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Parenting Styles and Children's Usage of the Internet in the Digital Age

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Abstract

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Abstract

Research is limited on the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles, particularly fathers' Internet parenting styles. Baumrind's parenting styles typology guided this quantitative, cross-sectional assessment of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old on 4 dimensions of the Parenting Style Scale; 6 subscales of the Internet Parenting Style Instrument, hours a child spent on the Internet for school versus entertainment, and several key demographics to examine canonical correlation dimensions relating traditional and Internet parenting styles and to examine differences in styles between mothers and fathers. A convenience sample (N =129) was collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk workers via SurveyMonkey. On the first canonical root, participants who had high authoritative and high indulgent scores tended to stop unsuitable websites and tended to have high scores on supervision, rules, support, and communication. A second significant root indicated those who had low neglectful scores, lower levels of education, were older, whose child was older, and whose child spent more entertainment Internet hours tended to not stop Internet chatting and to have low scores on rules and supervision. Mothers scored significantly higher than males on Internet communication, supervision, rules, and stopping unsuitable websites. Positive social change can result in improved parent-child communication as fathers engage in an authoritative parenting style of their children's usage of the Internet. Children's behavior can change from the active involvement of fathers to provide supervision and rules for time limits and content limits for the online activities of children age 6-13 years old.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to the late professor, Dr. Susan Kontos, my undergraduate mentor in the Department of Child Development and Family Studies at Purdue University. Dr. Susan Kontos was a key figure in my career decision to attend graduate school and pursue the doctorate degree. I dedicate this dissertation to my father who has been my lifelong champion, inspiration, and role-model in my success in higher education and who has always believed in me. He has provided invaluable guidance, knowledge, mentorship, and resources for me to fulfill my lifelong dream to earn the Ph.D. and become "the first woman in our families to earn the Ph.D.". Thank you, daddy!!! I also will become a second-generation Ph.D. holder in our families. I dedicate this dissertation to my mother who has always believed in me, supported, and encouraged my completion of the Clinical Psychology Ph.D. Program at Walden University. I dedicate this dissertation to my twin brother as my first friend in the world who has always supported and encouraged my success in the completion of my doctoral coursework, dissertation, field experience, and residencies at Walden University. The Ph.D. has been a meaningful journey and milestone that represents the foundation of my career as a scholar-practitioner in the field of Clinical Psychology.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The literature is dominated by research which focuses on the traditional and Internet parenting styles of mothers (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke, Bonte, De Wever, & Rots, 2010; Wong, 2010). As a result, there is limited research on fathers' traditional and Internet parenting styles (Anderson, 2016; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). The potential positive social change implications of the study are relevant to parents of children in *Generation Z*, who are *Digital Natives* (Seemiller & Grace, 2016; Singh, 2014; Tapscott, 2009). Parents of Generation Z cannot avoid the presence of the Internet in the educational and entertainment spheres of children and adolescents. Some parents of Digital Natives are Digital Natives, themselves, while other parents *are Digital Immigrants* (McPake & Plowman, 2013; Uhls, 2015).

Clinicians can use the body of knowledge from this study to guide fathers to engage in an Authoritative parenting style to promote fathers' increased communication, parental control, guidance, and support of their children's Internet usage which research shows is mostly demonstrated by mothers (Anderson, 2016; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). Clinicians can also apply the findings of this study to help mothers and fathers engage in an Authoritative Internet parenting style to provide parental control, clear expectations, and responsible behavior on the Internet for children age 6-13 years old (Anderson, 2016; Eastin, Greenberg, & Hofschire, 2006; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010). An egalitarian approach to parenting has

the potential to contribute to equal amounts of monitoring and supervision by mothers and fathers of children's Internet usage.

This chapter includes the problem of the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles, the purpose of the proposed study, the research questions and hypotheses, and an introduction to the theoretical basis for the study, which is Baumrind's parenting styles typology. The assumptions, scope, delimitations, limitations and significance of the study will be addressed before transitioning into Chapter 2.

Background

The Internet is pervasive and so is its use, in 2015, 66% of children age 3 to 14 used the Internet (Morris, 2016) and among children age 8 to 11, 41.5% of males and 36.3% of females were found to use the Internet many times a day (eMarketer, 2014). Research investigating the influence of parenting styles on children's Internet usage has increased in recent times (Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016). Previous research has indicated the dominance of research on Internet parenting styles focused on mothers more than fathers (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Wong, 2010). In fact, the majority of studies, which have focused on mothers, have expanded the understanding of mother-child interactions with respect to the Internet. The research pertaining to the differences between mothers and fathers with respect to traditional and Internet parenting styles, however, is limited (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al.,

2010). The characteristics and hierarchy of Internet parenting styles demonstrated by parents has been discussed in prior research.

Overall, studies have shown parents who adopted an Authoritative parenting style as an Internet parenting style defined and discussed rules with children and encouraged discussions about Internet use (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016). Findings by Valcke et al. (2010), revealed among Internet parenting styles, the Authoritative Internet parenting style was dominant followed by Permissive, Authoritarian, and Laissez-faire parenting styles. Further, Valcke et al. (2010) found the Permissive parenting style was the second most common parenting style practiced by parents as their particular Internet parenting style. Further studies have concluded the Neglectful parenting style as the least common parenting style practiced by parents as their Internet parenting style (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Lou, Shih, Liu, Guo, & Tseng, 2010). Studies have shown parents engaging in Authoritarian parenting imposed regulations on their children's Internet usage (Byrne & Lee, 2011).

Most studies on Internet parenting styles have concentrated on parents' knowledge of the Internet as the primary shaper of ones' parenting style. Wong (2010) identified parental background factors of higher education, Internet literacy (the ability to engage, comprehend, critique and create information, content and communicate on the Internet) and an Authoritative parenting style influenced children's behaviors on the Internet. A study by Ktoridou et al. (2012) identified that parents with Internet literacy provided an awareness of Internet threats and discussed protective strategies with children. Lou et al. (2010) found parents with high Internet literacy encouraged their

children to use the Internet and regulated children's online behavior whereas parents with low Internet literacy trusted their children and did not regulate the online behavior of children. This research extended the understanding of the relationship between Internet literacy and Internet parenting styles. If we better understood Internet parenting styles, particularly predictors of Internet parenting styles such as the relationship with traditional parenting styles (Authoritarian, Authoritative, Permissive, Neglectful), sex and age of parent, and sex and age of child, targets and avenues for positive social change interventions to increase father-child communication surrounding Internet usage can be developed and implemented.

Problem Statement

The research problem of this study was the differences of traditional and Internet parenting styles between mothers and fathers. Over the past several years, research investigating the Internet usage among children age 6-13 years old using Baumrind's parenting styles typology has been conducted (Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Ktoridou et al., 2012; Lou et al., 2010; Özgür, 2016). Previous literature has also expanded to examine gender effects and parenting styles, as mothers were more likely to provide supervision of Internet use among children age 6-13 years old which aligns with an Authoritative parenting style (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010). As a result, research focusing on the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles is limited.

Previous research has not examined the multivariate relationship of Baumrind's traditional parenting styles with Internet parenting styles (Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Ktoridou et al., 2012; Özgür, 2016). This study focused on Baumrind's parenting styles typology. Notably, there was a dearth of research on the differences between mothers and fathers regarding traditional and Internet parenting styles (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional design study was twofold: (a) examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles. In addition, the study: (b) examine the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) and time per week a child spends on the Internet.

To examine the multivariate canonical relationships, the Parenting Style Scale developed by Saunders, Hume, Timperio, and Salmon (2012) measured the independent or predictor variables: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful parenting style subscale scores. The demographic questionnaire provided data on the age of the child; sex of child; the age of parent respondent; sex of parent respondent; and the interaction of respondent-child sex. The dependent or outcome variables were the average hours per week a child engages with an Internet enabled device (IED), which for this study was defined as a personal computer (PC), laptop, tablet, cell phone or smart phone,

and video game console. The Internet Parenting Style Instrument developed by Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, and Rodrigo (2013) also measured the dependent or outcome variables: three subscales of Parental Control (Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules), and two scale scores of Parental Warmth (Communication and Support).

For the purpose of examinination of mothers and fathers' differences, sex of parental respondent was the independent variable and each of the four traditional parenting style subscale scores and each of the five Internet parenting style subscale scores were the dependent variables.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What are the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales and time per week a child spends on the Internet?

Null hypothesis 1 ($H_0$1): There are no statistically significant dimensions.

Alternative hypothesis 1 (H_a1): There is at least one statistically significant dimension.

RQ2: While controlling for sex and age of the child, to what extent do mothers and fathers differ on each of the four traditional parenting style subscales-Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and each of the five Internet parenting style subscales-Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules, Communication, and Support identified by Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, and Rodrigo (2013)?

All the hypotheses below are with respect to controlling for sex and age of child.

Null hypothesis 2a ($H_0$2a): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Authoritative subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2a (H_a2a): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Authoritative subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2b ($H_0$2b): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Authoritarian subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2b (H_a2b): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Authoritarian subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2c ($H_0$2c): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Indulgent subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2c (H_a2c): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Indulgent subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2d ($H_0$2d): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Neglectful subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2d (H_a2d): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Neglectful subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2e ($H_0$2e): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Supervision subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2e (H_a2e): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Supervision subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2f ($H_0$2f): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Stopping Internet Usage subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2f (H_a2f): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Stopping Internet Usage subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2g ($H_0$2g): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Internet Usage Rules subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2g (H_a2g): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Internet Usage Rules subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2h ($H_0$2h): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Communication subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2h (H_a2h): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Communication subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2i ($H_0$2i): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Support subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2i (H_a2i): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Support subscale score.

Variables

Four independent variables and six dependent variables were examined in this quantitative, cross-sectional design study.

Independent Variables

The Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) measured the four independent variables: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful parenting style subscale scores.

Dependent Variables

A demographic questionnaire administered to each participant measured the one dependent variable, the average hours per week a child engages with an Internet enabled device (IED), defined in this study as a personal computer (PC), laptop, tablet, cell phone or smart phone, and video game console. The Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) measured the other five dependent variables: three subscales of Parental Control (Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules), and two subscale scores of Parental Warmth (Communication and Support).

Theoretical Foundation

Parenting Styles Typology

The theoretical framework that undergirded this study represents the most prominent parenting styles typology established by developmental psychologist, Diana Baumrind in 1966 (Baumrind, 1966). The parenting styles typology, according to developmental psychologists, focuses on parental behaviors varying in the warmth and responsiveness toward their children and the level of parental demands or control (Berk, 2010; Keil, 2014; Miller, 2016). The theoretical framework of parenting styles explains parents can display high or low on the dimensions of warmth and control and the

combination of warmth and control results in particular parent-child interactions aligned with specific parenting styles (Freed, 2015; Givertz, 2016; Gold, 2015).

The theoretical propositions and major hypotheses of Baumrind's typology comprises three parenting styles influencing children's attitudes and behaviors. The first, Authoritative parenting, involves high attentiveness and responsiveness to children's needs, an explanation of clear guidelines and limits, and the encouragement of autonomy and independence (Baumrind, 1966). The second style, Authoritarian parenting, involves low attentiveness, restriction, controlling behavior, and the discouragement of autonomy and independence (Baumrind, 1966). The third parenting style, Permissive parenting, involves inattentiveness, no behavioral control, no demands on children, and allows them to determine their own activities (Baumrind, 1966).

A fourth parenting style builds upon Baumrind's parenting styles typology and was developed by developmental psychologists, Eleanor Maccoby and John Martin in 1983. The fourth parenting style theoretical framework is Uninvolved or Neglectful parenting which involves unresponsiveness, no control, and lack of involvement in the behavior of children (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This study referred to the fourth parenting style as Neglectful parenting.

Baumrind's parenting styles typology and Maccoby and Martin's fourth parenting style related to this study's approach, research questions, and hypotheses in the following manner. First, the theoretical framework guiding the study provided a foundation to investigate how mothers and fathers parenting styles (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive, and Neglectful), and the age of the child influenced parental control of

activities and time spent by children engaging Internet enabled devices. Second, the theoretical framework provided a foundation of how mothers and fathers' aforementioned parenting styles and the age of the child influenced parental warmth (communication and support) with children engaging Internet enabled devices. Third, the theoretical framework was the knowledge base for the two instruments used in this study, the Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013). Baumrind's parenting styles typology and Maccoby and Martin's fourth parenting style are discussed further in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

In this quantitative, cross-sectional design study, the Internet parenting styles of participants was examined by the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013). Participants completed a demographic questionnaire which included: (a) gender, (b) highest level of education, (c) annual household income, (d) age, (e) age of the child, (f) gender of the child, (g) amount of time the child spends on the Internet, and (h) devices used by the child when spending time on the Internet.

The four independent variables were: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful parenting styles subscale scores measured by the Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012). The one independent variable, the average hours per week a child engages with an Internet enabled device (IED), was collected on the demographic questionnaire completed by participants. An IED is defined

in this study as a personal computer (PC), laptop, tablet, cell phone or smart phone, and video game console. The other five dependent variables: three subscales of Parental Control (Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules), and two subscale scores of Parental Warmth (Communication and Support) was measured with the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013).

The population for this study was mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. A convenience sample was recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). For adequate statistical power, 128 participants were needed. The study used canonical correlation and factorial ANCOVAs for statistical analyses of the independent and dependent variables in the study. Chapter 3 provides more discussion on the research methodology used in this study.

Definitions of Key Terms

Acceptance: Parenting involving the display of empathy towards the child of understanding his or her experience (Baumrind, 1966).

Active mediation: Parent-child discussions focusing on media content to encourage children's critical thinking skills of media (Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015).

Authoritative parenting style: A parenting style that involves high attentiveness and responsiveness to children's needs, an explanation of clear guidelines and limits, and the encouragement of autonomy and independence (Baumrind, 1966).

Authoritative parenting style as an Internet parenting style: Parents engaging in open communication about expectations and rules for children's Internet usage (Freed,

2015; Gold, 2015; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

Authoritarian parenting style: A parenting style that involves low attentiveness, restriction, controlling behavior, and the discouragement of autonomy and independence (Baumrind, 1966).

Authoritarian parenting style as an Internet parenting style: Parents commanding strict rules about the content and time allowed for children to spend on the Internet (Gold, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

Canonical correlation: A statistical analysis procedure used to find the relationship between two sets of multidimensional variables (Statsoft Inc., 2013; Sun, Ji, & Ye, 2011).

Co-viewing: Parents viewing media together with their child without engaging in a critical discussion of the media content (Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015).

Demandingness: The amount of monitoring, supervision, and expectations parents provide for their children's activities (Baumrind, 1966).

Digital immigrants: The population that was not born in the digital world and have adapted to the usage of technology in their personal and professional lives (Prensky, 2001).

Digital natives: The population born after 1980 and raised in the digital information age

(Prensky, 2001).

Early adolescence: The stage of adolescence: 11-12 to 14 years of age (Berk, 2010).

Early childhood: The stage of childhood development: 2-6 years of age (Berk, 2010).

Enablers: Parents that are digital enablers provide children with a high quantity of screen time and access to digital devices (Samuel, 2016).

Factorial ANCOVA: A statistical analysis procedure that examines the influence of two or more predictor (independent) variables on an outcome (dependent) variable while removing the effect of the covariate factor (Statistics Solutions, 2013).

Generation Z: The generation of children born between 1995-2010, whose lives are immersed in the Internet through activities of instant messaging (IM), text messages, smartphones, and engagement in various platforms of social media to create, share, and consume digital content (Heitner, 2016; Palfrey & Gasser, 2016; Seemiller & Grace, 2016; Singh, 2014; Tapscott, 2009).

Indulgent parenting style: A parenting style that involves responsiveness, acceptance, imposes few rules, and little punishment on children (Baumrind, 1966).

Internet parenting styles: Four parenting styles and Internet control aligned with Baumrind: Authoritative parenting style, Authoritarian parenting style, Permissive parenting style, and Laissez-faire parenting style (Valcke et al., 2010). A fifth parenting style, the Neglectful parenting style aligns with Maccoby and Martin's Neglectful parenting style (Valcke et al., 2010).

Involvement: A parent displaying praise in the accomplishments of the child and supporting optimum child development (Baumrind, 1966).

Joint media engagement (JME): Opportunities for a parent to engage in coactivity with a child on media activities to support the child's understanding of media content (Stevens & Penuel, 2010; The Joan Ganz Cooney Center, 2017).

Laissez-faire parenting style: A parent that is uninvolved in the child's life and offers few or no demands on the child's activities (Baumrind, 1966).

Laissez-faire parenting style as an Internet parenting style: Parents not offering a supportive view about the child's use of the Internet and offering few technology rules for the child (Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

Late adolescence: The stage of adolescence: 16 to 18 years of age (Berk, 2010).

Limiters: Parents that are digital limiters minimize the time their children use technology (Samuel, 2016).

Mentors: Parents that are digital mentors are actively involved in their children's Internet usage (Samuel, 2016).

Middle adolescence: The stage of adolescence: 14 to 16 years of age (Berk, 2010).

Middle childhood: The stage of childhood development: 6-11 years of age (Berk, 2010).

Neglectful parenting style: Parents are detached and uninvolved in the lives of their children (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Neglectful parenting style as an Internet parenting style: Parents have no technology rules for the child and leaves the child alone on the Internet; the parent does not interfere when the child is on the Internet (Freed, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014).

Parental control: Parents providing guidelines and restrictions for a child's behavior to internalize the standards of parents (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind, 1996; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Parental mediation: Parents interactions with their child concerning the restrictions of content and time of media use (Nathanson, 2008).

Parental monitoring: Parents having an awareness of their child's activities and friendships with peers (Stattin & Kerr, 2000).

Permissive parenting style: Parents providing children with limited guidance and direction in their lives and accepting the actions of the child (Baumrind, 1966).

Permissive parenting style as an Internet parenting style: Parents not setting concrete boundaries for their child's Internet use; parents accepting all of the child's choices when he or she is on the Internet (Freed, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010).

Responsiveness: Parents expressing love towards the child conveyed in verbal and nonverbal communication, emotional support, and nurturing the child's individuality (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind, 1968; Baumrind, 1996; Baumrind, 2005).

Restrictive mediation: Parents enacting limits on the content and time of specific media in the household (Heitner, 2016; Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015).

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made for this study: First, it was assumed that mothers and fathers who volunteered to participate in this study did not differ from parents not participating on any relevant study criteria. Second, the sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was appropriate for the study. Third, it was assumed the participants of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old would respond to the instruments, the Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) with accuracy and honesty regarding the parenting styles of their children. Fourth, it was assumed the participants who responded to the survey were mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. Lastly, it was assumed the selection of participants have children between the ages of 6-13 years old who engage with Internet enabled devices.

Scope and Delimitations

Areas of the research problem addressed in this study: (a) examine the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) and time per week a child spends on the Internet; and (b) examine the

differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles. These areas were chosen as the review of the literature revealed paucity of the differences between mothers and fathers in regard to traditional and Internet parenting styles.

Inclusion Criteria

Defining the boundaries of the study comprises identifying populations included and excluded in the study. The inclusion criteria included a sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. Limiting the sample to mothers and fathers draws clear conclusions about the research and is logically congruent with the research problem. The inclusion criteria of participants in the study also involves selecting a sample of mothers and fathers of children at the child development stages of: Early Childhood, Middle Childhood, and Early Adolescence. According to Berk (2010), Early Childhood includes children from 2-6 years of age, Middle Childhood includes children from 6-11 years of age, and Early Adolescence includes adolescents from 11-12 to 14 years of age. Additionally, parents from diverse family structures were encouraged to participate in the study including parents providing care for children in nuclear families, single parent families, extended families, and blended families. This study focused on mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. A sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old was recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) for the study.

Exclusion Criteria

The exclusion criteria included a sample of female caregivers that have custody of children age 6-13 years old such as grandmothers, aunts, siblings, and other significant individuals. The exclusion criteria included a sample of male caregivers that have

custody of children age 6-13 years old such as grandfathers, uncles, siblings, and other significant individuals. The exclusion criteria of participants in the study were mothers and fathers of middle and late adolescents. According to Berk (2010), Middle Adolescence includes youth from (14 to 16 years) and Late Adolescence includes youth from (16 to 18 years). Parents of adolescents were not included in the study.

Generalizability

The potential generalizability of the study includes findings applicable to mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. The findings of the study are applicable to mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old from nuclear families, single parent families, extended families, and blended families. The findings are also applicable to mothers and fathers of girls and boys age 6-13 years old.

Limitations

The following limitations were made for this study: First, this study utilized two questionnaire instruments and are, therefore subject to potential response bias among participants. As previously discussed, the two instruments in the study were the Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013). Second, this study conceptualizes parental control of activities and time as the hours during a week spent by children engaging Internet enabled devices. Third, this study focused on a sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. The study was limited to children in the following stages of child development as defined by Berk (2010): Early Childhood as (2-6 years of age), Middle Childhood as (6-11 years of age) and Early

Adolescence as (11-12 years to 14 years of age). Therefore, the generalizability of the findings to parents of adolescents in the stages of Middle Adolescence (14 to 16 years) and Late Adolescence (16 to 18 years) is not possible. This was a correlational study which provides an understanding of the possible relationships among and between the predictor and outcome variables in the study. A correlational study observes what naturally occurs in the world without direct interference and does not explain a causal (cause and effect) relationship among variables in the study (Field, 2013).

Significance of the Study

This study will add to the literature in psychological research that exists on Baumrind's and Maccoby and Martin's theoretical frameworks of parenting styles. The findings will fill a gap in understanding of how mothers and fathers engage in specific parenting styles to influence parental control of the activities and time of children on the Internet. This research has the potential to support professional practice as psychologists and mental health professionals apply specific theoretical orientations in family therapy to enhance parent-child communication and support to promote safe navigation of children on the Internet. The findings will contribute to positive social change as educational and community institutions develop prevention programs for parents that offer training in parenting skills on traditional and Internet parenting styles for youth. As a result, mothers and fathers will learn and apply Internet parenting styles to influence the behaviors and critical appraisal of children age 6-13 years old engaging with Internet enabled devices for education and entertainment.

Summary

Chapter 1 presented the background and purpose for the study on the differences between mothers and fathers regarding traditional and Internet parenting styles (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). The research questions and hypotheses were stated followed by a rationale of how the theoretical framework guiding the study relates to the research questions and hypotheses. The nature of the study was addressed, the definitions of key terms were provided, and an explanation of the assumptions and limitations that apply in the study were discussed. The implications for positive social change were briefly highlighted. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive literature review to address seminal research and current scientific studies in clinical psychology, developmental psychology, human development and selected areas in the social sciences.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

There is a paucity in the literature of fathers' Internet parenting styles. Specifically, there is a gap in the research on the differences between mothers and fathers regarding traditional and Internet parenting styles (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional design study was twofold: (a) examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles. Additionally, the study: (b) examine the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) and time per week a child spends on the Internet. The majority of the research on parenting styles has shown mothers provide supervision of the Internet use among children age 6-13 years old and applied an Authoritative parenting style (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010).

This chapter begins with a description of the literature review strategy. The first section of the chapter discusses the theoretical foundation of Baumrind's parenting styles typology. Next, the findings of studies on parenting styles are analyzed and synthesized. Then, the key variables of Internet parenting styles are discussed and provide an understanding of the connection between traditional and Internet parenting styles. The chapter concludes with a summary of the literature reviewed.

Literature Search Strategy

The scope of literature reviewed regarding years searched was 2011- 2017. The literature was identified from the following library databases: (a) PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, Google Scholar, ScienceDirect, SAGE Premier, ProQuest Central, EBSCOHost, Academic Search Complete, and ERIC using the following key search terms and relevant combinations in the order in which the researcher first used the listed key search terms: *parenting*, *parenting styles, children, mothers, fathers, Internet, Internet parenting styles, digital media, millennials, digital natives, digital immigrants, tablets, smartphones, laptops, personal computers (PCs), monitoring, supervision, Baumrind, Maccoby and Martin, the Parenting Style Scale*, *the Internet Parenting Style Instrument*, (b) Studies retrieved were examined to further identify additional articles for inclusion, (c) seminal research and recent psychology and social science texts were examined in Google Books, EBSCO eBooks, and PsycBOOKS, (d) literature was also identified from Think Tanks.

Baumrind's Parenting Styles Typology

The psychological based theoretical framework guiding this study was Baumrind's seminal parenting styles typology which is the most leading and prominent theoretical framework on parenting in developmental psychology for more than four decades (Baumrind, 1966). Baumrind's pioneering work on parenting styles has provided theoretical and research applications in varied academic disciplines and furthered the understanding of child development and parenting (Baumrind, 1966). The objective of the typological approach to parenting by Baumrind focused on understanding and

supporting optimal approaches for parents to engage in the socialization of their children to produce the best child development outcomes (Baumrind, 1966).

Baumrind identified three parenting styles based on research of parents and preschool children that included data from observations in the home, the laboratory, and parent interviews: Authoritative, Authoritarian, and Permissive parenting styles (Baumrind, 1966). Her renowned work established optimal parenting combined responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (control) (Baumrind, 1966). The tenets of Baumrind's parenting styles holds that the Authoritative parenting style is characterized by (high responsiveness and high demandingness); the Authoritarian parenting style (low responsiveness and high demandingness); and the Permissive parenting style (high responsiveness and low demandingness) (Baumrind, 1966).

Parenting styles are impacted by ethnicity and culture. A finding that emerged from Baumrind's research was Authoritarian parenting correlated with negative outcomes in middle class, European-American families and was not correlated with negative outcomes in low-income, African-American families (Lansford, Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 2004; LeCuyer, Swanson, Cole, & Kitzman, 2011; Power, 2013). In Baumrind's third study utilizing home observations, data on 16 African-American families were excluded from the cluster analysis as these families displayed different patterns than the other families in the sample (Baumrind, 1971; Power, 2013).

Later in 1983, Maccoby and Martin extended Baumrind's theory to include a fourth parenting style of Uninvolved or Neglectful parenting (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Key concepts explaining Baumrind's parenting styles typology include: (a)

responsiveness, (b) demandingness, (c) acceptance, and (d) parental control (Baumrind, 1966). These concepts provide a framework to understand traditional and Internet parenting styles.

Responsiveness (Warmth)

Responsiveness is the first major factor that emerged from factor analytic studies of childrearing (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1996; Baumrind, 2005; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Responsiveness involves a high or low measure of warmth and attachment in the parent-child connection (Freed, 2015). The construct of *warmth is* defined as the love and compassion displayed by the parent towards the child expressed through verbal approval, sensory stimulation, tenderness of expression, and touch control (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind, 1968; Baumrind, 1971).

Responsiveness refers to parents deliberately nurturing individuality and self-regulation and describes the level which a parent provides accommodation and cultivation of a child's individual needs (Gold, 2015: Keil, 2014). Parents engaging in responsiveness encourage individuality and self-assertion by demonstrating parental support towards the demands and needs of children with displays of support, warmth, and reasoned communication (Baumrind, 1996; Baumrind, 2005).

Demandingness

Demandingness is the second major factor that emerged from factor analytic studies of childrearing (Baumrind, 1966). Demandingness involves a high or low measure of how much parents supervise and provide expectations for their children (Freed, 2015: Keil, 2014). In addition, demandingness refers to the parental socialization

of children to become integrated into the domains of family and society; demandingness includes monitoring and supervision of children's activities, direct confrontations and consistent discipline (Baumrind, 1996; Baumrind, 2005). The integration of Baumrind and Maccoby and Martin resulted in the classification of four types of parenting styles: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive, and Neglectful. The four parenting styles vary in the dimensions of *acceptance* and responsiveness, and the dimensions of demand and *control* (Keil, 2014; Santrock, 2007).

Acceptance

Acceptance involves the display of empathy towards the child by acknowledging and understanding his or her experience (Baumrind, 1967). Acceptance encompasses *involvement* as the parent displaying pride and praise in the accomplishments of the child and the protection for the well-being of the child (Baumrind, 1967). Maccoby and Martin explain involvement as the commitment of parents promoting optimal child development. In the classification of parenting styles, the dimension of acceptance and responsiveness includes parents providing accepting, responsive parenting or rejecting, unresponsive parenting (Berk, 2010; Santrock, 2007).

Parental Control

Parental control includes parents providing restrictions and guidelines concerning children's behavior (Gold, 2015: Freed, 2015). Adults engaging in parenting control involves the socialization processes of parental actions to shape the child's activities, modify aggressive, and playful behavior and promote the child to internalize parental standards (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Research Aligned with Parenting Styles

Numerous research studies have shown that the Authoritative parenting style has been associated with positive outcomes in children and adolescents in psychological and cognitive development, mental health, social and moral maturity, cooperativeness, self-control, self-reliance, high self-esteem, academic performance, greater socialization, and friendly relations with peers (Amato & Fowler, 2002; Hart, Newell, & Olsen, 2003; Gonzalez & Wolters, 2006; Mackey, Arnold & Pratt, 2001; Milevsky et al., 2007). These research findings support Authoritative parenting as the optimal parenting style which has a combination of high levels of responsiveness and demandingness (Criss & Larzelere, 2013).

Sorkhabi (2013) conceptualized Authoritative parenting as an integrated child-centered and parent-centered approach to parenting with goals of socializing children towards autonomy, self-reliance, and competence. Further studies have revealed Authoritative parents engaged in gradual, autonomy-granting that is age-appropriate, permitting the child to make decisions when he or she is ready (Kuczynksi & Lollis, 2002; Russell, Mize, & Bissaker, 2004). Moreover, Authoritative parents engage in parenting that is accepting, responsive and demanding, and there is a clear hierarchy of parents as the authority figures in the home (Freed, 2015; Santrock, 2007). Research findings concluded parents engaging in the Authoritative parenting style set clear and sensible expectations and rules for their children, were receptive to discussions, listened to children, and supported their children's unique characteristics (Baumrind, 1966; Kuczynksi, 2003; Valcke et al., 2010; Power, 2013; Power et al., 2013).

Studies have presented the Authoritarian parenting style subjected children to psychological control resulting in children displaying adjustment problems of anxiety, withdrawn and defiant behavior, and aggression (Barber & Harmon, 2002; Silk et al., 2003). In addition, Sorkhabi (2013) conceptualized Authoritarian parenting as a parent-centered approach centered on teaching children to show respect for the authority of parents reinforced by parents asserting power to achieve child compliance. The findings of studies have also explained parents practicing Authoritarian parenting used punishment to control their children, expected children to follow strict rules, discouraged discussions, limited the independence of their children, and decided acceptable behavior for children (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1991; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). Furthermore, Authoritarian parents engage in psychological control, display parental behaviors intrusive and manipulative of the child's individuality, and are unresponsive and demanding (Baumrind, 2005; Berk, 2010; Freed, 2015; Givertz, 2016; Santrock, 2007).

Findings by Valcke et al. (2010) reported Permissive parents did not have clear borders with their children; parents submitted to the wants, ideas, and wishes of their children, and did not provide instruction. Sorkhabi (2013) conceptualized Permissive parenting as a child-centered approach with the goal of nurturing autonomy in children with little importance of socializing children towards societal conventions. Permissive parents have low expectations and there is no clear hierarchy in the home (Freed, 2015). Earlier research from Buri (1989) revealed parents practicing Permissive parenting did not set expectations for their children which supports Freed (2015). The findings from

Buri (1989) also showed Permissive parents avoided confrontation which aligns with Valcke et al. (2010) that parents communicated with their children and offered unconditional support which differs from Valcke et al. (2010). Furthermore, Darling (1999) reported Permissive parents did not place demands on their child, avoided facing their child, and did not refuse the requests of the child that supports research by (Buri, 1989; Freed, 2015; Valcke et al., 2010). Previous studies also revealed the link between Permissive parenting and dependent, nonachieving behavior in children (Barber & Olsen, 1997; Baumrind, 1971; Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengart, & Cauffman, 2006).

Research by Gold (2015) revealed Indulgent parents as less likely to implement rules or display consistency with consequences. Furthermore, research conducted by Ihmeideh and Shawareb (2014) reported Indulgent parents avoided setting rules on their children's activities. Accordingly, Indulgent parents are accepting, responsive, undemanding, uncontrolling, and allow children to do what they want; parents have few rules concerning the child's schedule (Keil, 2014; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Santrock, 2007).

The findings of Kopko (2007) reported Neglectful parents did nothing concerning the behavior of their children, minimized involvement in their children's behavior, and provided children with limited or no emotional support or help. Ihmeideh and Shawareb (2014) concluded Neglectful parents had little communication with their children regarding their activities. The findings of (Kopko, 2007; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014) support earlier research by Maccoby (1992) that the Neglectful parenting style involved parents expressing poor communication and low interactions with their children.

Consequently, Neglectful parents are disconnected from the lives of their children and there is an absence of hierarchy in the home (Keil, 2014; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Freed, 2015).

Influence on This Study

Baumrind's parenting styles typology provides a theoretical framework that applies concepts relevant to mothers and fathers parenting children and adolescents engaging with Internet enabled devices. In this parenting styles typology, Baumrind integrates parental beliefs, attitudes, and practices which shape children's emotional and psychological well-being (Givertz, 2016). Parenting styles provides an understanding of the parental influence of children's usage of the Internet which has become an integral part of the lives of youth. The Internet poses some risks, researchers identified parents' concerns about their children's participation in online activities because of exposure to numerous risks including: exposure to pornography, sexual predators, hateful messages, misinformation, dishonest vendors, loss of privacy, and terrorism (Bullen & Hare, 2000; Varnhagen, 2007; Wartella & Jennings, 2009). Parents were also concerned about the development of childhood behavior disorders: Internet Addiction Disorder and social isolation (Bullen & Hare, 2000; Varnhagen, 2007; Wartella & Jennings, 2009).

In a 2010 survey conducted by Schwartz, of 955 children aged 13-17, 69% reported their physical location in status updates, and when chatting online with someone they do not know, about half used their real first name and 24% gave out their email address. A study of 341 parents surveyed in March 2015 (Statista, 2016), reported a child under 18 made unauthorized online purchases (64%); downloaded a virus (35%);

downloaded pirated music, books, or videos (30%); deliberately or accidently accessed online pornography (28%); and evaded or blocked time-limited parental restrictions (25%). In a nationally representative study of 4,000 households (Entertainment Software Association, 2016) 74% of parents reported placing time limits on children's use of the Internet, but, apparently of more concern, was placing time limits on offline video game playing (79%) and paying attention to the content of the video games their children played (93%).

Parents are aware of the threats associated with the Internet which may influence their parenting style. For this study, the traditional and Internet parenting styles of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old were viewed as important for the population being studied. The research questions build upon existing theory of the parenting styles typology to understand the differences between mothers and fathers Internet parenting styles of children.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

First, the review of the literature is organized beginning with an analysis and synthesis of research focusing on five Internet parenting styles: (a) Authoritative parenting, (b) Permissive parenting, (c) Authoritarian parenting, (d) Laissez-faire parenting, and (e) Neglectful parenting. Second, the research focused on the Internet parenting styles of mothers and fathers in the digital age is addressed. Third, the parenting styles in the digital age is discussed regarding parental age, level of parental education, and parental Internet literacy. Fourth, the styles of digital parenting are identified and synthesized with Internet parenting styles. Fifth, the research examining

parental monitoring and parental mediation is analyzed. Lastly, parental mediation regarding age of the child and sex of the child is discussed followed by a summary of Chapter 2.

Authoritative Parenting Style as an Internet Parenting Style

Several studies have found Authoritative parenting as the most common Internet parenting style practiced by parents (Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Lou et al., 2010; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010). Research has found the Authoritative parenting style, compared to the other parenting styles, was the most effective for the discipline of children (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). Studies have revealed the Authoritative parenting style applied to children's usage of the Internet involves parents setting clear directions and guidelines for children's Internet usage; Authoritative parents display high parental warmth, high involvement, and high control (high demands); parents engage in open communication of expectations for children to participate in responsible behavior on the Internet; Authoritative parents provide flexible, individualized technology rules for children (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

A study conducted by Ihmeideh and Shawareb (2014) that employed a survey of Jordanian parents of children enrolled in kindergarten, first grade, and second grade revealed the leading parenting style practiced by Jordanian parents was the Authoritative Internet parenting style, followed by the Permissive Internet parenting style, and the Authoritarian Internet parenting style. This finding is supported by Lou et al. (2010) that employed a survey to parents of sixth grade students' in the Kaohsiung County in Taiwan

and Valcke et al. (2010) which employed a survey of parents whose children were enrolled in the fifth and sixth grade at a primary school in Flanders (Dutch speaking area of Belgium). Both studies found the majority of parents utilized the Authoritative Internet parenting style (Lou et al., 2010; Valcke et al., 2010).

Furthermore, Horzum and Bektas (2014) reported similar findings as the majority of parents displayed the Authoritative Internet parenting style after distributing a cross-sectional survey to parents of primary school students in Sakarya, Turkey. The findings revealed the Authoritative Internet parenting style increased the Internet usage among children with goal-oriented activities of research and acquiring information and education on the Internet (Horzum & Bektas, 2014); the Laissez-faire Internet parenting style increased the Internet usage among children participating in entertainment in general (Horzum & Bektas, 2014).

The research of Özgür (2016) revealed different findings after employing a mixed-method approach; a cross-sectional survey was used to acquire the quantitative data collected from a group of students enrolled in primary and secondary schools in Edirne, Turkey; qualitative data was gathered from parents of the students. Özgür (2016) reported that the Internet parenting styles of families were primarily Laissez-faire, followed by Permissive, Authoritative, and Authoritarian Internet parenting styles.

Permissive Parenting Style as an Internet Parenting Style

Research has revealed the Permissive parenting style as the second most common parenting style of parents as their Internet parenting style (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). Studies have found the Neglectful parenting style as the most uncommon parenting style

of parents as their Internet parenting style (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Lou et al., 2010). Other studies revealed a dominance of other Internet parenting styles over the Authoritative Internet parenting style (Eastin, et al., 2006; Özgür, 2016). Eastin et al. (2006) found parents practiced both Authoritarian and Authoritative parenting styles.

Studies have shown the Permissive parenting style applied to children's usage of the Internet involves parents not having specific boundaries for their children; Permissive parents display high parental warmth, low involvement, and low control (low demands); parents avoid criticism, confrontations, and accept all of the children's choices when on the Internet; Permissive parents have an one-size-fits-all approach to technology rules (Gold, 2015; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

Authoritarian Parenting Style as an Internet Parenting Style

Studies have found the Authoritarian parenting style is reflected by parents imposing strict rules about the activities and time allowed for children to go on the Internet; Authoritarian parents display low parental warmth, low involvement, and high control (high demands); parents discourage an open exchange about children's Internet access and expect absolute obedience to follow rules without explanation, such as telling children the exact content they should view and browse on the Internet; Authoritarian parents provide lots of technology rules (Gold, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010).

Laissez-faire Parenting Style as an Internet Parenting Style

Studies have shown the Laissez-faire parenting style involves parents not providing a supportive or restrictive attitude to their child's Internet usage; Laissez-faire parents display low parental warmth, low involvement, and low control (low demands); Laissez-faire parents have few technology rules (Gold, 2015; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

Neglectful Parenting Style as an Internet Parenting Style

Research studies have revealed the Neglectful parenting style includes parents leaving their children alone while on the Internet; Neglectful parents display low parental warmth, low involvement, and low control (low demands); parents do not interfere when their children are on the Internet; parents offer little communication, support, or assistance to children regarding their questions or difficulties encountered on the Internet; Neglectful parents have no technology rules (Freed, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). An analysis and synthesis of the varied Internet parenting styles provides a theoretical framework to discuss research findings relevant to the population in this study.

The Internet Parenting Styles of Mothers and Fathers in the Digital Age

Mothers adopted mostly an Authoritative parenting style as their Internet parenting style, compared to the majority of fathers that adopted an Authoritarian parenting style as their Internet parenting style; mothers engaged in more continuing communication than fathers with their children and teenagers about their Internet usage (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010). Mothers displayed more parental control, guidance, support, and parental warmth than fathers

(Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). Research supports Authoritative parenting is related to more active mediation in regard to Internet use (Eastin et al., 2006; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011). The findings of Padilla-Walker and Coyne (2011) found that mothers reported active mediation and restrictive mediation with their adolescents more than fathers. Mothers provide supervision more than fathers and fathers provide more technological support (Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010). Wang, Bianchi, and Raley (2005) reported that fathers, young parents, parents that use the Internet with their children, and parents of younger teenagers engaged in higher levels of parental monitoring. The findings of Wang et al. (2005) differed from the findings of Valcke et al. (2010) that revealed parental control and parental warmth was higher among mothers than fathers. Anderson (2016) concluded mothers and fathers reported engaging in similar steps to monitor the digital behavior of their teenagers. However, Anderson (2016) found mothers were more likely than fathers to engage in frequent discussions with children and teens regarding appropriate and inappropriate behavior in a variety of online spaces and media environments.

Parenting Styles in the Digital Age and Parental Age

Wang et al. (2005) reported older parents displayed high parental control of children's Internet usage which differed from Valcke et al. (2010) which found younger parents demonstrated the highest level of parental control. Younger parents engaged in more parental warmth than older parents (Valcke et al., 2010). The sample in the Valcke et al. (2010) study were mothers and fathers of children enrolled in the fifth and sixth grade: the respondents were mostly women (61.53% mothers and 38.46% fathers). The

majority of the respondents were between the ages of 35 and 44 years old (70.50%); between the ages 45 and 54 years old (13.90%) and between 25 and 34 years old (13.5%). Unfortunately, the effect size of the Valcke et al. (2010) study was not reported. An estimation of the effect size is medium based on the data provided: 43.62% response rate of returned questionnaires ($N = 533$) (Valcke et al., 2010).

Younger parents are more likely than older parents to check the social media profiles of their teenagers (Anderson, 2016). In addition, Anderson (2016) reported 44% of younger parents (under 45 years of age) reported using parental controls of technological software for blocking, filtering, or monitoring their teenager's online activities compared to 34% of older parents (45 years and older). The effect size of the Anderson (2016) study also was not reported. A medium effect size was estimated based on the evidence provided: 39.8% response rate of completed surveys ($N = 1,637$) (Anderson, 2016).

Parenting Styles in the Digital Age and Level of Parental Education

Parents with a higher education level displayed more parental control and parental warmth (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). Özgür (2016) reported fathers of primary and secondary aged children, when fathers had an elementary school educational background, displayed a Laissez-faire parenting style towards children and their Internet usage. Mostly Permissive and Authoritative parenting styles were practiced by fathers with undergraduate degrees (Özgür, 2016).

Parenting Styles in the Digital Age and Parental Internet Literacy

Parents with a beginning level of Internet experience demonstrated less control of their children's Internet usage compared to parents with Internet experience ranked as a medium or high level (Valcke et al., 2010). The findings of Ktoridou et al. (2012) concluded parents that were Internet literate felt more secure and confident to discuss the dangers of the Internet with their children and encouraged communication for children to feel comfortable discussing Internet incidents. Parents that evaluated their children as having a beginning or medium level of experience with the Internet were controlled more and received more parental warmth as compared to children evaluated as having an expert or skilled level of Internet experience (Valcke et al., 2010). Internet parenting styles have expanded to styles of digital parenting which is discussed in the next section.

Styles of Digital Parenting

Survey research conducted by Samuel (2016) gathered from more than 10,000 North American families' focusing on how families manage technology, found parents could be divided into three groups based on how they limit or guide their children's screen time. Samuel (2016) refers to the groups as styles of digital parenting which have similarities to Internet parenting styles. The first group, digital *enablers* are children that have an abundance of screen time and access to devices (Samuel, 2016). The findings revealed a third of the parents surveyed adopted the approach of enablers and surrendered to their children's knowledge and allowed them to establish the family's technology agenda (Samuel, 2016). The approach of parents as digital enablers aligns with Laissez-faire parenting as an Internet parenting style. Parents of digital enablers, similar to

Laissez-faire parenting, provide children with more time online and have few technology rules (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010). According to Heitner (2016), digital enablers provide a Laissez-faire approach of non-parental engagement by not limiting or mentoring as children are free to choose their own activities.

The second group, digital *limiters* are parents that minimize their children's usage of technology (Samuel, 2016). The findings of the study concluded nearly half of parents of preschoolers adopted the limiting approach (Samuel, 2016). Parents practicing as digital limiters share characteristics with Authoritarian parenting as an Internet parenting style. The parental practice of digital limiting is similar to Authoritarian parenting providing many technology rules for children including the specific content they should consume online (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010). Parents practicing a digital limiting approach restrict their children's screen time without meaningful interactions about technology (Heitner, 2016; Samuel, 2016).

The third group, digital *mentors* have an active role guiding their children's Internet usage (Samuel, 2016). The findings revealed parents adopting the mentoring approach made up a third of the parents and this approach could be used from early childhood to late adolescence (Samuel, 2016). Digital mentors are more likely than digital limiters to have discussions with their children concerning how to utilize technology and the Internet (Samuel, 2016). The approach of digital mentoring aligns with Authoritative parenting as parents engage in open communication with their

children and provide clear directions and guidelines for their children's Internet usage (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015). Parents practicing digital mentoring engage in collaboration with their children about how to use technology and the Internet (Heitner, 2016; Samuel, 2016). The next section focuses on an analysis of *parental monitoring* and *parental mediation* which are important to the research problem and purpose of the study. The two concepts are defined and current research on parental mediation is applied to selected relevant variables in the study.

Parental Monitoring and Parental Mediation

The conceptualization of parental monitoring involves the integration of parenting practices of having the awareness of a child's and adolescents' activities, friendships with peers, and whereabouts (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Parental monitoring may involve parents asking children about their friendships on the Internet and the online activities they participate with friends online. Parental monitoring is connected to parental mediation. In the context of technology, parental mediation involves interpersonal interactions with children concerning their media use; parents using parental mediation engage in intentional actions of restricting children's and adolescents' time or exposure to specific content to reduce the negative effects of media content (Nathanson, 2008). Research conducted by Ktoridou et al. (2012) with parents of children ages nine to 16 in Nicosia, the capital of Cyprus, provided evidence of critical appraisal in parent-child relationships. Using a mixed methods approach, Ktoridou et al. (2012) reported the majority of parents engaged in discussions with their children about Internet dangers to monitor their children's Internet usage and access with restrictions and limits in the household. Parents

with Internet literacy were able to promote critical appraisal in children based on their knowledge and experience of completing tasks online. The research findings of Lee (2012) employed a survey to parents of children 10 to 15 years old in Korea, revealed Internet literacy among parents is required in order to implement varied mediation strategies. This finding supports an earlier study conducted by Padilla-Walker and Coyne (2011) which surveyed parents in the United States of children between the ages of 11 and 15 years old. According to Padilla-Walker and Coyne (2011), parental regulation was associated with both restrictive mediation and active mediation; the researchers suggested that the implementation of these two mediation styles involved parents explaining and discussing information with their children (Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011).

The significance of parental mediation on parent-child communication was discussed in Ktoridou et al. (2012), it was found that Internet literate parents felt more confident and secure to engage in discussions with their children concerning Internet dangers. Parents developed open communication to encourage children to feel comfortable reporting any incidents that might appear online. In a national sample of 456 parents of children 10 to 16 years of age, Byrne and Lee (2011), found children preferred receiving empowerment from their parents to protect themselves rather than restricting their Internet use. Nathanson (2002) concluded active mediation required a high level of parental effort and is one of the most successful media monitoring strategies during adolescence. An additional study that produced findings of the influence of parental mediation was a study conducted by Vaala and Bleakly in 2015. They reported adolescents that perceived their parents were monitoring their activities was predictive of

lower rates of participation in Instant Messenger (IM/chat), social networking, video streaming, and massive multiplayer online gaming activities (Vaala & Bleakly, 2015). The findings of Vaala and Bleakly (2015) support Nathanson (2002) that found that restrictive mediation was related to less positive attitudes towards parents, more positive attitudes toward the content, and more viewing of content with friends.

Parental Mediation and Age of Child

The impact of parental mediation is evident in the findings of a PewResearchCenter study conducted by Anderson (2016) that employed a national survey of parents of teenagers, ages 13 to 17 in the United States that revealed parents of younger teenagers reported engaging in a higher level of active involvement in parental monitoring of the digital behavior of teens. According to Anderson (2016), parents checked which websites their teen visited, checked the social media profiles of teens, looked through phone calls and messages of teens, utilized parental controls to monitor teens activities online, and used monitoring software to track the location of teens with his or her cell phone. The findings of Anderson (2016) supports previous research that parents employ more diverse mediation strategies and more frequently for younger children that spend time on the Internet (Ahn, 2008; Eastin et al., 2006; Hoffner & Buchanan, 2002; Lee, 2012; Livingstone & Helsper, 2008; Nathanson, 2008). Further studies support the findings of parents providing more parental control in younger children and younger adolescents than parents of older children and older adolescents (Lwin, Stanaland, & Miyazaki, 2008; Mitchell, Finkelhor, & Wolak, 2005; Valkenburg, 2002; Wang et al., 2005). Parents provide more explanation to younger children about

rules for Internet-usage than adolescents (Valcke et al., 2010). The findings of a study conducted by Valcke, Schellens, Van Keer, and Gerarts, (2007) found no differences in parental control according to different child age levels and were not confirmed in the Valcke et al. (2010) study. Children age 9-10 years old were controlled more frequently as compared to children age 11-13 years old (Valcke et al., 2010). Children age 9-10 years old received a higher level of parental warmth than older children (Valcke et al., 2010).

Parental Mediation and Sex of Child

Parents practiced a more Authoritarian parenting style towards their daughters and parents practiced a more Permissive parenting style towards their sons. (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). The findings of Padilla-Walker and Coyne (2011) concluded mothers' and fathers' use of restrictive mediation was higher for boys compared to girls, which might be due to adolescent boys at risk searching for violent media content and potentially developing addictions to media (Gentile, 2002). In contrast, the findings of (Valcke et al., 2007; Valcke et al., 2010) revealed no significant differences in parental control between boys and girls; Internet parenting styles did not differ significantly for daughters or sons. Parental media research is grounded in the television viewing behaviors of children and three styles have been identified: *restrictive mediation*, *co-viewing*, and *active mediation* (Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015).

Restrictive mediation refers to parents setting limits on the time or content of media use of children (Vaala & Bleakley, 2015). Parents using restrictive mediation enact

rules restricting certain media in the home (Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015). Restrictive mediation aligns with Heitner's (2016) time limits for children's screen time online. According to Heitner (2016), there are two types of limits: time limits and content limits. The level of restrictive mediation is associated with varied Internet parenting styles. Parents using an Authoritative Internet parenting style engage in meaningful discussions to explain the time limits and content limits with their children and encourage discussion of technology rules (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015). However, the Authoritarian Internet parenting style involves parents enforcing time limits and content limits with their children without discussion and expecting compliance (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Horzum & Bektas, 2014). The Permissive Internet parenting style results in parents having few rules regarding time limits and content limits for children (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015). Thus, the Laissez-faire Internet parenting style involves parents not setting any rules concerning the children's time limits and content limits with technology (Freed, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014).

Co-viewing originated with the advent of television as a new media technology amongst families (The Joan Ganz Cooney Center, 2017). At that time, parents sometimes joined their children to view a variety of television programs. For some television programs, parents were involved in co-viewing media with their children but often did not engage in critical discussion of the media content during the shared media experience (Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015). The parent-child behavior of co-viewing expanded to the Internet in the early 1990s as television was no longer the primary platform for viewing (Stevens & Penuel, 2010; The Joan Ganz

Cooney Center, 2017). The viewing location transitioned from the home recreation room to the Internet through the use of mobile devices, digital technologies, and other opportunities for children and parents to engage (The Joan Ganz Cooney Center, 2017). The concept, *joint media engagement* (JME) was coined to explain parents and children's interaction with the new Internet and is a new form of co-viewing (Stevens & Penuel, 2010; The Joan Ganz Cooney Center, 2017). Given the Internet was a more interactive digital media, JME provided broader opportunities between parents and children to engage in learning as a coactivity and a vehicle for further child development (Stevens & Penuel, 2010; The Joan Ganz Cooney Center, 2017). Joint media engagement aligns with the Authoritative Internet parenting style centering on parents collaborating with children to guide their knowledge and understanding of the Internet.

Active mediation involves discussions between parents and children about media content to encourage and promote children's critical thinking skills and comprehension (Lee, 2012; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011; Vaala & Bleakley, 2015). The purpose of active mediation is to assist children to develop into critical thinkers as they engage media content (Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011). As previously discussed, active mediation has been demonstrated by parents displaying an Authoritative Internet parenting style (Eastin et al., 2006; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011).

Combining the developmental psychology parenting styles theoretical framework may inform the Internet parenting styles of mothers and fathers. An analysis and synthesis of the media environment, supervision, and parental mediation (age of child and sex of child) are important factors to consider when parents select a specific Internet

parenting style. However, what remains to be studied are the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles of children age 6-13 years old (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010).

Summary

Chapter 2 presented a review of current literature on the parenting styles typology and Internet parenting styles in the context of the changing science of parenting from 1966 to the present. A principal focus in the literature review was Baumrind's parenting styles as the leading parenting typology in developmental psychology over four decades (Baumrind, 1966). The parenting styles typology provides a theoretical framework to understand the Internet parenting styles of mothers and mothers of children age 6-13 years old. Studies have revealed there is a paucity of research on fathers' traditional parenting styles and Internet parenting styles involved in the parental mediation of Internet use among children (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010). The majority of the research findings have focused on mothers' traditional parenting styles and Internet parenting styles (Anderson, 2016; Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010).

Knowledge of the specific factors that contribute to effective monitoring and supervision of children's Internet usage utilizing the parenting styles typology and constructs will help scholars and practitioners educate mothers and fathers. When parents gain and apply knowledge about traditional and Internet parenting styles, children and

adolescents benefit to improve communication with mothers and fathers about their experiences as youth on the Internet (Anderson, 2016; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). This body of literature builds a knowledge base for the analysis and understanding of the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles.

Chapter 3 provides a discussion of the research design and approach, including data collection, data analysis, and instrumentation. A description of the setting and sample are discussed, in addition to, threats to statistical conclusion validity, and protection of participants' rights.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional design study was twofold: (a) examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles. In addition, the study: (b) examine the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) and time per week a child spends on the Internet.

This chapter will discuss the research methods used for the study. An overview of the research design and approach to the study, setting and sample, instrumentation and data collection, and the data analysis procedures. A review of the threats to statistical validity, including the reliability of the instruments, assumptions, sample size, and the measures taken to protect the participants' rights concludes the chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

This is a quantitative study employing a nonexperimental design. The goal was to collect statistical data, which used two psychometrically sound instruments, to evaluate the time per week a child spends on the Internet and the differences between mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old on traditional and Internet parenting styles. The research tested specific hypotheses regarding the relationship between traditional parenting styles and Internet parenting styles, which used a convenience sample of

mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk).

The Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) measured the independent or predictor variables: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful parenting style subscale scores. The demographic questionnaire provided data on the age of the child; sex of child; the age of parent respondent; sex of parent respondent; and the interaction of respondent-child sex. For the purpose of examining mothers and fathers' differences, sex of parental respondent is the independent variable.

The dependent or outcome variables were the average hours per week a child engages an Internet enabled device (IED): personal computer (PC), laptop, tablet, cell phone or smart phone, and video game console. The Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) also measured the dependent variables: three subscales of Parental Control (Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules), and two subscale scores of Parental Warmth (Communication and Support). For the purpose of examining mothers and fathers' differences, each of the four-traditional parenting style subscale scores and each of the five Internet parenting style subscale scores are the dependent variables.

A nonexperimental design was chosen for this study as the observation or manipulation of the variables cannot occur and no intervention was provided. As a result, an experimental design is not appropriate. Employing a quantitative, cross-sectional design is appropriate for this study to: (a) examine the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales (Saunders, Hume,

Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) and time per week a child spends on the Internet; and (b) examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles. A cross-sectional design is associated with survey research and examines the relation between variables (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The time constraint is consistent with a quantitative, cross-sectional design as data was collected at one point in time. Time was conceptualized in the study as the demographic questionnaire measured the specific hours during the week in which children engage in activities on IEDs. At this time, no time or research constraints have been identified.

Survey research was the design choice for the study. Survey research has advantages including the following: (a) an interviewer does not have to be present for the administration of the survey and respondents are able to complete the survey at their convenience (Fowler, 2009); (b) the reduction of biasing error occurs among respondents to select a response to an item considered more socially desirable than other items as respondents are not influenced by the interviewer or techniques (Anastasi & Urbina, 2009; Fowler, 2009; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008); (c) the data collection process can have a rapid turnaround (Creswell, 2014).

Survey research also has disadvantages including: (a) low response rates (Fowler, 2009; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008); (b) completion of surveys require respondents are literate (Trochim, 2001); (c) Internet surveys require respondents to have a valid email address and access to a computer (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

Methodology

Population

The population for this study was mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. It was assumed participants varied in educational levels from high school to graduate degrees. Data was collected on a demographic questionnaire.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The sampling strategy utilized was convenience sampling to allow for a greater accessibility of participants (Creswell, 2014). The sampling frame follows: the inclusion criteria comprised a sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. The exclusion criteria included a sample of female caregivers that have custody of children age 6-13 years old such as grandmothers, aunts, siblings, and other significant individuals. The exclusion criteria included a sample of male caregivers that have custody of children age 6-13 years old such as grandfathers, uncles, siblings, and other significant individuals.

The G-Power software program (version 3.1.9.2) was used to calculate a sample size, using a standard alpha of .05 and power of .80. To compare the differences between mothers and fathers on each of the nine subscale scores, a sample of 64 each (128 total) is needed for alpha = .05, power = .80, and medium expected effect size of Cohen's $f = .25$ (Anderson, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010). For canonical correlation, per Cohen (1988) sample size is calculated based on alpha, power, noncentrality parameter (λ), the number of variables in each set, *u* and *s* (each derived by formula from the number of variables in each set), *v* (iteratively calculated from tables and formula), and expected effect size (f^2,

calculated from *s* and expected omnibus canonical R^2) . With 9 variables in one set and 6 in the other, u = 9x6 = 54, s = 5.1; with expected set R^2 = .25, f^2 = .06, v = 628, and λ = 41. Given these parameters at alpha = .05 and power = .80, sample size = 128.

Procedures for Recruitment of Participants

Participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Once the study was ready to be made available to participants, the researcher posted a research announcement for Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) (See Appendix A) and an online survey for Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) (See Appendix B). The online survey included PsycTESTS Permissions to use the two instruments for research: the Parenting Style Scale (See Appendix C) and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (See Appendix D). The online survey included a demographic questionnaire (See Appendix E).

Data Collection

Data was collected with the surveys, the Parenting Style Scale and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument and demographic questionnaire on SurveyMonkey using Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Once participants were identified, the researcher sent an invitation to each prospective participant (see Appendix A). The invitation was written in English. The invitation to participate in the study included a link to the study website which featured a description of the study. All participants were provided informed consent as authorization of his or her agreement to participate in the study. The following information was provided to each participant prior to beginning the study in the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) online survey (see Appendix B): (a) a statement naming the researcher as the primary investigator, (b) title and status, (c) the institution sponsoring

the study, (d) the purpose of the study, and (e) instructions for completing the study. Participation is confidential and entirely voluntary. The participants may withdraw from the study at any time, without negative consequences.

Instrumentation

The Parenting Style Scale

The Parenting Style Scale developed by Saunders, Hume, Timperio, and Salmon (2012) assesses Indulgent, Authoritative, Authoritarian, and Neglectful parenting styles. Each participant had a metric score on each subscale. The Parenting Style Scale is made up of 19 items, which are divided into four subscales, Indulgent, Authoritative, Authoritarian, and Neglectful. The items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale with responses that range from never (1); rarely (2); sometimes (3); often (4); and always (5). The Indulgent subscale consists of 5 items, the Authoritative subscale consists of 5 items, the Authoritarian subscale consists of 5 items, and the Neglectful subscale consists of 4 items. The internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the parenting styles ranged from 0.62 for a Neglectful parenting style to 0.77 for an Authoritarian parenting style. For purposes of this research, mean composite subscale scores were calculated and used in all inferential analyses.

The Internet Parenting Style Instrument

The Internet Parenting Style Instrument developed by Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, and Rodrigo (2013) assesses parental control and parental warmth. Each participant had a metric score on each subscale. The Internet Parenting Style Instrument is made up of 25 items, which are divided into two subscales, Parental Control and

Parental Warmth. The items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale with responses that range from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The Parental Control subscale consists of 4 items on Supervision, 2 items on Stopping Internet Usage, and 5 items on Internet Usage Rules. The Parental Warmth subscale consists of 11 items on Communication and 3 items on Support. The reliability of the Internet Parenting Style Instrument follows: the Cronbach's alpha of the parental warmth subscale is .90. Cronbach's alpha of the parental control subscale is .78. For purposes of this research, mean composite subscale scores were calculated and used in all inferential analyses.

Demographic Questionnaire

Participants completed a brief questionnaire to gather data on demographic information (See Appendix E). Data collected included: (a) gender, (b) highest level of education, (c) annual household income, (d) age, (e) age of the child, (f) gender of the child, (g) amount of time the child spends on the Internet, and (h) devices used by the child when spending time on the Internet.

All information collected on the demographic questionnaire will remain confidential. No names were used on the questionnaires.

Operationalization of Variables

The identification of the levels of measurement is critical for the operational definition of the predictor and outcome variables. The demographic questionnaire measured the participants of mothers and fathers as categorical binary variables, the classification of two categories: male and female (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008; Reynolds, 2007). The highest level of education, on the demographic

questionnaire, is an interval variable which is ranked ordered and has a meaningful level of quantification (Field, 2013; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008; Reynolds, 2007). The demographic questionnaire measured the predictor variables, participant age and age of child, as continuous ratio variables as the unit of age is rank ordered and characterized by the presence of an absolute zero on the scale (Field, 2013; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008; Reynolds, 2007; Salkind, 2017). The gender of child, on the demographic questionnaire, was measured as a categorical binary variable: male and female (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008; Reynolds, 2007). On the demographic questionnaire, the hours during the week the child spends on the Internet for classwork or study purposes and entertainment is an interval variable. Time is an interval variable as hours are equidistant from each other and time has a natural zero point (Field, 2013; Salkind, 2017).

Data Analysis Plan

A thorough data analysis was conducted and included elimination of participants that did not complete both survey instruments and the demographic questionnaire. All responses were analyzed for completeness and responses that failed to meet the criteria required for both survey instruments were eliminated. As discussed earlier in Chapter 1, the inclusion criteria included a sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Female caregivers that fit the exclusion criteria included a sample of women that have custody of children age 6-13 years old such as grandmothers, aunts, siblings, and other significant individuals. Male caregivers that fit the exclusion criteria includes a sample of men that have custody of

children age 6-13 years old such as grandfathers, uncles, siblings, and other significant individuals.

The software used to test the hypotheses was the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics for Windows, Version 25. An explanation of data cleaning and screening procedures will be discussed before the data is inferentially analyzed. To test the hypotheses 1, a canonical correlation was performed. To test hypotheses 2a-2i factorial ANCOVAs was used to test the differences between mothers and fathers on each subscale while controlling for sex and age of child.

Restatement of Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What are the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales and time per week a child spends on the Internet?

Null hypothesis 1 ($H_0$1): There are no statistically significant dimensions.

Alternative hypothesis 1 (H_a1): There is at least one statistically significant dimension.

RQ2: While controlling for sex and age of the child, to what extent do mothers and fathers differ on each of Saunders, Hume, Timperio, and Salmon (2012) four traditional parenting style subscales (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful) and each of Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, and Rodrigo (2013) five Internet parenting style subscales (Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules, Communication, and Support)?

All the hypotheses below are with respect to controlling for sex and age of child.

Null hypothesis 2a ($H_0$2a): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Authoritative subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2a (H_a2a): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Authoritative subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2b ($H_0$2b): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Authoritarian subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2b (H_a2b): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Authoritarian subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2c ($H_0$2c): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Indulgent subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2c (H_a2c): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Indulgent subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2d ($H_0$2d): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Neglectful subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2d (H_a2d): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Neglectful subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2e ($H_0$2e): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Supervision subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2e (H_a2e): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Supervision subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2f ($H_0$2f): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Stopping Internet Usage subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2f (H_a2f): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Stopping Internet Usage subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2g ($H_0$2g): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Internet Usage Rules subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2g (H_a2g): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Internet Usage Rules subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2h ($H_0$2h): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Communication subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2h (H_a2h): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Communication subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2i ($H_0$2i): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Support subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2i (H_a2i): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Support subscale score.

Canonical Correlation

The study utilized canonical correlation to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses for RQ1 and factorial ANCOVAs to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses for RQ2. A Pearson correlation coefficient (r) is a single number that assesses the degree of relationship between two quantitative variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). In a canonical correlation analysis, the purpose is to examine the relationship between two sets of multidimensional variables (Garson, 2015; Statsoft Inc., 2013; Sun et al., 2011). The advantage of canonical correlation analysis is the technique is able to

examine a wide variety of possible interrelationships among independent variables and dependent variables in the social sciences (Levine, 1977; Thompson, 1984). According to Sherry and Henson (2005), the multivariate technique of canonical correlation analysis represents the highest level of the general linear model (GLM) and honors the multiple variables examined in psychological research. Therefore, canonical correlation is an appropriate statistical analysis for this study.

Factorial Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)

The study also utilized factorial Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) for the statistical analysis to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses. Factorial ANCOVA is a statistical procedure that uses the *F-ratio* to test the overall fit of a linear model, controlling for the effect that one or more covariates have on the outcome variable (Field, 2013). The covariate variables are the four (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful) parenting style subscale scores measured by the Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012).

For the purpose of this study, canonical correlation analysis and factorial ANCOVA was utilized to: (a) examine the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) and time per week a child spends on the Internet; and (b) examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles.

Threats to Validity

The identification of threats to validity is important to the integrity of the research findings. A number of steps were taken to minimize the potential risks associated with external and internal validity. These steps are discussed as applicable to the study.

Threats to External Validity

In the current study, one plausible threat to external validity is interaction of selection and treatment (Creswell, 2014). Due to the narrow characteristics of the participants in the study which were mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), the researcher cannot generalize to individuals who do not have the characteristics of the participants (Creswell, 2014).

Threats to Internal Validity

The potential threat to internal validity in this study includes selection. Creswell (2014) defines selection as participants selected for the study who have certain characteristics that predispose them to have certain outcomes. The characteristics of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old selected for the study recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) may contribute to the participants having certain outcomes.

Threats to Statistical Conclusion Validity

The researcher completed active measures to avoid the potential threats to internal and external validity and used approaches from research studies as a reference and guide.

Ethical Procedures

Ethical considerations are essential to uphold the integrity and ethical standards of research. The following sections discussed steps taken to safeguard the ethical protection of all participants in the study. Following ethical considerations to provide protection for all participants are critical for this study.

Description of Treatment of Data

The collection of data by the researcher ensured participant anonymity. The surveys did not collect the Internet Protocol (IP) address of the participants. SurveyMonkey offers a setting to allow the survey creator to collect responses anonymously (SurveyMonkey, 2016). The surveys did not contain any identifying information of the participants including the following: name, date of birth, identification numbers, mailing addresses, and email addresses.

Protections for Confidential Data

Following the completion of data collection, the data was downloaded and stored on a password protected external hard drive, only accessible to the researcher. Data collected to SurveyMonkey will be maintained for one year, upon which time it will be deleted. Data downloaded and maintained on an external hard drive will be stored for five years (American Psychological Association, 2010). At the end of this time frame ending on December 31, 2023, the data will be permanently deleted. All data analysis and interpretation were conducted and reported accurately and honestly. Copies of the findings will be available to participants in clear and reader-friendly language (American Psychological Association, 2010; Creswell, 2014) upon request.

Summary

Chapter 3 presented a description of research methods for this quantitative, survey, cross-sectional design study to examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles of children age 6-13 years old. The researcher recruited participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). This chapter provided a description of the research design, setting and sample, and the instrumentation. The Parenting Style Scale and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument along with a demographic questionnaire were used for data collection. The reliability of the two instruments were discussed, in addition to the threats to external validity, internal validity, and statistical conclusion validity. Lastly, ethical considerations and safeguard procedures were presented. Chapter 4 will include the presentation and analysis of the findings of the study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study was to examine the differences between mothers and fathers on traditional and Internet parenting styles. The Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) examined multivariate canonical relationships of traditional parenting styles and key demographic predictors. In addition, the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013) was used to examine Internet parenting styles and time per week a child spends on the Internet. This study included the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: What are the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales and time per week a child spends on the Internet?

Null hypothesis 1 ($H_0$1): There are no statistically significant dimensions.

Alternative hypothesis 1 (H_a1): There is at least one statistically significant dimension.

RQ2: While controlling for sex and age of the child, to what extent do mothers and fathers differ on each of the four traditional parenting style subscales-Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and each of the five Internet parenting style subscales-Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules, Communication, and Support identified by Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, and Rodrigo (2013)?

All the hypotheses below are with respect to controlling for sex and age of child.

Null hypothesis 2a ($H_0$2a): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Authoritative subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2a (H_a2a): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Authoritative subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2b ($H_0$2b): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Authoritarian subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2b (H_a2b): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Authoritarian subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2c ($H_0$2c): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Indulgent subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2c (H_a2c): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Indulgent subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2d ($H_0$2d): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Neglectful subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2d (H_a2d): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Neglectful subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2e ($H_0$2e): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Supervision subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2e (H_a2e): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Supervision subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2f ($H_0$2f): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Stopping Internet Usage subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2f (H_a2f): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Stopping Internet Usage subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2g ($H_0$2g): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Internet Usage Rules subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2g (H_a2g): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Internet Usage Rules subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2h ($H_0$2h): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Communication subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2h (H_a2h): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Communication subscale score.

Null hypothesis 2i ($H_0$2i): Mothers and fathers do not significantly differ on the Support subscale score.

Alternative hypothesis 2i (H_a2i): Mothers and fathers significantly differ on the Support subscale score.

In this chapter, the results of the data collection and data analysis for this study are presented. First, descriptive statistics of the sample are discussed. Second, data analysis of canonical correlation to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses for RQ1 are presented. Third, data analysis of factorial ANCOVAs to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses for RQ2 are presented. The chapter ends with a summary and introduction to Chapter 5.

Data Collection

After approval from Walden University's IRB, data were collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) workers via SurveyMonkey ($N = 129$) from October 31, 2018 through November 18, 2018. Of the 129 surveyed participants, one participant had missing data on two Internet Parenting Style items. Both missing items were from the communication subscale, which has 11 total items. The mean of this participant across the other nine items was used to replace the missing data.

Descriptive Statistics of Sample

The descriptive statistics of the sample are displayed in Tables 1 and 2 for the categorical and quantitative variables, respectively. There were nearly an equal number of male and female parent participants, but half again as many male ($n = 79$) than female ($n = 50$) children. Three-fourths of the parents had a bachelor's or higher degree, and annual household income was fairly evenly distributed. Nearly half of the parents reported their child's primary Internet device was a personal computer or laptop; the least used device was a video game console.

The average age of parents was about 35, ranging from 22 to 55. The youngest child was 6 and the oldest was 13 ($M = 8.6$). On average, parents reported their child spent slightly more time on the Internet for entertainment purposes than school related purposes. All quantitative variables had adequate variance for analysis and were within robust normality parameters of skewness $\leq \pm 3.0$ and kurtosis $\leq \pm 10.0$ (Kline, 2016).

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics of Sample—Categorical Variables (*N = *129)*

Variable	*n*	%
Parent's gender		
Male	64	49.6
Female	65	50.4
Child's gender		
Male	79	61.2
Female	50	38.8
Parent's highest level of education		
High school	17	13.2
Associate's	15	11.6
Bachelor's	70	54.3
Master's	27	20.9
Annual household income		
0 to 14,999	20	15.5
15,00 to 24,999	19	14.7
25,000 to 34,999	21	16.3
35,000 to 49,999	22	17.1
50,000 to 74,999	24	18.6
75,000 to 99,999	11	8.5
100,00 to 149,999	12	9.3
Child's primary Internet device		
Personal computer or laptop	60	46.5
Tablet	26	20.2
Cell or smart phone	40	31.0
Video game console	3	2.3

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics of Sample—Quantitative Variables (*N = *129)*

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Min.	Mdn.	Max.	*S*	*K*
Parent's age	35.2	6.8	22	34	55	0.8	0.4
Child's age	8.6	2.4	6	8	13	0.5	-1.2
Internet hours: school	6.0	5.5	0.0	4.0	25.7	1.8	3.1
Internet hours: entertainment	7.7	5.8	0.0	6.0	28.1	1.3	1.3

Table 3 provides descriptive statistics of each of the composite scales for The Parenting Style Scale and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument. The Internet Parenting Style stopping subscale had insufficient reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .58), so the two items that made up the stopping composite (website and chatting) were used, instead of the subscale, in all further analyses. All the other subscales had adequate reliability, adequate variance, and acceptably normal skewness and kurtosis values.

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics of Composite Scales (*N = *129)*

Composite	α	*M*	*SD*	Min.	Mdn.	Max.	*S*	*K*
Parenting style								
Indulgent	.68	3.79	0.59	1.80	3.80	5.00	-0.31	0.46
Authoritative	.80	4.02	0.65	1.80	4.00	5.00	-0.42	0.11
Authoritarian	.78	3.78	0.68	1.60	3.80	5.00	-0.35	-0.05
Neglectful	.83	2.56	0.75	1.00	2.50	4.75	0.43	-0.56
Internet parenting style								
Supervision	.68	3.60	0.75	1.75	3.75	5.00	-0.35	-0.38
Stopping	.58	3.80	0.91	1.00	4.00	5.00	-0.55	0.01
Website	na	4.03	0.98	1.00	4.00	5.00	-0.68	-0.15
Chatting	na	3.57	1.19	1.00	4.00	5.00	-0.34	-0.87
Rules	.80	3.80	0.83	1.20	3.80	5.00	-0.64	0.22
Communication	.92	4.00	0.70	1.45	4.00	5.00	-0.37	0.14
Support	.75	3.72	0.78	1.33	3.67	5.00	-0.48	0.17

Note. α = Cronbach's alpha; *S* = skewness; *K* = kurtosis. Website and chatting are the two items that made up the Stopping subscale.

Results

In this section I first report preliminary analyses of the intercorrelations among the parenting style subscales, intercorrelations among the Internet parenting style subscales, the relationship of sex and age of child with Internet hours for school and entertainment, and the relationships between parent and child characteristics. This is

followed by results of the canonical correlation to answer the first research question regarding the relationships between the set of parenting style subscales and the set of Internet parenting style subscales, and the results of the factorial ANOVAs to answer the second research question regarding mother and father differences on each of the parenting subscales.

Intercorrelations Among Parenting Style Subscales

The intercorrelations of the four subscales of The Parenting Style Scale are listed in Table 4. Authoritative and authoritarian scores were negatively related to neglectful scores. Authoritative and authoritarian scores were positively correlated and, unexpectedly, authoritative and indulgent scores were highly correlated.

Table 4

*Subscale Intercorrelations of The Parenting Style Scale (*N = *129)*

	Indulgent	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Neglectful
Indulgent		.51	.13	.14
Authoritative	< .001		.38	-.19
Authoritarian	.139	< .001		-.13
Neglectful	.111	.036	.142	

Note. Upper diagonal contains correlations, lower diagonal contains *p* values.

The intercorrelations among the Internet Parenting Style Instrument items and subscales are listed in Table 5. Communication and stop chatting had a medium-size correlation, all other intercorrelations were large. The average bivariate correlation was .50.

Table 5

*Subscale Intercorrelations of the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (*N = *129)*

	Stop chatting	Supervision	Rules	Comm.	Support
Stop website	.42	.53	.58	.53	.56
Stop chatting		.45	.51	.33	.43
Supervision			.58	.55	.70
Rules				.57	.62
Communication					.73

Note. All correlations statistically significant at $p < .001$.

Relationship of Sex and Age of Child with Internet Hours for School and Entertainment

As reported their parent, male and female children did not statistically significantly differ on the number of Internet hours they reported their child spending for school-related activities, $t(127) = 1.35$, $p = .178$, or entertainment $t(127) = 0.02$, $p = .984$.

As detailed in Table 6, child's age was not statistically significantly correlated with number of school-related Internet hours, but was significantly correlated with number of entertainment Internet hours; as age increased, so did the number of entertainment Internet hours. Internet hours for school and entertainment were statistically significantly correlated, the more one used the Internet for one purpose, the more they tended to use it for the other purpose.

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Age of Child and Internet Hours for School and Entertainment

	Age of child	Internet hours: School	Internet hours: Entertainment
Age of child		.14	.27
Internet hours: School	.111		.23
Internet hours: Entertainment	.002	.009	

Note. Upper diagonal contains correlations, lower diagonal contains *p* values.

Relationships Between Parent and Child Characteristics

As detailed in Table 7, the average age of child for female parent respondents was statistically significantly older than the children of male respondents. Sex of parent was not related to their own age or number of hours of their child's school-related or entertainment Internet hours.

Table 7

Relationships Between Parent and Child Characteristics

	Parent's gender						
	Male (n = 64)		Female (n = 65)				
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(127)	*p*	*d*
Parent age	35.0	5.9	35.4	7.7	0.36	.721	.06
Child age	7.9	2.2	9.3	2.3	3.45	.001	.61
Internet hours							
School	5.8	5.2	6.2	5.8	0.43	.666	.08
Entertainment	8.1	6.7	7.3	4.8	0.80	.423	.14

Research Question 1: Canonical Correlation

Canonical correlation was utilized to answer research question 1. To reiterate,

RQ1: What are the number and nature of multivariate canonical dimensions of a set of traditional parenting style scales and key demographic predictors, with a set of Internet parenting style scales and time per week a child spends on the Internet?

Null hypothesis 1 ($H_0$1): There are no statistically significant dimensions.

Alternative hypothesis 1 (H_a1): There is at least one statistically significant dimension.

Table 8, Canonical Correlation Coefficients for Two Statistically Significant Roots, provides a presentation of the results. Root 1 indicates participants who had low authoritative and low indulgent scores tended to not stop unsuitable websites and tended to have low scores on supervision, rules, support, and communication. Inversely, those who had high authoritative and high indulgent scores tended to stop unsuitable websites and tended to have high scores on supervision, rules, support, and communication. Root 2 indicates participants who had low neglectful scores, lower levels of education, were older, whose child was older, and whose child spent more entertainment Internet hours, tended to not stop chatting and to have low scores on rules and supervision. Inversely, those who had high neglectful scores, higher levels of education, were younger, whose child was younger, and whose child spent less entertainment Internet hours, tended to stop chatting and to have high scores on rules and supervision.

Table 8

Canonical Correlation Coefficients for Two Statistically Significant Roots

Variate	Standardized Coefficient		Canonical Loading		Cross Loading	
IPS and Internet Usage	Root 1	Root 2	Root 1	Root 2	Root 1	Root 2
Stop website	.150	.389	**-.480**	.039	**-.377**	.025
Stop chatting	.204	-.196	-.267	**-.374**	-.209	**-.244**
Supervision	-.266	-.706	**-.694**	**-.559**	**-.545**	**-.365**
Rules	-.257	-.288	**-.688**	**-.305**	**-.540**	-.199
Communication	-.750	.895	**-.940**	.236	**-.738**	.154
Support	-.069	-.321	**-.773**	-.234	**-.607**	-.153
Hrs school	.122	.057	.084	.147	.066	.096
Hrs entertainment	-.029	.290	.121	**.464**	.095	**.303**
PS and Demographics						
Indulgent	-.366	.373	**-.761**	.108	**-.597**	.071
Authoritative	-.625	-.344	**-.863**	-.072	**-.677**	-.047
Authoritarian	.037	.042	-.396	.172	-.303	.112
Neglectful	-.082	-.196	.016	**-.473**	.013	**-.309**
Sex of parent	-.166	-.191	-.229	.178	-.180	.116
Sex of child	.168	-.128	.208	.150	.163	.098
Parent education	.265	-.517	.298	**-.630**	.234	**-.411**
Household income	-.022	.147	-.095	.112	-.075	.073
Age of parent	-.086	.221	.119	**.568**	.094	**.370**
Age of child	.228	.557	.235	**.755**	.185	**.493**

Research Question 2: ANCOVAs

Preliminary analysis of the correlation of the covariate (age of child) with each of the dependent variables indicated a negative relationship with all dependent variables and statistically significant for the parenting style neglectful subscale and the Internet parenting style subscales of supervision, rules, support, and the stop chatting item (see Table 9). As children aged in the sample's range from 6-13 years old, parents tended to have lower neglectful, supervision, rules, support, and stop chatting scores. Because age of child was correlated with several of the dependent variables, it was included in all ANCOVA models to allow for consistent comparison of models.

Table 9

*Bivariate Correlations of Age of Child With Dependent Variables (*N = *129)*

	Age of child	
Dependent	*r*	*p*
Parenting style		
Indulgent	-.121	.173
Authoritative	-.078	.380
Authoritarian	-.015	.862
Neglectful	**-.340**	< .001
Internet parenting style		
Website	-.123	.164
Chatting	**-.379**	< .001
Supervision	**-.385**	< .001
Rules	**-.331**	< .001
Communication	-.086	.332
Support	**-.281**	.001

RQ2: While controlling for sex and age of the child, to what extent do mothers and fathers differ on each of the four traditional parenting style subscales-Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and each of the five Internet parenting style subscales-Supervision, Stopping Internet Usage, Internet Usage Rules, Communication, and Support identified by Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, and Rodrigo (2013)?

The results of the 10 ANCOVA analyses are presented in Table 10 and Table 11. As expected from the previously reported bivariate correlations, the age of child covariate was statistically significant in five of the models—neglectful, stop chatting, supervision, rules, and support—and approached significance in the stop unsuitable website model. The sex of parent and child interaction was not statistically significant in any of the 10 models. Sex of child was not statistically significant in any of the 10 models, but approached significance in the authoritarian model in which parents with a male child

had a higher authoritarian adjusted score (*EMM* = 3.88) than parents with a female child (*EMM* = 3.66). Sex of parent was statistically significant in four models—stop website, supervision, rules, and communication—and approached significance in three other models—indulgent, authoritarian, and support. Each of these models are more specifically discussed below.

Table 10

*Means and Estimated Marginal Means of Dependent Variables by Sex of Parent and Sex of Child (*N = *129)*

	Sex of parent							
	Male (*n* = 64)			Female (*n* = 65)				
	Sex of child			Sex of child			Total child	
Dependent	Male (*n* = 45)	Female (*n* = 19)	Total (*n* = 64)	Male (*n* = 34)	Female (*n* = 31)	Total (*n* = 65)	Male (*n* = 79)	Female (*n* = 50)
Parenting style								
Indulgent	3.76 (3.72)	3.60 (3.62)	3.72 (3.67)	3.89 (3.91)	3.81 (3.85)	3.86 (3.88)	3.82 (3.82)	3.73 (3.73)
Authoritative	4.03 (4.00)	3.81 (3.82)	3.96 (3.91)	4.09 (4.11)	4.05 (4.07)	4.07 (4.09)	4.06 (4.05)	3.96 (3.95)
Authoritarian	3.72 (3.71)	3.60 (3.61)	3.69 (3.66)	4.04 (4.05)	3.70 (3.71)	3.88 (3.88)	3.86 (3.88)	3.66 (3.66)
Neglectful	2.90 (2.76)	2.29 (2.35)	2.72 (2.56)	2.40 (2.46)	2.39 (2.48)	2.40 (2.47)	2.69 (2.61)	2.35 (2.42)
Internet parenting style								
Stop website	3.93 (3.84)	3.79 (3.83)	3.89 (3.84)	4.26 (4.30)	4.06 (4.13)	4.17 (4.22)	4.08 (4.07)	3.96 (3.98)
Stop chatting	3.64 (3.39)	3.42 (3.54)	3.58 (3.46)	3.74 (3.84)	3.35 (3.54)	3.55 (3.69)	3.68 (3.61)	3.38 (3.54)
Supervision	3.66 (3.49)	3.25 (3.33)	3.54 (3.41)	3.73 (3.80)	3.57 (3.69)	3.65 (3.74)	3.69 (3.64)	3.45 (3.51)
Rules	3.80 (3.63)	3.53 (3.60)	3.72 (3.62)	4.08 (4.15)	3.67 (3.79)	3.88 (3.97)	3.92 (3.89)	3.62 (3.70)
Communication	3.96 (3.92)	3.60 (3.62)	3.85 (3.77)	4.20 (4.21)	4.07 (4.10)	4.14 (4.16)	4.06 (4.07)	3.89 (3.86)
Support	3.73 (3.60)	3.51 (3.60)	3.67 (3.59)	3.86 (3.92)	3.68 (3.77)	3.77 (3.84)	3.79 (3.76)	3.61 (3.67)

Note. Estimated marginal mean, adjusted for age of child, are in parenthesis.

Table 11

*ANCOVA Models Summary of Main Effects and Interaction Significance and Effect Size (*N = *129)*

	Age of child		Sex of parent		Sex of child		Sex of parent * sex of child	
Dependent	*p*	η_p^2	*p*	η_p^2	*p*	η_p^2	*p*	η_p^2
Parenting style								
Indulgent	.109	.021	***.058***	.029	.461	.004	.895	< .001
Authoritative	.359	.007	.148	.017	.405	.006	.568	.003
Authoritarian	.693	.001	***.090***	.023	***.084***	.024	.351	.007
Neglectful	**.002**	.072	.607	.002	.249	.011	.190	.014
Internet parenting style								
Stop website	***.066***	.027	**.041**	.033	.611	.002	.657	.002
Stop chatting	**< .001**	.151	.280	.009	.727	.001	.269	.010
Supervision	**< .001**	.160	**.011**	.051	.306	.008	.827	< .001
Rules	**< .001**	.131	**.017**	.045	.192	.014	.253	.011
Communication	.203	.013	**.003**	.070	.114	.020	.452	.005
Support	**.001**	.090	***.071***	.026	.526	.003	.687	.001

Note. η_p^2 is partial eta squared.

As shown in Figure 1, female parents stopped child's use of unsuitable websites (*EMM* = 4.22) statistically significantly more often than male parents (*EMM* = 3.84), $F(1, 124) = 4.27$, $p = .041$, $\eta_p^2 = .033$.

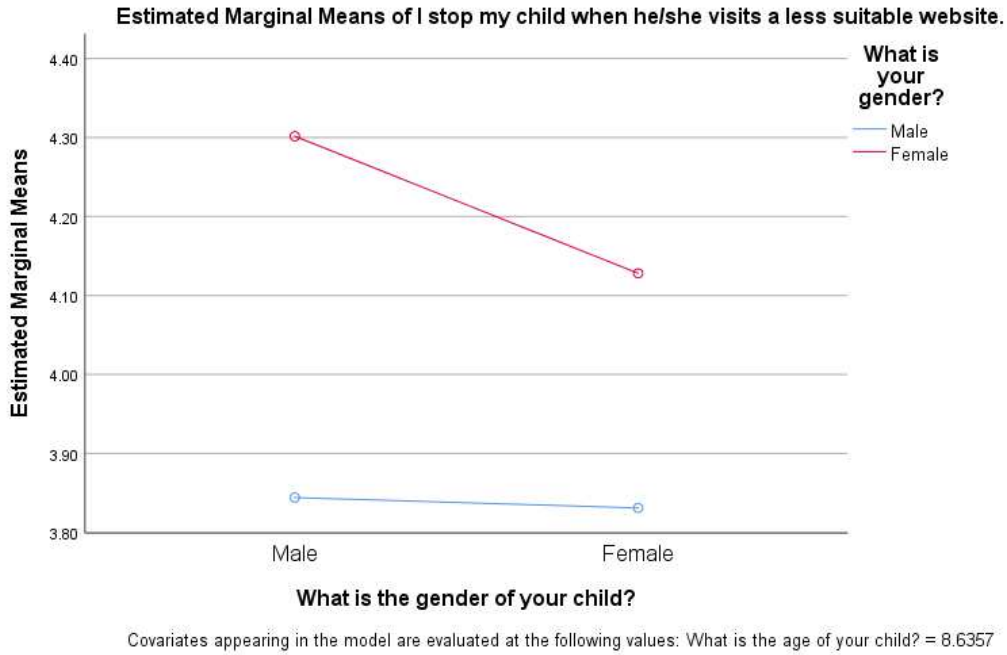

Figure 1. Sex of Parent and Stopping Unsuitable Internet Websites

As presented in Figure 2, female parents Internet Parenting Style (IPS) supervision scores (*EMM* = 3.74) were statistically significantly higher than male parents (*EMM* = 3.41), $F(1, 124) = 6.67$, $p = .011$, $\eta_p^2 = .051$.

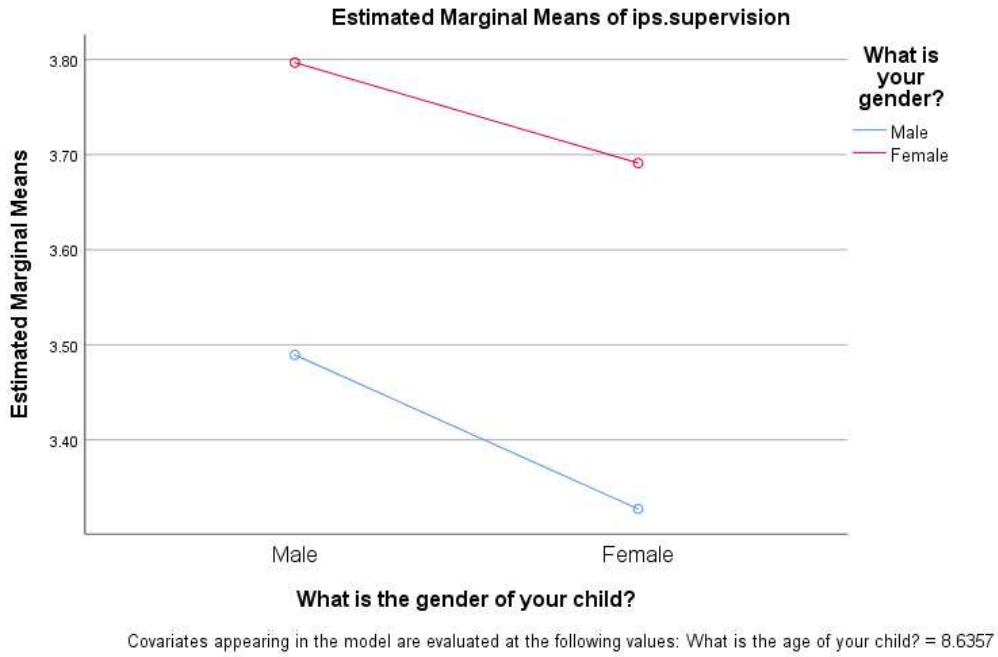

Figure 2. Sex of Parent and Internet Parenting Style (IPS) Supervision

As displayed in Figure 3, female parents Internet Parenting Style (IPS) rules scores (*EMM* = 3.97) were statistically significantly higher than male parents (*EMM* = 3.62), $F(1, 124) = 5.81$, $p = .017$, $\eta_p^2 = .045$.

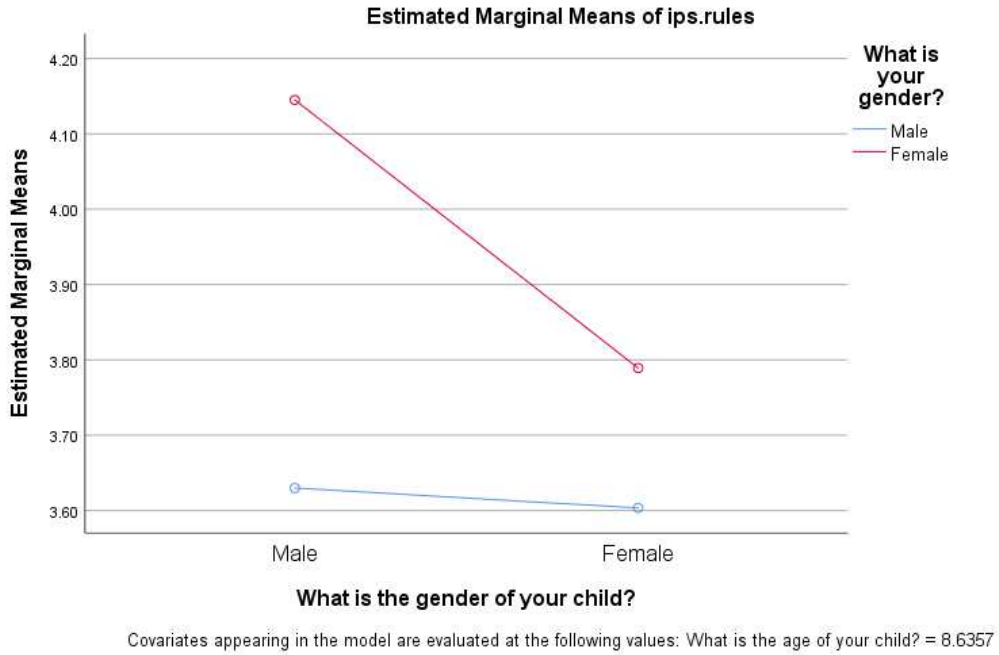

Figure 3. Sex of Parent and Internet Parenting Style (IPS) Rules

As shown in Figure 4, female parents Internet Parenting Style (IPS) communication scores (*EMM* = 4.16) were statistically significantly higher than male parents (*EMM* = 3.77), $F(1, 124) = 9.36$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .070$.

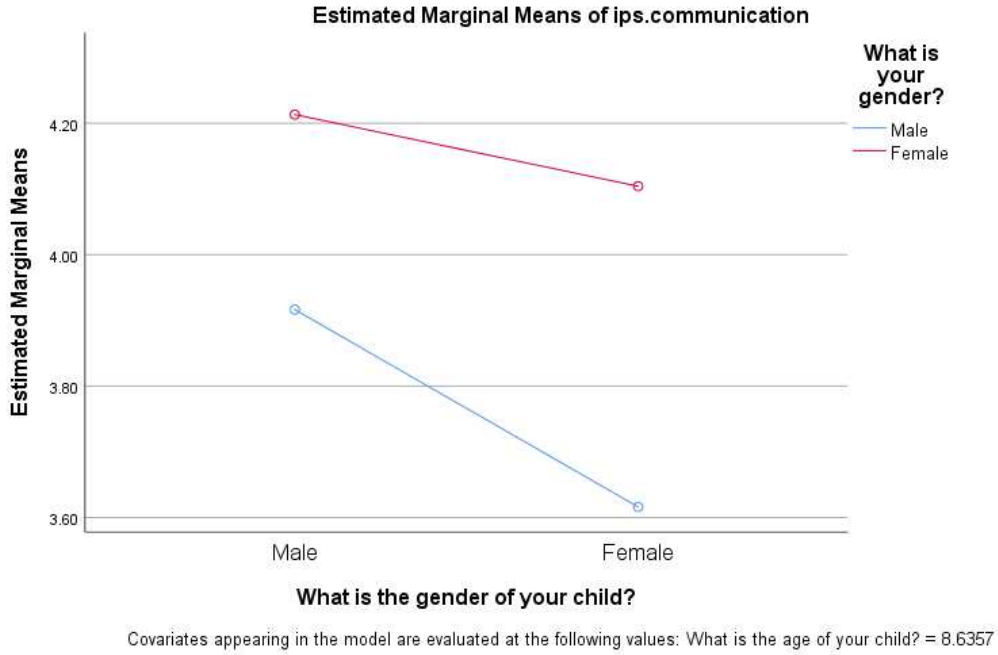

Figure 4. Sex of Parent and Internet Parenting Style (IPS) Communication

As presented in Figure 5, female parents Internet Parenting Style (IPS) support scores (*EMM* = 3.84) approached being statistically significantly higher than male parents (*EMM* = 3.59), $F(1, 124) = 3.31$, $p = .071$, $\eta_p^2 = .026$.

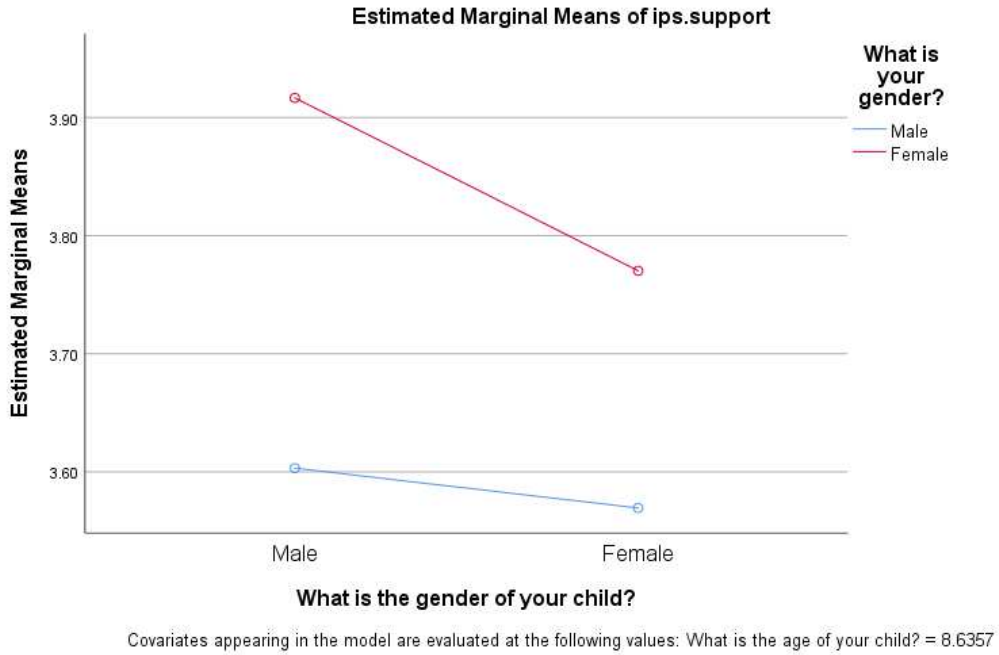

Figure 5. Sex of Parent and Internet Parenting Style (IPS) Support

As displayed in Figure 6, female parents Parenting Style (PS) indulgent scores (*EMM* = 3.88) approached being statistically significantly higher than male parents (*EMM* = 3.67), $F(1, 124) = 3.65$, $p = .058$, $\eta_p^2 = .029$.

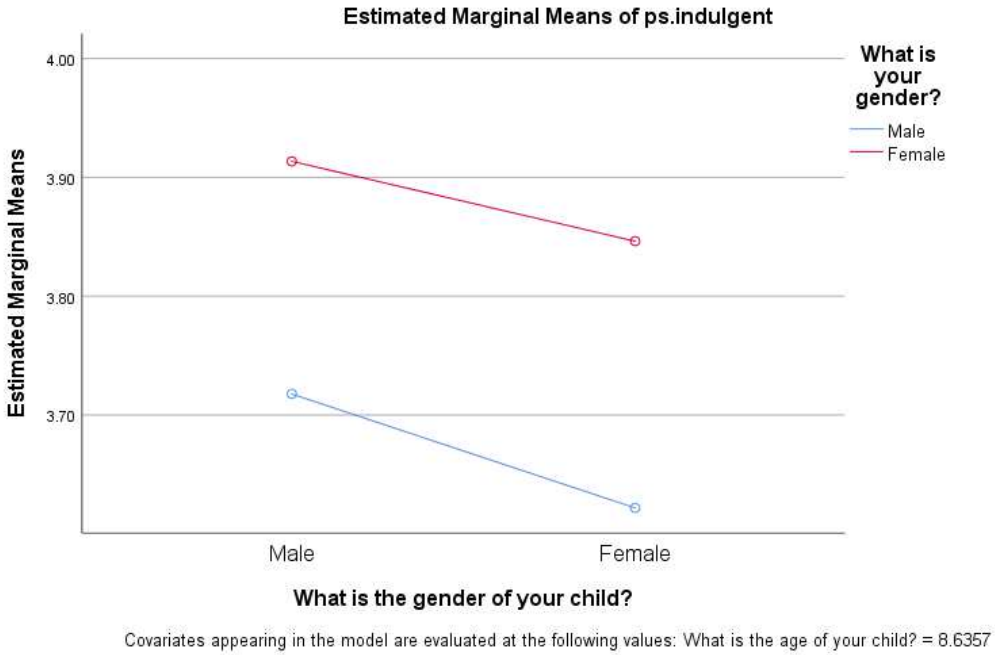

Figure 6. Sex of Parent and Parenting Style (PS) Indulgent

As shown in Figure 7, female parents Parenting Style (PS) authoritarian scores (*EMM* = 3.88) approached being statistically significantly higher than male parents (*EMM* = 3.66), $F(1, 124) = 2.92$, $p = .090$, $\eta_p^2 = .023$, and parents of male children (*EMM* = 3.88) were slightly more authoritarian than parents of female children (*EMM* = 3.66), though the difference was not quite statistically significant, $F(1, 124) = 3.04$, $p = .084$, $\eta_p^2 = .024$.

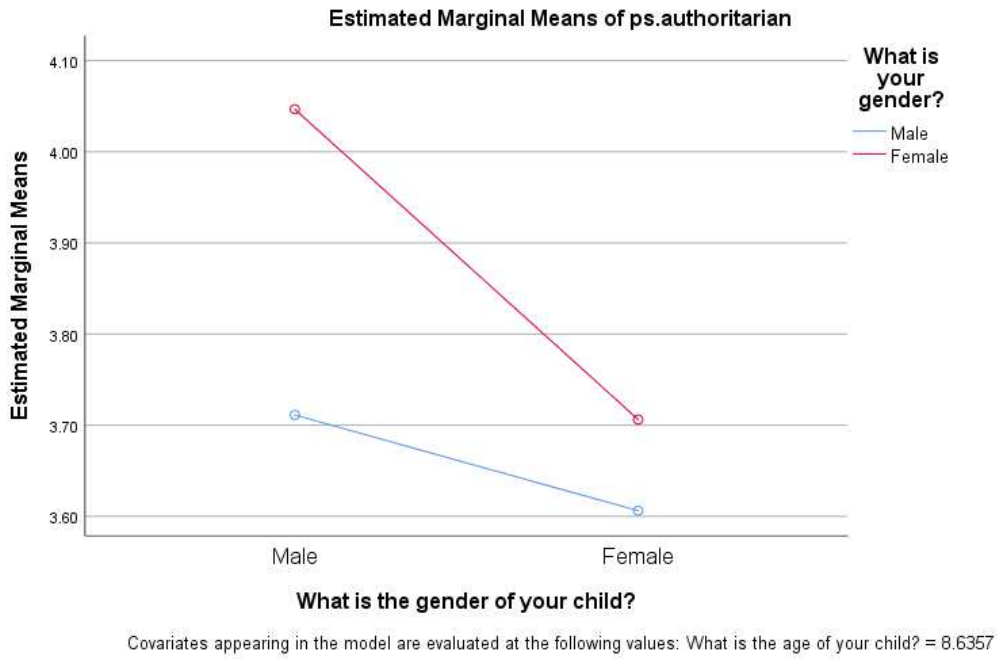

Figure 7. Sex of Parent and Child and Parenting Style (PS) Authoritarian

As presented in Figure 8, although not statistically significant, $F(1, 124) = 1.74$, $p = .190$, $\eta_p^2 = .014$, the interaction effect of sex of parent and sex of child on Parenting Style (PS) neglectful is worth noting for focus in future research. As shown in the figure, while controlling for age of child, female parents had relatively equal neglectful scores for male (*EMM* = 2.46) and female (*EMM* = 2.48) children, but male parents were much more neglectful of a male child (*EMM* = 2.76) than a female child (*EMM* = 2.35).

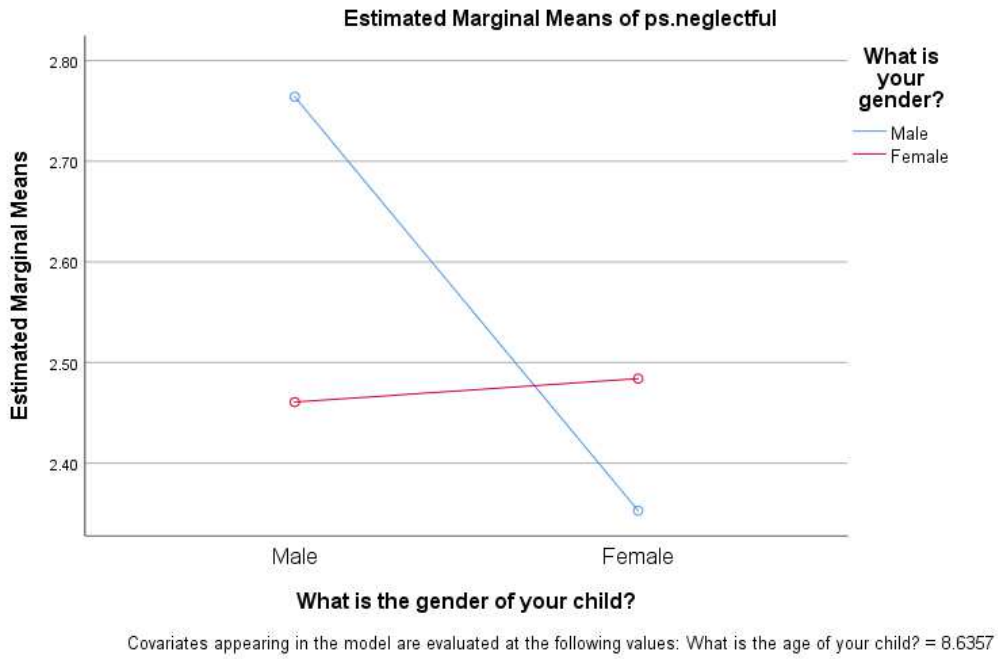

Figure 8. Interaction of Parent and Child Sex and Parenting Style (PS) Neglectful

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences between mothers and fathers of children on traditional and Internet parenting styles. This chapter provided the findings of the research and presented tables and figures of the results of the study. In response to research question 1, the results of canonical correlation revealed parents with

low authoritative and low indulgent scores tended to not stop their children from viewing inappropriate websites. Parents with high authoritative and high indulgent scores tended to stop their children from visiting inappropriate websites.

The result of the ANCOVAs for research question 2 found age of child covariate was statistically significant in five of the models—neglectful, stop chatting, supervision, rules, and support. The 10 models revealed the sex of parent and child interaction was not statistically significant. Sex of parent was statistically significant in four models—stop website, supervision, rules, and communication.

Chapter 5 includes interpretation of the findings presented from Chapter 4 and limitations of the study. Chapter 5 will also provide recommendations for future research and implications for positive social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine and understand how mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old differ on traditional and Internet parenting styles. The key findings of canonical correlation for research question 1 indicated parents with low authoritative and low indulgent scores had a tendency to not stop their children from visiting websites with inappropriate content. Parents with high authoritative and high indulgent scores tended to stop their children from going online to view inappropriate websites.

The key findings of ANCOVAs for research question 2 revealed age of child covariate was statistically significant in five of the models—neglectful, stop chatting, supervision, rules, and support. The results of the 10 models indicated the sex of parent and child interaction was not statistically significant. Sex of parent was statistically significant in four models—stop website, supervision, rules, and communication. Specifically, mothers stopped children from visiting unsuitable websites statistically significantly more often than fathers.

Interpretation of the Findings

Canonical Correlation

The results of this study extend the knowledge of traditional and Internet parenting styles as discussed in the literature review. The result of the first canonical root of parents with low indulgent scores tended to not stop their children from viewing inappropriate online content is confirmed as in the literature. As indicated in the literature

review indulgent parents are less likely to enforce implementation of rules or consistency with consequences (Gold, 2015). Moreover, indulgent parents are undemanding, provide children with freedom to do what they want, and avoid setting rules on activities (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Keil, 2014; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Santrock, 2007).

The result of the first canonical root is a confirmation of the literature review of parents with high authoritative scores have a tendency to stop their children from visiting unsuitable websites and tended to have high scores on supervision, rules, support, and communication (Anderson, 2016; Eastin et al., 2006; Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015; Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011). Authoritative parents display high levels of parental warmth, involvement, and parental control which includes communication of clear guidelines and expectations for children to engage in responsible behavior on the Internet (Freed, 2015; Gold, 2015; Horzum & Bektas, 2014; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Özgür, 2016; Valcke et al., 2010).

An unexpected finding of the study was the result of the first canonical root of parents who had high authoritative and high indulgent scores tended to stop unsuitable websites and tended to have high scores on supervision, rules, support, and communication. This result of the study of similar parenting styles for authoritative parents and indulgent parents is not confirmed in the literature. Specifically, as revealed in the literature review, indulgent parents are less likely to implement rules or display consistency with responses and avoided setting rules for their children's activities (Gold, 2015; Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014). The surprising result of this study is worth further exploration to examine the parenting style similarities associated with high authoritative

and high indulgent scores. This result of the first canonical root is discussed in the upcoming recommendations for future research.

ANCOVAs

The findings of the ANCOVAs reveal that as children aged in the sample's range from 6-13 years old, parents tended to have lower neglectful, supervision, rules, support, and stop chatting scores. These results align with the peer-reviewed research from Chapter 2 that younger children and younger adolescents receive more parental control in regard to the Internet from their parents than older children and older adolescents (Lwin, Stanaland, & Miyazaki, 2008; Mitchell, Finkelhor, & Wolak, 2005; Valkenburg, 2002; Wang et al., 2005).

The results of ANCOVAs align with the literature review that mothers stop children from viewing inappropriate websites more often than fathers. Specifically, mothers engage in more parental control, guidance, support, and parental warmth than fathers (Ihmeideh & Shawareb, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010). Furthermore, mothers apply active mediation and restrictive mediation with their adolescents more than fathers (Padilla-Walker & Coyne, 2011). Lastly, the findings of the ANCOVAs support peer-reviewed research that mothers provided supervision at a higher rate than fathers, and fathers offered children more technological support (Fletcher & Blair, 2014; Valcke et al., 2010; Wong, 2010).

Parenting Styles Typology

The theoretical framework guiding this study was Baumrind's parenting styles typology. In the context of the results, the parenting styles typology provided a lens to

understand the influence of mothers and fathers parenting styles on children's Internet usage. The canonical correlation results indicated parents with an authoritative parenting style tended to stop their children from visiting inappropriate websites. This finding aligned with research on authoritative parenting as an optimal parenting style with an integration of parent-centered and child-centered approach associated with positive outcomes in children (Criss & Larzelere, 2013; Sorkhabi, 2013). This study adds to the body of knowledge of authoritative parenting as an effective parenting style for children and adolescents as they navigate the Internet.

Limitations of the Study

As discussed in Chapter 1, this study had several limitations. First, potential response bias among participants was a possibility as they completed the Parenting Style Scale (Saunders, Hume, Timperio, & Salmon, 2012) and the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013). The findings suggested participants were truthful in their responses. Second, the conceptualization of parental control of activities and time was hours during the week children engaged Internet enabled devices. Selected parents may allow their children to go on the Internet in minute-based time frames such as 30 minutes of screen time. Hours per week might not relate to the parenting experience of some participants. Third, this study centered on a sample of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. The results cannot be generalized to mothers and fathers of adolescents 14 years and older. This was a correlational study and did not explain a causal relationship among variables in the study.

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study add to the body of knowledge on parenting styles, specifically traditional and Internet parenting styles of mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. The results of this study prompt further inquiry and recommendations for future research. The unexpected and surprising result of the first canonical root of parents who had high authoritative and high indulgent scores tended to stop unsuitable websites can be the focus of a future canonical correlation study. Specifically, a future replication study can examine the similarities in Internet parenting styles of parents with high authoritative scores and high indulgent scores using the Internet Parenting Style Instrument (Álvarez, Torres, Rodriguez, Padilla, & Rodrigo, 2013). The findings of a future study would be useful to further confirm or disconfirm the literature on high authoritative and high indulgent traditional and Internet parenting styles of children's usage of the Internet for youth age 6-13 years old.

Further understanding of how mothers and fathers personal and professional experiences with the Internet shapes their traditional and Internet parenting styles would be meaningful. A recommendation for a future quantitative correlational study can focus on the investigation of high involvement or low involvement of parental engagement in social media as a correlation of their traditional or Internet parenting style. A mixed-methods approach would be beneficial to examine parents' level of engagement of social media and explore how their attitudes, beliefs, and values influence their preference of parenting styles on children's Internet usage.

Lastly, although not discussed in this study, a longitudinal study may be useful to further understand parenting styles over a period of time. A longitudinal study can be valuable to understand similarities and differences of traditional and Internet parenting styles among parents who are Millennials and parents who are in Generation Z. Considering both generations of parents are Digital Natives, findings could be used to predict traditional and Internet parenting styles of future generations of Digital Natives mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old.

Implications

This study furthered psychological research on Baumrind's and Maccoby and Martin's theoretical frameworks of parenting styles. The findings can contribute to positive social change in therapy settings. Licensed Clinical Psychologists and other licensed mental health professionals can screen, assess, diagnose, and provide treatment to children and adolescents with psychological symptoms associated from exposure to inappropriate Internet content. For example, Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT) can help young clients in individual therapy to clarify their values and engage in committed action to select future appropriate Internet websites. ACT can also help children and adolescents learn and practice mindfulness and other coping skills when they encounter harmful experiences on the Internet and inform parents of their experiences.

In Family therapy, licensed clinicians can apply Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) to help permissive parents identify patterns of cognitive distortions associated with their avoidance of setting rules for children's Internet usage. The integration of

psychoeducation in family therapy would be useful to improve parent-child communication. Parents and children can learn interpersonal skills and conflict resolution skills to express their thoughts and feelings in regard to time limits and content limits on the Internet.

The results of this research can contribute to positive social change at the educational and community level. Researchers and clinicians can collaborate to develop evidence-based parenting programs for mothers and fathers that offer psychoeducation and effective parenting skills on traditional and Internet parenting styles. Parenting programs based on this study's findings can be applied to identify the strengths of authoritative parenting for children age 6-13 years old as they navigate the Internet. A component of the parenting programs could focus on the prevention of cyberbullying and development of Internet Addiction Disorder among children and adolescents.

The findings can be targeted to develop evidence-based parenting programs for fathers to learn approaches to promote active involvement in their children's Internet usage. Fathers can gain knowledge on the stages of child development and learn how to effectively communicate with their children based on their developmental level. Equally important, guidance can be offered to fathers about authoritative parenting style approaches to engage their daughters and sons about Internet safety.

Conclusion

The findings from this study indicate children were stopped by mothers from visiting unsuitable websites statistically more often than fathers. The results can be applied to educational, community, and therapy settings. The development of evidence-

based parenting programs can be geared towards fathers to improve and promote active parental involvement of authoritative parenting in their child's online activities. The application of the findings in the clinical setting would help parents and children receive psychoeducation and skills training for open family communication about children's usage of the Internet for education and entertainment.

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Appendix A: Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) Research Announcement

Parenting Styles and Children's Usage of the Internet in the Digital Age: (Online Study) The purpose of this study is to examine the differences between mothers and fathers of children on traditional and Internet parenting styles. Eligibility: Mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old. Researcher: Micere S. Oden, M.S.

Appendix B: Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) Online Survey

The online survey on SurveyMonkey with participants recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) includes: (a) This study is being conducted by the researcher, Micere S. Oden, M.S., the primary investigator of the study, (b) Micere S. Oden, M.S. is a doctoral candidate in Clinical Psychology, (c) Walden University is the institution sponsoring the study, (d) The purpose of the study is to examine the differences between mothers and fathers of children age 6-13 years old on traditional and Internet parenting styles, (e) instructions for completing the study, (f) the benefits of participation, (g) an explanation of risks, (h) assurance of confidentiality, and (i) the voluntary nature of the study.

Appendix C: PsycTESTS Permissions: The Parenting Style Scale

The PsycTESTS Permissions states, the Parenting Style Scale test content may be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission.

Appendix D: PsycTESTS Permissions: The Internet Parenting Style Instrument

The PsycTESTS Permissions states, the Internet Parenting Style Instrument test content may be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission.

Appendix E: Demographic Questionnaire

Parent Verification

1. I am a parent of a child age 6-13 years old that uses the Internet
   - Yes
   - No

Demographic Questionnaire

Please complete this demographic questionnaire for the survey. It is important that you respond to each question correctly. Personal information will not be exposed in the results of the study. Data collected from this section includes: (a) gender, (b) highest level of education, (c) annual household income, (d) age, (e) age of the child, (f) gender of the child, (g) amount of time the child spends on the Internet, and (h) devices used by the child when spending time on the Internet. If you have more than one child, only identify the age, gender, and Internet information of the one child selected for your survey response.

2. What is your gender?
   - Male
   - Female

3. What is your highest level of education?
   - Less than High School
   - High School Diploma
   - Associates Degree
   - Bachelor's Degree
   - Master's Degree
   - Doctoral Degree

4. What is your annual United States household income in U.S. dollars?
   - 0 to 15,000
   - 15,000 to 24,999
   - 25,000 to 34,999
   - 35,000 to 49,999
   - 50,000 to 74,999
   - 75,000 to 99,999
   - 100,000 to 149,999
   - 150,000 to 199,999
   - 200,000 and above

5. What is your age? _____

6. What is the age of your child?
- 6 years old
- 7 years old
- 8 years old
- 9 years old
- 10 years old
- 11 years old
- 12 years old
- 13 years old

7. What is the gender of your child?
- Male
- Female

8. How many hours during the week does your child spend on the Internet for classwork or study purposes? _____

9. How many hours during the week does your child spend on the Internet for entertainment purposes? _____

10. What device does your child PRIMARLY use when spending time on the Internet?
- Personal computer or laptop computer
- Tablet
- Cell phone/Smart phone
- Video game consoles