Family Background, Parental Expectations, School Choice and Student Performance*

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Abstract

The aim of the study is to assess the effects of child-centered life orientation on children's achievement levels, self-esteem, and parents' school choice. The second question is related to the effects of the educational level of the mother and the economic status of the family on different child-related outcomes. The study points to the critical and positive influence of child-centered life orientation on higher achievement levels and self-esteem as well as being able to enter public and private selective schools, which admit students through national examinations. Furthermore, the educational level of the mother and the economic status of the home lead to non-overlapping outcomes, the educational level of the mother being related to more child-centered orientations, higher educational expectations for the child, and selective schools; while economic status being related to economic expectations and private non-selective schools.

Keywords: Child-centered life, family background, educational expectations, economic expectations, selective versus non-selective schools

Statement of the Problem

The aim of this research is to assess the influence of a highly supportive family system, which the first author of this research has labeled as "Child-centered life", and the economic status of the family on school choice, the effectiveness levels of children, and their self-esteem. Research has shown that parents, especially mothers are the key to high performance levels of children (Newman, 2000; Bekman, 1998; Coleman, 1998; De Haan, 1998; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996; Bloom et.al., 1985; Shuey et. al., 1964). The question then arises as to whether it is the educational level of the mother or the economic status of the home which leads to a more child-centered life, which then enables the child to go to selective schools and have higher achievement levels and self-esteem. This question is especially important in Turkey because of the low correlations between education and economic status, especially since the 1980s.

Hill (2001), Kağıtçıbaşı (1996) and McLoyd (1990) state that social disadvantage (low education, low income, low employment levels or unemployment) is usually a handicap for developing effective social and parenting skills. Since negative life events and economic hardship have direct adverse impact on parents through

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economic stress, children's developmental outcomes are hindered. According to Schaffer (1996), mothers in socio-economically difficult conditions are more likely to be depressed and irritable, which make it difficult to be available, patient and loving in their interactions with their children. Although ratings indicate that non-deprived mothers are more likely to have good and deprived parents poor parenting skills, still 60% of deprived mothers are able to show good and intermediate mothering (Schaffer, 1996). Walsh (1995, p. 5) indicates that there are some market values which have become dominant over society. These market values include orientations such as 'Happiness is found in having things', 'Get all you can for yourself', 'Get it all as quickly as you can', 'Win at all costs', 'Violence is entertaining', 'Always seek pleasure and avoid boredom'. These are related to the desire of becoming wealthy as soon as possible, at whatever cost. These may be dangerous for adolescents, for they have nothing to do with personal development and achievement motivation. Aligned with this, Hendee (1991) states that adolescents are likely to develop harmful thoughts and/or engage in self-defeating behaviors unless they are under the close and supportive supervision of their parents.

Coleman (1998) and Bloom et. al. (1985) stated that regardless of the economic status of the home, how the child is treated at home makes the real difference on the levels of children's performance. According to Bloom (1964, p. 124), "the home environment has a correlation of .80 with the total score of an entire achievement battery". Similarly, Smart and Smart (1967, p. 71) state that "long-term effects of extreme environments may affect I.Q. to the extent of 1.25 standard deviations on the norms, that is, about 20 points". According to the researchers, middle class families mostly focus on their children's achievement levels, showing high levels of intent for higher achievement. Many researchers (De Haan, 1998; Hendee, 1991; Bloom et. al., 1985) point out that unusual individuals are the result of unusual environments. Bloom et al. (1985, p. 4) conclude, "what any person in the world can learn, almost all persons can learn, if provided with appropriate and current conditions of learning, except for the two to three percent of individuals who have severe physical and/or emotional problems that impair their learning". According to Bloom (1964, 1976, 1985), differences in school achievement are "man-made rather than fixed", and are likely to be related to the educational environment at home in terms of availability of educational materials, the meaning of education for one's personal advancement in society, the educational level of parents, and the value placed on education by parents or significant adults, as well as what is done in schools. In their book *Developing Talent in Young People*, Bloom et. al. (1985) emphasize that talent development reflects the quality and quantity of experience provided by the environment. Although none of the extremely talented individuals in the study were unusual children, they became very unusual in terms of their respective talents due to unusual environments provided by their parents. Solow (2001) also stated that parents are essential to the formula of success. According to Coleman (1998, p. 43) "an educative environment at home is so vital to the welfare of the child that most instances schools do not make up for its absence". Stafford and Bayer (1993) and Turnbull and Turnbull (1990) emphasize that the parental task should be to help establish a sense of cause and effect for their children as early as possible. People achieve a greater sense of control when they perceive that outcomes are contingent upon their own effort. According to Shuey et. al., (1964), children should be shown that they

do many things well and that their parents are proud of them. According to Smart and Smart (1967) children may develop high levels of aspiration as long as their parents make appropriate demands at appropriate times, reward success and hold standards of excellence for them.

According to Turnbull and Turnbull (1990), there are mainly two origins of self-esteem: the positive regard of significant others and history of success and failure. The child whose positive qualities are emphasized more frequently will have high self-esteem, while the child whose weaknesses are emphasized will have lower self-esteem, (Dowling, 2000; Turnbull and Turnbull, 1990; Bee, 1981). According to Branson (2000) and Tunbull and Turnbull (1990) the child needs to experience a reasonable amount of order in his/her environment; and regular responsiveness of significant others in the environment allows the child to develop a feeling that the world is predictable and controllable. According to the social learning paradigm (Thomas et al., 1974), the child sees his/her parents as saying "you will get love/rewards if you behave properly, if you are good". However, supportive parents give the message that the child can count on them whenever s/he needs. Tomiki (1997, in Covington, 2000) also indicates that success oriented college students report their parents employing praise more often in success, and punishment less often in failure in contrast to the failure-avoiding students who report the opposite pattern. Alderman (1999) points that the impact of negative messages is greater on lowering self perception than the role of positive messages are on increasing self-efficacy. Newman et. al. (2000) found that high performers mentioned their mothers as being more supportive more often (92%) than low performers (33%). While 54% of high performers said hard work was necessary for success, this was true for 33% of low performers. Dowling (2000) stated that the most important gift parents could offer their young children is a positive view of themselves. As Coleman (1998, p.22) aptly states, "It is not who the parents are, but what the parents do that is important".

According to Turnbull and Turnbull (1990), children develop their self-concept in accordance with their parents' assumptions for them. If parents assume that the child has total control over his/her behaviors and if they help to create the conditions that facilitate success, the child is unlikely to develop a helpless attitude toward his/her environment (Stafford and Bayer, 1993; Turnbull and Turnbull, 1990). Only when children believe that they are capable of influencing their environment, their failures are followed by increased effort (Sright et. al., 2001; Alderman, 1999; Stafford and Bayer, 1993; Turnbull and Turnbull, 1990; Thomas et al., 1974). However, if children believe that their failures are the result of their lack of ability, they are more likely to lose interest in their tasks. Academic self-concept refers to the student's perceptions about his/her adequacy in school related tasks, and is developed through the impact of grades and feedback from teachers, parents, peers etc., (Bloom, 1976). According to Bloom (1976, p. 95), "academic self-concept is the strongest factor in predicting school achievement and it accounts for about 25 percent of the variation in school achievement after the elementary school period". The question of whether success leads to high self-esteem or high self-esteem that leads to success has been answered by researchers. The process seems to work both ways (Bee, 1981; Bloom, 1976). According to Bloom (1976), high achievement at the end of a series of learning tasks leads to higher positive affect as its consequent, which then becomes the initial affect for the following series.

Kifer (1973), showed the relationship between achievement and academic self-concept. At the end of grade two, the differences between the academic self-concept of the highest and lowest achieving students were minimal. The differences increased at grade four, separating into two very different groups in grade six, and becoming entirely different groups by grade eight. Kifer showed clearly that academic self-concept is influenced by the number of years of schooling due to the effects of consistent feedback over time from different sources, and this was especially the case for extreme achievement groups.

With this frame the following hypotheses were formulated under three headings for this research:

Child-Centered Life

1. There will be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and children's academic performance.
2. There will be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and children's self-esteem.
3. There will be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and the status of school children attend (selective versus non-selective); but there will not be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and the type of school children attend (public versus private).
4. There will be a significant relationship between mothers' educational status and their attitudes towards child-centered life; but there will not be a significant relationship between the economic status of the home and mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life.
5. There will be a significant relationship between mothers' educational expectations for their children and their attitudes towards child-centered life.

Educational and Economic Status

6. There will be a significant relationship between the economic status of home and the type of school (public versus private) children attend; but there will not be a significant relationship between the economic status of home and the status of school (selective versus non-selective) children attend.
7. There will be a significant relationship between the educational status of mothers and the status of the school (selective versus non-selective) children attend; but there will not be a significant relationship between the educational status of mothers and the type of school (public versus private) children attend.
8. There will be a significant relation between mothers' educational status and their educational expectations for their children; but there will not be a

significant relationship between the educational status of mothers and their economic expectations for their children.

9. There will not be a significant relation between the economic status of home and mothers' educational expectations for their children; however there will be a significant relation between the economic status of home and mothers' economic expectations for their children.

Mothers' Expectations

10. There will not be a significant relationship between the economic expectations of mothers and the status of school (selective versus non-selective) children attend; but there will be a significant relationship between the economic expectations of mothers for their children and the type of school (public versus private) children attend.
11. There will be a significant relationship between the educational expectations of mothers for their children and the status of school (selective versus non-selective) children attend; but there will not be a significant relationship between the educational expectations of mothers for their children and the type of school (public versus private) children attend.

Methodology

Subjects of the Study

The subjects of this study were juniors and seniors coming from four kinds of schools, as well as their mothers. In this study, two kinds of differentiations were made regarding the schools from which the samples were drawn; namely the status of school (selective versus non-selective) and the type of school (public versus private). The students in the selective public or private schools had taken one of the two centralized national examinations, one for public and another for private selective schools at the end of their final year of primary school, at the age of 11. Students were then placed into these schools according to the match between the student's score and the ranking of the school based on the mean scores of entering students. Thus, those with the highest scores were placed into the most desired schools, which had the highest mean of entering students. The students in this study who were juniors and seniors at public and private selective schools had taken their national examinations in 1993, 1994 or 1995 at the end of their primary education. The total number of public and private schools in Turkey was 2312, 2357, and 2432 in 1993, 1994, and 1995 respectively. The students in the top 7 selective public schools in Turkey and the top 5 in Istanbul out of a total of 1662 selective public schools in 1993, 1635 in 1994, and 1615 in 1995, as well as the top 5 selective private schools in Turkey out of a total of 72 selective private schools in 1993, 77 in 1994, and 83 in 1995 comprised the prospective sample of the study.

To select the public and private selective and non-selective schools in Istanbul, a list of all schools in Istanbul was obtained from the Ministry of National Education

(*1995-1996 Guide for Schools, 1996*[3]), which listed public and private schools under two separate headings. Selective public schools were chosen on the bases of *1995 Statistical Information on Central Examinations*[4], and *Statistical Data of Central Examinations for the Year 2000*[5]. Selective private schools were chosen from the *1993, 1994, 1995 Private Schools Examination Booklets*[6] of the Association of Private Schools, which listed all of the selective private schools in Turkey. Selective schools were chosen purposefully from these two documents, while the non-selective schools were chosen randomly from the list in the *1995-1996 Guide for Schools*. Of the 7 highest ranking selective public schools in Turkey (5 highest ranking in Istanbul) on the national examination (Anatolian Lycées Examination), four were contacted; while of the five highest ranking selective private schools on the national examination in Turkey all were contacted. The administrators of two selective public and three selective private schools showed an interest in being part of the study. Of the non-selective public schools which required no central or school examination for entry, 6 were randomly chosen from the list of all schools in Istanbul. The administrators of 3 of these 6 schools agreed to be part of the study. Of the non-selective private schools which required no examinations for entry, 6 were randomly selected. The administrators of 3 of these schools also agreed to be part of the study. The final samples thus came from a total of 11 schools over 2300 total number of lycées in Turkey, including 2 highest ranking public, 3 highest ranking private, as well as 3 non-selective public and 3 non-selective private schools. There were 150 students in the selective public and private schools, and 150 in the non-selective ones that comprised the total sample of students in the study. Table 1 shows the ranking of the selective schools in the public and private categories, as well the ranking of the highest and lowest entering students in each school in 1994 and 1995.

[3] *1995-1996 Okullar Rehberi*. Province Directorate of National Education of the Governor's Office of İstanbul, 1996 (İstanbul Valiliği İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü, 1996).

[4] *1995 Merkezi Sistem Sınavları İstatistik Bilgileri*. Students of selective public schools took a national examination through which they were placed according to their scores, the best being placed into the top ranking selective public schools.

[5] *2000 Merkezi Sistem Sınavları Sayısal Veriler.* Students of selective private schools took a separate national examination for selective private schools and were placed according to their scores, the best being placed into the top ranking selective private schools.

[6] *1993, 1994, 1995 Özel Okullar Sınav Kılavuzları*. Özel Okullar Derneği, Ataşehir, İstanbul.

Table 1. Nationwide rankings of selective schools and students[7]

	Ranking of School	Number Admitted 1994	Ranking of the Highest Scoring Student 1994	Ranking of the Lowest Scoring Student 1994	Top Percentile of the Highest and Lowest Scoring Students 1994	
Public	**Galatasaray Lycée 1995** 2 (Turkey) 2 (Istanbul)	144	4	815	0.001	0.31
	Kadıköy Anatolian Lycée 1995 7 (Turkey) 5 (Istanbul)	360	50	2432	0.02	0.93
Private	**Üsküdar American Academy 1994** 3 (Turkey) 3 (Istanbul)	Male 54 Female 54	114 1	350 277	1.30 0.01	4.03 3.19
	Koç Lycée 1994 5 (Turkey) 5 (Istanbul)	Male 65 Female 65	81 78	1005 1105	0.93 0.97	11.59 12.74
	Austrian Lycée 1994 4 (Turkey) 4 (Istanbul)	Male 60 Female 58	474 211	1207 1285	5.42 2.62	13.92 14.81

Table 2 shows the distribution of the sample in the selective and non-selective private and public schools. Thus, the study is a field survey on a two-by-two design of two types of schools, namely public and private, falling into the categories of selective and non-selective.

[7] The number of selective public schools was 1635 while the number of selective private schools was 77 in 1994. In addition, 262,018 took the public schools exam and 17,342 took the private schools exam in 1994.

Table 2. Distribution of the sample in the selective, non-selective and public and private school students

	Selective	n	%	Non-Selective	n	%	Total
Public	Galatasaray Lycée	65	86.7	Gültepe Lycée	12	16	**150**
	Kadıköy Anatolian Lycée	10	13.3	Kâğıthane Lycée	23	30.7	
				Mecidiyeköy Lycée	40	53.3	
Private	Üsküdar American Academy	5	6.7	Avrupa College	9		**150**
	Austrian Lycée	45	33.3	Batı College	34		
	Koç Lycée	25	60	Mavi Haliç Lycée	32		
	Total	**150**		**Total**	**150**		

Variables and Their Operationalization

There are 9 variables in this study, their status of being dependent or independent changing according to the demands of each hypothesis. These variables are:

Educational status (EDSAT) of the parents was divided into six levels as illiterate, elementary, junior high or senior high school graduates, and as having higher or graduate level education.

Economic status (ECSAT) of the home was divided into six monthly income levels[8] as below poverty level (approximately the equivalent of 108 US dollars or less per month), low economic status (between 109-193 US dollars per month), lower-middle economic status (between 194-386 US dollars), middle economic status (between 387-580 US dollars), upper-middle economic status (between 581-773 US dollars), and upper economic status (approximately 774 US dollars or more).

Type of school (TYPE) was divided into two categories as private schools, requiring tuition between approximately 2500-4000 US dollars yearly; and public schools requiring no tuition, regardless of being selective or non-selective.

[8] The six levels of income are according to the 2001-2002 standard of living indices.

Status of school (SELEC) was divided into two categories as selective schools requiring national examinations for admittance and placement through the Anatolian Lycées Examination for public schools, and the Private Lycées Examination for private schools; and non-selective schools requiring no examinations, admitting their students by their primary school diplomas and addresses.

Academic performance (ACHVM) was defined as the high school cumulative grade point average of juniors and seniors out of 5.00 possible points.

Mothers' educational) (EDEXPECT) and economic (ECEXPEC) expectations for their children was measured by a scale of two dimensions (educational and economic expectations of mothers for their children), developed by the first author of the research prior to the study. The initial instrument included 34 items arranged randomly, related to 17 educational and 17 economic expectations. The responses were obtained on a 4 point Likert scale, 1 showing total disagreement, 2 disagreement, 3 agreement and 4 total agreement. To determine the over-time reliability of the instrument, it was given twice within an interval of 5-7 days to 30 mothers who were staff members at Boğaziçi University, Istanbul in 2001, with an average age of 35. The over-time reliability coefficient of .82 was obtained, which was significant at the $p<0.001$ level. For the internal consistency of the Educational and Economic Expectations Scale (EEES), the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated. The values of .87 and .89 for the total instrument in the two administrations are statistically significant at the $p<.001$ level. Alphas of the two subscales were .89 and .94 for the two administrations of the Economic Expectations and .78 and .84 for the Educational Expectations sub-scales, significant at the $p<.001$ level, showing that the instrument is reliable and internally consistent. Table 3 shows the values.

Table 3. Values of Cronbach's alpha for the first form of educational and economic expectations scale (EEES; 34 items)

	Total Scale	**Educational Expectations**	**Economic Expectations**
First Administration	.8713	.7826	.8913
Second Administration	.8857	.8372	.9395

For the construct validity of the instrument, a factor analysis of Principal Component Analysis with a Rotation Method Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was done, yielding 10 factors after the first and 9 after the

second administrations of the instrument. However, some factors were composed of only one item, which were eliminated from the instrument. For those items which were placed into more than one factor, the factor under which the items had a higher loading value was accepted as the factor for the item. Those items which were under the same factor in both administrations were directly accepted under that factor. There were 10 such items for Economic Expectations sub-scale of the instrument and 6 for Educational Expectations. The 10 items which fell under the economic expectations factor in both administrations comprised the Economic Expectations part of the scale. Three items had higher loadings for the Educational Expectations factor and were placed under it with the 6 items that originally fell into this factor in the two administrations of the instrument. Two other items were in factor 3 in both administrations. The rest of the items in this factor were deleted because they were not stable, and fell into different factors in the two administrations. However, all items that were with the 2 items of factor 3 (which were deleted because of instability) were related to Educational Expectations. Thus, these 2 items were placed under the Educational Expectations factor. Another item was in Factor 8 under both administrations. Since this factor was deleted, this item related to university attendance like item 22 was placed under the Educational Expectations part of the instrument. Thus, the final instrument was comprised of 10 items related to Economic Expectations and 12 to Educational Expectations of mothers for their children.

A second pilot study was carried out on the shortened form of the instrument, which included 22 items. The second sample used for the reliability and internal consistency study was different from that of the first study, and included 30 other staff members in different faculties of Boğaziçi University in 2001, having a mean age of 33. The test-retest reliability after a 7-day interval was .84, significant at $p<.001$ level. The Cronbach's alpha for the internal consistency of the revised instrument of 22 items were .78 and .81 in the two administrations, significant at the $p<.001$ level. The alphas of the Educational Expectations sub-scale were .70 in the first administration of the revised form of the instrument and .80 in the second administration, while the alphas of the Economic Expectations sub-scale were .86 in the first and .85 in the second administrations of the revised form of the instrument. All of these results showed that the revised form of the instrument was reliable and internally consistent. Table 4 shows the alpha values of the total instrument as well as its sub-scales.

Table 4. Values of Cronbach's Alpha for the second form of educational and economic expectations scale (EEES; 22 items)

	Total Scale	Educational Expectations	Economic Expectations
First Administration	.7844	.6998	.8554
Second Administration	.8052	.8006	.8468

Mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life (CHILDCEN) is a concept coined by the first author of this study referring to mothers' willingness to organize their lives around the needs of their children aligned with their high expectations for their children's intellectual and personal development as well as mothers' willingness to intentionally devote time and effort to promote and realize these expectations. This variable was measured by the Child-Centered Life Inventory (CCLI) developed by the first author of the study. The first form of the inventory had 85 statements, having four alternative response possibilities recorded on a 4 point Likert scale, 1 indicating total disagreement, and 4 total agreement. Higher scores indicated a more child-centered life. The statements were developed along three dimensions: Confidence in the child, Ways of conflict resolution, and Care for the child's interest areas with an effort to enhance and improve them. The statements were placed in a random order and were administered in the pilot study to 30 mothers who were staff members at Boğaziçi University, Istanbul, having a mean age of 35. To test the over-time reliability of the instrument, it was administered twice in 5-7 days intervals. The Pearson Product Moment correlation of the two administrations was .91 for the first form of the instrument, significant at $p<.001$. For the internal consistency of the first form, the alpha Cronbach coefficients of .93 and .92 were obtained in the two administrations, which were significant at $p<.001$, showing that the CCLI is reliable and internally consistent.

For the validity study, a factor analysis of Principal Component Analysis with a Rotation Method Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was carried out twice to test the construct validity of the instrument after both administrations. The first administration of the CCLI yielded 18 factors, while the second showed 19. After the factor analysis, the instrument was collapsed to 3 factors, namely, 1. Negative attitudes towards the child (all made up of negative items), 2. Confidence in the child's future as well as being open to the child's interests, and 3. Trust in the child and parental efforts to support the child. These 3 factors corresponded in different patterns to the 3 initially included in the first form of the instrument as Confidence in the child, Ways of conflict resolution, and Care in the child's interest areas with an effort to improve them. Factor analysis revealed a factor (Factor 1) related to negative attitudes towards the child, which was not part of the conceptualization of the original

instrument. In addition, Confidence in the child was divided into two factors, one set of items being related to Confidence in the child's future (Factor 2), and the other to Trust in the child and parental efforts to support the child (Factor 3). The items from the original conceptualization of Conflict resolution dimension completely fell into Factor 3, in addition to some items from the Confidence in the child dimension. This factor was named Trust in the child and parental efforts to support the child. Care in the child's interests were subsumed under Factor 2, now named Confidence in the child's future and being open to the child's interests.

To form the new factors, some criteria were used. The items which fell under the same factor in both analyses were directly included in the final instrument to represent that factor. Factor 1 included all of the negative statements, except for one item which was related to the mother's initiative to be active in areas of interest for the child. This item was deleted from the instrument because it was the only item in that factor that was positive, and conceptually unrelated to the factor. The second criterion was the elimination of single items under a particular factor. If an item appeared under more than one factor, it was placed under the factor for which it had the highest loading. After this procedure, some factors were left with one or no items, in which case that factor was deleted from the instrument. When a factor was left with one item, the factor was removed from the instrument and the item was placed under the factor to which it was conceptually related (there was one such item). When an item was placed into two different factors in the two administrations of the test, it was placed under the factor for which it had the highest loading. Thus the 85 items of the first instrument were reduced to 36 items; 19 items falling into Factor 1 (Negative attitudes towards the child), 9 items into Factor 2 (Confidence in the child's future and being open to the child's interests), and 8 items into Factor 3 (trust in the child and parental efforts to support the child).

For the concurrent validity study, the CCLI was correlated with the Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Mother Form, (PARQ), which was developed by Rohner, Saavedra and Granum in 1978. This instrument was translated into Turkish by Polat and Sunar in 1988, and was revised by Erkman and Anjel in 1993, (Anjel, 1993). There are 56 items under 4 sub-scales of Warmth (20 items), Aggressiveness (16 items), Neglect (12 items), and Rejection (8 items), the items being rated on a 4 point Likert scale. A high point on the scale indicates rejection and/or abuse of the child by the mother. The Cronbach alphas of the original scale were .74 for the 'Warmth', and .67 for the 'Rejection' sub-scales, (Anjel, 1993). No validity study was done for the original PARQ-Mother form; however it was assumed to be valid, since the correlations between PARQ-Adult form and the Acceptance, Hostile Detachment and Rejection scales of Schaffer's (1996) Child Report of Parent Inventory ranged between .43 and .90, and the correlations between PARQ-Child form and the Physical Punishment scale of Brofenbrenner's Behavior Questionnaire (in Siegelman, 1965) ranged from .55 to .83 (Anjel, 1993).

Table 5. Concurrent validity of the first form of child-centered life inventory with PARQ/Mother form (CCLI; 85 items)

	Highest Possible Score	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	r of CCLI and PARQ
CCLI First Administration	340	238.31	25.81	26	-.676
CCLI Second Administration	340	245.17	23.65	29	-.648
PARQ	224	70.93	12.27	29	1.00

The reliability of the Turkish form of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Mother Form, (PARQ) involved 229 mothers from different ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .90 was found for the total instrument. It was administered twice in 2-3 week intervals for test-retest reliability, found to be .46. Since this value is quite low, another reliability study was recommended. The factor analysis revealed one factor for the Turkish form, which refers to 'Rejection'. The concurrent validity study of the Turkish form was done by comparing the scores with the Cohesion sub-scale of Family Environment Questionnaire and the Democracy sub-scale of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument. Those mothers who scored higher on PARQ (indicating rejection and/or abuse) scored considerably low on Cohesion and Democracy sub-scales of the above stated instruments. The mothers also scored higher on the Trait Anxiety Inventory. Low educated mothers scored higher on PARQ than higher educated ones, (Anjel, 1993). Table 5 shows the correlations of the first form of CCLI inclusive of 85 items with PARQ. Negative correlations were expected between the two instruments, since high scores on the CCLI indicate child-centeredness, while high scores on PARQ indicate rejection of the child. The correlations are significant at $p<.01$ level.

Another set of correlations with PARQ were obtained for the revised form of CCLI, composed of 36 items. Table 6 shows these correlations.

Table 6. Concurrent validity of the first form of child-centered life inventory with PARQ/Mother form (CCLI; 36 items)

	Highest Possible Score	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	r of CCLI and PARQ
CCLI First Administration	144	101.6	9.9	26	-.629
CCLI Second Administration	144	107.8	8.8	29	-.618
PARQ	224	72.9	10.3	29	1.00

As can be seen, these correlations are also significant at $p<.01$ level. From these values, it seems that the CCLI is a reliable and valid instrument.

Self-esteem (SELFEST) of students was measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, developed by Piers and Harris in 1964, which was adapted for the Turkish sample by Çataklı and Öner in 1985, (Öner, 1997; Çataklı, 1985). The scale has 80 items and is composed of 6 sub-scales. These sub-scales assess self-concept related to behavior, intelligence and academic achievement, physical appearance, anxiety, popularity, and happiness. Scores range between 0-80, higher scores indicating better self-concept. The test-retest reliabilities for the Turkish sample were .72 to .91 for the elementary and .79 to .98 for the secondary school samples over 1-7 day intervals. The Kuder-Richardson reliability of .87 and biserial correlations of item-total scores of .09 to .50 indicate internal consistency. The construct validity of the scale was determined by significant negative correlations between self-concept and test anxiety scores (r= -.43 to -.56).

Construction of the Model for the Study

The main analysis of the study was done through AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) program, used for causal modeling. The initial model includes all the expected relationships in the 11 hypotheses of the study.

Based on the 11 hypotheses, 19 relationships evolved among the 9 variables of the study. One-way arrows were used to indicate the direction of expected relationships. 'Educational Status of Mother' and 'Economic Status of Home' were the two exogenous variables in the model; 'Selectivity of School', 'Type of School', 'Self-esteem of the Child', and 'Achievement Level of the Child' were drawn as endogenous variables; while 'Child-Centered Life', 'Educational Expectations of Mother', and 'Economic Expectations of Mother' were both exogenous and endogenous, depending on the hypotheses. Each of the endogenous variables was attached to 6 unnamed error variables. After obtaining the standardized estimates and the amount of variance

accounted by each variable, the non-significant relationships were eliminated, resulting in 12 significant relationships.

Results

Explanation of the Model and Statistical Results of the Analyses

Figure 1 represents the standardized estimates (beta values) of the relationships in the model and the amount of variance accounted by each variable. The values on the arrows refer to standardized estimates of each relationship, while the bold values on top of the variable names refer to the amount of variance accounted by each variable in the model.

In accordance with the general tendency of path diagrams, the non-significant relationships are eliminated in AMOS. Thus, Figure 2 displays the remaining 12 significant relationships and the resulting estimate values.

In this section each of the hypotheses will be explained in accordance with the results in the model. Although analyses of all hypotheses were done together, in this section each hypothesis will be presented separately, using the values for the initial and the significant relations models.

Hypothesis 1 states that there will be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and children's academic performance. Table 7 shows the values for this hypothesis in the original and revised models.

Table 7. Relationship between child-centered life and achievement

	b values (unstandardized)	**ß values (standardized)**	**Standard error**	**Z values**	**Amount of Variance**	**α**
Original Model	.029	.53	.003	10.905	.28	.00000
Significant Relations Model	.029	.53	.003	10.811	.28	.00000

Table 7 shows that child-centered life very significantly affects the child's academic performance. This means that the more the mother arranges a child-centered life at home, the more likely it is that the child will have higher academic performance.

Hypothesis 2 states that there will be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and the children's self-esteem. Table 8 shows the values for this hypothesis in the original and revised models.

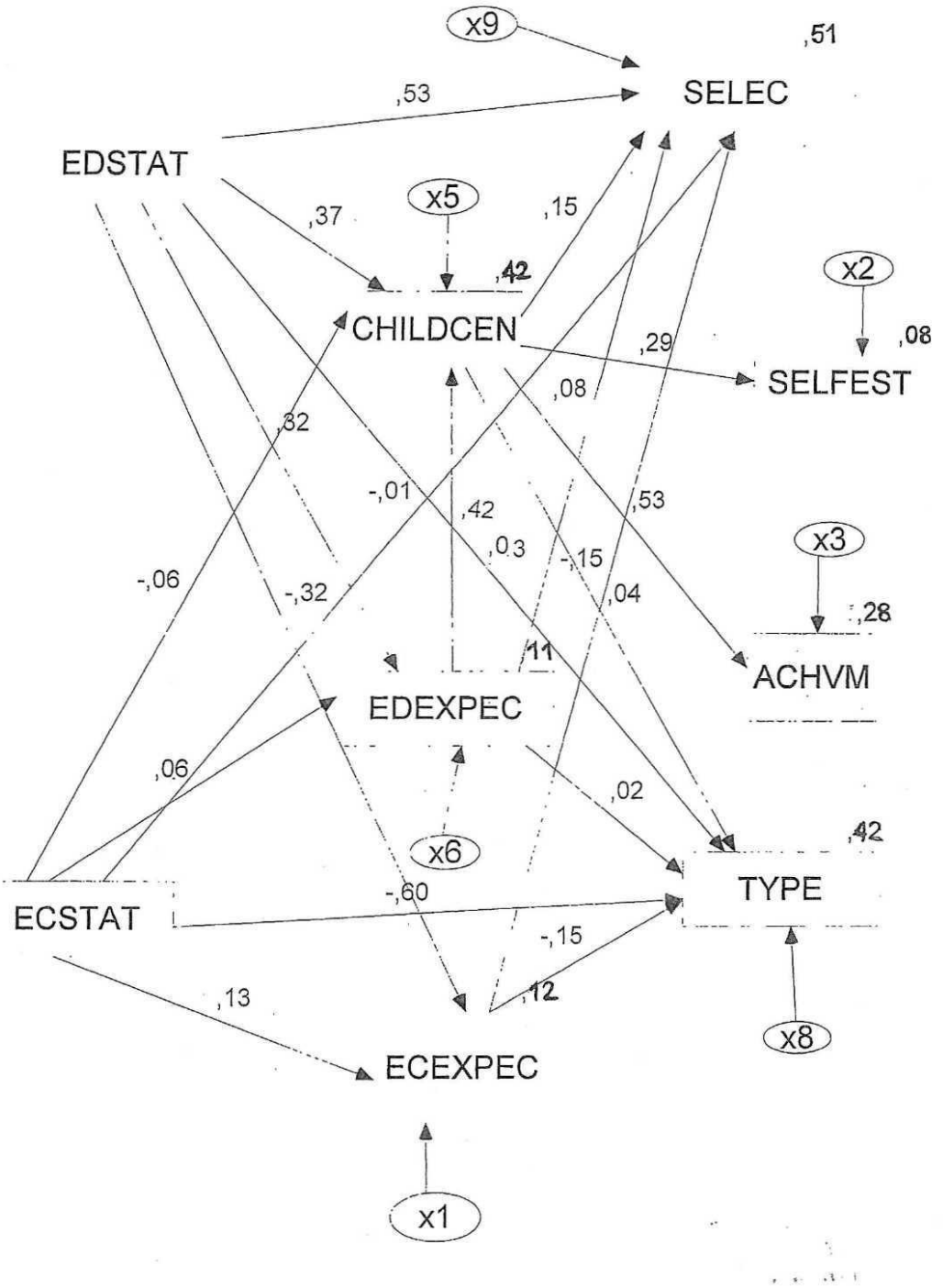

Figure 1. Estimate values in the original model

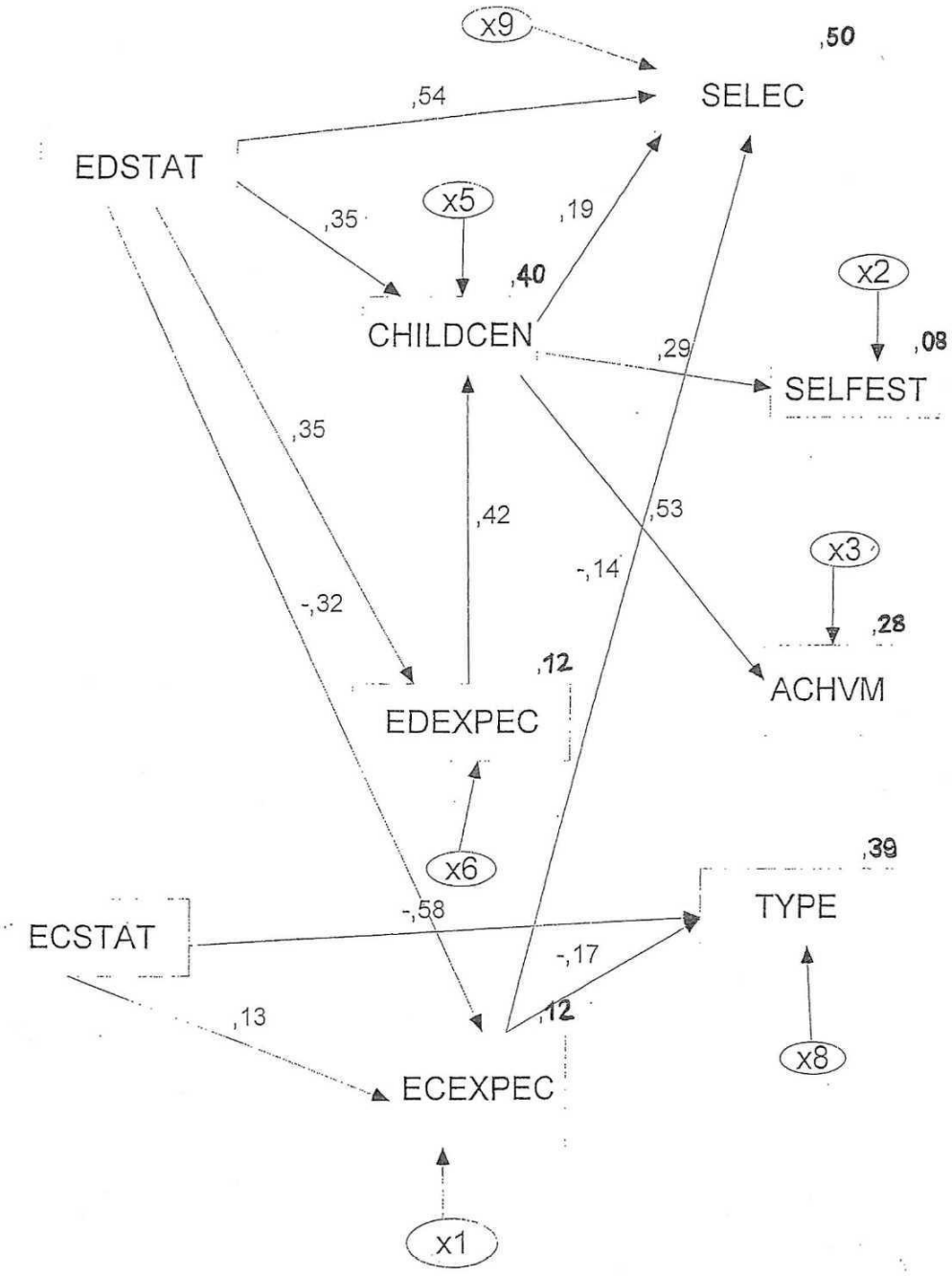

Figure 2. Analysis results of the simplified model

Table 8. Relationship between child-centered life and self-esteem

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.197	.29	.038	5.247	.08	.000001
Significant Relations Model	.197	.29	.038	5.201	.08	.000001

The results show a highly significant relationship between child-centered life and children's self-esteem. The more there is child-centered life, the more it is likely that the child will have high self esteem.

Hypothesis 3 indicates that there will be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and the status of the school children attend (selective versus non-selective); but there will not be a significant relationship between mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life and the type of school children attend (public versus private). Table 9 shows the values for this hypothesis. Table 9 shows that there is a significant relationship between child-centered life organized by the mother and the status of the school the child attends. This means that the more child-centered the life of the mother is, the more likely it is that the child will go to a selective school among the top five in Turkey, regardless of it being public or private.

On the other hand, there is no relationship between how child-centered the mother's life is and the type of school the child attends. Whether the child attends private expensive schools or tuition-free public schools has no significant relation to how child-centered the life of the mother is. However public or private, whether the school is highly selective in admitting the top students taking national exams or accepts students without exams is highly related to leading a child-centered life. As Tables 9 and 10 show, the hypothesis is strongly confirmed.

Table 9. Relationship between child-centered life and status of school (selective/non-selective)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.005	.15	.002	2.752	.02	.01
Significant Relations Model	.007	.19	.002	3.985	.04	.001

Table 10. relationship between child-centered life and type of school (public/private)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.002	-.15	.002	.779	.02	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

Hypothesis 4 states that there will be a significant relationship between mothers' educational status and their attitudes towards child-centered life; but there will not be a significant relationship between the economic status of the home and mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life. The hypothesis states that the more educated the mother is, the more likely it is that she will lead a child-centered life, organizing her life around the needs of the child aligned with her high expectations for the child. On the other hand, the hypothesis also states that there will not be a relationship between the economic status of the home environment and mothers' attitudes towards child-centered life. Tables 11 and 12 show the analyses.

The findings indicate that the stated relationships hold. In fact there is a highly significant relationship between the educational level of the mother and her organization of a child-centered life. There is no relationship, on the other hand, between the economic status of the home and the mother's involvement in a child-centered life. This means that the mother's organization of a child-centered life style is not dependent upon how rich or poor the home environment is. It depends more on the educational level of

the mother. Regardless of economic status, it is the educational level of the mother which provides the child with a child-centered orientation. In a country like Turkey where socio-economic status indices break down to educational and economic status separately, where how educated a person is has little to do with how much they earn, this outcome is highly significant. As an example, compare the child-centered life orientation of a mother who has lower middle class income and is educated (perhaps she is a secondary school teacher) with a mother who is an elementary school graduate in a home environment that is very rich, but the mother prefers to leave the children with maids or other help or nannies who hardly speak Turkish.

Table 11. Relationship between educational status of mother and child-centered life

	b values (unstandardized)	**ß values (standardized)**	**Standard error**	**Z values**	**Amount of Variance**	**α**
Original Model	1.224	.37	.153	8.007	.14	.000000
Significant Relations Model	1.129	.35	.155	7.295	.12	.000000

Table 12. Relationship between economic status of home and child-centered life

	b values (unstandardized)	**ß values (standardized)**	**Standard error**	**Z values**	**Amount of Variance**	**α**
Original Model	-0.000	-.06	0.000	-1.330	0.004	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

Hypothesis 5 states that there will be a significant relationship between mothers' educational expectations for their children and their attitudes towards child-centered life. It is expected that the more the mother has educational expectations for her child, the more she is likely to have a child-centered life. Table 13 shows these analyses in the model.

Table 13. Relationship between mothers' educational expectations and child-centered life

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	1.407	.42	.158	8.927	.18	.000000
Significant Relations Model	1.397	.42	.158	7.858	.18	.000000

Table 13 indicates that there is a highly significant relationship between mothers' educational expectations for their children and their likelihood of having a child-centered life. In fact, the mother's educational expectations for her child seem to affect the level of child-centeredness. It seems that the higher the hopes of the mother for her child's education, the more she devotes time and effort for the actualization of these educational aims.

Hypothesis 6 states that there will be a significant relationship between the economic status of the home and type of school children attend (public versus private); but there will not be a significant relationship between the economic status of home and the status of school children attend (selective versus non-selective). In this hypothesis, it is expected that the higher the economic status of the home, the more likely it is that the child will go to a private school. However, no relationship is expected between the economic status of the home and the selectivity of school. In other words, being able to attend the top schools in Turkey, which accept their students through national examinations will not have a relation to how rich or poor the family is. Tables 14 and 15 show these analyses in the model.

Table 14. Relationship between economic status of the home and type of school (public/private)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.000	-.60	.000	-13.432	.36	.000000
Significant Relations Model	.000	-.58	.000	-12.763	.34	.000000

Table 15. Relationship between economic status of the home and status of school (selective/non-selective)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	-.000	-.01	.000	-.183	.0001	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

The first part of the hypothesis indicates that the higher the economic status of the home, the more likely it is that the child will go to a private school. This is confirmed with a highly significant relationship (the negative values are due to the coding of public schools as 1, and private schools as 0). The second part of the hypothesis, which states that the economic status of the home is not related to whether the child is able to attend the top selective schools through national examinations, is also confirmed. Ergo, it is not the rich child who is able to attend selective schools. The rich child is only guaranteed private education.

Hypothesis 7 states that there will be a significant relationship between the educational status of mothers and the status of the school (selective versus non-selective) their children attend; but there will not be a significant relationship between the educational status of mothers and the type of school (public versus private) their children attend. It is expected that the more educated the mother is, the more it is likely that her child will go to a selective school through national examinations. However no relationship is expected between the educational level of the mother and the type of school (public or private) her child attends. Tables 16 and 17 show the results of the analyses for this hypothesis in the model.

Table 16 shows that there is a highly significant relationship between mothers' educational status and the status of the school the child attends. This means that the higher the educational level of the mother, the more likely it is that the child is able to attend a selective school through highly competitive national examinations. The second part of the hypothesis states that the educational level of the mother is not related to whether the child attends a public or private school. The educational status of the mother only influences the level of performance required for competitive national exams in order to attend selective schools, but is not related to whether the child attends a private or a public school. Children of educated mothers attend the top selective schools in the nation because the mother makes great efforts of time and energy to help the child focus academically; it does not matter whether the school is public or private.

Table 16. Relationship between mothers' educational status and the status of the school (selective/non-selective)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.061	.53	.006	10.805	.28	.000000
Significant Relations Model	.062	.54	.006	10.992	.29	.000000

Table 17. Relationship between mothers' educational status and the type of school (public/private)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.004	.03	.006	.588	.0009	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

Hypothesis 8 states that there will be a significant relationship between mothers' educational status and their educational expectations; but there will not be a significant relationship between mothers' educational status and their economic expectations for their children. Tables 18 and 19 show the analyses done through the model.

Table 18 shows that the first part of the hypothesis is confirmed showing a highly significant relationship. The results indicate that the higher the educational level of the mother, the more likely it is that she will have higher educational expectations for her child. However, the table also points to a significant negative relationship between the educational status of mothers and their economic expectations for their children. Mothers who have lower educational levels seem to have higher economical expectations for their children. This may be because the mother who is educationally inadequate either wants the child to lead a life which has higher economic standards than her own, or sees her child as her future savior.

Table 18. Relationship between mothers' educational status and educational expectations

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.312	.32	.053	5.877	.10	.000001
Significant Relations Model	.342	.35	.053	6.436	.12	.000001

Table 19. Relationship between mothers' educational status and economic expectations

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	-0.371	-.32	0.063	-5.994	.10	.000001
Significant Relations Model	-0.371	-.32	0.063	-5.884	.10	.000001

Table 20 shows the descriptive statistics of the means and standard deviations of years of schooling and scores on the Economic Expectations sub-scale. The table indeed points to the fact that those mothers, who have lower educational levels, have higher economical expectations for their children. On the other hand, mothers who have higher educational levels expect higher educational rather than economic outcomes for their children.

Table 20. Means and standard deviations for number of years of schooling and scores on the economic and educational expectations sub-scales

	Private Selective Schools	**Public Selective Schools**	**Private Non-Selective Schools**	**Public Non-Selective Schools**
Educational Status (years of schooling)	m=16.35 sd=2.67	15.62 sd: 3.51	13.30 sd: 3.72	8.20 sd: 3.40
Ranking	1	2	3	4
Economic Expectations	20.95 sd: 5.11	18.95 sd: 4.04	23.77 sd: 5.09	22.63 sd: 4.66
Possible Points: 40				
Ranking	3	4	1	2
Educational Expectations	42.52 sd: 3.38	42.66 sd: 3.81	40.37 sd: 4.37	38.80 sd: 5.00
Possible Points: 48				
Ranking	2	1	3	4

Hypothesis 9 states that there will not be a significant relationship between the economic status of the home and the educational expectations of mothers for their children; however, there will be a significant relation between the economic status of the home and mothers' economic expectations for their children. Table 21 and 22 show these analyses.

Table 21. Relationship between economic status of home and educational and economic expectations

	b values (unstandardized)	**ß values (standardized)**	**Standard error**	**Z values**	**Amount of Variance**	**α**
Original Model	.000	.06	.000	1.118	.004	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 22. Relationship between economic status of home and economic expectations

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	.000	.13	.000	2.441	.02	.01
Significant Relations Model	.000	.13	.000	2.441	.02	.01

The results show that the hypothesis is confirmed. There is no significant relationship between the economic status of the home and mothers' educational expectations for their children. On the other hand there is a significant relationship between the economic status of the home and mothers' economic expectations for their children. The conclusion that the higher the economic status of the home, the more likely it is that the mother will have higher economic expectations for her child is valid. However, economic status of the home does not necessitate higher levels of educational expectations for the child. When the home environment is rich, the mother hopes for a similar life style for her child, but does not necessarily have higher educational hopes for the child.

Hypothesis 10 states that there will not be a significant relationship between economic expectations of mothers for their children and the status of school children attend (selective versus non-selective); however there will be a significant relation between economic expectations of mothers for their children and the type of school children attend (public versus private). What is expected is that mothers who hold high economic expectations for their children are more likely to send their children to private schools. But no significant relationship is expected between the economic expectations of the mother and the selectivity of the school the child attends. It was thought that the economic hopes of the mother would not be related to whether the child is able to attend the best schools in the nation because selection for these schools depends on other variables shown in the other hypotheses. Tables 23 and 24 show the analyses for this hypothesis.

The first part of the hypothesis positing no relationship between the economic expectations of the mother and the selectivity of the school the child attends is more than confirmed because rather than no relationship, a significant negative relationship is observed. The table indicates that the higher the economic expectations of the mother, the more likely it is that the child will go to a non-selective school (since selective schools were coded as 1, and non-selective schools as 0). The second part of the hypothesis is also confirmed. The higher the economic expectations of the mother for her child, the more likely it is that the child will attend a private school (public schools were coded as 1, and private schools as 0). The conclusion, then, can be that the higher

Table 23. Relationship between economic expectations and status of school (selective/non-selective)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	-.015	.04	.004	-3.420	.0016	.001
Significant Relations Model	-.014	-.14	.004	-3.209	.0196	.001

Table 24. Relationship between economic expectations and type of school (public/private)

	b values (unstandardized)	ß values (standardized)	Standard error	Z values	Amount of Variance	α
Original Model	-.015	-.15	.005	-3.112	.0225	.001
Significant Relations Model	-.017	-.17	.005	-3.808	.0289	.001

the economic expectations of the mother for her child, the more likely it is that the child will go to a non-selective private school. The results of the analyses revealed a clearer picture than the hypothesis foreshadowed.

Hypothesis 11 states that there will be a significant relationship between the educational expectations of the mother and the status of the school children attend (selective versus non-selective); however there will not be a significant relationship between the educational expectations of mothers and the type of school children attend (public versus private). Tables 25 and 26 show these analyses.

Table 25 shows that the first part of the hypothesis is not validated, which means that the children of mothers who have high educational expectations for their children do not necessarily attend selective schools, although descriptive analyses of educational expectation scores of the mothers of the four groups (mothers of children who attend public and private selective, and public and private non-selective schools) show a trend in that direction. Mothers of selective public school children scored 42.66 on the Educational Expectations sub-scale, with a standard deviation of 3.81; of selective private schools 42.52 with a standard deviation of 3.38; of non-selective private schools scored 40.37 with a standard deviation of 4.37; and of non-selective

public schools 38.8 with a standard deviation of 5, out of 48 possible points on the Educational Expectations sub-scale, (see Table 20). As is observed, the scores are rather similar in the four groups. Therefore, Turkish mothers generally have high educational expectations for their children; and it does not seem to matter whether their children attend selective or non-selective schools.

Table 25. Relationship between educational expectations and status of school (selective/non-selective)

	b values (unstandardized)	**ß values (standardized)**	**Standard error**	**Z values**	**Amount of Variance**	**α**
Original Model	.009	.08	.006	1.642	.0064	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 26. Relationship educational expectations and type of school (public/private)

	b values (unstandardized)	**ß values (standardized)**	**Standard error**	**Z values**	**Amount of Variance**	**α**
Original Model	.003	.02	.006	.458	.0004	N.S.
Significant Relations Model	-	-	-	-	-	-

The second part of the hypothesis however is validated. There is indeed no significant relationship between mothers' educational expectations for their children and the type of school children attend. Whether children attend public or private schools, mothers seem to have high educational expectations for them.

Therefore, except for the first part of the 11th hypothesis, all of the stated relationships are found to be valid in this study.

Discussion and Conclusions

It is readily observable that children differ in terms of their levels of effectiveness related to their academic work, how they feel about themselves, as well as in other domains of their lives. The major source of these differences, research shows, is

the family environment and the amount of support the child gets in this environment. From these findings, the first author of this research, Güzver Yıldıran, developed the concept of 'Child-centered Life' in 2002. Yıldıran states, "The concept indicates a supportive environment where the life style of the family is based on the perception and actualization of the needs of the child aligned with family values". The mother is in a pivotal position in the organization of the supportive environment, according to Yıldıran. She states, "Child-centered life is related to the mother's willingness to organize her life around the needs of her child, aligned with her high expectations for her child's intellectual and personal development. The mother who intentionally organizes a child-centered life is aware that her hopes for her child would only be actualized by devoting time, effort and energy to promote and realize these expectations". Arranging the home environment according to the child's needs, continuous support for the child, and positive constructive problem solving strategies available to the child, as well as unconditional love and trust for the child are thought to be the most critical factor, which would likely lead to desired outcomes for the child. Therefore, child-centered life was the major issue in this research. The first 3 hypotheses were related to the effects of child-centered life. All of the results showed the significant effects of child-centered life on higher levels of achievement and self-esteem, as well as being able to attend selective schools, regardless of their being public or private. Being able to enter selective schools through highly competitive national examinations requires a great amount of energy, time and effort on the part of the mother to help the child be focused on wanting to learn, to excel in learning and to have high self-esteem about his/her capabilities. To organize a child-centered life in order to motivate the child to excel and to be happy about the outcomes of his/her efforts is no easy travail. Organizing a child-centered life requires from the mother the trust she must have that when failure occurs, it is transitory. An optimistic orientation must permeate the child's environment that s/he is special, can be successful, and feel good about the outcomes of his/her efforts, in spite of occasional mishaps.

The second question was related to "Who is capable of organizing and living a child-centered life?" Hypotheses 4 and 5 answered this question. It was the better educated mother, not the more economically advantaged, who was able to organize a child-centered life. It was also the mother who had higher educational expectations for her child that environmentally engineered a child-centered life. In the end it seems that mothers who have higher educational hopes and trust for their children are more willing to devote their time, effort, and energy, and therefore, place the child to a focal position.

The set of hypotheses 6 through 9 was related to the educational level of the mother and the economic status of the home as critical independent variables leading to different outcomes in terms of maternal expectations for the child as well as the choice of school. It was indeed the educational status of the mother that enabled the child to enter selective schools, regardless of being public or private (Hypothesis 7). The economic status of the home had nothing to do with children being able to enter selective schools; it only meant that they would go to private institutions (Hypothesis 6). Mothers who had higher educational levels had higher educational expectations for their children but not higher economic expectations. Au contraire, it was mothers who had lower educational levels that had higher economic expectations for their children (Hypothesis 8). Perhaps the mother who had lower educational levels hoped her child

would overcome the situation by being rich in the future. Similarly, the economic status of the home had nothing to do with mothers' educational expectations. The economic status of the home only affected economic expectations for the child (Hypothesis 9).

The final group of hypotheses was related to the effects of mothers' expectations on choice of school. Economic expectations were related to whether the child goes to private or public schools, but were not related to whether the child was able to enter selective schools through national examinations (Hypothesis 10). This finding also explains why there is such an increase in non-selective and a decrease in selective private schools in the last three decades. The increment in private schools ensures that when children of affluent parents are not able to pass central exams, they can go to non-selective private schools.

The final hypothesis indicated that educational expectations would be related to whether the child goes to a selective school, but would bear no relation to whether the child attends private or public schools. The results showed that Turkish mothers had high educational expectations for their children with little variance, regardless of whether the child attended public or private schools, or had selective or non-selective education. This is aligned with research that shows education to be the expected vehicle of upward mobility since the foundation of the Republic.

The results strongly indicate that child-centered life is a critical dynamic for the developmental outcomes of children. Moreover, it is shown that educational and economic status lead to different outcomes; educational status being associated with more child-centered life, higher educational expectations, and attendance to selective schools that admit children through highly competitive examinations, while economic status leads to economic expectations and private education. These are important differences in a country where socio-economic status used as an index in the western world divides into two unrelated dimensions; educational status leading to different outcomes from economic status. It seems that in Turkey, it is not the economic but the educational status of the mother that leads to beneficiary outcomes for the child.

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Aile Altyapısı, Ebeveyn Beklentileri, Okul Seçimi ve Öğrenci Performansı

Özet

Çalışmanın amacı, çocuk odaklı yaşam tarzının çocuğun akademik başarısı, kendilik algısı ve ailesinin okul seçimi üzerindeki etkilerini değerlendirmektir. Önemli diğer bir soru, annenin eğitim düzeyi ve ailenin ekonomik durumunun çocukla ilgili diğer değişkenler üzerindeki etkileridir. Araştırma, çocuk odaklı yaşam tarzının yüksek erişi düzeyleri ve kendilik anlayışı üzerinde olduğu kadar, öğrencilerini merkezi sınavlarla seçen devlet veya özel okullara girebilme yetisi üzerinde de ayrıştırıcı ve olumlu bir etkisi olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Çalışma ayrıca, annenin eğitim düzeyi ve ailenin ekonomik durumunun farklı ve örtüşüklük göstermeyen sonuçlar doğurduğunu; annenin eğitim düzeyinin çocuk odaklı yaşam tarzı, çocuk için daha yüksek eğitim beklentileri ve devlet veya özel ayırımı yapmadan seçkin okullarda eğitime yol açtığını; ekonomik durumun ise daha yüksek ekonomik beklentiler ve seçkin olmayan özel okullara gitme olasılığı ile yüksek bir ilişki gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: Çocuk odaklı yaşam, aile yapısı, eğitim beklentileri, ekonomik beklentiler, seçkin ve seçkin olmayan okullar