.

Alternate Hypothesis Two (Ha2)

The remaining three of the eight FTRI Subscales, Meals Together, Family Togetherness, and Couple's Togetherness, were used to investigate Ha2: *There are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.* Each of these three FTRI subscales explored specific activities family members participated in together. Pearson's *r* was again used to examine the support of this hypothesis.

A Pearson's correlation is considered moderate when the *r* value is between .3 and .5, and a significance value of <.05 indicates that the results are significant. All three remaining FTRI Subscales scored within these ranges and will be discussed individually.

FTRI Meals Together Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Meals Together and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 19). There was a significant but weak positive relationship between Meals Together and Parenting Satisfaction, r(86) = .27, *p* = .012 (two-tailed).

Table 19

Pearsons r - FTRI Meals Together Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Meals Together Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Meals Together Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.265*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.012
	N	88	88
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.265*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	
	N	88	88

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Multiple regression analysis was then performed to discover which specific routines a parent engaged in most impacted the correlation between Meals Together and Parenting Satisfaction. The first information noted in this analysis is that the r^2 is .074 (Table 20), indicating that about 7.4% of the variance in Parental Satisfaction could be predicted by Meals Together. We also note that the Durbin-Watson score is 1.998, indicating no autocorrelation is detected. The residuals are independent, opening the door for the model to be statistically significant.

Table 20

Model Summary - FTRI Meals Together Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.272[a]	.074	.052	8.744880	1.998

a. Predictors: (Constant), 18. Total Score - Family Eats Meals Together, 17. Total Score - Family Eats At the Same Time

b. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

Next, we find that the overall model is, in fact, significantly valuable for explaining Parenting Satisfaction, F (2, 85) = 3.41, p = .038 (Table 21).

Table 21

ANOVA - FTRI Meals Together Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	521.074	2	260.537	3.407	.038[b]
	Residual	6500.199	85	76.473		
	Total	7021.273	87			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

b. Predictors: (Constant), 18. Total Score - Family Eats Meals Together, 17. Total Score - Family Eats At the Same Time

The next point of interest is the influence that each of the two survey questions comprising this subscale, *Family Eats At the Same Time* and *Family Eats Meals Together*, have on Parenting Satisfaction (Table 22). The Coefficients table indicates that neither of the survey questions individually had significance: *Family Eats at the Same Time* (p = .328) and *Family Eats Meals Together* (p = .159).

Table 22

Coefficients - FTRI Meals Together Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	25.847	4.371		5.913	<.001		
	17. Total Score - Family Eats At the Same Time	.891	.906	.125	.983	.328	.673	1.487
	18. Total Score - Family Eats Meals Together	1.183	.833	.181	1.420	.159	.673	1.487

a. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

Therefore, the final results of the multiple regression for the FTRI Meals Together Subscale are as follows: A multiple regression was run to predict Parenting Satisfaction from *Family Eats Meals Together* and *Family Eats at the Same Time*. These variables together statistically significantly predicted Parenting Satisfaction, $F(2, 85) = 3.41$, $p = .038$, $R^2 = .074$. However, neither individual variable added statistical significance to the prediction, $p < .05$. Considering all of this, it is determined that this subscale supports Ha2.

FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Family Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 23). There was a significant, moderately positive relationship between Family Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction, r(86) = .33, p = .002 (two-tailed).

Table 23

Pearsons r - FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.333**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	88	88
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.333**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	88	88

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Multiple regression analysis was then performed to discover which specific routines parents engaged in most impacted the correlation between Family Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction. The r^2 is .114 (Table 24), indicating that about 11.4% of the variance in Parental Satisfaction could be predicted by Family Togetherness. It is also noted that the Durbin-Watson score is 2.193, which indicates that no autocorrelation was detected and the residuals were independent, signifying that the model has the potential to be statistically significant.

Table 24

Model Summary - FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.338[a]	.114	.072	8.655253	2.193

a. Predictors: (Constant), 26. Total Score - Expression of Care, 5. Total Score - Family Quiet Time Each Evening, 6. Total Score - Family Trips Together Weekly, 7. Total Score - Family Time Together Each Week

b. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

Next, we find that the overall model is, in fact, significantly valuable for explaining Parenting Satisfaction, F (4, 83) = 2.68, p = .037 (Table 25).

Table 25

ANOVA - FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	803.460	4	200.865	2.681	.037[b]
	Residual	6217.813	83	74.913		
	Total	7021.273	87			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

b. Predictors: (Constant), 26. Total Score - Expression of Care, 5. Total Score - Family Quiet Time Each Evening, 6. Total Score - Family Trips Together Weekly, 7. Total Score - Family Time Together Each Week

The next step was to assess the influence that each of the four survey questions comprising this subscale, *Family Quiet Time Each Evening*, *Family Trips Together Weekly*, *Family Time Together Each Week*, and *Expression of Care*, have on Parenting Satisfaction (Table 26). The Coefficients table indicates that none of the four survey questions individually had significance: *Family Quiet Time Each Evening* (p = .199), *Family Trips Together Weekly* (p = .496), *Family Time Together Each Week* (p = .314), and *Expression of Care* (p = .101).

Table 26

Coefficients - FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	10.150	10.254		.990	.325	-10.245	30.546		
	5. Total Score - Family Quiet Time Each Evening	.756	.584	.153	1.294	.199	-.406	1.919	.765	1.307
	6. Total Score - Family Trips Together Weekly	.526	.770	.079	.683	.496	-1.005	2.056	.789	1.267
	7. Total Score - Family Time Together Each Week	.827	.816	.125	1.013	.314	-.797	2.451	.702	1.424
	26. Total Score - Expression of Care	2.416	1.456	.174	1.660	.101	-.480	5.312	.973	1.028

a. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

Therefore, the final results of the multiple regression for the FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale are as follows: A multiple regression was run to predict Parenting Satisfaction from *Family Quiet Time Each Evening*, *Family Trips Together Weekly*, *Family Time Together Each Week,* and *Expression of Care.* These variables together statistically significantly predicted Parenting Satisfaction, F (4, 83) = 2.68, p = .037, R^2 = .114. However, none of the individual variables added statistical significance to the prediction, $p < .05$. Considering all of this, it is determined that this subscale supports Ha2.

FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between Couple's Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction (Table 27). There was a significant, moderately positive relationship between Couple's Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction, r(75) = .34, p = .002 (two-tailed).

Table 27

Pearsons r - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

		Total Score FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale	Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale
Total Score FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale	Pearson Correlation	1	.343**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	77	77
Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale	Pearson Correlation	.343**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	77	77

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Once again, multiple regression analysis was performed to discover which specific routines a parent engages in were most impactful in the correlation between Couple's Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction. The first information noted in this analysis is that the r^2 is .088 (Table 28), indicating that Couple's Togetherness could predict about 8.8% of the variance in Parental Satisfaction. It is also notable that the Durbin-Watson score is 1.687, which

suggests that no autocorrelation is detected. The residuals are independent, indicating that the model may be statistically significant.

Table 28

Model Summary - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.370[a]	.137	.088	8.397148	1.687

a. Predictors: (Constant), 25. Total Score - Greeting One Another, 13. Total Score - Parents Go Out Together Weekly, 11. Total Score - Parents Do Hobbies Together Regularly, 12. Total Score - Parents Have Time Together Often

b. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

To confirm the statistical significance, the ANOVA is analyzed, and it is confirmed that the overall model is, in fact, significantly valuable for explaining Parenting Satisfaction, F (4, 71) = 2.81, p = .032 (Table 29).

Table 29

ANOVA - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	791.681	4	197.920	2.807	.032[b]
	Residual	5006.358	71	70.512		
	Total	5798.039	75			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

b. Predictors: (Constant), 25. Total Score - Greeting One Another, 13. Total Score - Parents Go Out Together Weekly, 11. Total Score - Parents Do Hobbies Together Regularly, 12. Total Score - Parents Have Time Together Often

The next analysis point is the influence that each of the four survey questions comprising this subscale, *Parents Do Hobbies Together Regularly*, *Parents Have Time Together Often*, *Parents Go Out Together Weekly*, and *Greeting One Another*, have on Parenting Satisfaction (Table 30). The Coefficients table indicates that one of the four questions had statistical significance: *Parents Go Out Weekly Together* (p = .031). The remainder of the questions did not

indicate individual statistical significance: *Parents Do Hobbies Together Regularly* (p = .401), *Parents Have Time Together Often* (p = .938) *and Greeting One Another* (p = .091).

Table 30

Coefficients - FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale and PCOS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	22.942	6.005		3.820	<.001	10.967	34.916		
	11. Total Score - Parents Do Hobbies Together Regularly	.540	.640	.094	.844	.401	-.736	1.817	.972	1.029
	12. Total Score - Parents Have Time Together Often	-.078	.992	-.010	-.078	.938	-2.056	1.901	.785	1.273
	13. Total Score - Parents Go Out Together Weekly	1.567	.710	.266	2.207	.031	.151	2.983	.838	1.194
	25. Total Score - Greeting One Another	1.112	.650	.197	1.712	.091	-.183	2.407	.915	1.093

a. Dependent Variable: Total Score PSOCS Satisfaction Subscale

The final results of the multiple regression for the FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale are as follows: A multiple regression was run to predict Parenting Satisfaction from *Greeting One Another, Parents Go Out Together Weekly, Parents Do Hobbies Together Regularly*, and *Parents Have Time Together Often*. These variables together statistically significantly predicted Parenting Satisfaction, F (4, 71) = 2.81, p = .032, R^2 = .088. The individual variable *Parents Go Out Together Weekly* added statistically significantly to the prediction $p < .05$. The remaining three variables did not. Considering data from each of these variables, it is determined that this subscale supports Ha2.

The purpose of this study was to investigate parent-child and family interactions to identify specific parenting routines that correlated with parental satisfaction. Ha2 supposed that there are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities

together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction. All three FTRI subscales used to support Ha2, Meals Together, Family Togetherness, and Couple's Togetherness, showed statistical significance; therefore, Ha2 is supported, resulting in the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Summary

Upon the completion of statistical analysis, it was found that five of the eight subscales were normally distributed, with the remaining three subscales found to be within the limit for use in further analysis. All eight subscales were then subjected to Pearson's *r* analysis.

All five subscales used in the evaluation of Ha1 (Family Chores, Relative's Connection, Child Routines, Parent-Child Togetherness, and Family Management) were found to have no linear correlation to the dependent variable, Parenting Satisfaction. Therefore, Ha1 is rejected, thereby maintaining the null hypothesis. However, all three FTRI subscales used to support Ha2 (Meals Together, Family Togetherness, and Couple's Togetherness) showed statistical significance; therefore, Ha2 is supported, resulting in the rejection of the null hypothesis. Chapter Five will discuss these findings in more detail, along with the implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter Five: Conclusions

Overview

Chapter Five of this dissertation will discuss the two alternate hypotheses centered around investigating parenting routines correlating with parental satisfaction. This study utilized a quantitative descriptive, variable-centered correlation design focusing on simple correlation (Heppner et al., 2016, p. 295). It was crucial in this research to understand the linear relationship, if any, between the independent and dependent variables. This was accomplished using Pearson's *r* (Warner, 2013, p. 261-314) and multiple linear regression. This discussion will explore the results of these statistical tests and examine and explain the analytical findings, including support of research hypotheses, or lack thereof. The results will be evaluated alongside the current literature on the subject already presented in the literature review. This chapter will also discuss the future implications of this study's findings and its limitations, followed by recommendations for further research.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate parent-child and family interactions in an effort to identify specific parenting routines that correlate with parental satisfaction.

Challenges parents may face when raising a child include social challenges such as sibling arguments, disobedience, and demand for attention; emotional challenges such as fear, anxiety, and temper tantrums; and finally, physical challenges, including bedtime routines, engaging in chores, and homework struggles (Rasmussen, 2014). Each preceding challenge must be dealt with in the context of a fluid and unpredictable dance between parent and child. The parent's perception of their success as a parent is determined by this interaction with their child (Rasmussen, 2014).

This study examined the time a parent spent with their child in one-on-one interaction and the time families spent together participating in activities as a family unit in an effort to identify parenting routines and family interactions that correlate with parental satisfaction. The research questions are as follows:

RQ1: Do the parenting routines a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child impact the parent's satisfaction with their parenting?

RQ2: Do the parenting routines a parent engages in when families participate in activities together as a family unit impact the parent's satisfaction with their parenting?

These two research questions were the basis for the two alternate hypotheses that this study investigated:

Ha1: There are specific routines that a parent engages in when interacting one-on-one with their child each day that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.

Ha2: There are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.

This discussion will examine the statistical analysis performed on the data collected and present its findings based on these two alternate hypotheses. It will be preceded by discussions concerning the dependent variable, PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction, and demographic influencers.

Discussion

Dependent Variable - PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction

Parenting satisfaction is defined by Leahy-Warren and her co-researchers (2011) as "the beliefs that a parent holds concerning their capabilities to organize and execute a set of tasks related to parenting a child ." This research explored how a parent perceives their parenting skills

and success within this definition. Literature produced by Parker & Wang from a 2013 Pew Research study noted that 69% of all parents reported that they had done an excellent or very good job parenting. Those indicating they did a good or fair job were 24% and 6%, respectively (Parker & Wang, 2013). A similar Pew Research study conducted two years later in 2015 found that the number of parents who felt they were doing an excellent or very good job rose to 92% (Parker et al., 2015). While these statistics are intriguing, they warrant further scrutiny. One potential issue with both of these studies is the potential for bias in self-reporting surveys by the parents.

Another thought concerning parenting satisfaction was introduced by Thomas Hansen (2012). He found in his research that during the act of parenting, parents report lower satisfaction levels than later in life when they reflect back on their parenting days, a complete contradiction to Parker and Wang's findings.

This current research study eliminated much of the bias and potential confusion concerning parenting satisfaction data collection by asking a series of questions on the Parenting Satisfaction Subscale of the PSOCS instead of a single question using a four-point Likert scale as utilized in the previously mentioned literature. The nine items on the PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale totaled a possible 54 points with a mean of 36.9 for this research. The scores for this research ranged from a low of 18 to a high of 54. Three respondents gave themselves perfect scores, while only 47.5% of respondents scored above the mean. These results do not match the high scores of previous research (Parker & Wang, 2013; Parker et al., 2015); however, due to the greater choice and number of questions, this scale may be considered more reliable.

Another concern that this scale puts to rest is the blurred line between parenting

satisfaction and general life satisfaction (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016; Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014; Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015). By specifically asking questions directly relating to the relationship between the parent and the child, the PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale isolates the satisfaction strictly to parenting.

The inferential statistical analysis applied to the PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale indicates that the results not only isolated parenting satisfaction but displayed normal distribution, resulting in a statistically solid dependent variable useful for further analysis with the independent variables.

Demographic Influencers.

Myrskylä & Margolis, 2014 report that there are many contributors/deterrents to the satisfaction that a parent may feel, including employment situation, income status, education level, number of children, as well as social support, parental alliance (Ponomartchouk & Bouchard, 2015), gender (Garcia-Mainar et al., 2011), marital status (Ifcher & Zarghamee, 2014), age (Herbst & Ifcher, 2016), the physical and emotional state at the time of data collection as well as recent sleep quality, physical duress, and emotional distress (Diener et al., 2013; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012). Henderson's (2016) study of over 4,000 mothers and 2,000 fathers also indicated a direct positive correlation between parenting satisfaction and the frequency of religious attendance, the importance of religion in daily life, and the frequency of personal prayer.

Each of these may present a confounding variable when examining perceived parenting satisfaction and must be dealt with accordingly when research is conducted. An extensive demographics questionnaire was included in the data collection phase of this study to isolate these confounding variables. When the individual analysis was run on each demographic

influencer listed in this previous research, it was discovered that none significantly impacted the results in this current study.

Alternate Hypothesis One (Ha1)

The first hypothesis in this study concerns the direct interaction between the parent and the child and its impact on parental satisfaction. Five of the eight Family Times and Routines Index subscales measured this interaction. These subscales were Family Chores, Relatives Connections, Child Routines, Parent-Child Togetherness, And Family Management.

To assess the correlation between these subscales and Parenting Satisfaction, Pearson's *r* was used. For Pearson's r to be considered as a valid support of correlation, the r value needs to be above .3, and the significance value needs to be <.05. However, none of the Pearson's *r* tests for the FTRI Subscales Family Chores, Relative's Connection, Child Routines, Parent-Child Togetherness, or Family Management (Tables 14-18) resulted in values within the acceptable ranges. These findings result in the lack of support for a linear relationship and the rejection of Ha1.

The first subscale to be discussed is Family Chores. The two questions that this subscale was based on focused on whether children and teenagers did regular household chores. Since many of the parents completing the survey had either children or teenagers (only 22 respondents had both ages of children), the scores for this subscale were inconsistent resulting in a Pearson's *r* of $r\ (86) = .001$, $p = .994$ (Two-tailed) (Table 14). This subscale indicated the least correlation of all subscales.

The Relative's Connection Subscale was comprised of four questions pertaining to visiting, talking with, and corresponding with grandparents and other extended relatives. This scale showed the second-worst correlation in the Pearson's *r* test, resulting in $r\ (86) = .025$, $p =$

.817 (Two-tailed) (Table 15).

The Child Routines Subscale was comprised of four questions pertaining to bedtime routines and playing alone and with friends. This scale showed the third worst correlation in the Pearson's *r* test, resulting in $r\ (85) = .105$, $p = .333$ (Two-tailed) (Table 16).

The Parent-Child Togetherness Subscale was comprised of five questions pertaining to a parent talking to, playing with, caring for, and reading with their child(ren). There was also one question that concerned parents having private talks with their teenagers. A couple of these questions were more applicable to parents with younger children, and this last question did not apply to the 40 parents in this study who only had non-teenage children, which distorted the results. This will all be discussed at length in the Limitations section of this chapter. As a result of the issues with questions in this subscale, this subscale showed the fourth worst correlation in the Pearson's *r* test, resulting in $r\ (85) = .126$, $p = .246$ (Two-tailed) (Table 17).

However, although the diversity of the respondents' children's ages largely showed itself in the analysis of this subscale, when the data was reanalyzed using only the 40 parents with non-teenagers, there was still no significance. Pearson's *r* resulted in $r(40) = .219$, $p = .174$ (two-tailed). This could result from the low *N* though ($N = 40$).

The final subscale used in the investigation of Ha1 was Family Management. This subscale was comprised of five questions pertaining to accountability of family members, discipline, and parent's household chores. This scale was the most promising of the five subscales used to analyze Ha1. However, it still did not show a correlation in the Pearson's r test, resulting in $r\ (84) = .181$, $p = .095$ (Two-tailed) (Table 18).

Since each of these subscales was not significant, it is determined that the alternate hypothesis (Ha1) is not supported, and the null hypothesis is retained.

Alternate Hypothesis Two (Ha2)

Ha2 had much more significant results than Ha1 concerning linear correlation. The remaining three FTRI subscales were all used in the investigation of Ha2: *There are specific routines that a parent engages in when a family participates in activities together as a family unit that have a positive correlation with reported parental satisfaction.* Each of these three FTRI subscales explored specific activities family members participated in together. The initial analysis utilized Pearson's *r* to establish a colinear relationship. Findings indicated that all three subscales did, in fact, display this relationship: There was a significant but weak positive relationship between Meals Together and Parenting Satisfaction, r(86) = .27, p = .012 (two-tailed). The relationship between Parenting Satisfaction and both Family Togetherness and Couple's Togetherness, however, showed significant, moderately positive relationships at r(86) = .33, p = .002 (two-tailed), and r(75) = .34, p = .002 (two-tailed) respectively. Each of these subscales will be discussed individually.

FTRI Meals Together Subscale.

While the FTRI Meals Together Subscale was the weakest of the three subscales used in the analysis of this hypothesis, it did still show a positive correlation (Table 19). Because of this, a regression analysis was run to determine which, if any, of the predictors that comprised this subscale significantly impacted the strength of Parenting Satisfaction. The model summary reported that the r^2 was .074 (Table 20), indicating that about 7.4% of the variance in parenting satisfaction could be attributed to the predictors in this subscale.

The *ANOVA* indicated significance, F (2, 85) = 3.41, p = .038 (Table 21); however, neither of the two predictors that comprised this subscale indicated individual significance (.328 and .159) on the coefficients table (Table 22). While this result is disappointing in the support of

Ha2, it still does indicate significance as a whole. Even when the individual predictors do not indicate significance, because the ANOVA did indicate significance, the subscale does, as a whole, support Ha2.

A regression model can still have significance even if all individual predictors are non-significant. This results because sometimes the combined effect of the predictors is stronger than any one predictor by itself. None of the individual predictors may have a significant impact on the outcome. However, their combined effect may still be statistically significant, as in this case.

This phenomenon takes place when the predictors have multicollinearity. This happens when the predictors are all correlated, and as a group, they significantly impact the outcome variable.

It is still possible, however, to rank the impact that the individual predictors have on the outcome variable, even if they do not indicate individual significance. This is done by noting the *Beta* scores on the Coefficient Table. The higher the *Beta* score, the greater the impact on the outcome variable. In the case of the Meals Together/Parenting Satisfaction multiple regression analysis, *Families Eats Meals Together* ($\beta = .181$) has a higher *Beta* than *Family Eats At The Same Time Each Day* ($\beta = .125$). This indicates that in this study, parents whose families ate together reported higher parenting satisfaction than those who ate at the same time each day.

Kathryn Walton and her associates (2020) found that parents of younger children had more success at having family meals together, but family meal participation declined as the children got older. This current study revealed the same findings. When reviewing the Meals Together Subscale data, it was discovered that most of the parents who scored low in this subscale were parents with teenagers.

When checked against their total parenting satisfaction scores, it was also determined that

13 of the 20 that scored below the Family Meals mean also scored below the Parenting Satisfaction mean. This would indicate that parents with younger children were not only more successful at having family meals together, but they were also more satisfied with their parenting in general.

FTRI Family Togetherness Subscale.

The next subscale in the order of significance concerning Ha2 is the Family Togetherness Subscale. Pearson's r on this subscale (r (86) = .33, p = .002 (two-tailed) (Table 23) shows a significant moderate positive relationship between Family Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction. Multiple regression analysis indicated that the r^2 was .114 (Table 24), indicating that about 11.4% of the variance in parenting satisfaction could be attributed to the predictors in this subscale.

While the ANOVA indicated significance F (4, 83) = 2.68, p = .037, once again, none of the four predictors showed individual significance. However, when observing the beta scores, an order of influence can be noted. The weakest of the predictors comprising this subscale was *Weekly Family Trips Together* (β = .079). *Family Time Together Each Week* (β = .125) was the third most influential predictor. Then came *Family Quiet Times Each Evening* (β = .153). These quiet times are not to be confused with time alone with God. This describes times when family members have time to themselves quietly, doing whatever they desire to do calmly. The most impactful predictor in this subscale was *Expression Of Care* (β = .174). This is the way family members express care and affection to one another on a daily basis.

Once again, none of these predictors had statistical significance; however, as a whole, they did show significance, and therefore, this subscale does support Ha2.

FTRI Couple's Togetherness Subscale.

The final subscale used in the examination of Ha2 was Couple's Togetherness. This subscale had the greatest impact on parenting satisfaction, with a significant, moderately positive relationship between Couple's Togetherness and Parenting Satisfaction r (75) = .34, p = .002 (two-tailed) (Table 27). The multiple regression analysis indicates an r^2 of .088, meaning that about 8.8% of the variance in parenting satisfaction could be attributed to the predictors in this subscale.

The *ANOVA* indicated significance F (4, 71) = 2.81, p = .032, with one of the four predictors also showing individual significance. The predictor *Parents Go Out Together Weekly* (p =.031) is the sole predictor with significance. It also had the highest *Beta* score (β = .266). The remaining Beta scores for the three other predictors are *Family Members Greet One Another* (β = .197), *Parents Do Hobbies Together* (β = .094), and *Parents Have Time Together Often* (β = -.010).

Of the 88 respondents included in this study, nine were divorced, widowed, or single. Only one of this subgroup scored above the mean for Parenting Satisfaction (mean = 36.9, with a high score of 54), and their score was only 39. This indicates that couples are more satisfied with their parenting than individuals who parent alone. The act of parenting with a partner adds greatly to parenting satisfaction, and when those parents spend time together, that satisfaction is increased.

In summary, since all three of the preceding FTRI Subscales show significance in the linear correlation and multiple regression, it is determined that Ha2 is supported, and the null hypothesis is rejected.

Implications

One of the purposes of this study was to introduce empirical evidence concerning parental satisfaction that can be used in developing educational material for parenting in the future. What was discovered was that what a family does together and the intentionality of parents to spend time working on their marital relationship actually have more of an impact on their satisfaction as parents than the actual time and activities spent one-on-one with their children.

Training parents to maintain their relationship with their spouse and focus on doing things together as a family unit will result in a more satisfying experience as a parent. This study has found that the one-on-one efforts a parent puts into their children, while meaningful and necessary for the nurturance and development of their children, is not as important as family time and couple's time together; that is if your end goal is to be satisfied with your parenting.

Limitations

This study revealed several limitations. Some related to the survey tools, while others involved demographics and the lack of ability to isolate their specific life situation. Each of these limitations will be discussed individually.

Many of the questions on the FTRI were specific to parents with teenagers or younger children. It appears that this confused some parents, who tried to answer questions that did not apply to their children's age or skipped questions altogether that did apply to their situation.

Also, 12.5% of respondents were single, divorced, or widowed. Many of the questions specifically referred to the interaction between parents as it related to their children. During analysis, these respondents were eliminated from consideration in the analysis of those particular subscales. It is of concern, though, that the parent parenting by themselves may have additional stress, which influenced their answers to other questions on the survey.

Because of the diversity in the ages of the children whose parents participated in this study, the five subscales utilized in the analysis for Ha1 resulted in distorted data. A better approach may have been to limit the study to either parents of non-teens or parents of teenagers. The reason the three subscales worked in the analysis of Ha2 was in part because the questions used to make up each subscale applied to parents with either teenagers or non-teenagers.

There must also be a conversation about external influencers of parenting satisfaction. Pedro (2012) reported that the more couples were united in co-parenting, the higher their marital satisfaction. Their findings also indicated that when one parent's marital satisfaction was elevated over the other parent, it had a positive influence on the other parent's relationship with their children, resulting in stronger parent-child relationships and the enhancement of respect, cooperation, and commitment between parents (Pedro et al., 2012). To a degree, the findings in this current study support Pedro's research. One thought to investigate concerning this, though, is the impact that marital satisfaction has on parenting satisfaction. Are parents more satisfied with their parenting simply because they are satisfied in their marriage?

The same question can be posed about general life satisfaction. There are mixed results in research attempting to determine if there is a correlation between a sense of happiness in life and satisfaction as a parent (Grossbard & Mukhopadhyay, 2013). Beliefs held over recent decades are that parenthood is a path toward a meaningful and fulfilled life (Hansen, 2012). This leads the researcher to conclude that a differentiation must be established between general life satisfaction and specific satisfaction with parenting.

One final limitation to be discussed is the number of participants included in this study and the impact on statistical power. The goal for this study was to have a minimum of 100 participants. However, due to the limited number of respondents, the final *N* was 88. By

lowering the statistical power from 90% to 85% to accommodate for the reduced *N*, the study loses some strength, resulting in a slight rise in the risk of a Type II error. This results in the greater possibility of not rejecting H_0 when H_0 is actually false; however, statistical power is still above .80, which is the recommended lower limit of statistical power for correlation studies (Warner, 2013, p.108).

Recommendations for Future Research

The PSOCS Parenting Satisfaction Subscale is a good tool for measuring parenting satisfaction. However, the FTRI tool has limitations unless it is used for specific demographic situations (i.e.... only parents of non-teenagers, only parents who parent along with a parenting partner, etc.). Recommendations would include either limiting the participant population to parents with specific aged children or increasing the *N* to the point that separate analyses could be made for different parenting situations while still maintaining the statistical power of the correlation study. The FTRI is also hard to interpret since each question result is the total of both the question and the parent's placement of importance on the question. In situations when the parent does a specific task consistently but does not place a high value on that task, the predictor becomes convoluted. It would be better to utilize a scale that isolates the practice and importance as two separate measurements.

As stated in the Limitations section of this study, there are mixed results in research attempting to determine if there is a correlation between a sense of happiness in life and satisfaction as a parent (Grossbard & Mukhopadhyay, 2013). Beliefs held over recent decades are that parenthood is a path toward a meaningful and fulfilled life (Hansen, 2012). This leads the researcher to conclude that a differentiation must be established between general life satisfaction and specific satisfaction with parenting. The same thought holds true for marital

satisfaction. A distinction must be made between marital satisfaction and parenting satisfaction (Pedro et al., 2012).

Conclusion

In summary, this study found that the most satisfied parents are the ones who make a concerted effort to spend time together as a family unit, eat meals together as a family, and focus on maintaining their marital relationship. Satisfaction as a parent is not simply a result of working with their children; it is creating a family environment that is inclusive of all family members. One can only speculate on why this creates parental satisfaction. That may be a topic for the next research project.

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Appendix A - Assessment Instruments

Demographic Questionnaire

Please respond to all statements/questions as they relate to you and your child(ren). Identify only one answer for each statement/question unless instructed to do otherwise.

1. How many children do you have currently living in your home?
    1. 1
    2. 2
    3. 3
    4. 4
    5. More than 4

2. The age of my oldest child currently living at home is:
    _____

3. The age of my youngest child currently living at home is:
    _____

4. My Gender is:
    1. Male
    2. Female

5. My Age is:
    1. Under 18
    2. 18-21
    3. 22-25
    4. 26-30
    5. 31-35
    6. 36-40
    7. Over 40
6. My Education Level is:
    1. Less than high school
    2. Some high school
    3. High school degree or equivalent
    4. Trade school
    5. Some college
    6. Associate degree
    7. Bachelor's degree
    8. Master's degree
    9. Doctorate, Ph.D. or higher

7. My Current Employment Status is:
    1. Employed Full-Time
    2. Employed Part-Time
    3. Not working: Currently looking for work
    4. Not working: Not currently looking for work
    5. Unable to work
    6. Retired
    7. Homemaker

8. My Total Household Income is:
    1. Less than $25,000
    2. $25,000 - $50,000
    3. $51,000 - $100,000
    4. $101,000 - $200,000
    5. More than $200,000

9. My Current Relationship Status is:
    1. Single: Never married
    2. Separated
    3. Divorced
    4. Widowed
    5. Not married: Currently living with my partner
    6. Currently married to my child(ren)'s biological parent
    7. Currently married to someone other than my child(ren)'s biological parent

10. My Parenting Situation is:
    1. I am a single parent with sole custody of my child(ren)
    2. I am a single parent with shared custody of my child(ren)
    3. My child(ren)'s biological parent and I raise our child(ren) together in the same household
    4. My child(ren)'s stepparent and I raise my child(ren) together in the same household
    5. I raise my child(ren) with the help of my parents/grandparents/other family members

11. My parenting partner and I:
    1. Never agree on how to parent our child(ren)
    2. Sometimes agree on how to parent our child(ren)
    3. Agree most of the time on how to parent our child(ren)
    4. Are always in agreement on how to parent our child(ren)
    5. I am a single parent and do not have a parenting partner

12. My Religious Affiliation is:
    1. Catholicism/Christianity
    2. Judaism
    3. Islam
    4. Buddhism
    5. Hinduism
    6. Atheist
    7. Other

13. The number of times each week that I attend a religious activity (Church, Temple, Small Group, etc.) is:
    1. 0
    2. Less than once
    3. At least once
    4. At least twice
    5. At least 3 times
    6. 4 or more

14. I spend time alone with God in prayer and worship:
    1. Never
    2. Seldom
    3. 1-2 times each week
    4. 3-4 times each week
    5. 5 or more times each week

15. When evaluating my emotions, today I feel:
    1. Better than I normally do
    2. About the same as I normally do
    3. Worse than I normally do

16. When evaluating my physical aches and pains, today I feel:
    1. Better than I normally do
    2. About the same as I normally do
    3. Worse than I normally do

17. When evaluating my sleep last night, I slept:
    1. Better than I normally do
    2. About the same as I normally do
    3. Worse than I normally do

18. At this moment I feel: (check the one you feel the most at this moment)
    1. Depressed
    2. Sad
    3. Tired
    4. Happy
    5. Excited
    6. Stressed
    7. Mad
    8. Angry
    9. Hopeful
    10. Anxious
    11. Nervous
    12. Calm

19. On average, the amount of time I spend on social media talking about or researching parenting issues is:
    1. I do not use social media for parenting information
    2. Once or twice every couple of weeks
    3. Once or twice each week
    4. Up to 1 hour each day
    5. 1-2 hours daily
    6. More than 2 hours daily

20. The number of family and friends I have in my social network that support me as a parent is:
    1. None
    2. 1-2
    3. 3-4
    4. More than 4

Family Time and Routines Index
(FTRI)

Directions:

First, read the following statements and determine if that statement applies to your situation. If it does not, select **"Not Applicable"** and move to the next statement.

Second, if the statement applies to your situation, decide to what extent it is false or true about your family and select the appropriate answer: **False, Mostly False, Mostly True, or True**.

Third, if the statement applies to your situation, determine the importance of each routine to keeping your family together and strong and select the appropriate answer: **Not Important, Somewhat Important, or Very Important**.

NOTE: You will select two answers for each statement that is applicable to you.

	Truth of the Statement				**Importance of the Statement**		
Not Applicable	False	Mostly False	Mostly True	True	Not Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Work Day and Leisure Time Routines

1. Parent(s) have some time each day for just talking with the children.
2. Working parent has a regular play time with the children after coming home from work.
3. Working parent takes care of the children some time almost every day.
4. Non-working parent and children do something together outside the home almost every day (e.g., shopping, walking, etc…).
5. Family has a quiet time each evening when everyone talks or plays quietly.
6. Family goes some place special together each week.
7. Family has a certain family time each week when they do things together at home.
8. Parent(s) read or tell stories to the children almost every day.
9. Each child has some time each day for playing alone.
10. Children/teens play with friends daily.

Parent(s') Routine

11. Parents have a certain hobby or sport they do together regularly.
12. Parents have time with each other quite often.
13. Parents go out together one or more times a week.
14. Parent(s) often spend time with teenagers for private talks.

Family Bedtime Routines

15. Children have special things they do or ask for each night at bedtime (e.g., story, good-night kiss, hug, etc…).
16. Children go to bed at the same time almost every night.

Family Meals

17. Family eats at about the same time each night.
18. Whole family eats one meal together daily.

Extended Family Routines

19. At least one parent talks to his or her parents regularly.
20. Family has regular visits with relatives.
21. Children/teens spend time with grandparent(s) quite often.
22. We talk with/write to relatives usually once a week.

Leaving and Coming Home

23. Family members check in or out with each other when someone leaves or comes home.
24. Working parent(s) comes home from work at the same time each day.
25. Family has certain things they almost always do to greet each other at the end of the day.
26. We express caring and affection for each other daily.

Family Disciplinary Routines

27. Parent(s) have certain things they almost always do each time the children get out of line.
28. Parent(s) discuss new rules for children/teenagers with them quite often.

Family Chores

29. Children do regular household chores.
30. Mothers do regular household chores.
31. Fathers do regular household chores.
32. Teenagers do regular household chores.

Family Time and Routines Index
(FTRI)
Scoring Procedures
(McCubbin, & Sievers, 2016)

The Family Routines instrument yields two scores, one for the extent to which each of the routines is true for the family and one for the degree to which the respondent values or views the routine as important.

The first score is arrived at by summing the numerical value of the items selected (i.e., 0=False, l=Mostly False, 2=Mostly True and 3=True) to get a total Family Routines Score for each subsection.

The second score for each item is determined by assigning a value of 0=Not Important, l=Somewhat Important, 2=Very Important. Value scores can be used for each individual item or totaled for each subscale.

If a respondent selects "Not Applicable" that item is removed from scoring.

A score for each of the subscales, Child Routines, Couple Togetherness, Meals Together, Parent-Child Togetherness, Family Togetherness, Relatives Connection, Family Chores, and Family Management can be determined by adding the scores for the items included in each subscale. This score would indicate which types of routines the family engages in. Likewise, a score for the value placed on the routines in each of these areas can be determined by adding the value of the items selected in each of the subscales in the valuing columns.

The eight subscales are as follows:

Subscale 1:	Child Routines	Items: 9, 10, 15, 16
Subscale 2:	Couple's Togetherness	Items: 11, 12, 13, 25
Subscale 3:	Meals Together	Items: 17, 18
Subscale 4:	Parent-Child Togetherness	Items: 1, 2, 3, 8, 14
Subscale 5:	Family Togetherness	Items: 5, 6, 7, 26
Subscale 6:	Relative's Connection	Items: 19, 20, 21, 22
Subscale 7:	Family Chores	Items: 29, 32
Subscale 8:	Family Management	Items: 23, 27, 28, 30, 31

Parenting Sense of Competency Scale
(PSOCS)

Please answer all of the questions using the following scale. ***Please check the box below the statement that best expresses your response to each item.***

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1. The problems of taking care of a child are easy to solve once you know how your actions affect your child. An understanding I have acquired.
2. Even though being a parent could be rewarding, I am frustrated now while my child is at his/her present age.
3. I go to bed the same way I wake up in the morning, feeling I have not accomplished a whole lot.
4. I do not know why it is, but sometimes when I'm supposed to be in control, I feel more like the one being manipulated.
5. My mother/father was better prepared to be a good parent than I am.
6. I would make a fine model for a new parent to follow in order to learn what he/she would need to know in order to be a good parent.
7. Being a parent is manageable, and any problems are easily solved.
8. A difficult problem in being a parent is not knowing whether you are doing a good job or a bad one.
9. Sometimes I feel like I am not getting anything done.
10. I meet my own personal expectations for expertise in caring for my child.
11. If anyone can find the answer to what is troubling my child, I am the one.
12. My talents and interests are in other areas, not being a parent.
13. Considering how long I've been a parent, I feel thoroughly familiar with this role.
14. If being a parent of a child were only more interesting, I would be motivated to do a better job as a parent.
15. I honestly believe I have all the skills necessary to be a good parent to my child.
16. Being a parent makes me tense and anxious.
17. Being a good parent is a reward in itself.

Parent Sense of Competency Scale
(PSOCS)
Scoring Instructions

Each item is rated on a 6 point Likert scale valued as follows:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Somewhat Disagree
3 = Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Somewhat Agree
6 = Strongly Agree

Items 1, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13, 15, and 17 are scored at face value.
Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 14, and 16 are reverse coded. (1=6, 2=5, 3=4, 4=3, 5=2, 6=1)

To establish a total score for the PSOCS:

Total all number values for each item (reverse coding as indicated); this is the participants PSOC score.

To establish isolated scores for each of the two subscales divide the items as follows (remember to reverse code those items listed above):

Satisfaction Subscale – Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 14, and 16
Efficacy Subscale – Items 1, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13, 15, and 17

A higher total score or subscale score indicates a higher parenting sense of competency. There are no average scores or ‘cut-off’s’ for this tool.

Appendix B – Recruitment and Consent Forms

Participant Recruitment Email

Dear Fellow Liberty Student:

As a graduate student in the School of Behavioral Science at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctorate. The purpose of my research is to determine if there are specific parenting routines performed by parents that contribute to an elevated level of parenting satisfaction, and I am writing to invite eligible participants to join my study.

Participants must be 18 years of age or older and must currently parent one or more children in their place of residence. Participants, if willing, will be asked to go to the following website and complete a demographic survey, a parenting satisfaction survey, and a survey about their parenting practices. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the procedures listed. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

In order to participate, please click here [redacted].

A consent document is provided as the first part of the survey. The consent document contains additional information about my research. After you have read the consent form, please click the link to proceed to the research survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

Sincerely,

Chris Kretschman, MSW
Doctoral Student, Doctor of Education, Community Care and Counseling
[redacted]

Participant Recruitment Follow-Up Email

Dear Fellow Liberty Student:

As a graduate student in the School of Behavioral Science at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctorate. Last week an email was sent to you inviting you to participate in a research study. This follow-up email is being sent to remind you to click on the following link if you would like to participate and have not already done so. The deadline for participation is (Date).

Participants, if willing, will be asked to go to the following website and complete a demographic survey, a parenting satisfaction survey, and a survey about their parenting practices. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the procedures listed. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

In order to participate, please click here [redacted].

A consent document is provided as the first part of the survey. The consent document contains additional information about my research. After you have read the consent form, please click the link to proceed to the research survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

Sincerely,

Chris Kretschman, MSW
Doctoral Student, Doctor of Education, Community Care and Counseling
[redacted]

Participant Solicitation Flyer

Research Participants Needed

Identifying The Impact of Specific Parenting Routines On Self-Reported Parenting Satisfaction

Are you 18 years of age or older?
Do you currently parent one or more children in your place of residence?

If you answered yes to each of the questions listed above, you may be eligible to participate in a research study.

My name is Chris Kretschman. I am a member of [redacted] serving as a missionary in Zambia, Africa. As a graduate student in the School of Behavioral Science at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctorate.

The purpose of my research is to determine if there are specific parenting routines performed by parents that contribute to an elevated level of parenting satisfaction, and you are receiving this handout as an invitation to join my study.

Eligible participants will be asked to go to the following website and complete a demographic survey, a parenting satisfaction survey, and a survey about their parenting practices. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the surveys. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

In order to participate, please go to this website [redacted] or scan the following QR code: and complete the survey

[redacted]

A consent document is provided as the first part of the survey. The consent document contains additional information about my research. After you have read the consent form, please click the link to proceed to the research survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

Thank you for considering participation in this study!
Chris Kretschman, MSW
Doctoral Student, Doctor of Education,
Community Care and Counseling at Liberty University
Please contact [redacted] if you desire more information concerning this study

[redacted]

Participant Consent Form

Title of the Project: Identifying the Impact of Specific Parenting Routines on Self-Reported Parenting Satisfaction
Principal Investigator: Chris Kretschman, Doctoral Candidate, School of Behavioral Science, Liberty University

Invitation to be Part of a Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. In order to participate, you must be 18 years of age or older and must currently parent one or more children in your place of residence. Taking part in this research project is voluntary.

Please take time to read this entire form and ask questions before deciding whether to take part in this research.

What is the study about and why is it being done?

The purpose of the study is to determine if there are specific parenting routines performed by parents that contribute to an elevated level of parenting satisfaction.

What will happen if you take part in this study?

If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to do the following:

1. Complete an online survey through SurveyMonkey. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey.

How could you or others benefit from this study?

Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include: Parenting practices identified through this study, which have a positive relationship with elevated levels of parenting satisfaction, will be able to be compiled into a parenting curriculum and taught to parents encouraging them to incorporate those practices into their own families.

What risks might you experience from being in this study?

The expected risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

How will personal information be protected?

The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous.
- Data will be stored on a password-locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Is study participation voluntary?

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting that relationship.

What should you do if you decide to withdraw from the study?

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Whom do you contact if you have questions or concerns about the study?

The researcher conducting this study is Chris Kretschman. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions, **you are encouraged** to contact him at [redacted]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, Dr. Daniel Marston, at [redacted]

Whom do you contact if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the IRB. [redacted].

Disclaimer: The Institutional Review Board (IRB) is tasked with ensuring that human subjects research will be conducted in an ethical manner as defined and required by federal regulations. The topics covered and viewpoints expressed or alluded to by student and faculty researchers are those of the researchers and do not necessarily reflect the official policies or positions of Liberty University.

Your Consent

Before agreeing to be part of the research, please be sure that you understand what the study is about. You can print a copy of the document for your records. If you have any questions about the study later, you can contact the researcher using the information provided above.

Do you agree to the above terms? By clicking "Yes," you consent that you are willing to participate in this survey, and you will be taken to the survey page. Clicking "No" will direct you away from this page.

○ Yes ○ No